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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA SAN DIEGO

SAN DIEGO STATE UNIVERSITY

Common and rare genomic risk factors for PTSD with implications for autoimmune disorders and inflammatory biomarkers

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy

in

Public Health (Epidemiology)

by

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2022

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Co-chair

Chair

University of California San Diego

San Diego State University

2022

Dedication

This is dedicated to my friends and family.

Epigraph

All generalizations are dangerous, even this one.

Alexandre Dumas

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- **Maihofer A** (Speaker), Choi K, Coleman J, Daskalakis N, Polimanti R, Ratanatharathorn A, Stein M, Ressler K, Koenen K, Nievergelt C. (2021). PTSD Genome-Wide Association Study Identifies Novel Loci and Informs Future Expectations. *Biological Psychiatry*. 89. S69-S70. 10.1016/j.biopsych.2021.02.188.
- **Maihofer A** (Speaker), Strom N, Mattheisen M, Torres K, Stein M, Ressler K, Koenen K, Nievergelt C. (2020). Refined PTSD Phenotyping Identifies Additional GWAS Risk Variants and Broader Domains Underlying Risk to Psychopathology. *Biological Psychiatry*. 87. S51-S52. 10.1016/j.biopsych.2020.02.156.
- **Maihofer A** (Speaker), Ratanatharathorn A, Dalvie S, Duncan L, Daly M, Ressler K, Liberzon I, Koenen K, Nievergelt C, PGC PTSD Workgroup. 'Beyond Lumping and Splitting: Leveraging Granularity in Large Scale Consortia Data to Improve Signal in PTSD' Symposium conducted at the 2019 World Congress of Psychiatric Genetics, Anaheim, CA
- **Maihofer AX** (Speaker), Coleman JRI, Duncan LE, Ratanatharathorn A, Liberzon I, Ressler KJ, Koenen KC, Nievergelt CM. 152. Taking a Closer Look at PTSD Genomics: Rare Copy Number Variants and Extended Phenotyping. *Biological Psychiatry*. 2019;85(10):S63. doi: 10.1016/j.biopsych.2019.03.166.

- Nievergelt C, **Maihofer A** (Speaker), Ratanatharathorn A, Dalvie S, Duncan L, Daly M, Ressler K, Liberzon I, Koenen K, PGC PTSD Workgroup. Large-scale genetic characterization of PTSD: addressing heterogeneity across ancestry, sex, and trauma. Symposium conducted at the 2018 Society of Biological Psychiatry, New York, NY.
- **Maihofer A** (Speaker), Ratanatharathorn A, Dalvie S, Duncan L, Daly M, Ressler K, Liberzon I, Koenen K, Nievergelt C, PGC PTSD Workgroup. Large scale Genome Wide Association Studies (GWAS) in PTSD across Gender, Ancestry and Trauma-type. Symposium conducted at the 2017 International Society for Traumatic Stress Studies, Chicago, Illinois.
- Nievergelt CM, **Maihofer AX**, Dalvie S, Ratanatharathorn A, Duncan L, Daly M, Ressler K, Liberzon I, Koenen K, PGC PTSD. Large-Scale Genetic Characterization of PTSD Across Ancestry, Gender and Trauma-Type. Symposium conducted at the 2017 World Congress of Psychiatric Genetics, Orlando, Florida.
- **Maihofer AX** (Speaker), Duncan L, Ratanatharathorn A, Dalvie S, Martin A, Daly M, Ressler K, Liberzon I, Koenen K, Nievergelt C, PGC PTSD. SNP-Based Dissection of PTSD from Large-Scale Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS) across Military and Civilian Cohorts. Symposium conducted at the 2017 meeting of the Society of Biological Psychiatry, San Diego, California.
- **Maihofer A** (Speaker), Shadyab A, Kritz-Silverstein D, LaCroix A. Are LDL and HDL cholesterol levels associated with healthy longevity in postmenopausal women? Presented at the 2017 Epidemiology Research Exchange in San Diego, California

Poster Presentations

- **Maihofer AX**, Mustapic M, Baker DG, O'Connor DT, Nievergelt CM. First GWAS in DBH confirms strong cis-acting variants and lends support for its role as an intermediate phenotype in post-traumatic stress disorder. Poster presented at the 2014 meeting of the American Society of Human Genetics, San Diego, CA.

Abstract of the dissertation

Common and rare genomic risk factors for PTSD, with implications for autoimmune disorders and inflammatory biomarkers

by

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Background: Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is a potential consequence of exposure to traumatic stress. PTSD has severe psychological, physical, interpersonal, and societal costs. The development of PTSD following traumatic stress is heritable. Studies of genetic risk factors have focused on common single nucleotide polymorphisms. The overwhelming majority of risk PTSD loci have yet to be identified.

The integration of detailed PTSD phenotyping has shown promise to increase power to identify PTSD risk loci. Rare genetic variation has only been sparsely examined in the context of PTSD, yet evidence is emerging that rare variation such as copy number variation (CNV) is relevant to psychiatric disorders. Findings of large genetic studies of PTSD and co-morbid disorders make it possible to make causal inferences and provide mechanistic insights using Mendelian Randomization (MR).

Methods: This dissertation includes three studies, all of which were conducted among participants from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium-PTSD data collection, a consortia made to investigate genomic risk factors for PTSD through meta-analysis of PTSD cohorts. Study 1 was a GWAS of PTSD symptom scores and lifetime trauma exposure phenotypes to identify common genetic risk variation for PTSD. Study 2 was an investigation of rare CNV and PTSD. Study 3 leverages GWAS summary statistics from PTSD and inflammatory phenotypes related to PTSD, using MR to make causal inferences about PTSD and inflammatory diseases.

Results: In study one, multiple genetic risk loci were identified for PTSD and for lifetime trauma exposure, with the two traits having a substantial degree of genetic overlap. In study two, PTSD risk was elevated in CNVs that crossed over known neurodevelopmental CNV regions and pathways related to the function of the nervous system and brain. In study three, PTSD had evidence of causal effect on asthma and psoriasis, as well as inflammatory biomarkers.

Conclusion: This dissertation enhances the general field of PTSD genetics, having identified novel common and rare risk variation, and supports hypotheses that

PTSD has a causal relationship with certain comorbid diseases with an inflammatory component.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)

PTSD is a psychiatric illness that develops in response to exposure to extreme traumatic stress ¹. According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5), PTSD is characterized by multiple symptoms that are clustered into four categories: intrusive memories, avoidance, negative changes in thinking and mood, and changes in physical and emotional reactions ². Diagnosis of PTSD requires exposure to a traumatic event, as well as one or more symptoms of intrusion, one or more symptoms of avoidance, two or more symptoms of negative changes in thinking and mood, and two or more symptoms of changes in arousal ². Symptoms must last for longer than one month, and cause considerable distress or interference with multiple areas of life ². While PTSD is coded as a binary diagnosis, the wide variety of symptoms imply a potentially considerable heterogeneity of PTSD ³. As well, there is significant potential variation in symptom severity, which importantly influences the clinical trajectory of the disorder ⁴. Many tools exist for PTSD assessment ⁵, such as the gold standard Clinician Administered PTSD Scale ⁶ (CAPS-5), and self-reported measures such as the PTSD checklist (PCL-5)⁷.

1.2 Treatment of PTSD

There are clinical treatments for PTSD ⁸. Trauma-focused therapies are a widely used, evidence based treatment option ^{8,9}. Currently recommended pharmacological treatment options include anti-depressants, anti-psychotics, and alpha-adrenergic receptor blockers ^{9 10}. Other pharmacological treatments including anticonvulsants,

benzodiazepines, and other agents such as ketamine and cannabis, have been proposed but are not as well studied ¹⁰. The complex relationship between PTSD and co-morbid psychiatric conditions poses challenges in the treatment of PTSD ¹¹. In terms of efficacy of treatments, survey data suggests that the mean time to remission is shorter for treatment seeking cases relative to those who do not seek treatment ¹². However, not all cases attain a full remission of symptoms ⁹. It has been suggested that more efficacious PTSD treatments may rely on deeper understanding of the biological mechanisms of the disorder ¹³.

1.3 Epidemiology of PTSD

The estimated lifetime prevalence of PTSD in the United States is 5-10% ¹. Prevalence is higher in lower income countries ¹⁴. Prevalence is widely conditional on the nature of trauma exposure ¹⁵. Risk is modified by demographic ¹⁶, social, ¹⁶, personality ¹⁷, and biological ¹⁸ factors, which can operate at pre, peri, or post-trauma levels ¹⁹. Importantly, interventions targeted at modifiable risk factors such as pain ²⁰ and lack of social support ²¹ can reduce the likelihood of developing PTSD. Biological risk factors, including psychophysiological response, brain structure and functioning, the neuroendocrine system, and genetics, are widely studied ¹⁸.

1.4 Co-morbidities and consequences of PTSD

PTSD is often co-morbid with one or more other psychiatric disorders ¹², most commonly with affective disorders such as major depressive disorder ¹¹. Relative to other mental disorders, PTSD has a notably strong association with suicidal behavior ¹⁹. PTSD is also linked to increased rates of age related chronic diseases ²², worse

physical functioning²², and elevated rates of diseases that involve immune dysregulation²³. In addition, there are social consequences of PTSD, such as educational failure, marital instability, and unemployment²⁴¹⁹, where PTSD related work impairments translate into billions of dollars of lost productivity^{24, 25}.

1.5 The link between autoimmune disorders and PTSD

Longitudinal and cross sectional association studies suggest that individuals with PTSD are at increased risk of developing autoimmune disease²⁶⁻²⁸. The overlap of PTSD and autoimmune diseases is hypothesized to be related to the immune dysregulation seen in PTSD cases²³. Indeed, longitudinal studies show that inflammatory biomarkers are elevated in PTSD cases^{29, 30}. However, the causal relationship between PTSD and autoimmune conditions remains unclear³¹. Determining this would enhance our general understanding of PTSD³² and potentially lead to enhanced treatment options³³. For instance, it has been noted that early treatment for PTSD with antidepressants is associated with attenuated risk of developing certain autoimmune diseases²⁷.

1.6 Genetic contributions to PTSD

Studying the genetic basis of PTSD has the potential to enhance biological understanding, as well as to guide the development of treatments for PTSD and its comorbidities^{32, 34, 35}. The genetics of PTSD has been studied for over 25 years³⁶. Twin studies³⁶⁻³⁸ suggested that genes are a major contributing factor to the development of PTSD, with heritability estimates ranging from 24%-71% across studies. This

considerable range of estimates may be due to limited sample sizes of some studies, but also perhaps due to the environment context specific nature of heritability³⁹.

The first consistently replicable risk loci and genetic signals for PTSD have only recently emerged, from large scale meta-analysis across multiple cohorts, and analyses of biobank-scale data⁴⁰⁻⁴⁵. Some of the loci identified in GWAS have been implicated in other mental disorders, possibly indicating a general shared liability across psychiatric disorders^{40, 43}. The genetic pathways found to be enriched in GWAS include inflammatory pathways⁴¹ and genes heavily expressed in the central nervous system⁴⁰. However, the several loci identified by current PTSD GWAS only explain a small fraction of the total genetic contribution to PTSD risk, where several thousand PTSD associated genetic variants are yet to be identified by GWAS⁴⁴. Increasing sample size is expected to lead to more loci being identified by GWAS and more biological insights being delivered⁴⁵. It has been proposed that well powered GWAS will have a direct translational impact in the near future, as there are prospective clinical applications⁴⁶ of the polygenic risk score, i.e. the estimate of individual genetic liability to disease⁴⁷.

1.7 Further enhancing discovery power of PTSD GWAS

Detailed characterization of the PTSD phenotype is expected to enhance discovery power and elucidate biological insights^{48, 49}. For example, evaluation of PTSD as a quantitative severity score led to the successful identification of risk loci, beyond what had been identified in GWAS based on a binary diagnosis⁴⁰. Thus, this information is important to integrate into GWAS of PTSD. Less is known about how trauma exposure phenotyping affects the power of a PTSD GWAS, yet this is also a

crucial component: by definition, individuals will not develop PTSD unless they are exposed to trauma, regardless of their genetic vulnerability to PTSD. In most GWAS, trauma exposure information has not been incorporated much beyond having restricted study participants to include only trauma exposed controls ^{42, 50-53}. However, despite restricting controls to trauma-exposed subjects, most studies persistently have reported higher average trauma exposure in cases relative to controls. Thus, it remains to be seen what the genetics of PTSD look like, once thoroughly conditioned on trauma exposure.

In consideration of trauma exposure in the context of PTSD GWAS, there is evidence from twin studies and GWAS of a genetic basis of trauma exposure itself ^{37, 54-56}. The type of trauma related to PTSD vary greatly in nature, including witnessing death, sexual assault, combat exposure, suffering an accident, being in a natural disaster, et cetera ¹, such that genetic influence on the different types of trauma may vary. Indeed, the estimate of the heritability of combat exposure by Lyons et al. ranged from 35 to 47% ⁵⁵, but Stein et al. observed somewhat different heritabilities for assaultive and non-assaultive traumas ³⁷. Nevertheless, given a genetic basis for trauma exposure, trauma represents a potential intermediate factor in how genetic variants alter PTSD risk. Two recent GWAS focused on childhood trauma exposure ^{54, 57}, and identified loci related to mental health, risky behavior, substance use, and physical health. Similarly, PTSD has substantial genetic correlations with traits in these domains ⁴¹. Despite this evident genetic overlap, to my knowledge, there is no comparative investigation of the common variant genetics of PTSD and trauma exposure.

1.8 Rare variant contribution to PTSD

Rare and structural forms of genetic variation make considerable contributions to the genetic liability of psychiatric disorders ⁴⁵. An often studied form of rare genetic variation in this context is copy number variation (CNV) ⁵⁸. CNVs have been thoroughly implicated in relation to neurodevelopmental disorders ⁵⁹, but also autism ⁶⁰ and schizophrenia ⁶¹, where variants of high penetrance have been identified. For example, there is the well-known 22q11.2 deletion, where approximately 25% of individuals born with this deletion will develop schizophrenia ⁶², thus accounting for up to 2% of schizophrenia cases in the general population ⁶³. More recently, CNVs have been examined in other psychiatric disorders such as attention deficit hyperactive disorder, obsessive compulsive disorder, and major depressive disorder ⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶. One factor that has facilitated the study of CNV for psychiatric disorders is that rare CNVs can be reliably called by applying specialized calling algorithms to the signal intensity data gathered by standard single nucleotide polymorphism arrays ⁶⁷. Thus, given the wide availability of psychiatric GWAS data, CNV is a form of rare variation that can be studied without requiring additional, potentially quite cost prohibitive sequencing efforts. Analyses of CNVs called in this manner have provided novel insights into psychiatric disorders such as major depressive disorder ⁶⁶ and schizophrenia ⁶¹.

1.9 The Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) PTSD data collection

This dissertation was conducted using early-access data from the PGC-PTSD, a global collaborative effort to study the genetic basis of PTSD through meta-analysis of diverse cohorts genotyped and assessed for PTSD ³⁴. Data access and authorship policies follow PGC guidelines. The contributing PTSD cohorts have been described in

great detail ⁴¹. Briefly, within each cohort, participants were assessed for PTSD via clinical assessment, clinician administered inventory, self-reported inventory, or via diagnostic codes in a medical database. Participants were genotyped using single nucleotide polymorphism arrays. Study principal investigators provided the participant PTSD phenotype and DNA or genotype data to the PGC-PTSD, or alternatively, summary statistics from GWAS. Where genotype data was provided to the PGC-PTSD, genotype data was quality controlled using a standardized pipeline ⁶⁸ to insure data compatibility across cohorts. Where individual level data was not provided, investigators followed similar protocols for QC and analysis. The data from contributing cohorts was analyzed in a meta-analytic framework.

