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1 Does childhood trauma moderate polygenic risk for depression? A meta-analysis of 5,765 subjects

2 from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium

- 3 Running title: Childhood trauma and polygenic risk for depression
- 4
- 5 Wouter J Peyrot, MD, PhD¹, Sandra Van der Auwera², Yuri Milaneschi, PhD¹, Conor V Dolan, PhD³, Pamela AF Madden,
- 6 PhD⁴, Patrick F Sullivan, PhD⁵, Jana Strohmaier J⁶, Stephan Ripke, PhD^{7,8}, Marcella Rietschel, PhD⁶, Michel G Nivard, PhD³,
7 Niamh Mullins, MSc⁹, Grant W Montgomery, PhD^{10,11}, Anjali K Henders, PhD

 8 PhD⁹, Erin C Dunn, ScD¹¹, Enda M Byrne, PhD^{10,11}, Tracy A Air, BA¹³, Major Depressive Disorder Working Group of the

9 Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (Corporate Collaborator; collaborators are listed in supplements), Bernhard T Baune,

PhD¹³, Gerome Breen, PhD⁹, Douglas F Levinson, PhD¹⁴, Cathryn M Lewis, PhD⁹, Nick G Martin, PhD¹⁵, Elliot N Nelson, MD⁴, Dans J Grabe, MD¹*, Naomi R Wray, PhD^{10,11}*, Brenda WJH Penninx, PhD^{1 *}

- 12
- 13 ¹Department of Psychiatry, VU University Medical Center & GGZ inGeest, Amsterdam, the Netherlands
- 14 ² Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, Germany
- ³ Department of Biological Psychology, Vrije Universiteit, Amsterdam, the Netherlands
- 16 ⁴ Department of Psychiatry, Washington University Medical School, St Louis, US
- 17 ⁵ Psychiatry, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, US
- 18 ⁶ Department of Genetic Epidemiology in Psychiatry, Central Institute of Mental Health, Medical Faculty Mannheim,
- 19 University of Heidelberg, Germany
- 20 ⁷ Analytic and Translational Genetics Unit, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston MA 02114, USA
- 8 21 ⁸ Dept. of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Charité Universitätsmedizin, Berlin 10117, Germany
- ⁹Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, UK
- 23 ¹⁰ Queensland Brain Institute, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia
- 24 ¹¹ Institute for Molecular Bioscience, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia
- 25 ¹² Department of Psychiatry, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts
- 26 13 Discipline of Psychiatry, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia
- 27 ¹⁴ Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA
- 28 ¹⁵ QIMR Berghofer Medical Research Institute, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia
- 29 *authors contributed equally

- 31 Corresponding Author
- 32 Wouter J. Peyrot, MD
- 33 Department of Psychiatry, VU University Medical Center & GGZ inGeest, Amsterdam
- 34 AJ Ernststraat 1187, 1081 HL Amsterdam, The Netherlands
- 35 e-mail: peyrot.w@gmail.com
- 36
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ABSTRACT

- 45 Background: The heterogeneity of genetic effects on Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) may be partly attributable to moderation of genetic effects by environment, such as exposure to childhood trauma (CT). Indeed, previous findings in two independent cohorts showed evidence for interaction between polygenic risk scores (PRS) and CT, albeit in opposing directions. This study aims to meta-analyze MDD-PRSxCT interaction results across these two and other cohorts, while applying more accurate PRS based on a larger discovery sample.
- 51 Methods and Materials: Data were combined from 3,024 MDD cases and 2,741 controls from nine cohorts contributing to the MDD Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium. MDD-PRS were based on a discovery sample of approximately 110,000 independent individuals. CT was assessed as exposure to sexual or physical abuse during childhood. In a subset of 1957 cases and 2002 controls, a more detailed 5-domain measure additionally included emotional abuse, physical neglect and emotional neglect.
- 57 **Results:** MDD was associated with the MDD-PRS (OR=1.24, p=3.6e-5, R^2 =1.18%) and with CT (OR=2.63, p=3.5e-18 and OR=2.62, p=1.4e-5 for the 2- and 5-domain measures respectively). No interaction was found between MDD-PRS and the 2-domain and 5-domain CT measure (OR=1.00, p=0.89 and OR=1.05, p=0.66).
- **Conclusions:** No meta-analytic evidence for interaction between MDD-PRS and CT was found. This suggests that the previously reported interaction effects, although both statistically significant, can best be interpreted as chance findings. Further research is required, but this study suggests that the genetic heterogeneity of MDD is not attributable to genome-wide moderation of genetic effects by CT.
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INTRODUCTION