1.10 Dissertation overview

The availability of genotype and dense phenotype data in the PGC-PTSD, including continuous symptom scores and trauma exposure measures, means that several of the aforementioned topics relevant to PTSD can be investigated: First, the deep phenotyping allows for a more statistically powered investigation of common variant genetics, beyond what could be obtained by a binary case definition. The availability of trauma exposure measures in the same subjects allows for trauma exposure informed analysis of PTSD. Furthermore, it allows for the evaluation of the genetic contribution to trauma exposure itself, as well as the subsequent comparison of the genetic overlap of PTSD and trauma exposure. Second, the available genotype data, so far only used for GWAS, can also be used to estimate the contribution of CNVs to PTSD risk with unprecedented power. Lastly, risk variants identified in well-powered GWAS of PTSD can be used as genetic instruments (i.e. Mendelian Randomization

analysis⁶⁹), allowing for the evaluation of a potential causal association between PTSD and disorders involving immune dysregulation.

The goal of this dissertation is to perform novel analyses to provide insight into the genetic architecture of PTSD, and to test mechanistic hypotheses related to the observed comorbidities between PTSD and disorders involving immune dysregulation. These analyses will be organized across three chapters. Chapter 2 includes GWAS of PTSD in PGC-PTSD cohorts. Quantitative symptom scores that measure the severity of PTSD are used to enhance discovery power beyond binary diagnosis. In addition, lifetime trauma exposure is incorporated as a phenotype to measure PTSD associations conditional on trauma exposure. Comparative evaluations of the genetics of PTSD and trauma are made. Finally, trauma exposure is leveraged in a multivariate approach to identify additional common genetic variant risk for PTSD. Chapter 3 examines the impact of rare CNV burden on PTSD in what is the first large scale study of this topic. Genotype array data is used to determine CNV carrier status. Rare CNVs are tested for association with PTSD at a variety of scales of burden, including genome-wide, across gene-sets, genes, and in individual neurodevelopmental CNVs. Chapter 4 evaluates the causal relationship between PTSD and immune related conditions and inflammatory biomarkers, via two sample Mendelian Randomization analyses of GWAS data from PTSD and these traits⁷⁰.

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Chapter 2. Enhancing discovery of genetic variants for PTSD through integration of quantitative phenotypes and trauma exposure information

2.1 Abstract

Background: Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is heritable and a potential consequence of exposure to traumatic stress. Evidence suggests that a quantitative approach to PTSD phenotype measurement and incorporation of lifetime trauma exposure (LTE) information could enhance the discovery power of PTSD genome-wide association studies (GWAS).

Methods: GWAS on PTSD symptoms was performed in 51 cohorts followed by a fixed-effects meta-analysis (N = 182,199 European Ancestry participants). A GWAS of LTE burden was performed in the UK Biobank cohort (N = 132,988). Genetic correlations were evaluated with LD-score regression. Multivariate analysis was performed using Multi-Trait Analysis of GWAS. Functional mapping and annotation of leading loci was performed with FUMA. Replication was evaluated using the Million Veteran Program (MVP) GWAS of PTSD total symptoms.

Results: GWAS of PTSD symptoms and LTE burden identified 5 and 6 independent genome-wide significant loci, respectively. There was a 72% genetic correlation between PTSD and LTE. PTSD and LTE showed largely similar patterns of genetic correlation with other traits, albeit with some distinctions. Adjusting PTSD for LTE reduced PTSD heritability by 31%. Multivariate analysis of PTSD and LTE increased the effective sample size of the PTSD GWAS by 20% and identified 4 additional loci. Four out of these 9 PTSD loci were independently replicated in MVP.

Conclusion: Through using a quantitative trait measure of PTSD, we identify novel risk loci not previously identified using prior case/control analyses. PTSD and LTE have a high genetic overlap that can be leveraged to increase discovery power through multivariate methods.

2.2 Introduction

Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) may develop after exposure to traumatic life events. PTSD can severely impact the mental and physical health of affected individuals and impair their interpersonal relationships¹. While the estimated community prevalence of PTSD in the United States is 5-10%², the rate of PTSD differs based on the nature of trauma exposure³, and other environmental⁴ and genetic factors⁵⁻⁷. Identifying the biological mechanisms associated with the etiology of PTSD will facilitate the discovery of biomarkers for screening and diagnostic purposes⁷ and the development of new treatments.

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) facilitate biological understanding of PTSD^{8,9}, but are well known to be limited by statistical power to identify risk variation¹⁰. Quantitative measures of PTSD enhance discovery power over binary trait definitions^{9,11}. Appropriately accounting for trauma exposure hypothetically enhances power, as individuals will not develop the disorder unless they are exposed to trauma, irrespective of high genetic vulnerability for PTSD^{12,13}. Moreover, the notion that genetic variants can predispose to trauma exposure is only starting to be explored¹⁴. As trauma exposure is a prerequisite for the development and manifestation of PTSD, investigating the genetics of trauma exposure will hypothetically lead to a clearer picture of PTSD genetics.

The Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) PTSD is a global collaborative effort to study the genetic basis of PTSD through meta-analysis of diverse cohorts¹³. Subsequent to a case-control GWAS⁸, our collaborators have provided quantitative measures of PTSD and lifetime trauma exposure (LTE). To obtain genomic insights

from the quantitative PTSD phenotyping, we perform GWAS of PTSD symptoms in 182,199 participants from PGC-PTSD Freeze 2. To determine if accounting for LTE would provide the hypothesized increase in discovery power, we perform GWAS of PTSD with covariate adjustment for LTE, showing that it *lowers* PTSD signal. We investigate the possibility that multicollinearity arising from high genetic correlation (r_g) of PTSD and LTE was responsible for this result. To perform this investigation, we perform GWAS of LTE in most powered and unbiased¹⁵ subsample of the data, 132,988 participants from the UK Biobank (UKBB)¹⁶, then evaluate the r_g of PTSD and LTE. To explore the r_g further, we contrast the r_g s PTSD and LTE have with other traits. We show the high r_g of PTSD and LTE can be leveraged to enhance the power of PTSD GWAS using multivariate methods. We replicate PTSD GWAS findings in the Million Veteran Program GWAS of total PTSD symptoms (MVP_{TOT}). We contextualize genomic findings through functional annotation, tissue expression analyses, and phenome-wide association study (PheWAS).

2.3 Methods

2.3.1 Study population and phenotyping

Participants were drawn from a collection of 51 cohorts within the PGC-PTSD freeze 2 dataset, as previously described in Nievergelt et al.⁸. All participants included in the present study were of genetically estimated European ancestry. PTSD symptoms and LTE were measured within each cohort using structured clinical interviews, self-reported inventories, or by clinical evaluation. A summary of the assessment and scoring methods for the various studies is in Supplementary Table 2.1 and a complete description is available in Nievergelt et al.⁸. All participants provided written informed

consent and studies were approved by the relevant institutional review boards and the UCSD Human Research Protection Program (protocol #16097x).

2.3.2 GWAS Quality Control

Genotyping, QC, and imputation methods for the included studies have been described in detail⁸. In brief, participating cohorts provided phenotype and genotype data or GWAS summary statistics to the PGC-PTSD for quality control and analysis. For studies in which the PGC-PTSD analyst had direct access to genotype data, the RICOPIILI pipeline¹⁷ was used to perform QC and imputation. QC included standard filters for SNP call rates (exclusion of SNPs with call rate <98% or a missing difference > 0.02 between cases and controls), call rate for participant genotypes (samples with <98% call rate excluded), Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE $p < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ in controls), and heterozygosity (FHET within +/- 0.2). Datasets were phased using SHAPEIT¹⁸ and imputed using IMPUTE2¹⁹ with the 1000 Genomes Phase 3 reference panel data²⁰. For the UKBB, quality control and imputation were carried out centrally by UKBB investigators as previous described¹⁶ and GWAS was carried out by the PGC-PTSD analyst. For cohorts with data sharing restrictions, analyses were performed using similar protocols by the study team that had individual level data access and GWAS summary statistics were provided to the PGC-PTSD.

2.3.3 GWAS

Only unrelated ($\pi < 0.2$) participants were retained for analysis. Principal components were calculated within each cohort using EIGENSOFT v6.3.4²¹. PTSD GWAS was performed within cohorts using PLINK 2.0 alpha with the --glm option, with the exception of UKBB and VETSA data, which were analyzed using BOLT LMM

v2.3.4²². Where available, PTSD symptom scores were analyzed using linear regression (N = 36 cohorts); PTSD case/control status was used if symptom scores were not available, using logistic regression (N = 15 cohorts). In both cases, 5 principal components (PCs) were included as covariates to account for population stratification and genotyping artifacts. The UKBB PTSD GWAS included an additional PC as well as batch and assessment center covariates. Studies providing summary data used similar analytic strategies, as previously described⁸. For each GWAS, SNPs with minor allele frequency < 1% or imputation information score < 0.6 were excluded. To perform GWAS of PTSD conditioned on LTE, GWAS was performed with LTE included as an additional covariate where, depending on data availability, as either a count of LTEs or a binary variable. GWAS of the LTE count phenotype in the UKBB sample was performed in BOLT-LMM using 6 PCs, batch, and assessment center as covariates.

2.3.4 PTSD meta-analysis

Sample-size weighted fixed effects meta-analysis was performed using METAL²³. To account for different analytic methods and measure scales, effect estimates were converted into z-scores by dividing effect sizes by standard errors²⁴. Case/control and quantitative GWAS subsets were evaluated for r_g to determine if they could be meta-analyzed. To account for differences in ascertainment, heritability, and power between case/control and quantitative subsets, modified sample size weights were derived as previously described²⁵, assuming 10% population prevalence of PTSD, the estimates of SNP-based heritability (h^2_{SNP}), r_g , and sample PTSD prevalence. Meta-analysis was conducted on the reweighted z-scores. Only SNPs available in >90% of all

samples ($N \geq 163,979$) were included in analyses. Regional annotation plots of genome-wide significant loci were produced using LocusZoom²⁶.

2.3.5 Heritability and genetic correlation estimation with LD Score Regression (LDSC)

Trait h^2_{SNP} and r_g were estimated from GWAS summary statistics using LDSC²⁷. The LDSC intercept was used to test for inflation of test statistics due to residual population stratification or other artefacts and the attenuation factor $((\text{Intercept} - 1)/(\text{mean}(\chi^2) - 1))$ was used to determine the proportion of inflation of test statistics due to residual population stratification (Supplementary Table 2.2). Heritabilities were contrasted using a z-test where standard errors were estimated using the block-jackknife approach. To estimate r_g with other disorders, the LDhub web-interface was used²⁸. To identify genetic differences between PTSD and LTE, the r_g s observed for PTSD and LTE were contrasted using z-tests, where significance level was determined using Bonferroni correction for the 772 traits tested ($p < 6.47 \times 10^{-5}$).

2.3.6 Functional Mapping and Annotation of Genome-Wide Association Studies (FUMA)

FUMA version v1.3.6a²⁹ was used with the default settings (Supplementary Text) to visualize and annotate GWAS results. The FUMA pipeline integrates the MAGMA³⁰ tool to perform gene-based, gene-pathway, and tissue enrichment analyses, with significance based on Bonferroni correction. 1000 Genomes Europeans were used as reference genotypes. Tissue enrichment analysis included GTEx v8 expression data³¹.

2.3.7 Cis Quantitative Trait Locus (QTL) mapping

The effects of GWAS loci on transcriptomic regulation of surrounding genes (locus within ± 1 Mb of the gene transcription starting site) were tested for 49 tissues in

GTEEx v8 with genome-wide false discovery rate correction applied. Using the same criteria, GTEEx v8 data were also used to investigate the effects of GWAS loci on the regulation of alternative splicing isoforms. A detailed description regarding GTEEx v8 QTL mapping data is available at³². Briefly, cis-eQTL and cis-splicing QTL mapping was performed using FastQTL³³ including top-five genotyping PCs, PEER (Probabilistic Estimation of Expression Residuals) factors³⁴, sequencing platform, sequencing protocol, and sex as covariates.

2.3.8 Replication analysis

Summary data from MVP_{TOT} (dbGaP Study Accession phs001672.v4.p1) was used to replicate GWAS results. MVP_{TOT} included 186,689 European ancestry participants who completed the PCL-C and passed quality control. Details of MVP_{TOT} have been published³⁵. SNPs were deemed replicated in MVP_{TOT} if they had matching effect direction and were nominally significant after Bonferroni correction for the 9 SNPs tested ($p < 0.006$).

2.3.9 Multi-Trait Analysis for GWAS (MTAG)

MTAG³⁶ performs multivariate analysis of genetically correlated traits to increase discovery power for each input trait, providing trait-specific effect estimates and p-values. MTAG was used to perform multivariate analysis with PTSD and LTE GWAS. The maxFDR statistic was used to test for MTAG model assumptions (supplementary text).

2.3.10 Phenome Wide Association Study (PheWAS)

To understand further how functional changes of significant loci are associated with human traits and diseases, we conducted a PheWAS of leading SNPs from PTSD

and LTE loci using data from the GWAS Atlas³⁷ (available at <https://atlas.ctglab.nl/>). Bonferroni correction was applied to account for the 4,756 phenotypes available that were tested ($p < 1.05 \times 10^{-5}$).

2.4 Results

The PTSD GWAS meta-analysis included 182,199 participants of European ancestry from 51 cohorts (Supplementary Table 2.1). The largest cohort was the UKBB (N = 134,586 participants). Across the cohorts, PTSD was assessed using a variety of different methods (N=19 methods), the most common methods were versions of the Clinician Administered PTSD scale (N=18 studies) and PTSD Checklist (N=14 studies). The majority of participants (91%, N = 165,825, 36 studies) were analyzed based on PTSD symptom scores; the remaining participants (9%, N = 16,374, 15 studies) did not have symptom scores available and were analyzed based on PTSD case/control status.

2.4.1 PGC PTSD GWAS meta-analysis

The h^2_{SNP} of meta-analysis of cohorts analyzed by symptom scores was 0.0547 (se = 0.0042, $p = 8.9e-39$) (Supplementary Table 2.2). The h^2_{SNP} was similar, albeit not significant, in the smaller meta-analysis of case/control cohorts (observed scale $h^2_{\text{SNP}} = 0.0580$, se = 0.0259, $p = 0.17$). The r_g between the symptom score and case/control analyses was very high ($r_g = 0.9646$, se = 0.36, $p = 0.0074$). Thus, symptom score and case/control GWAS were meta-analyzed. We identified 5 genome-wide significant loci (Table 2.1, Figure 2.1 panel A). Leading variants in significant loci mapped to an intergenic locus on chromosome 1, the intronic region of the *GABBR1* gene on chromosome 6, the intronic regions of *MPP6* and *DFNA5* on chromosome 7, an intron of *FOXP2* on chromosome 7, and the intronic region of *FAM120A* on chromosome 9.

Gene-based analysis identified 6 significant genes (*DCAF5*, *EXD2*, *FAM120A*, *FOXP2*, *GALNT16*, and *PHF2*) (Supplementary Table 2.3).

2.4.2 PGC PTSD GWAS covariate adjusted for LTE

We repeated the GWAS of PTSD with covariate adjustment for LTE. h^2_{SNP} was 0.0389 (se = 0.00340, $p = 2.6 \times 10^{-30}$), 31% lower than the PTSD GWAS without LTE covariate adjustment ($p = 8.6 \times 10^{-20}$). There was a genome-wide significant locus in uncharacterized region, CTC-340A15.2, on chromosome 5 that was not identified in the PTSD GWAS (Supplementary Table 2.4). Effects changed slightly for the loci previously identified in the unadjusted PTSD GWAS (Supplementary Table 2.4). Gene based analysis identified no significant genes.

2.4.3 UKBB LTE GWAS

We performed GWAS of LTE count in the UKBB subset of the PGC-PTSD GWAS data (132,988 UKBB participants). 30.9% of participants reported 1 LTE, 14.8% reported 2 LTEs, 6.3% reported 3 LTEs, and 3.3% reported 4 or more LTEs (Supplementary Table 2.5). The SNP-based heritability of LTE count was 0.0734 (se = 0.005, $p = 8.7 \times 10^{-49}$). Six loci were genome-wide significant (Figure 2.1, panel B, Table 2.2). Leading variants in significant loci mapped to an intron of *PRUNE* on chromosome 1, the intron of non-coding RNA AC068490.2 on chromosome 2, the intron of *SGCD* on chromosome 5, an intron of *FOXP2* on chromosome 7 (also identified in the PGC-PTSD GWAS), an intergenic region in chromosome 14 near *MDGA*, and upstream of *CCDC8* on chromosome 19. Gene-based analysis identified *SGCD* (chr5:155297354-156194799 BP, 2965 SNPs, 99 parameters, $z = 5.53$, $p = 1.5 \times 10^{-8}$) and *C20orf112* (chr20:31030862-31172876 BP, 296 SNPs, 21 parameters, $z = 4.73$, $p = 1.13 \times 10^{-6}$).

GWAS of LTE count weighted by trauma specific PTSD prevalences gave highly similar results, being highly genetically correlated to the unweighted count ($r_g = 1$, $se=0.0016$ $p < 1.13 \times 10^{-100}$).

2.4.4 Genetic overlap between LTE and PTSD

r_g between PTSD and LTE was high, ($r_g = 0.7239$, $p < 1 \times 10^{-100}$). To explore this genetic overlap, we contrasted patterns of r_g of PTSD and LTE to other traits. Testing 772 human traits and diseases, we observed 269 and 217 r_g s that survived Bonferroni multiple testing correction ($p < 6.47 \times 10^{-5}$) for PTSD and LTE, respectively (Supplementary Table 2.6). There was a complete directional concordance between PTSD and LTE among the 187 r_g s that were significant in both analyses. For several traits, while the effect direction was concordant, the magnitude of correlation with PTSD was significantly different from the correlation with LTE ($p < 6.47 \times 10^{-5}$) (Figure 2). Fifteen traits showed significantly higher genetic correlation with PTSD than with LTE (e.g., neuroticism score $p = 2.74 \times 10^{-24}$; fed-up feelings $p = 1.83 \times 10^{-15}$; mood swings $p = 9.92 \times 10^{-15}$; loneliness $p = 8.07 \times 10^{-8}$; depressive symptoms $p = 1.94 \times 10^{-7}$; irritability $p = 2.27 \times 10^{-7}$). Conversely, risk taking showed a significantly higher genetic correlation with LTE ($r_g = 0.55$, $p = 2.71 \times 10^{-55}$) compared to PTSD ($r_g = 0.33$, $p = 3.9 \times 10^{-20}$; $p = 8.09 \times 10^{-6}$).

2.4.5 Multivariate analysis of PTSD and trauma exposure

MTAG analysis that combined PTSD GWAS meta-analysis and UKBB LTE GWAS reported an effective sample size increase of PTSD GWAS from 182,199 to 217,491. There were 8 genome-wide-significant loci for the MTAG PTSD analysis, including 4 loci not identified in the PTSD GWAS meta-analysis (Table 2.1, Figure 2.1

panel C). Leading variants from additional loci mapped to an intergenic region in chromosome 2, the intron of *SGCD* on chromosome 5, an intergenic region on chromosome 16 near *ZKSCAN2* and *AQP8*, and the intron of *STAU1* on chromosome 20. In gene-based analysis, there were 8 significant genes, including five genes not identified from the original GWAS gene-based analysis (*CSE1L*, *DFNA5*, *FOXP1*, *SGCD*, *TRIM26*) (Supplementary Table 2.3).

2.4.6 Cross-replication in MVP_{TOT}

Of the 9 loci identified across the PTSD GWAS (5 PGC GWAS and 4 MTAG loci), 4 replicated significantly in MVP_{TOT} ($p < 0.006$) (Table 2.1) (Supplementary Figures 2-10). Of the 11 genes identified in gene-based analyses (6 GWAS + 5 MTAG), 7 replicated at least at a nominally significant level in MVP_{TOT} (Supplementary Table 2.3). Additionally, of 15 loci identified in MVP_{TOT} GWAS, 9 nominally replicated in PGC-PTSD (Supplementary Table 2.7). Overall, r_g between PGC PTSD and MVP_{TOT} was high ($r_g = 0.8359$, $se = 0.0376$, $p = 2.5 \times 10^{-109}$).

2.4.7 Functional consequences of risk loci

We examined the functional impact of the 9 GWS variants associated with PTSD (5 from GWAS and 4 from MTAG; Table 2.1). We observed that 7 loci were related to multiple tissue-specific expression quantitative trait loci (eQTL; Supplementary Table 2.8), where 11% of FDR-significant eQTLs were in brain regions. A similar trend was present for splicing QTLs (Supplementary Table 2.9), where only 7% of gene-tissue combinations were related to brain regions. Further details of the eQTL analysis are in the supplementary text.

We found enrichment of genes involved in brain transcriptomic regulation in PTSD (Supplementary Table 2.10). All brain regions tested were at least nominally significant, with several remaining significant after Bonferroni correction (MTAG-analysis: cortex $p = 2.9 \times 10^{-5}$, frontal cortex BA9 $p = 3.53e-5$, cerebellum $p = 1.09e-4$, anterior cingulate cortex BA24 $p = 1.29 \times 10^{-4}$, cerebellar hemisphere $p = 1.43 \times 10^{-3}$, nucleus accumbens/basal ganglia $p = 3.6 \times 10^{-4}$). There was no significant enrichment detected in any sets from the list of curated gene-sets and GO terms (Supplementary Table 2.11).

2.4.8 PheWAS

We identified 200 phenome-wide significant associations (Supplementary Table 2.12), with more than half of the significant associations related to two domains: psychiatry (34%) and metabolism (18%). The strongest PheWAS associations with PTSD and LTE loci included: height and body mass phenotypes, educational attainment, social interaction, sexual activity, risk tolerance, and sleep phenotypes (Supplementary Text). Several PTSD loci showed widespread pleiotropy across multiple psychiatric traits: rs10266297 (35 significant associations, 40% psychiatric domain, top psychiatric result: risk taking $p=1.27e-11$), rs10821140 (37 significant associations, 38% psychiatric domain, top psychiatric result: loneliness $p=1.11e-11$), rs146918648 (44 significant associations, 48% psychiatric domain, top psychiatric result: tenseness/restlessness $p=2.13e-9$).

2.5 Discussion

Our GWAS study aimed to advance understanding of PTSD genetics by integrating quantitative PTSD phenotypes and LTE exposure information in 182,199 participants of European ancestry from 51 cohorts. Overall, quantitative PTSD phenotyping captured similar genetic signal to our prior case/control analysis ($r_g = 0.92 - 1.14$)⁸, but with substantially higher power. However, by using LTE as a covariate, which hypothetically accounts for unexpressed genetic vulnerability among unexposed participants¹², we found a significant reduction in heritability and gene discovery. As high r_g between PTSD and LTE would be one hypothetical explanation for this result (i.e. multicollinearity), we performed GWAS of LTE and contrasted it to GWAS results for PTSD. We found that LTE has h^2_{SNP} comparable to PTSD and high r_g with PTSD. We leveraged the r_g to significantly enhance PTSD discovery power using a multivariate approach³⁶.

One explanation for h^2_{SNP} of PTSD adjusted for LTE being lower than the unadjusted estimate is that it may have removed genetic effects on PTSD mediated by trauma exposure^{12, 13}. Given that trauma is a prerequisite for PTSD, genetic effects on trauma exposure can have mediated (i.e. indirect) effects on PTSD. Indeed this seems plausible, as our LTE GWAS suggested a substantial amount of h^2_{SNP} related to trauma exposure. Therefore, the estimated h^2_{SNP} of PTSD conditional on LTE would theoretically reflect only non-mediated (i.e. direct) effects and thus would be smaller.

We used r_g to quantify the genetic overlap between LTE and PTSD, finding similar magnitude to findings from twin studies^{5, 6}. At the same time, incomplete r_g

between these two phenotypes also suggested meaningful genetic differences. To investigate this, we contrasted the magnitudes of r_g that PTSD and LTE shared with other traits. For most traits, r_g with PTSD was quite similar in magnitude to r_g with LTE. However, we also found that negative affect traits like neuroticism and irritability were more strongly correlated with PTSD than LTE, whereas risk-taking behavior showed higher correlation with LTE than PTSD. This suggests that some variants influence PTSD and LTE through somewhat distinct psychological and behavioral mechanisms⁵.

The high r_g between PTSD and LTE facilitates the application of multivariate approaches to PTSD GWAS. Whereas the r_g between PTSD and LTE induces loss of power in the PTSD analysis when conditioned on LTE, a multivariate approach can benefit from it. Our multivariate³⁶ analysis resulted in a 19% increase in the effective sample size by adding LTE count data from the UKBB, and identified replicable loci and patterns of tissue expression not identified in a standard PTSD GWAS.

The biological mechanisms associated with several of the protein products of identified genes have been linked to PTSD pathophysiology in animal and cell models: amygdala-mediated fear extinction (FAM120A³⁸), neuronal transcriptional regulation (FOXP2³⁹), brain excitatory/inhibitory balance (ARFGEF2, GABBR1, STAUI1⁴⁰), intracellular vesicular trafficking and other synaptic activities (ARFGEF2⁴¹, MPP6⁴², SEMA6C⁴³, SGCD⁴⁴), and inflammation (HIATL1, TRIM26⁴⁵, TRIM27⁴⁶, ZMYM4, ZNF165⁴⁷). Blood and brain transcription-wide association and differential gene expression studies of PTSD have also implicated some of these genes, including a blood-based prediction of downregulation of *ARFGEF2* in the dorsolateral pre-frontal cortex⁴⁸, and a postmortem study of human PTSD cortex indicating downregulation of

CTSS expression in the dorsal anterior cingulate cortex and downregulation of *OSBPL3* expression in the dorsolateral pre-frontal cortex⁴⁹.

Interestingly, PTSD loci show widespread pleiotropic associations in PheWAS^{32, 50-52}. Some loci point to factors associated with existing clinical presentations of PTSD (e.g. sleep), while others point to potential risk/protective factors for PTSD like educational attainment and cognitive functioning. Loci may affect PTSD through their direct influence on these risk/protective factors. Alternatively, the high degree of pleiotropy shown by these loci suggests that they could influence PTSD risk through a more general alteration of biological function³⁷, such as general predisposition to psychiatric illness⁵³. In particular, metabolic phenotypes such as height and body mass also appeared to be enriched in our PheWAS. This could be the influence of these loci on previously implicated inflammatory mechanisms for PTSD⁸ or simply an artifact of their overrepresentation in the GWAS Atlas. Nevertheless, the broad variety of behavioral and clinical domains associated with these loci suggest complex etiologic heterogeneity of PTSD that could relate to subtypes⁵⁴.

Further characterization of significant loci via eQTL analyses identified expression across a variety of tissue types. Given the high degree of shared eQTL architecture between tissues, the presence of some of these tissues might not be directly related to PTSD pathogenesis. Indeed, on the genome-wide level, our tissue enrichment analysis only suggests that brain tissues are relevant. The brain regions implicated are consistent with functional MRI and structural MRI findings of PTSD. Brodmann area 24 (as part of the ventral anterior cingulate cortex) is implicated in PTSD response to trauma-, fear-, and threat-related stimuli^{55, 56}. Brodmann area 9 (as

part of the dorsomedial prefrontal cortex), reflects response to self-referential thought, theory of mind, empathy, and moral judgements, and shows greater engagement in PTSD and trauma-exposed individuals^{55, 57, 58}. Nucleus accumbens expression is consistent with the neuroimaging evidence of its role in the reward system, which is prominently affected with emotional numbing symptoms of PTSD⁵⁹⁻⁶².

2.5.1 Limitations

Stress-related disorders are phenotypically complex and heterogeneous⁶³, which limits discovery power and complicates translation to clinical application. The strategies proposed for understanding and addressing heterogeneity in major depressive disorder such as harmonization of measures, additional phenotypic measures, and investigations of subtypes, could be applied to PTSD as additional avenues to enhance discovery power⁶⁴. Sex differences may also contribute a significant source of heterogeneity^{8, 65-68}. Our analyses were restricted to participants of European ancestry given power limitations for other ancestry groups. However urgent scientific and ethical reasons call for extending analyses to individuals of non-European ancestry⁶⁹. The PGC-PTSD group has actively been gathering data to increase representation from diverse ancestry and developing methods to optimize analyses in admixed populations⁷⁰. As sample sizes increase, future investigations will be powered to investigate ancestry and sex-specific genetic influences on PTSD and trauma exposure. In performing a GWAS of cumulative LTE, we identified several significant loci, including those previously identified in GWAS of childhood trauma exposure¹⁴. A full investigation of the genetic basis of LTE is clearly warranted. Future work could also examine the relationship between PTSD and specific types or numbers of trauma exposure, as they plausibly

have different relationships with PTSD⁶, and may therefore be more informative than our cumulative measure for LTE. Finally, trauma was assessed via participant self-report, which may vary with mood and PTSD symptoms at the time of reporting⁷¹, and could inflate genetic associations with PTSD.

2.5.2 Conclusions

Novel replicable risk loci for PTSD identified by incorporating quantitative symptom data and trauma exposure information into GWAS offer us new insights into the genetic architecture of PTSD. Beyond the nature of LTE as an environmental exposure, there is a heritable component to LTE that overlaps highly with PTSD to impart an enhanced understanding of PTSD genetics. In future investigations, the genetic architectures of PTSD and LTE could be further delineated using causal mediation analysis⁷², which can provide estimates of LTE related mediation and gene-by-environment interaction. Our results reinforce the notion that in addition to larger samples, more detailed phenotyping and sophisticated modeling are needed to account for the role of environmental exposure in developing PTSD, as these influence GWAS discovery power. Widespread pleiotropy of significant loci suggests that cross-disorder analysis with PTSD^{73, 74} will enhance our understanding of how these loci modify risk for PTSD and related disorders.