Recent studies have found the first associated genetic variants for Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) 70 and depressive complaints $(1-3)$, but research on MDD still hasn't met the success of research on schizophrenia, for which 108 genetic variants were found in 2014 (4). This discrepancy is attributable to several factors, including the higher population prevalence of MDD (so that the difference in liability between cases and controls is smaller than in schizophrenia) (5, 6), the lower heritability of MDD (assuming the same degree of polygenicity in terms of number of risk loci) (5), and the greater genetic and phenotypic heterogeneity of MDD (7). To illustrate the possible consequence of heterogeneity, Wray and Maier showed that the power to detect a causal SNP decreases dramatically when a disorder is caused by two distinct pathways (8), while Milaneschi et al found that genetic effects in those with typical MDD might partially differ from genetic effects in those 79 with atypical MDD (9, 10).

Another source of genetic heterogeneity may arise from gene-by-environment (GxE) 81 interaction: the moderation of genetic effects on MDD by specific environmental factors. Much 82 research concerning GxE-interaction has been conducted with candidate genes, in particular the interaction between the serotonin transporter gene (5-HTTLPR) and childhood trauma (11), but this 84 research has produced contradictory findings (12–15) that have been attributed, at least in part, to publication bias (16). Recently, Culverhouse et al published results from a collaborative meta-86 analysis showing no evidence for interaction between 5-HTTLPR and childhood trauma (17) based on 87 a previously published protocol for analyses (18). Nevertheless, in the last couple of years, methods 88 have been developed to assess the combined impact of all genotyped SNPs, such as polygenic risk score (PRS) analyses (19). Kendler proposed that a confirmed main effect is a desirable condition for GxE-interaction testing (20). This suggests that PRS may be preferable over candidate genes to test for GxE-interaction, because PRS have a confirmed significant effect on MDD (21, 22) contrasting the non-replicated and non-consistent effects of candidate genes (23, 24).

In GxE interaction research numerous environmental factors can be tested, which may have catalyzed publication bias in the candidate gene literature (16) and may also present as a challenge for GxE interaction tests with PRS. Nevertheless, a plausible environmental factor to test in the context of GxE-interaction is childhood trauma, which is one of the strongest risk factors with a lifelong impact on MDD risk (25), and may perhaps be more uniformly defined than stress later in 98 life. Moreover, exposure to childhood trauma has been hypothesized to distinguish a clinically and neurobiologically distinct subtype of MDD, because MDD patients exposed to childhood trauma have an earlier onset, more chronic course, higher severity with more neurovegetative and psychotic symptoms, more comorbidities, more suicide attempts and poorer treatment outcome than MDD patients that did not experience childhood trauma (26).

Following this reasoning, Peyrot et al. tested for GxE interaction between PRS and CT in the Netherlands Study of Depression and Anxiety (NESDA) and found a significantly stronger impact of PRS on MDD risk in individuals exposed to childhood trauma compared to individuals not exposed to childhood trauma (27). In a replication study, Mullins et al found a significant but opposing interaction effect in the RADIANT UK sample with a stronger impact of PRS on MDD risk in those unexposed to childhood trauma (28). These opposing findings, that were both significant, are not well understood, and it remains unclear whether these reflect actual differences between cultures, between recruitment of participants into cohorts, or chance-findings. The aim of the current study is (i) to re-analyze NESDA and RADIANT UK with more accurate PRS based on discovery results from 112 approximately 110,000 individuals (compared to ~15,000 applied previously), and (ii) to place the NESDA and RADIANT UK findings in a broader perspective by meta-analyzing their results with seven additional cohorts from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) MDD wave 2 (29). Secondary analyses used PRS calculated from discovery GWAS results for schizophrenia and bipolar disorder, as 116 these are genetically related to MDD (7, 30).