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2.7 Disclosures

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2.8 Figures

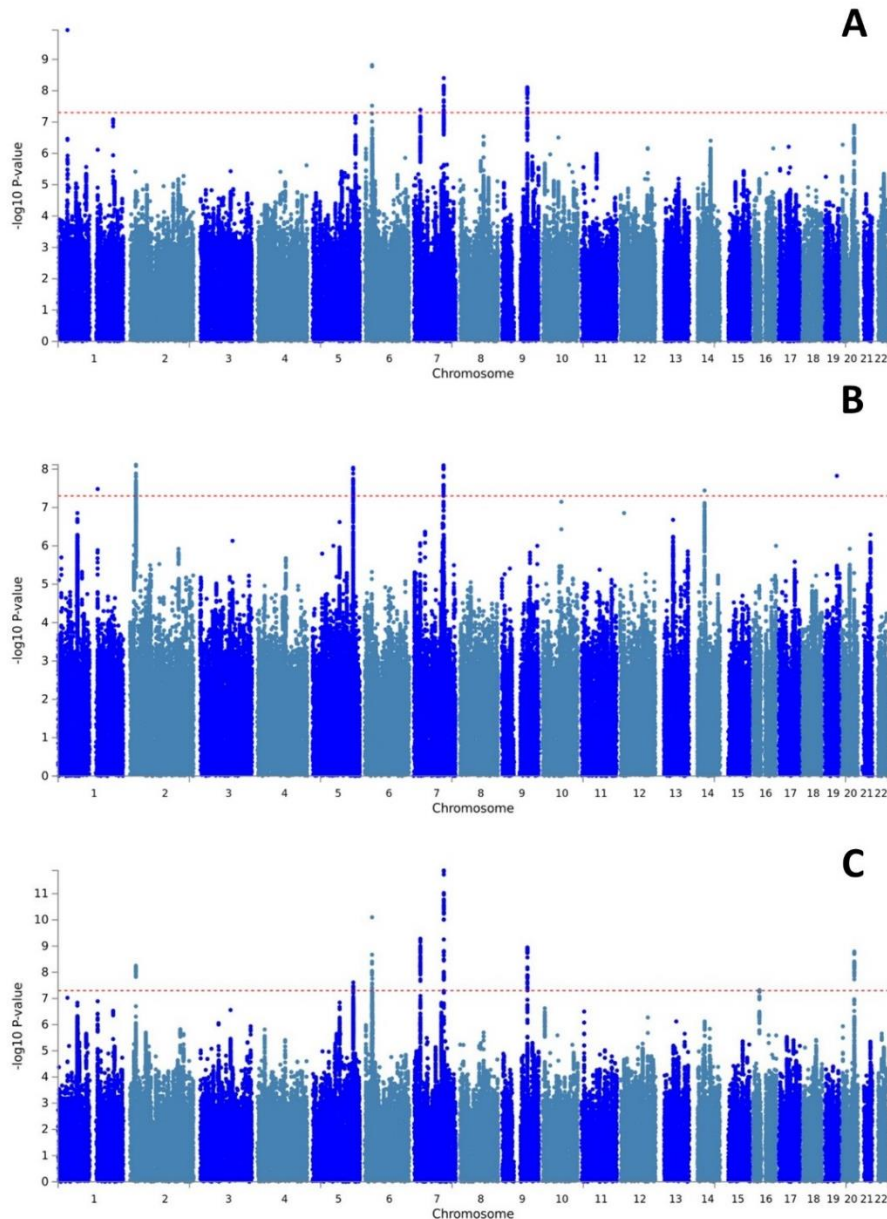


Figure 2.1. Manhattan plots of GWAS associations.

Footnote: The X-axis is the position on the genome, ordered by chromosome and base-pair position. The Y-axis is the $-\log_{10}$ p-value of association. Each dot represents the association between a given SNP and the trait. Colors alternate between chromosomes, with odd chromosomes colored blue, even chromosomes colored teal. Panel A) results of PTSD GWAS. Panel B) Results of LTE GWAS). Panel C) PTSD specific results of MTAG analysis of PTSD and LTE.

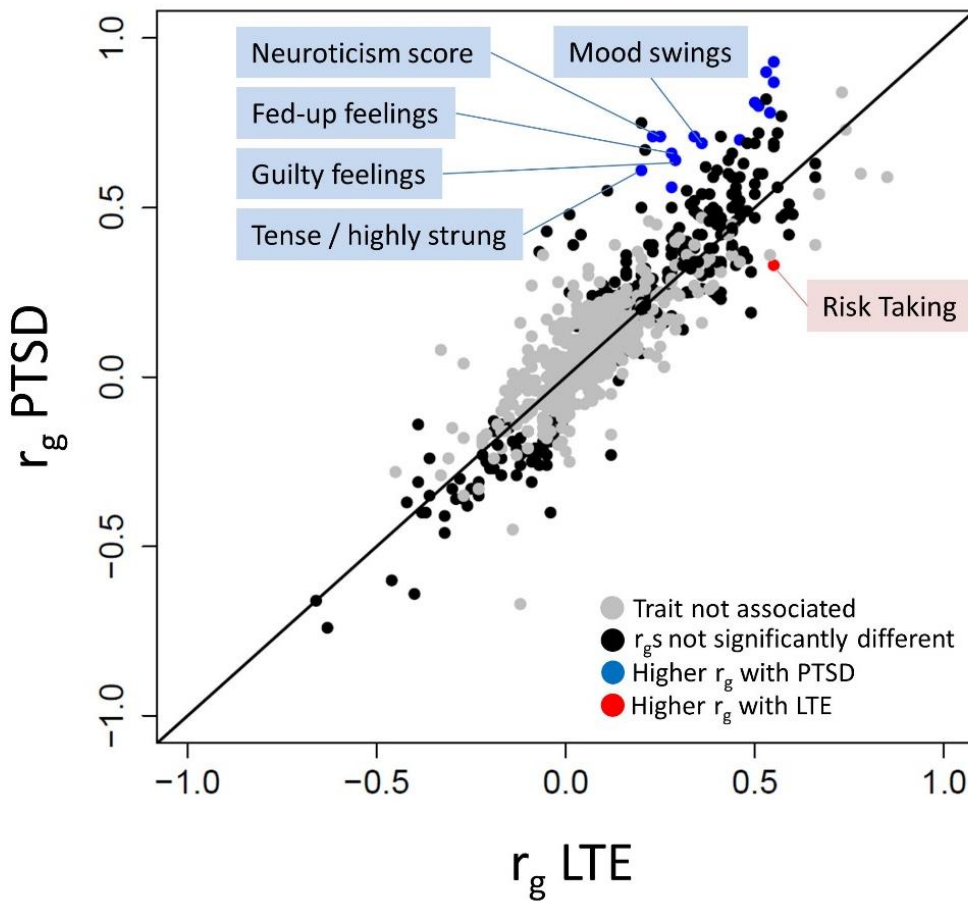


Figure 2.2. Comparison of the genetic correlations of PTSD and LTE to other traits.

Footnote: The X-axis is the genetic correlation between LTE and a given trait from LD hub. The Y-axis is the genetic correlation between PTSD and a given trait. Each dot depicts a given trait. Colored (black, red, or blue) dots indicate traits with significant genetic correlation to both PTSD and LTE after Bonferroni adjustment. Non-colored (grey) dots indicate traits where genetic correlation is not significant after Bonferroni adjustment. Blue dots indicate traits with significantly higher genetic correlation with PTSD than with LTE. Red dots indicate traits with significantly higher correlation with LTE than with PTSD. The top five traits with a significantly higher correlation to PTSD than LTE and top trait with significantly higher correlation to LTE than PTSD have been labeled.

2.9 Tables

Table 2.1. Genome-Wide Significant Loci from PTSD GWAS and MTAG with Replication in the MVP_{TOT} GWAS

Analysis	rsID	Chr	Position	A1	A2	PGC-PTSD GWAS			PGC-PTSD MTAG			MVP _{TOT}		
						A1 freq	Z	p-value	Z	p-value	A1 freq	Z	p-value ^a	
a)	rs72657988	1	35,688,541	T	G	0.08	6.44	1.2E-10	5.34	9.4E-08	0.07	2.18	0.029	
Identified	rs146918648	6	28,548,674	A	G	0.04	6.04	1.5E-09	6.50	8.0E-11	0.04	2.00	0.045	
in GWAS	rs2721816 ^b	7	24,699,329	A	G	0.82	-5.27	1.4E-07	-5.80	6.5E-09	0.82	-1.45	0.15	
	rs10266297	7	114,143,407	T	C	0.59	5.38	7.4E-08	6.72	1.8E-11	0.59	4.97	6.7E-07	
	rs10821140	9	96,253,169	A	C	0.35	-5.71	1.2E-08	-6.02	1.8E-09	0.34	-3.89	1.0E-04	
b)	rs4557006	2	22,443,840	A	G	0.45	4.26	2.0E-05	5.83	5.7E-09	0.45	5.53	3.2E-08	
Identified	rs1504930	5	155,852,066	T	C	0.62	-4.26	2.0E-05	-5.58	2.5E-08	0.62	-4.20	2.7E-05	
in MTAG	rs8059002	16	25,417,390	T	G	0.86	-4.43	9.3E-06	-5.46	4.8E-08	0.85	-1.50	0.13	
	rs7264419	20	47,701,309	A	G	0.75	-5.06	4.1E-07	-5.85	5.0E-09	0.76	0.55	0.58	

Abbreviations: Chr, chromosome; Position, base pair position on chromosome (hg19/GR37 Human Genome Build). A1, Allele 1 (coded); A2, Allele 2; A1 freq, frequency; Z, Z-score; C, cytosine; A, adenosine; T, thymidine; G, guanine;

^aSignificant in MVP if $p < 0.006$ (Bonferroni-corrected for 9 loci).

^bLD Proxy for rs2721817, the leading SNP in this locus

Table 2.2. Genome-Wide Significant Loci from GWAS of LTE

rsID	Chr	Position	A1	A2	A1 freq	Z-score	p-value
rs6661135	1	150999414	C	T	0.93	-5.52	3.3E-08
rs4665501	2	22546151	G	T	0.44	-5.77	7.7E-09
rs4704792	5	155757946	A	T	0.26	5.75	9.2E-09
rs1476535	7	114071035	C	T	0.44	-5.77	8.0E-09
rs2933196	14	47285917	G	A	0.59	-5.51	3.6E-08
rs770444611	19	46917381	INS ^a	T	0.59	5.66	1.5E-08

^aInsertion of TGAGGCCAGGAGTTC

Abbreviations: Chr, chromosome; Position, base pair position on chromosome (hg19/GR37 Human Genome Build). A1, Allele 1 (coded); A2, Allele 2; A1 freq, frequency; C, cytosine; A, adenosine; T, thymidine; G, guanidine;

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Chapter 3: Rare copy number variation in post traumatic stress disorder

3.1 Abstract

Background: Post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is a heritable (24%-71%) psychiatric illness. Copy number variation (CNV) is a form of rare genetic variation that has been implicated for its role in psychiatric disorders, but no large-scale investigation of CNV in PTSD has been performed. We present the largest association study between CNV burden and PTSD symptoms in a sample of 114,383 participants.

Methods: CNVs were called using two calling algorithms and intersected to a consensus set. Quality control was performed to remove strong outlier samples. CNVs were examined for association with PTSD within each cohort using linear or logistic regression analysis adjusted for population structure and CNV quality metrics, then inverse variance weighted meta-analyzed across cohorts. CNVs were examined on the level of genome-wide total span of CNVs, enrichment of CNVs within specified gene-sets, within individual genes, and implicated neurodevelopmental regions.

Results: PTSD risk was elevated in CNVs that crossed over known neurodevelopmental CNV regions ($\beta=0.0089$, $SE=0.0020$, $P=9.9 \times 10^{-6}$). The genome-wide neurodevelopmental CNV burden identified explains 0.033% of the variation in PTSD symptoms. Specifically, CNVs overlapping known neurodevelopmental CNV regions, 15q11.2 and 22q11.2, were significantly associated with PTSD. No individual significant genes interrupted by CNV were identified, but 7 gene pathways related to the function of the nervous system and brain were significant (FDR $q<0.05$).

Conclusion: This study is the first to identify significant association of CNVs with PTSD. Larger sample size data, better detection methods, and annotated resources of CNV are needed to explore this relationship further.

3.2 Introduction

Post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) has a substantial genetic component ¹. Recent large investigations of PTSD genetics have focused on common genetic variation ^{2,3}, but rare and structural forms of genetic variation are hypothesized to be important contributors to the development of psychiatric disorders ⁴. Rare and structural variation have been little studied in the context of PTSD ⁵. However, these forms of variation have been studied more thoroughly in the context of other psychiatric disorders, where many investigations have specifically focused on copy number variants (CNVs) ⁶. CNV associations have been identified for attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) ⁷, autism spectrum disorder (ASD) ⁸, depression ^{9,10}, obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) ¹¹, and schizophrenia ¹². Many of the identified psychiatric associations involved neurodevelopmental disorder (NDD) implicated CNVs with high penetrance ^{9,10,13}, but also the cumulative burden of CNVs across the genome and enrichment over specific pathways related to the brain and development of the nervous system ¹². Largely owing to lack of available data, there has been no major reported investigation of CNVs and PTSD. However, the recent availability of large sample size PTSD genetic data ² and available techniques to leverage this data to identify CNVs ¹⁴, means that it is now possible to investigate the association between PTSD and CNV burden with an unprecedented level of discovery power.

We present an association study between CNVs and PTSD symptoms, conducted in a sample of 114,383 participants from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium - PTSD ^{2,15}. We detected rare (<1% population frequency) CNVs using algorithms ¹⁶⁻¹⁸ applied to the SNP genotyping array intensity data. Following this, we

examined the impact of CNV on PTSD on multiple scales: genome-wide CNV burden, enrichment over 46 neuropsychiatric gene-sets (15), CNV burden on individual genes, and CNV carrier status over 53 previously implicated NDD CNV regions⁹. We conclude by comparing the risk contribution from CNVs to the contribution of common variant polygenic risk scores (PRSs).

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Participants and phenotyping

The study sample consisted of 114,383 European ancestry participants across 20 cohorts within the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium - PTSD freeze 2 data collection. Details of genotyping and phenotype measurement have been described in detail². In brief, participants were assessed for PTSD using either clinical assessment, clinician administered inventory, or self-reported inventory (Supplementary Table 3.1). Participants were genotyped using Illumina arrays, with the exception that the UK Biobank (UKBB) cohort used Affymetrix arrays. For this investigation, we retained only cohorts and collections of cohorts that were genotyped and analyzable together with at least 150 unrelated samples of genetically determined European ancestry (2). All participants provided written informed consent, and studies were approved by the relevant institutional review boards and the University of California San Diego Human Research Protection Program.

3.3.2 CNV calling

Illumina genotype platform data was self-clustered in Genome-Studio 2.0 and exported as intensity data inputs for CNV callers (SNP name, chromosome, position, allele 1, allele 2, B allele frequency, log R ratio, X, and Y). Affymetrix platform genotype

data clustering methods have been described previously (9), and log R ratio and B allele frequency data were downloaded directly from the UKBB. For Illumina datasets, CNV were quality controlled according to the PGC CNV calling pipeline for Illumina data¹². For Illumina data, CNVs were called using PennCNV¹⁷ and iPattern¹⁶. For Affymetrix data, CNVs were called using PennCNV and QuantiSNP¹⁸. For PennCNV calling, population frequency of B allele files were generated using the data itself. Waviness correction was applied using a GC content model file generated from UCSC gc_model data (<https://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgTables>). For the Hidden Markov Model input of PennCNV, the pre-supplied files were used: hhall.hmm for Illumina data and was affygw6.hmm for the UKBB data (<https://penncnv.openbioinformatics.org/en/latest/user-guide/input/#hmm-file>). iPattern calls were made using the default program settings, in batches of up to 196 samples. Batches were selected such that samples within a batch were genotyped on the same plate or genotyped at approximately the same time.

3.3.3 CNV quality control

To ensure that the analysis included a reliable set of calls, CNV calls from PennCNV and iPattern were intersected and merged to produce a consensus set. CNVs called as gain by one method and loss by the other were also excluded from further analyses. Fragmented large CNVs in a locus were annealed if the gap length between them was less than 30% of the overall length of the annealed CNV. CNV quality metrics calculated by PennCNV were used to perform sample QC. Subjects were removed if their values for SD of log R ratio, B allele frequency, or waviness were $\geq Q3 + 3IQR$, if $>20\%$ of any chromosome was copy number variant (aneuploidy), or if

they had excessive CNV count ($\geq Q3 + 3IQR$ CNVs) or KB burden ($\geq Q3 + 3 IQR$ megabases). Participants who failed standard genotype QC described in Nievergelt et al. ² (sample missingness rates $>2\%$, excess heterozygosity, mismatch between self-reported sex and genetically determined sex, π relatedness coefficient >0.2) were also removed. We removed CNVs for any of the following reasons: 50% overlap with centromeres, telomere, immunoglobulin or T-cell receptor loci, $>50\%$ overlap with known segmental duplications, CNV frequency $> 1\%$ (measured within the data) in cases and controls and $< 10\text{kb}$ in CNV length or intersecting < 10 probes.

3.3.4 CNV burden calculation

CNV burden was measured and evaluated for association with PTSD in multiple ways: The cumulative burden of CNVs was calculated as the genome-wide total distance (in megabases) spanned by CNVs. For each of the 53 NDD CNV regions, NDD CNV carrier status was determined as having at least 50% of the NDD CNV region overlapped by CNV. As a sensitivity analysis, two different overlap criteria ($>0\%$ or 100% overlap) were also evaluated. For gene-level CNV burden, first gene positions (GRCh37 human genome build) were downloaded from the UCSC table browser (<https://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgTables>). Genes were filtered to protein coding genes, based on having an "NM_" accession prefix in the National Center for Biotechnology Information reference sequence database ¹⁹. For genes with multiple isoforms, the minimum start and the maximum end positions were used. For each CNV, the CNV was mapped to all genes it overlapped by at least one base pair. The CNV burden variable was then calculated for each gene, coded 1 if the subject carried a CNV that mapped onto the gene, and 0 otherwise. For gene-set analysis, a gene-set

burden variable was calculated for each set tested, coded as the number of genes within the set overlapped by the CNVs. The gene-set analysis included 53 gene-sets, consisting of 23 gene-sets related to neurofunction or nervous system, 6 brain expression from BrainSpan consortium and 7 mouse phenotype negative control gene-sets from previous neurological disorders studies ^{12, 20}, a set of loss-of-function intolerant genes as defined by gnomAD v2.0 ²¹, and 16 brain-expressed gene-sets from human neocortex scRNA data ²².

3.3.5 Statistical Analyses

Within each cohort, the association between PTSD and CNVs was tested using a regression model of PTSD as predicted by the CNV variable, 5 principal components captured population structure ², and the log R ratio standard deviation sample quality metric from PennCNV. For the gene-set analyses, in order to follow the enrichment test model outlined by Raychaudhuri et al. ²³ analyses also contained predictors for genome-wide total CNV count, genome-wide average length of CNVs, count of CNV overlapping NDD regions, and average length of NDD overlapping CNVs. Linear regression was used for cohorts with continuous PTSD symptom measures, and probit regression was used for case/control cohorts. Results across cohorts were meta-analyzed using fixed effects inverse variance weighted meta-analysis in the metafor ²⁴ R package. For the meta-analysis, to account for the different PTSD measure scales used across cohorts, PTSD measures were scaled from 0 to 1 according to the theoretical range of scores of the assessment method (i.e. 0 = no PTSD symptoms, 1 = theoretical maximum possible PTSD symptoms), and case/control estimates were interpreted as being the observed, censored variable for a latent symptom measure variable.

Polygenic risk scores (PRSs) for PTSD were computed using PRSice2 v2.3.5²⁵, where Million Veteran Program PTSD GWAS³ summary statistics were used as the discovery dataset and the UKBB was used as the target. SNPs were filtered to common (minor allele frequency > 1%) variants and were linkage disequilibrium clumped ($r^2 > 0.1$, 250 KB window). The optimal PRS threshold was selected as the one with the lowest p-value in a regression model of PTSD in the UKBB. The proportion of variance in PTSD explained by PRS and CNV was the difference in model r-squared values between a baseline model that included basic covariates and an extended model with additional terms for PRS and CNV.

3.4 Results

The PTSD CNV meta-analysis included 114,383 participants of European ancestry across 20 cohorts (Supplementary Table 3.1, Table 3.1). 15 cohorts were genotyped using the Psych array (N=6,813 samples), 1 with the Psych Chip (N=756 samples), 3 with the OmniExpressExome+Custom content (N=9,432 samples), and one with the Affymetrix UK Biobank Axiom array (N=97,382). The method of PTSD assessment varied across cohorts, with most participants being assessed via PCL (N=106,353). The final dataset included 103,036 CNVs (41,473 gains and 61,563 losses), an average of 0.90 CNVs per sample (SD=1.03). 60.1% of subjects were carriers of at least one CNV (Table 3.1). Among CNV carriers, the average total span of CNV carried was 0.32 megabases (SD=0.35), and the average of within subject average CNV lengths was 0.23 megabases (SD=0.26)

3.4.1 Genome-wide CNV burden analysis

Genome-wide cumulative CNV burden was significantly associated with PTSD (beta=0.0028, SE=0.0008, P=0.0003) (Figure 3.1). We examined CNV burden stratified by type (duplication or deletion), finding that the total distance covered by deletions was significant (beta=0.0046, SE=0.0013, P=0.0004) but the total distance covered by duplications was not (beta=0.0018, SE=0.0010, P=0.065). Next, we examined CNV burden stratified by overlap with any of 53 previously implicated NDD CNV regions. The cumulative burden of CNV deletions that overlapped NDD regions was significantly associated with PTSD (beta=0.0290, SE=0.0054, P=6.3 x 10⁻⁸), while the duplication burden was only suggestively significant (beta=0.0053, SE=0.0023, P=0.024). The genome-wide burden of non-NDD CNV deletions was only suggestively significant (beta=0.0031, SE=0.0013, P=0.023), but significant if we considered only the CNVs overlapping genes (beta=0.0039, SE=0.0014, P=0.0065) (Supplementary Table 3.2).

3.4.2 Specific NDD CNV regions confer risk for PTSD

We investigated the association between PTSD and NDD CNV carrier status. 33 out of 53 NDD CNVs had at least 1 carrier (Supplementary Table 3.3). The most common NDD CNV was the 15q11.2 BP1-BP2 deletion (N=529 carriers, frequency = 0.0046). Two NDD CNV were significantly associated with increased PTSD symptoms, the 2q13 deletion (chr2:111,394,040-112,012,649, N=15 carriers, beta=0.1455, SE=0.0367, P=0.0001) and the 15q11.2 BP1-BP2 microdeletion (chr15:22,805,313-23,094,530, N=529 carriers, beta=0.0206, SE=0.0056, P=0.0002) (Figure 3.2). Given the limited number of carriers for 2q13, we tested the association again using robust standard errors, finding that the result was no longer significant (P=0.11). Overall results were similar under a stricter definition of carrier status (100% overlap of NDD CNV

region) (Supplementary Table 3.3). Under a loose definition of carrier status (>0% overlap of NDD CNV region), the 8p23.1 del, 15q11.2 BP1-BP2 del, 15q11.2q12 Prader-Willi/Angelman syndrome del, and 22q11.2 dup regions were significant.

3.4.3 Gene-level analysis

We examined CNV association on the level of protein coding genes. 2,880 genes harbored CNV with at least 0.01% frequency. We found that no gene was significant after multiple comparisons correction for the number of genes, in any strata (overall CNV, duplications, or deletions) (Supplementary table 4.4). However, the most significant genes among deletions were those in the 15q11.2 BP1-BP2 region and the most significant genes among duplications were in the 22q11.2 dup region.

3.4.4 Deletion burden aggregates across nervous system related gene-sets

We investigated if CNV burden association with PTSD was enriched in any of 46 different gene-sets related to the brain and nervous system. We identified 7 sets enriched in deletions. Out of these 7 gene-sets, 4 were neurofunction or nervous systems-related, two were sets of genes expressed in maturing excitatory neurons, and a set of genes highly expressed in the brain (Supplementary Table 3.5). For the genes highly expressed in the brain, we found that the enrichment is mainly from those expressed in the postnatal stage (beta=0.0023, SE=0.0010, P=0.023, FDR-q=0.10) (Supplementary Table 3.5). Many of the leading genes in these significant sets were overlapped by NDD CNVs (Supplementary table 3.6). As a sensitivity analysis, we removed subjects with CNV overlapping NDD regions (Supplementary Table 3.7). Under this analysis, gene-sets related to nervous system and neurological functions remained FDR significant, while the others fell outside of significance (FDR-q<0.1).

3.4.5 Comparisons with common variant genetics

We generated PTSD polygenic risk scores in our data using MVP PTSD GWAS as the training dataset and the UKBB as the target dataset. Common variant PRS explained 0.38% of the variation in PTSD symptoms (optimal $p_T=0.11$, $\beta=0.0080$, $SE=0.0004$, $P=5.3 \times 10^{-83}$). Adding coefficient for cumulative burden of CNV overlapping NDD CNV regions explained an additional 0.033% of the variation ($\beta=0.0418$, $SE=0.0073$, $P=1.2 \times 10^{-8}$) (Supplementary Table 3.8).

3.5 Discussion

The association between the cumulative burden of CNVs and PTSD was largely driven by CNVs overlapping previously implicated NDD CNV regions. This is a quite similar finding to those of two recent studies of major depression and CNVs^{9, 10}. In terms of how this burden modifies depression risk, Kendall et al.⁹ suggested that some of the CNV effects are mediated by sociodemographic risk factors. As PTSD has similar risk factors²⁶, NDD CNVs may influence PTSD risk via the same mediated mechanisms. We propose that some of the psychiatric and neurodevelopmental consequences of CNVs may also increase PTSD risk, as they represent PTSD risk factors^{27 28}.

In examining the individual NDD CNVs, the most significant association we observed with PTSD was the 15q11.2 BP1-BP2 microdeletion, one of the most frequently occurring pathogenic CNVs identified in humans²⁹. This CNV is associated with alterations in brain morphology and cognition³⁰. There a wide variety of possible clinical manifestations, including developmental delays, intellectual disability, as well as behavioral and psychiatric problems, including ADHD, ASD and schizophrenia³¹.

However, some of these associated outcomes are thought to be false positives caused by ascertainment bias ³². Under a less strict definition of NDD carrier status (>0% overlap with NDD CNV region), the most significant association identified was with the 22q11.2 duplication region. The 22q11.2 duplication has a variety of deleterious impacts ³³, but generally they are less severe than those observed in the 22q11.2 deletion ³⁴. Rather than any specific functional aspects of these CNVs having led to the significant associations that we observed, we suspect that their relatively high frequencies in the data made them among the most statistically powered to identify.

On a broader level, we observed enrichment of CNVs overlapping gene-sets related to the function of the brain and nervous system, such as deletions in genes expressed in maturing excitatory neurons, as well as those highly expressed in the brain during the postnatal stage. These results are fairly in line with findings from common variant analyses of PTSD and other psychiatric disorders, which tend to find enrichment of signals in brain regions and neurodevelopmental gene-sets ^{3, 35-37}. Thus, CNVs may ultimately influence the same genes and pathways as common variants, as was recently hypothesized in an analysis of schizophrenia ³⁸.

Our PRS analysis suggests that CNVs represent genetic risk factors for PTSD that are not readily identified by common variant analyses. In terms of the accuracy of population risk prediction, the addition of CNVs was only a marginal improvement over PRS. However, given the rarity of CNVs, population genetic risk prediction may not be the most useful aspect ³⁹ of determining CNV risk. Rather, CNV carriers may be a subset of individuals for whom a tailored health management strategy ³⁹ applies. Indeed, CNV carrier status has been proposed as a tool in clinical decision making for

psychiatric disorders, albeit one that will first require expansion of the clinical knowledge base of CNVs⁴⁰. But it is unclear how much this will apply directly to PTSD, as the CNV effect sizes we observed were relatively modest compared to the ones observed in disorders like schizophrenia¹².

3.5.1 Limitations

We focused only on rare (<1% frequency) CNVs larger than 10 kilobases in length due to the detection limits of array based CNV calling. However, small CNVs may have clinical importance^{41, 42}. Future investigation of the relationship between small CNVs and PTSD will likely require sequencing data, as the dense genotyping allows for the determination of CNV at a higher resolution than SNP genotyping arrays⁴³. Thus, we expect that CNV investigations will emerge as sequencing data becomes available from biobank resources⁴⁴. We were unable to assess the impact of *de novo* CNV specifically, which would require case-parent trio data to identify. Yet, *de novo* variation is an important form of risk to investigate, as it occurs more often in cases than controls for ADHD, ASD, and schizophrenia⁴⁵. PTSD genetic studies usually do not gather parent genotype data, implying that new data would need to be gathered in order to study this. We note that several of the cohorts investigated were from specially selected populations. The UKBB is known to be healthier than the general population of the United Kingdom⁴⁶. As well, we analyzed several military populations, where good physical and mental health are required for enlistment. Due to carriers not having been selected for health reasons consequential to their carrier status, our study may have incorrectly estimated (or outright not detected) some effects of CNV on PTSD. Indeed, this may be why we specifically identified the 15q11.2 BP1-BP2 deletion and 22q11.2

duplications: As these CNVs have relatively milder impacts compared to some CNVs ³² ³⁴, more seemingly unaffected carriers would exist in the investigated cohorts. We did not identify any particular genes where the presence of CNVs had a significant association with PTSD. The limited statistical power of low frequency variation ⁴⁷ perhaps inhibited our ability to detect these genes. Therefore, we hypothesize that specific gene associations will emerge given greater sample sizes or analytic techniques more suited for this form of data, especially as we had positively identified specific gene-sets. We only tested for enrichment of gene sets related to the brain and nervous system, however, CNV may act on other relevant pathways; CNV are thought to have widespread phenotypic effects, such as on the immune system ⁴⁸, which is also deeply implicated in PTSD development ⁴⁹.

3.5.2 Conclusions

We have performed, to our knowledge, the largest (N=114,383 participants) investigation of the influence of CNV burden on PTSD risk, and furthermore, are the first to identify significant associations. Risk was enriched in regions that crossed over known NDD regions and in pathways related to the function of the nervous system and brain. In particular, we have implicated the 15q11.2 BP1-BP2 microdeletion. Larger sample size data, better detection methods, and annotated resources of CNV are necessary to explore these relationships further.

3.6 Acknowledgements

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Chapter 3 is currently being prepared for submission for publication of the material. Co-authors include Worrawat Engchuan, Marieke Klein, Jeffrey R MacDonald, Omar Shanta, Bhooma Thiruvahindrapuram, Guillaume Huguet, Martineau Jean-louis, Zohra Saci, Sebastien Jacquemont, Stephen W Scherer, Elizabeth Ketema, , Allison E Aiello, Ananda B Amstadter, Esmina Avdibegovic, Dragan Babic, Jonathan I Bisson, Elizabeth A Bolger, Richard A Bryant, Jose Miguel Caldas-de-Almeida, Jurgen Deckert, Douglas L Delahanty, Katharina Domschke, Boadie Dunlop, Alma Dzubur-Kulenovic, Alexandra Evans, Norah C Feeny, Carol E Franz, Aarti Gautam, Aferdita Goci Uka, Rasha Hammamieh, Miro Jakovljevic, Marti Jett, Ian Jones, Milissa L Kaufman, Ronald C Kessler, Anthony P King, William S Kremen, Bruce R Lawford, Lauren A M Lebois, Catrin Lewis, Israel Liberzon, Sarah D Linnstaedt ,Bozo Lugonja, Michael J Lyons, Matig R Mavissakalian, Katie A McLaughlin, Samuel A McLean, Divya Mehta, Rebecca Mellor, Charles Phillip Morris, Seid Muhie, Holly K Orcutt, Matthew Peverill, Andrew Ratanatharathorn, Albert Rizzo, Andrea L Roberts, Alex O Rothbaum, Barbara O Rothbaum, Peter Roy-Byrne, Kenneth J Ruggiero, Julia S Seng, Christina M Sheerin, Martin H Teicher, Robert J Ursano, Joanne Voisey, Heike Weber, Sherry Winternitz, Ruoting Yang, Ross McD Young, Lori A Zoellner, Rany M Salem, Richard Shaffer, Tianying Wu, Kerry J Ressler, Murray B Stein, Karestan C Koenen, Jonathan Sebat, and Caroline M Nievergelt. The dissertation author was the primary investigator and author of this paper.