METHODS

Subjects

Subjects were recruited from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) wave 2, which combines genotype and phenotype data of individuals of European ancestry in 29 different cohorts (29). The combined samples include data of 16,823 MDD cases and 25,632 controls. Of these 29 cohorts, nine cohorts included a measure of childhood trauma: Cognition and Function in Mood Disorders Study (COFAMS) from Australia (31), Depression Gene Network (DGN) from the USA (32), the Netherlands Study of Depression and Anxiety (NESDA) (33), the Queensland Institute of Medical Research (QIMR in three different cohorts defined by genotyping platform) from Australia (23), RADIANT UK (34), and Study of Health in Pomerania (SHIP-0, and SHIP-TREND) from Germany (see Table S1 for more detailed information) (35). Briefly, SHIP-O, SHIP-T and QIMR are community studies with MDD cases and screened controls defined from responses to self-report questionnaires, whilst the other studies recruit MDD cases from in- or out-patient clinics and recruit screened controls with both cases and controls completing the same childhood trauma questionnaires. The definition of MDD in all studies was based on structured psychiatric interviews following DSM-criteria.

Childhood Trauma Questionnaire

The Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ) was applied to assess childhood trauma, defined as trauma before the age of 16, in five of the nine cohorts (COFAMS, NESDA/NTR, RADIANT UK, SHIP-0, and SHIP-TREND). The CTQ covers the five domains of sexual abuse (SA), physical abuse (PA), emotional abuse (EA), emotional neglect (EN), and physical neglect (PN). Each domain is assessed by five questions (scored 1 to 5) resulting in a domain score ranging from 5 to 25, and an overall CTQ continuous score ranging from 25 to 125 (36). Per domain, cutoffs were applied to define a narrow definition of childhood trauma separating no or mild trauma from moderate or severe trauma (Supplemental Methods). From this, an overall dichotomous CTQ indicator was constructed to separate trauma in any of the five domains (indicator=1) from trauma in none of the domains (indicator=0). The analyses were based on the continuous and dichotomous 5-domain CT scores. The five domains were highly correlated: all pairwise correlation coefficients were larger than 0.4 except for sexual abuse which was slightly less connected (Table S2) as has previously also been reported by Spinhoven et al (37).

Other childhood trauma instruments

In addition to the five cohorts that assessed childhood trauma with the CTQ instrument, four additional PGC cohorts (DGN and the three sub-cohorts of QIMR) assessed childhood trauma with other instruments (before the age of 18 in QIMR). To obtain the largest possible dataset, childhood trauma information was matched across all nine cohorts for sexual abuse and physical abuse (Supplemental Methods). A broad definition (no abuse versus mild, moderate or severe abuse) was applied to create a childhood trauma indicator separating those with trauma (exposed to sexual and/or physical abuse) from those not exposed to childhood trauma (neither exposed to sexual nor 157 physical abuse). The correlation (Spearman's rho) between the 2-domain dichotomous CT indicator and the 5-domain continuous CT score equaled 0.50 (p<2.e-16).

Genotyping, quality control and imputation

The cohorts were genotyped following their local protocols, after which quality control and imputation against the 1000 genomes reference panel (38) were performed centrally in the PGC per cohort (29). The SNP probabilities were converted to best guess data with a genotype call probability cut-off of 0.8, after which individuals were removed with missing-rate >2%. A total of 1,171,526 HapMap 3 SNPs passed post-imputation QC in at least 2 of 9 batches (missing-rate <2%, minor allele frequency >0.01, and imputation INFO-score >0.6). These 1,171,526 SNPs were used to calculate the genetic relatedness matrix (GRM) with PLINK2 (39), which was thus based on a different set of SNPs for individuals from each cohort and between each pair of cohorts (Table S3), in this way providing genome-wide coverage of well described HapMap 3 SNPs. From the GRM, unrelated individuals were selected with relatedness <0.05, and ancestry informative principal components were calculated with GCTA (40).

Polygenic risk scores

Polygenic risk scores for MDD (MDD-PRS) were based on meta-analysis of the GWAS results from the twenty PGC MDD wave 2 cohorts with no childhood trauma information available (10,409 cases, 18,640 controls) (29), deCODE (1,980 cases, 9,536 controls) (29), GenScotland (997 cases, 6,358 controls) (41, 42), GERA (7,162 cases, 38,307 controls) (43), iPsych (16,242 cases, 15,847 controls) (29) and UK Biobank (8,248 cases, 16,089 controls) (44, 45). This discovery sample comprised 45,038 cases and 104,777 controls yielding a power similar to a sample of 56,134 cases and 56,134 controls (Neffective= 56,134 + 56,134= 112,268). Additional PRS were based on GWAS results from schizophrenia (SCZ-PRS) (4) and bipolar disorder (BIP-PRS) (46), because these disorders are genetically related to MDD (7, 30). PRS were calculated using 463,215 SNPs shared between the discovery sample results and passing QC in all cohorts (missing-rate <2%, minor allele frequency >0.01, and imputation INFO-score >0.6). Thus, PRS were based on the same set of SNPs in all analyses to increase comparability of results across cohorts. These SNPs were clumped with PLINK (-- clump-p1 1 --clump-p2 1 --clump-r2 0.25 --clump-kb 500), and provided 73,576 lowly correlated SNPs for MDD, 73,559 for SCZ, and 73,656 for BIP. The MDD-PRS were based on five different thresholds of GWAS significance for SNP inclusion (p-value smaller than 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.5 and 1 respectively). The SCZ-PRS was based on a threshold of p<0.05, which provided optimal predictive power on SCZ (4). The BIP-PRS was based on a threshold of p<0.5 with best predictive performance on BIP (46). The PRS were calculated by summing the number of risk alleles weighted by their effect size (--score command in PLINK) (39).

Statistical analyses

The prevalences at the population level of the 5-domain and 2-domain dichotomous CT indicators were approximated from this study assuming a population lifetime risk of MDD of 15%, with a lifetime risk of 20% in women and 10% in men (5, 47). The impact of the PRS, CT and PRSxCT was first estimated in the individual cohorts, and the effects in the total sample were subsequently assessed with random-effect meta-analysis. Within each cohort, the impact of CT on MDD was assessed with logistic regression including sex as covariate. The tests for the main effects of the PRS 201 on MDD included sex and the first three ancestry informative principal components as covariates. Interaction analyses were conducted with the 5-domain continuous CT measure and with the 2domain dichotomous CT indicator. Interaction analyses of PRSxCT were corrected for sex, three principal components, PRS, CT, and the interaction-terms of PRS and CT with sex and the principal 205 components in line with Keller's recommendation (48). With logistic regression, interaction is tested 206 as departure from multiplicativity (combined impact different from the *product* of the individual effects), but it has been argued that interaction as departure from additivity (combined impact 208 different from the sum of the individual effects) is more meaningful biologically (49). For testing interaction as departure from additivity, the relative excess risks due to interaction (RERI) were 210 estimated with the coefficients from logistic regression as $e^{\sqrt{\beta_{PRS}} + \beta_{CT} + \beta_{PRS\times CT}} - e^{\sqrt{\beta_{PRS}} - e^{\sqrt{\beta_{CT}}} + 1$, and their 95% confidence intervals by means of bootstrapping with 10,000 iterations. The impact of 212 the PRS on MDD was further expressed as variation explained on the liability scale, R^2 (50). The PRS and continuous 5-domain CT measure were standardized (i.e. mean of 0 and variance of 1), and the presented ORs can thus be interpreted as increased MDD risk per standard deviation increase in PRS or CT. The analyses were conducted in R (51).

Genetic Relationship Matrix (GRM)-based analyses

The variance in MDD liability and CT explained by genotyped SNPs (SNP heritability) was assessed with cross product Haseman-Elston regression (52). These analyses were corrected for covariates by calculating the residuals of linear regression of MDD and CT on sex, genotyping batch and 20 ancestry informative principal components (PCs). We included 20 PCs, because GRM-based analyses are more sensitive to population stratification than PRS analyses (7). To test for interaction between CT and genome-wide genetic effects in MDD, the genetic correlation between MDD in unexposed individuals and MDD in exposed individuals can give information about differences in genetic effects (53). Unfortunately, the current data did not allow for the latter analyses because of limited sample size (e.g. only 389 exposed controls) while analyses had to be corrected for 9 cohorts.