3.7 Figures

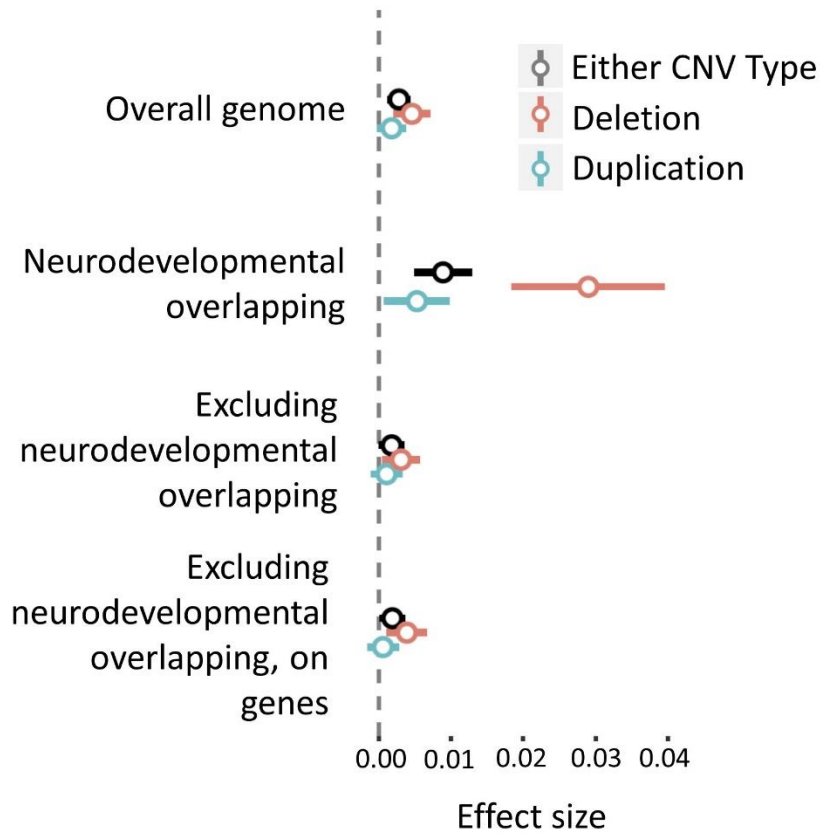


Figure 3.1. Genome-wide CNV burden association.

Footnote: The bar plot depicts regression beta coefficients as effect sizes (on the x-axis) of genome-wide CNV burden on PTSD, including overall burden, overlapping neurodevelopmental regions only, and genome-wide with neurodevelopmental regions excluded (on the y-axis). Data are shown stratified by CNV type, both CNV types (colored black), duplications only (colored red), and deletions only (colored blue). Effect sizes are shown in terms of megabases of the genome spanned by CNV.

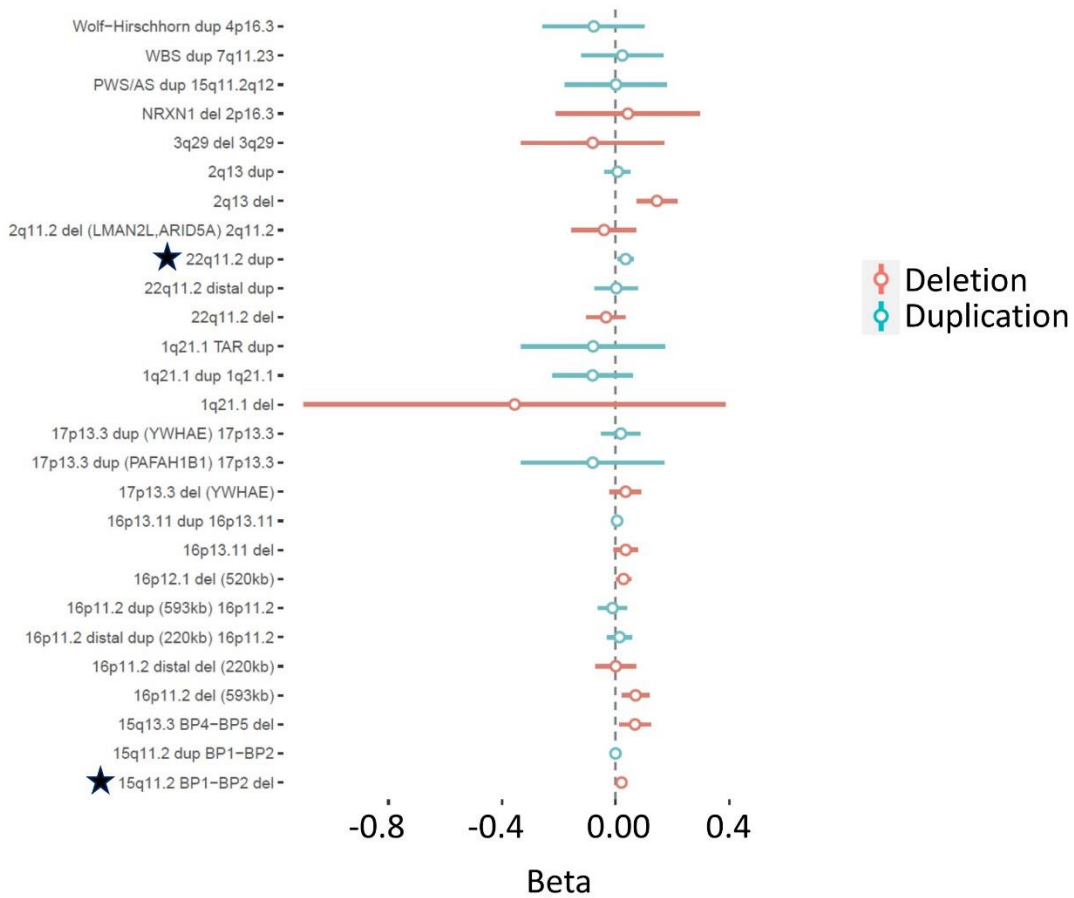


Figure 3.2. Association of individual NDD CNVs with PTSD

Footnote: The bar plot depicts regression beta coefficients as effect sizes (on the x-axis) of NDD CNVs (on the y-axis) on PTSD. Data are colored by CNV type, with deletions in blue and duplications in red. Effect sizes are shown in terms of megabases of the genome spanned by CNV. A star indicates an FDR significant CNVs.

3.8 Tables

Table 3.1. Cohorts analyzed

Number	Study	Genotyping array	N subjects	N CNVs	↓ Deletions	Duplications	N Carriers	↓ NV Spar	SD	N CNV/Carrier	SD	Length	SD
52	FTCB	PsychChip	756	991	450	541	504	0.31	0.42	1.97	1.39	0.16	0.19
55	GMRF	PsychArray 1.1	192	177	80	97	105	0.40	0.56	1.69	0.96	0.21	0.19
54	GRAC	PsychArray 1.1	151	174	91	83	99	0.29	0.31	1.76	1.11	0.16	0.14
1	MRSC	OmniExpressExome8 + Custom	1374	2,927	1,399	1,528	1,147	0.26	0.32	2.55	1.74	0.10	0.12
14	NSS1	OmniExpressExome8 + Custom	3664	7,363	3,308	4,055	3,031	0.31	0.42	2.43	1.66	0.12	0.15
16	PPDS	OmniExpressExome8 + Custom	4394	9,012	4,062	4,960	3,649	0.28	0.37	2.47	1.67	0.11	0.16
21	PSY2	PsychArray 1.1	4446	6,061	2,929	3,132	2,997	0.43	0.90	2.02	1.59	0.20	0.27
37	PSY3	PsychArray 1.1	699 ^a	1,017	537	480	491	0.37	0.53	2.07	1.57	0.18	0.23
41	NCMH	PsychArray 1.1	961	1,067	442	625	598	0.43	0.67	1.78	1.08	0.23	0.31
17	PTSI	PsychArray 1.1	364 ^b	556	214	342	271	0.32	0.48	2.02	1.32	0.15	0.18
60	UKBB	ymatrix UK Biobank Axiom arr	97382	73,691	48,061	25,630	55,872	0.36	0.57	1.32	0.56	0.27	0.39

Abbreviations: Number, study accession number in PGC-PTSD Freeze 2; N, sample size, CNV Span, mean genomic length spanned by CNV (in megabases), in CNV carriers only; N CNV, mean number of detected CNVs, among CNV carriers only; Length, across carriers, the mean of subjects' mean CNV length (in megabases)

^a Analyzed as a case/control study with 254 cases and 445 controls

^b Analyzed as a case/control study with 215 cases and 149 controls

Table 3.2. FDR significant gene-sets

Set Name	Set Category	Beta	SE	Z	p	FDR
PhHs_NervSys_All	PhenoNeuro	0.0053	0.0015	3.5842	0.0003	0.016
Neurof_GoNeuronProj	Neurofunction	0.0054	0.0016	3.3300	0.0009	0.024
Neurof_UnionStringent	Neurofunction	0.0047	0.0016	2.9809	0.0029	0.033
scRNA_Expressed_ExM	scRNA brain expressed ge	0.0033	0.0011	2.9549	0.0031	0.033
scRNA_Expressed_ExM_U	scRNA brain expressed ge	0.0031	0.0010	2.9786	0.0029	0.033
BspanVH_lg2rpkm4.74	ExprBrainSpan	0.0023	0.0008	2.8762	0.0040	0.035
PhHs_NervSys_ADX	PhenoNeuro	0.0057	0.0021	2.7779	0.0055	0.042

Abbreviation: FDR, false discovery rate q value

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Chapter 4. The effects of genetically predicted posttraumatic stress disorder on autoimmune conditions and inflammatory biomarkers

4.1 Abstract

Background: Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is associated with elevated levels of peripheral inflammatory markers and increased risk of developing disorders with an inflammatory component. Some research suggests inflammation itself may increase risk of developing PTSD after trauma. It is uncertain if these relationships are causal, as associations originate from observational studies. Mendelian randomization (MR) can be used to investigate the causal relationships using readily available genome-wide association study (GWAS) summary data.

Methods: The genetic correlations between PTSD and inflammatory biomarkers and diseases with an inflammatory component were estimated using linkage disequilibrium score regression. Genetic causality proportions were estimated using latent causal variable analysis. Bidirectional MR was performed using genome-wide significant, linkage disequilibrium independent single nucleotide polymorphisms. Inverse variance weighted, weighted median, and MR Egger estimates were generated. Sensitivity analyses for sample overlap (MRlap), heterogeneity (Cochran's Q test), and uncorrelated (MR PRESSO) and correlated horizontal pleiotropy (CAUSE) were performed.

Results: PTSD had significant genetic correlations with 11 inflammatory phenotypes. CRP had a significant shared genetic causality with PTSD ($gcp = -0.3$, $se = 0.04$, $p = 1.3e-19$). MR analyses indicated that genetically predicted PTSD was significantly associated with asthma, CRP, IL6, psoriasis, and white blood cell count

(FDR $q < 0.05$). MR effects were not significant in the other causal direction. Inferences were not significantly altered by sample overlap or horizontal pleiotropy. In multivariable MR analyses, the effect of PTSD on psoriasis was no longer significant when adjusted for CRP.

Conclusion: Our findings suggest that PTSD has a putative causal effect on some inflammatory phenotypes, consistent with evidence of stress- and trauma-related disorders predicting greater risk of inflammatory disorders. Previously proposed inflammatory mechanisms seem to be involved in some of these relationships.

4.2 Introduction

Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is a debilitating psychiatric illness that develops in response to traumatic stress exposure ¹. PTSD is characterized by intrusive memories, avoidance, negative changes in thinking and mood, and changes in physical and emotional reactions². Symptoms last for longer than one month and cause considerable distress and/or interference with multiple areas of life². PTSD is often co-morbid with physical and psychiatric illnesses ³, many of which have an inflammatory component ⁴. For example, longitudinal studies suggest that PTSD precedes the development of asthma ⁵ and autoimmune diseases ^{6,7}. This has led to the general hypothesis that PTSD involves dysregulation of the immune system ⁴. Much of the direct evidence for an inflammatory component of PTSD comes from biomarker studies that show elevated serum measures of inflammatory cytokines ⁸ and white blood cell counts ⁹ in PTSD cases. As well, evidence is provided from emerging genetic ¹⁰, epigenetic ^{11, 12}, and transcriptomic ¹³ studies. The causal relationship between inflammation and PTSD is unclear and suspected to involve a complicated temporality ⁴. The few longitudinal studies of the inflammatory biomarker C-reactive protein (CRP) have provided mixed evidence ¹⁴ of the temporal relationship between PTSD and inflammation.

Deeper understanding of the nature of the relationship between inflammation and PTSD may enhance treatment options for PTSD, as well as treatment options for co-morbid diseases with inflammatory components ^{15 4}. Two sample Mendelian randomization (MR) ¹⁶ has been proposed as a means of evaluating the causal relationship between PTSD and inflammation ¹⁴. This method requires genetic

predictors of PTSD and inflammatory phenotypes, which have now been identified by large genome-wide association studies (GWASes) of PTSD and these traits ^{10, 17 18}. Extensions of MR ¹⁹ and other methods of genetic causal inference analysis such as latent causal variable (LCV) analysis ²⁰ continue to be developed to strengthen confidence in the validity of causal inferences made using genetic data.

In the current study, we investigated the causal relationship between PTSD and several inflammatory phenotypes by applying genetically-informed causal inference analyses to large-scale GWAS summary data. First, we examined the genetic overlap between PTSD and these phenotypes using genetic correlation analyses ²¹. For traits with significant genetic correlation, we inferred genetic causality between them using LCV analyses and two sample MR. We performed several sensitivity analyses to evaluate the validity of our findings. We examined all associations for a confounding or mediating effect of a general inflammatory signal ²²

4.3 Methods

4.3.1 Data sources and harmonization

PTSD summary data came from the PGC-PTSD ¹⁰ Freeze 3 European ancestry GWAS (manuscript in preparation). For inflammatory phenotypes, we compiled a list of phenotypes with published association with PTSD, which included blood cell types, inflammatory biomarkers, autoimmune diseases, and other diseases with an inflammatory component. We searched Google Scholar and the GWAS catalog (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas/>) for GWASes of these phenotypes. SNP level summary statistics were downloaded where available, either via public link or request made to the

authors. To be considered for analysis, genome-wide GWAS summary data needed to contain SNP rs-id, coded and non-coded alleles, effect size, corresponding standard error, and p-value. To prevent confounding due to ancestral differences, only European ancestry GWAS summary statistics were considered. When multiple GWAS were available for the same phenotype, our analytic preference was to use the set of summary statistics from the largest sample size data available. Our analytic sample consisted of 47 phenotypes, including allergic diseases and asthma²³, 15 blood cell phenotypes²⁴, celiac disease²⁵, 16 circulating cytokines²⁶, CRP²⁷, interleukin-6 (IL-6)²⁸, inflammatory bowel disease²⁹ (including Crohn's and ulcerative colitis disease), Parkinson's disease³⁰, primary biliary cirrhosis³¹, psoriasis³², rheumatoid arthritis³³, systemic lupus erythematosus³⁴, suPAR³⁵, and type 1 diabetes³⁶ (Supplementary table 4.1).

4.3.2 Linkage disequilibrium (LD) score regression (LDSC)

SNP-based heritability of phenotypes and their genetic correlations (r_g s) with PTSD were estimated using LDSC²¹ with the 1000 Genomes Phase 3 European reference panel. Significance of r_g was based on FDR adjustment for the number of correlations tested. Phenotypes with significant r_g with PTSD were carried forward for MR analyses. We omitted phenotypes with heritability z-scores < 4 from further analyses, as r_g s are not easily interpretable when the precision of the heritability estimate is this low³⁷.

4.3.3 LCV analysis

To broadly estimate genetic causality shared between PTSD and immune-related phenotypes, we used the LCV method²⁰. This method estimates the r_g between

phenotypes, then an LCV model is fit to determine the degree to which the r_g is mediated by a latent variable with a causal effect on both phenotypes. This latent variable estimates the proportion of genetic causality shared between phenotypes (GCP), ranging from -1 to 1. Positive values reflect a causal influence of the first trait on the second, negative values reflect a causal influence of the second trait on the first. Values of -1 or 1 reflect total causal overlap, while a value of 0 indicates no shared causality.

4.3.4 MR analyses

The TwoSampleMR R package ³⁸ was used to harmonize data and perform MR. Effect allele coding was harmonized across phenotypes using the `harmonise_data` function. As minor allele frequency was missing for several phenotypes, strand ambiguous SNPs were excluded. Genetic instruments were constructed using genome-wide significant SNPs. SNPs were LD clumped ($r^2 \leq 0.001$ in 1000 Genomes Phase 3 Europeans data ³⁹) to insure independence. SNPs within two highly pleiotropic regions, the MHC region ²⁰ (Chromosome 6, 28,477,797 - 33,448,354 BP) and 17q21.31 region inversion (Chromosome 17, 40,928,986 - 42,139,672 BP) were excluded, with a 3MB buffer added to ensure markers in LD were also removed.

We conducted two-sample bidirectional MR analysis using the inverse variance weighted (IVW) estimator with multiplicative random effects. MR analysis was also performed using complementary MR Egger regression ⁴⁰ and weighted median ⁴¹ estimators. To account for multiple testing, false discovery rate (FDR) correction was applied within each estimator. Multiple sensitivity analyses were performed. To detect unbalanced horizontal pleiotropy (defined as direct effects of genetic instruments on the

outcome of interest with a net nonzero effect), we used the MR Egger intercept test ⁴⁰. Heterogeneity among SNP instruments was identified using the Cochran's Q test and the MR PRESSO ⁴² global test. The MR PRESSO outlier test was performed to identify outliers. The MR PRESSO distortion test was used to determine if the outlier-adjusted IVW estimate was significantly different from the unadjusted one. To evaluate if our associations could be explained by correlated horizontal pleiotropy (defined as genes influencing a third factor which in turn has pleiotropic effects on the exposure and outcome traits) on the investigated traits, we used the CAUSE method ¹⁹. This method fits a set of nested models: a 'null' model where only uncorrelated horizontal pleiotropy (defined as direct effects of genes on the outcome with net zero effect) is modeled, a 'sharing' model where an additional parameter is fit to account for correlated horizontal pleiotropy, and a 'causal' model where an additional causal effect parameter is fit. The relative fits of the models are compared to determine if a causal model explains the relationship better than a model that only accounts for correlated horizontal pleiotropy. To account for potential sample overlap between PTSD and other phenotypes, we applied the MRlap ⁴³ method. MRlap uses the LDSC genetic covariance intercept as an adjustment factor to account for sample overlap. MRlap compares the adjusted and unadjusted IVW estimates using a z-test. Multivariable MR analysis was performed using CRP as an additional exposure using the MendelianRandomization R package ⁴⁴.

4.4 Results

4.4.1 r_g and genetic causality between PTSD and immune-related phenotypes

We evaluated the SNP-based heritability of 47 phenotypes. 17 phenotypes had heritability Z-scores less than 4, making them unreliable for estimating r_g and were

therefore excluded from further analyses. Of the remaining 30 phenotypes, PTSD had significant r_g with 11 (Figure 4.1), with the correlations ranging in magnitude from 0.05 (neutrophil cell count) to 0.28 (IL-6) (Supplementary Table 4.2). LCV analysis indicated that CRP was partially genetically causal for PTSD (genetic causality proportion = -0.3, SE= 0.04, $p = 1.26 \times 10^{-19}$; $r_g = 0.25$, se= 0.05). No other phenotype had evidence of genetic causality that reached statistical significance (Supplementary Table 4.3).

4.4.2 MR analysis

The 11 phenotypes with significant r_g with PTSD were carried forward for MR analyses. Up to 62 independent genome-wide significant SNPs were included in the genetic instrumental variable for PTSD. For the IVW based estimator, there was evidence of significant association between genetically predicted PTSD and seven inflammatory phenotypes, including asthma, CRP, IL-6, psoriasis, neutrophil count, and total white blood cell count (Table 4.1), all in the positive effect direction. With the exception of psoriasis, the IVW estimate that accounted for sample overlap between PTSD and the investigated phenotypes was significantly higher than the unadjusted estimate (Supplementary Table 4.4). For the weighted median estimator, CRP, asthma, and white blood cell count effects were FDR significant and similar to IVW effects. No result was significant under the MR Egger regression method. We performed multivariable MR using genetically predicted CRP as a surrogate variable for general inflammatory processes (Figure 4.2). The genetically predicted PTSD effect size on psoriasis was significantly weaker after this adjustment (Table 4.2). We performed MR in the other causal direction, testing for association between genetically predicted

inflammatory phenotypes and PTSD. No genetically predicted inflammatory phenotypes were significantly associated with PTSD (Supplementary Table 4.5).

4.4.3 Sensitivity analyses

Of the seven inflammatory phenotypes that were significantly associated with PTSD in the IVW MR analyses, Cochran's Q test suggested significant heterogeneity for CRP, asthma, white blood cell count, and neutrophil count, indicating pleiotropy (Table 4.1). Similarly, MR PRESSO global test for horizontal pleiotropy was significant for these phenotypes (Supplementary Table 4.6). However, following outlier removal, the outlier-corrected IVW estimates for these phenotypes were not significantly different from the original IVW estimates. The MR Egger intercept test for unbalanced horizontal pleiotropy was not significant for any phenotype tested (Table 4.1).

To determine if putative associations could potentially be accounted for by a third factor, we contrasted CAUSE estimated sharing and causal models to null models (Supplementary Table 4.7). For the effect of genetically predicted PTSD on CRP, a causal model was a better fit than a sharing model (causal effect = 0.05, 95% CI=[0.13 - 0.18], $p=8.5 \times 10^{-8}$). For asthma, psoriasis, and white blood cell count, the causal model was only a nominally significantly better fit than the sharing model ($p < 0.05$). When we tested for causal effects in the other direction, for CRP the sharing model was a better fit than the null model ($p=0.0047$), but the causal model was not a better fit than the sharing model ($p=0.18$). No other phenotype had a significantly better fit using sharing or causal models versus the null model.

4.5 Discussion

PTSD is associated with a pro-inflammatory state and is co-morbid with inflammatory disorders ⁴. The causal relationship between PTSD and inflammation is unclear, as is the causal relationship between PTSD and the development of inflammatory diseases ⁴. In the current study, we performed genetic causal inference analyses of PTSD and several inflammatory biomarkers and diseases. We identified putative causal relationships between PTSD inflammatory biomarkers, CRP, IL-6, and white blood cell count (overall and neutrophils), as well as with diseases with an inflammatory component including asthma and psoriasis.

CRP is often used as a biomarker of inflammation, such that it has been used as a surrogate variable for inflammation in MR ²². A recent MR study suggested that there is a bi-directional causal relationship between PTSD and CRP⁴⁵, further suggesting the complicated directionality of the relationship between PTSD and inflammation ⁴. Our current results provided mixed evidence for both directions of causal association. Our MR analyses suggested a causal effect of PTSD on CRP, but that the causal effect of CRP on PTSD is perhaps confounded by a third factor. In contrast, the LCV analyses suggested that there is a shared genetic causality of PTSD and CRP that is driven by CRP. We however cannot rule out that the observed associations are the result of the limitations of using CRP as a biomarker for inflammation. Namely, CRP considered to be a downstream inflammatory biomarker ^{46 47}, such that CRP may measure both upstream inflammation and pro-inflammatory effects of PTSD, thus resulting in bias from reverse causation.

Longitudinal studies suggest that PTSD increases the risk of autoimmune diseases such as psoriasis⁷. We observed a significant causal effect of genetically determined PTSD on psoriasis. Given that the association attenuated upon conditioning on CRP, our results may suggest that the inflammatory component of PTSD is what mediates increased risk of psoriasis. Thus, to understand how PTSD relates to risk of autoimmune diseases, it remains imperative to understand the relationship is between PTSD and inflammation.

Our MR results suggest a causal effect of PTSD on asthma, but that this association may be explained by an unknown confounding factor. Adjustment for CRP as a surrogate for inflammation did not attenuate the observed association. Thus, despite the inflammatory component of asthma⁴⁸, the inflammatory signals measured by CRP may not represent a mediating factor in the association between PTSD and asthma. Longitudinal cohort studies suggest that stress and social factors related to PTSD do not account for this increased risk^{5, 49}, leaving us to speculate on what aspect of PTSD increases asthma risk. However, we note these findings are complicated by the general heterogeneity of asthma, which has an imperfect genetic correlation between subtypes²³, and thus findings may be different if asthma sub-types were to be considered.

Adjusting for CRP provided some degree of attenuation for the effect of PTSD on IL-6 and white blood cell count. The production of CRP is stimulated by IL-6 (42), suggesting that there is a correlation between their serum measures. Further, white blood cells have a reciprocal relationship with cytokines (41), such that they may be measuring similar inflammatory signals. Indeed, we measured significant r_g of CRP with

IL-6 and white blood cell count. It is not clear however, if CRP is measuring a broad inflammatory signal, such that it is also unclear if the underlying inflammatory signal measured by these three biomarkers is truly the same. For that reason, it would be beneficial to differentiate the genetic signals contributing to different inflammatory biomarkers to help differentiate what they measure^{18, 26}, perhaps then leading to insights into their association with PTSD.

4.5.1 Limitations

Power to perform MR in the direction of phenotype effects on PTSD was limited due to phenotypes having relatively few genetic markers with strong effects. However, as this is a very active field of investigation, we expect that more powered GWAS summary data will be released in the future. We did not focus on disorders related to systemic inflammation⁴ such as cardiovascular disease and metabolic syndrome, but these are major co-morbidities with PTSD¹. Of the phenotypes examined, our investigation focused only on phenotypes with significant r_g with PTSD. However, some traits may have significant genetic overlap with PTSD, albeit with complicated pleiotropy that r_g cannot adequately summarize⁵⁰. MR could still be performed if this pleiotropy were properly accounted for. Thus, a future investigation could screen on shared genetic overlap rather than r_g , then take great care in the selection of instrumental variables for MR. While outside the scope of this analysis, a detailed study of genetic overlap between PTSD and inflammatory traits, using recently developed methods^{50 51}, could help deliver additional mechanistic insights. It is unclear if the associations we observed are related to PTSD itself, or consequences of traumatic stress exposure, as in general stress is related to inflammation. It is also unclear if factors like socio-

economic status mediate some of these relationships, as was suggested by Polimanti et al.⁴⁵.

4.5.2 Conclusions

PTSD has a putative causal effect on inflammatory phenotypes, consistent with evidence of stress-related disorders increasing risk of conditions with an inflammatory component^{5,7}. Previously proposed inflammatory mechanisms may mediate some of these relationships. Further mechanistic investigation has to be performed to understand the role of inflammation in PTSD¹⁴.

4.6 Acknowledgements

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4.7 Figures

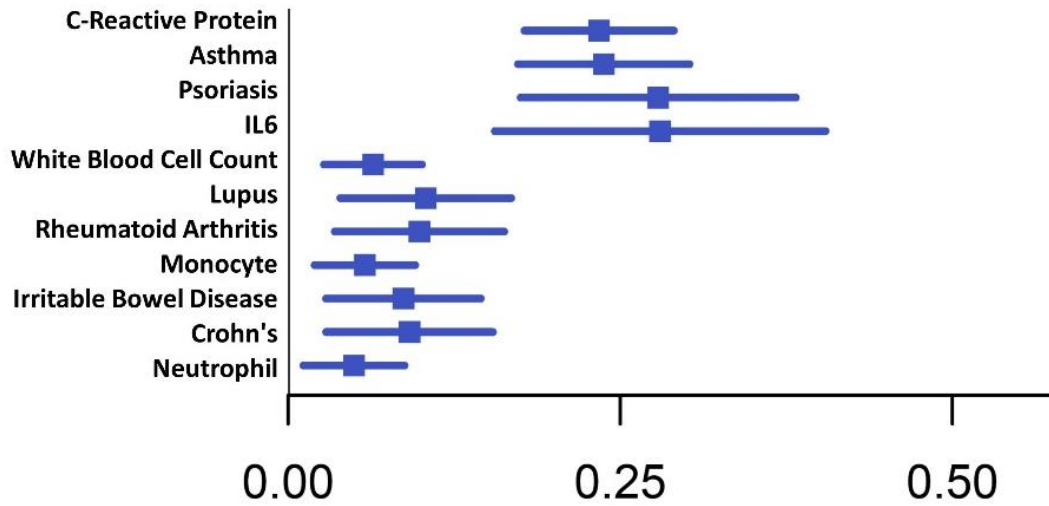


Figure 4.1. Significant genetic correlations between PTSD and autoimmune disorders and inflammatory biomarkers.

Footnote: The x-axis indicates the magnitude of genetic correlation with PTSD. The y-axis represents each trait with significant association with PTSD, indexed in the style of a barplot. Each square represents the genetic correlation of a given trait with PTSD, with the bars representing 95% confidence intervals.

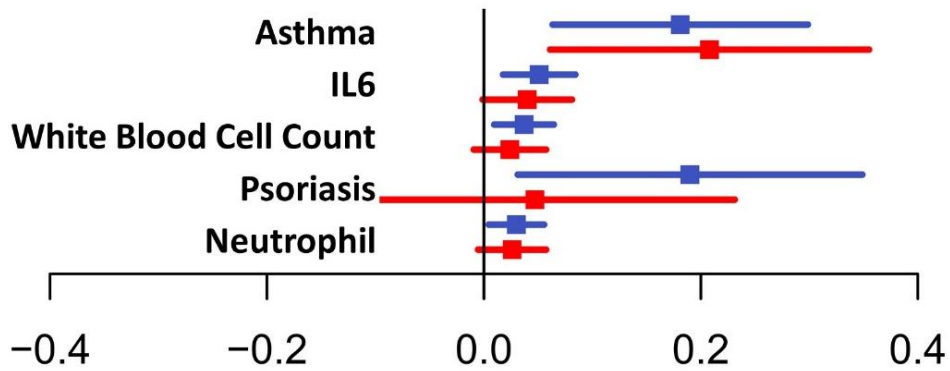


Figure 4.2. Causal effects of PTSD on autoimmune disorders and inflammatory biomarkers.

Footnote: The x-axis indicates the magnitude of association of genetically predicted PTSD with each trait. The y-axis represents each trait evaluated, indexed in the style of a barplot. Each square represents the effect size of genetically predicted PTSD on a given trait with PTSD, with the bars representing 95% confidence intervals. Blue bars are single variable IVW MR estimates, red bars are MVMR IVW estimates adjusted for CRP.

4.8 Tables

Table 4.1. Mendelian Randomization Analysis of PTSD on outcome traits

Outcome	N SNP	Inverse Variance Weighted			Weighted Median			IVW Het Qp	MR Egger		MR Egger Intercept Test				
		Beta	SE	p	FDR	Beta	SE		p	Beta	SE	Intercept	p		
C-Reactive Protein	61	0.090	0.018	4.28E-07	2.57E-06	0.071	0.015	1.38E-06	8.28E-06	1.79E-25	0.052	0.103	0.001	0.004	0.71
Asthma	59	0.181	0.060	0.0027	0.010	0.184	0.074	0.01	0.03	7.23E-03	0.441	0.343	-0.010	0.013	0.44
IL6	57	0.051	0.017	0.0032	0.010	0.035	0.024	0.15	0.23	6.68E-01	-0.041	0.108	0.004	0.004	0.40
White Blood Cell Count	56	0.037	0.014	0.0066	0.016	0.036	0.011	0.0015	0.01	9.95E-20	0.059	0.079	-0.001	0.003	0.78
Psoriasis	61	0.190	0.081	0.019	0.034	0.232	0.115	0.04	0.07	1.88E-01	-0.441	0.464	0.025	0.018	0.17
Neutrophil	56	0.030	0.013	0.02	0.034	0.025	0.012	0.03	0.07	1.39E-15	0.034	0.077	0.000	0.003	0.96
Lupus	62	0.185	0.126	0.14	0.210	0.092	0.159	0.56	0.61	6.56E-02	0.474	0.780	-0.011	0.030	0.71
IBD	62	-0.071	0.096	0.46	0.613	-0.085	0.100	0.40	0.53	8.97E-10	-0.252	0.608	0.007	0.023	0.76
Rheumatoid Arthritis	28	0.099	0.176	0.57	0.644	0.295	0.147	0.04	0.07	2.17E-08	0.110	1.024	0.000	0.040	0.99
Monocyte	56	0.007	0.013	0.59	0.644	0.008	0.011	0.49	0.59	8.05E-18	0.092	0.077	-0.003	0.003	0.27
Crohn's	61	0.005	0.126	0.97	0.970	0.066	0.130	0.61	0.61	5.02E-08	-0.244	0.793	0.010	0.030	0.75

Abbreviations: IVW Het, inverse variance weighted heterogeneity test; N SNP, number of SNP instruments; FDR, false discovery rate q value; Qp, p-value for Cochran's Q test

Table 4.2. MVMR analysis of PTSD exposure and trait outcome, adjusted for CRP

Outcome	Unadjusted IVW MR			IVW MVMR adjusted for CRP						Relative reduction ^a	
	PTSD			PTSD			CRP				
	Beta	SE	p	Beta	SE	p	Beta	SE	p	p	
C-Reactive Protein	0.090	0.018	4.28E-07	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Asthma	0.181	0.060	0.0027	0.208	0.075	0.006	-0.176	0.445	0.692	-0.152	0.615
IL6	0.051	0.017	0.0032	0.04	0.021	0.052	0.098	0.128	0.442	0.213	-0.904
White Blood Cell Count	0.037	0.014	0.0066	0.024	0.017	0.142	0.125	0.099	0.208	0.352	-1.282
Psoriasis	0.190	0.081	0.019	0.047	0.094	0.617	1.539	0.556	0.006	0.753	-2.992
Neutrophil	0.030	0.013	0.02	0.026	0.016	0.119	0.04	0.098	0.684	0.139	-0.471

Abbreviations: IVW, inverse variance weighted;

^aThe difference of unadjusted and adjusted betas, divided by the unadjusted beta

4.9 References

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Chapter 5. Discussion

Post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) has severe psychological, physical, interpersonal, and societal costs ¹⁻⁴. The lifetime prevalence of PTSD in the United States is 5-10% ⁵, albeit is highly conditional on trauma exposure ⁶. The burden of PTSD on the individual and on society makes the continued development of increasingly effectual treatments for PTSD very important. Deeper research into the biological basis of PTSD may aid these efforts ⁷. Furthermore, understanding how PTSD relates biologically to the development of other diseases, such as autoimmune conditions, also opens new potential avenues for treatment ⁸. The substantial heritability of PTSD implies that genetics are an important biological risk factor ³, one that is methodologically feasible to investigate ⁹.

This dissertation aimed to extend analyses performed by the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC)-PTSD by leveraging additional phenotype data on PTSD symptoms and trauma exposure, and information on copy number variant (CNV) data available from the GWAS arrays, to identify additional genetic risk factors contributing to PTSD, then to use this genetic variation to evaluate a potential causal relationship between PTSD and co-morbid autoimmune conditions using a Mendelian Randomization (MR) approach. Specifically, in chapter 2, we explored the common genetic variation association with PTSD, leveraging continuous PTSD symptom scores and lifetime trauma exposure (LTE) to gain additional insights. We identified novel replicable risk loci, with widespread pleiotropic associations to other psychiatric disorders, co-morbid conditions, and traits. We also identified novel loci related to LTE. There was a high genetic overlap of PTSD and LTE, albeit with some key differences

identified: negative affect traits like neuroticism and irritability were more strongly correlated with PTSD than LTE, whereas risk-taking behavior showed higher correlation with LTE than PTSD. Our results indicate a significant amount of genetic effects on PTSD are potentially mediated by trauma exposure. We found that incorporating trauma exposure data as an additional outcome in a multivariate analysis enhanced PTSD GWAS discovery power, having identified additional replicable loci.

Next, in chapter 3, we expanded the scope of genetic investigation of PTSD into rare genetic variation, performing the first large scale investigation of rare CNVs and PTSD. We found that the genome-wide burden of CNVs was positively associated with PTSD. This burden was largely concentrated in previously implicated neurodevelopmental CNV regions. Results specifically identify increased risk in CNVs overlapping the 22q11.2 duplication and 15q11.2 BP1-BP2 microdeletion regions. Outside of neurodevelopmental CNVs, association was found for several gene sets related to the function and development of the central nervous system, including small cell RNAs. In conclusion, we found that CNV burden predicted a significant fraction of the variation in PTSD symptoms, albeit one that is relatively small compared to common variant based polygenic risk scores (PRSs) generated from recent GWAS ¹⁰.

Last, in chapter 4, we used Mendelian Randomization (MR) to investigate a potential causal association between PTSD and autoimmune conditions. We found a significant association between genetically instrumented PTSD and asthma, psoriasis, C-Reactive Protein (CRP), interleukin-6, neutrophil count, and total white blood cell count. The causal association with psoriasis could be explained by a general inflammatory signal, as measured by using CRP as proxy for inflammation. The

associations for inflammatory biomarkers, interleukin-6 and white blood cell count, seemed to be related to this signal as well. We observed that the previously reported effect of genetically instrumented CRP on PTSD ¹¹ may have been confounded by an unknown factor.

Our results suggest that future genetic studies of PTSD will benefit from the integration of trauma exposure information. Importantly, trauma exposure history is oftentimes gathered alongside PTSD status, meaning that the most important step of integration, the measurement of the phenotype, is already performed and available for researchers. We chose multivariate analyses as our means of integration, which we considered ideal for the shortcomings of our data. However, more sophisticated models integrating PTSD and trauma could be explored, in particular causal mediation analysis ¹². Causal mediation analysis allows for simultaneous investigation of mediation and gene by environment interactions (GxEs), which are thought to be an essential yet under-investigated aspect of PTSD genetics ¹³. The suggestion to incorporate trauma exposure equally applies to rare variant associations. In light of identifying neurodevelopmental CNVs as being associated with PTSD, it may be particularly relevant to explore their association as mediated by childhood trauma or other factors associated with early development that are risk factors for PTSD.

While CNV primarily have been investigated in the context of autism and schizophrenia ^{14, 15}, there is building evidence that they are relevant to other psychiatric disorders ¹⁶⁻¹⁸. We identified CNV risk associations with PTSD, but their effects were relatively modest compared to CNV effects on autism and schizophrenia. For example, schizophrenia has multiple highly penetrant variants ¹⁹, such as the 22q11.2 deletion

variant, for which 25% of carriers develop schizophrenia ²⁰. It may be that differences in the genetic architectures of PTSD and schizophrenia seen in common variation ²¹ are also at least somewhat reflected in rare variation. Nevertheless, the identification of these rare variants is important, as it may still help pinpoint genes wherein mutational disruption considerably influences risk ²², suggesting them as targets for follow up ²³. Overall, our CNV findings are fairly similar to those of major depressive disorder ¹⁸, which also follows what is observed in GWAS ²¹. It has been hypothesized that studying psychiatric disorders together will greatly enhance understanding of the similarities and differences of these conditions ²⁴, where efforts are now underway to perform such cross-disorder analysis with rare CNVs ²⁵.

The study of the causal association between PTSD and autoimmune conditions has potential applications to the diagnoses of these disorders and to the treatment of PTSD itself ⁸. Our results support the notion that PTSD precedes autoimmune disease, strengthening the evidence of longitudinal studies that suggest early treatment of PTSD relates to reduces risk of developing an autoimmune disease ²⁶. Our results also support the notion that the relationship between PTSD and some autoimmune conditions, like psoriasis, is related to a common inflammatory factor(s) ²⁷. Thus, this is an important target for future investigation for both PTSD and autoimmune diseases, with further upstream in the inflammatory cascade being an obvious place to start investigation ²⁸.

There are several limitations to the analyses contained in this dissertation, which should be addressed in future works. First, we focused on European ancestry populations, but genetic investigation of non-European populations is necessary in

addressing health disparities ²⁹. This is particularly relevant in the context of PTSD, as risk of PTSD is differential across ancestries ³⁰. In general, genetic variation in non-European populations is relatively less investigated than in European ancestry populations, due to data availability and other factors ³¹. The current efforts to gather non-European ancestry samples in the PGC and PGC-PTSD in particular ²¹ will provide much-needed data to expand analyses to other ancestries. Ancestry deconvolution methods that we have developed ³² will facilitate the analysis of admixed individuals in these data. In addition to gene discovery and fine-mapping, availability of non-European data will serve as a resource to develop and calibrate PRS estimation in non-European populations ³³.

Second, I have performed multivariate modeling of LTE and PTSD, rather than attempt to implement the proposed causal mediation analysis method. There were two major factors for this, the first being the limitations of the data: Trauma exposure is typically assessed retrospective to PTSD via self report. Recall bias has been observed in the forms of both over and under reporting of trauma exposure ³⁴. There is evidence to suggest that PTSD systematically influences recall bias of trauma exposure ³⁵, which violates a required assumption of the mediation model. In contrast, there is no such required assumption for the multivariate model where LTE is treated as an additional outcome. Any causal mediation analysis should therefore consider a thorough sensitivity analysis, possibly calibrated on empirical data from prospective assessments. The second limitation was computational: causal mediation analysis takes significant computational resources to perform, for example being orders of magnitude slower to compute than a basic linear regression. Thus currently, it is feasible to examine a small

number of loci, such as the leading variants from GWAS. However, the true value of these analyses would come in the form of post-GWAS analyses of the whole genome, such as for tissue expression overrepresentation³⁶ or genetic correlations³⁷. Rather than increasing computing capacity, it may be better to optimize methods. One avenue may involve the assumption of infinitesimal genetic effects, which has been used successfully to speed up GWAS computations in other contexts³⁸.

Third, the analysis of rare genetic variations focused only on large CNVs. Genotype arrays are limited to reliably calling only relatively large (>10,000 bases) CNVs, yet there is increasing evidence that very small CNVs are clinically relevant³⁹. As well, the currently available CNV calling algorithms tend to produce somewhat different call sets, and analyses are limited to consensus calls to insure validity. CNVs called from sequence data may be more accurate due to the denser set of probes and allow for calling smaller CNVs than traditional arrays are capable of⁴⁰. Additionally, outside of CNVs, large investigations of other forms of rare variation have yet to be conducted for PTSD. These deficits are now at the point of feasibility to address, given whole-genome sequencing data is becoming more affordable and is becoming available from large biobank resources⁴¹. As well, the emergence of large sequenced reference panels and other technical developments means that rare variation can, to some degree, also be imputed^{42 43}.

Fourth, in investigating the association of autoimmune disorders and PTSD, we cannot rule out bidirectional associations, due to a lack of statistical power for many autoimmune traits (i.e. too few genetic instruments). We expect more adequately powered GWAS of autoimmune traits will be released in the near future, and that

putative associations will become clearer as this happens. Additionally, we did not capture all autoimmune disorders, so many putative associations outright remain to be investigated using MR. Joint analyses of autoimmune disorders were not considered, but recent evidence suggests that there is a substantial degree of sharing of risk alleles between disorders ⁴⁴. To study autoimmune disorders in this joint way may more easily identify the shared and unshared causal factors between these disorders and PTSD.

Last, we investigated PTSD as a homogeneous disorder, yet there may be important genetic differences that relate to different forms of PTSD, such as current and lifetime PTSD ⁴⁵, externalizing and internalizing subtypes ⁴⁶, symptom clusters ¹⁰, and the longitudinal course of PTSD symptomology ⁴⁷. Investigating these different aspects may increase power ⁴⁸. Genetic data can be used to indicate or provide biological validation ⁴⁹ for putative subtypes ^{50, 51}. Knowledge of subtypes may ultimately enhance treatment via a precision medicine approach ⁵². Nevertheless, my results provide additional insight into PTSD genetics that may provide targets for future investigations ⁵³.

Recent evidence suggests that a substantial amount of the total genetic liability of some complex traits can be explained by rare variation ⁵⁴. My CNV analysis demonstrated, to a small degree, that there is a rare variant contribution to PTSD. It has been hypothesized that there is a convergence of common and rare variation ⁵⁵, in that they ultimately may affect the same genes. Thus, examining rare variation in tandem with common variation will add to a more complete picture of the genetic architecture of PTSD.

GxE have long been thought to be highly relevant to PTSD ⁵⁶. The causal mediation analysis method we have proposed allows for the investigation of GxE, where traditional GxE analysis would suffer estimate bias due to mediation effects not being modeled. As this method provides more or less a traditional estimates of GxE effects, then like traditional estimation of GxE it requires large sample sizes to detect interactions ⁵⁷. Genome-wide methods are being developed that allow for the direct estimation of heritability under GxE ⁵⁸, which would at least allow for an overall quantification of the contribution of GxE to PTSD risk.

Ultimately, one primary goal of enhancing the biological understanding of PTSD is to enhance clinical treatment options. One means of achieving this may be from PRS ⁵⁹. However, PRS derived from recent GWAS ¹⁰ explain < 1% of the variation in PTSD symptoms. The theoretical upper limit of trait variance explained by a PRS derived from a GWAS of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) is the total SNP based heritability ⁶⁰, which in this dissertation was estimated as only approximately 5%. Thus, in using traditional methods of calculating and evaluating PRS ⁶¹ using SNP array data, even individuals at the extreme end of estimated polygenic risk are not at substantially higher risk for developing PTSD relative to the average person. Therefore, the individual utility of a PRS (i.e. for precision medicine) might require both common and rare variation be integrated together, to provide a genetic model that explains a large enough proportion of variation in PTSD to allow for meaningful individual risk prediction. However, PRS is a current focus of intense research, and future utility to individuals may extend well beyond simple additive risk prediction. For example, PRS could be partitioned based on biological annotations, to identify individual-specific relevant risk pathways and

treatments^{62, 63}. In addition, rare variation such as CNV may have a direct clinical relevance, as it may in the future guide the course of treatment in carriers of highly pathogenic alleles⁶⁴.

In conclusion, my findings contribute to the genetics of PTSD, identifying some novel risk loci, for the first time significantly implicating rare CNVs with PTSD risk, and further supporting the notion that PTSD has a causal relationship with autoimmune disorders. From these findings and their limitations, I provide several suggestions for future analyses: causal mediation analysis of PTSD and trauma to explore mediation and GxE, quantification of PTSD heritability from GxE with trauma exposure, genetically driven investigation into PTSD subtypes, cross-disorder comparisons with other psychiatric disorders (particularly major depression), examination of a wider spectrum of genetic variation, deeper investigation of the genetic components that are shared jointly between autoimmune disorders and with PTSD, and investigation into non-European ancestries. While at present my results have limited translational aspects, it is my hope that as more is understood about the genetic basis for PTSD and improved methods are developed to leverage these findings, that genetic findings can be made clinically actionable.

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