RESULTS

Phenotypic association between MDD and CT

The 5-domain continuous and dichotomous CT measures were available for 1957 cases and 2002 controls, and the 2-domain dichotomous indicator was available for 3024 cases and 2741 controls. The prevalence of CT was estimated at 0.25 based on the 5-domain indicator (Table 1), and at 0.17 for the 2-domain indicator (Table 3). As expected, the prevalence was considerably larger in cases than controls (0.50 vs 0.21 for the 5-domain measure and 0.35 vs 0.14 for the 2-domain measure). This was reflected in an OR for MDD of 3.80 (p=3.0e-6) for the 5-domain dichotomous measure, and an OR of 2.63 (p=3.5e-18) for the 2-domain measure. For the 5-domain continuous CT measure, an OR for MDD of 2.62 (p=1.4e-5) per standard deviation increase in CT was found (Table 1 & Figure 1). The impact of CT on MDD was comparable in men and women, with ORs of 2.18 (males, p=1.1e-4) and 2.74 (females, p=3.6e-5) per standard deviation increase in the continuous 5-domain CT measures (Table 1). CT had an impact on MDD risk in all cohorts (Table 1), and the five CTQ domains all had an impact on MDD risk (Table S4).

Polygenic risk score analyses

The MDD-PRS based on all SNPs (inclusion threshold of p<1) had the greatest predictive power, with 245 an OR of 1.34 (p=5.1e-11, R^2 =1.71%) in the 1957 cases and 2002 controls with availability of the 5-domain CT measures (Table 2). The SCZ-PRS and BIP-PRS also predicted MDD but to a lesser extent than the MDD-PRS (Table 2), reflecting the well-described genetic correlation between MDD, BIP and SCZ (7). Because GE-correlation can lead to spurious GxE-results (54), we tested for an association between the MDD-PRS and CT. The MDD-PRS did predict the 5-domain continuous CT measure (beta=0.76, p=0.004 in linear regression), but this was approximated to only reflect a small 251 correlation in terms of the full population of ~0.04 (Table S5). No interaction between the PRS and the 5-domain continuous CTQ measure was found, with an impact of MDD-PRSxCT on MDD of OR=1.05 (p=0.52; Table 2). In addition, no evidence was found for interaction as departure from 254 additivity (RERI=0.83, 95%CI= -0.62 to 18.03). The BIP-PRS and SCZ-PRS showed no evidence for interaction with the 5-domain CT measure.

Applying the 2-domain dichotomous CT indicator of sexual or physical abuse allowed inclusion of four additional cohorts in the analyses (Table 3): DGN and 3 QIMR cohorts (one of the QIMR cohorts was split in two to acknowledge different instruments applied to assess childhood trauma). The total sample size thus increased to 3024 cases and 2741 controls, in which the MDD-260 PRS had an impact on MDD with an OR of 1.24 (p=3.6e-5, R^2 =1.18%). The polygenic risk scores did predict MDD in DGN, but not in all QIMR cohorts, which is attributable to the relatively small number of QIMR subjects with CT information available compared to the full QIMR sample (in which PRS predict MDD as expected). No interaction was found between the PRS and 2-domain dichotomous CT indicator (Table 3).

An alternative method sometimes applied to test for interaction as departure from additivity is linear regression with the disease trait as outcome (28). We suggest for caution in interpreting findings from this approach, because this method has, to the best of our knowledge, not been formally described. Nevertheless, for reasons of completeness, this approach was applied and also showed no evidence for interaction with the 5-domain CT measure (beta=-0.004, p=0.67) and the 2- domain CT measure (beta=-0.005, p=0.45).

GRM based analyses

The SNP heritability of MDD was estimated at 0.14 (SE=0.03; p=3.7e-8) based on the 6,348 cases and 6,751 controls across the nine cohorts (Table S1; these analyses included additional individuals with 275 no CT information available). The SNP heritability of CT was estimated at 0.00 (SE=0.07; p=1; N=3,959) for the 5-domaine continuous measure, and at 0.09 (SE=0.08; p=0.27; N=5,765) for the 2- domain dichotomous indicator.

DISCUSSION

This study was conducted to test for interaction between polygenic risk for MDD and childhood trauma (CT) in 5,765 individuals from nine cohorts contributing to the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium that had a childhood trauma assessment available. CT occurred in 25% of individuals based on an indicator of 5-domains (sexual abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse, emotional neglect, and physical neglect), and in 17% based on broad definition of 2-domains (sexual and/or physical abuse). As expected, the prevalence was considerably higher in cases than controls (0.50 vs 0.21 for the 5-domain measure and 0.35 vs 0.14 for the 2-domain measure). The 5-domain measure was more detailed and uniformly assessed in 1957 cases and 2002 controls; the 2-domain indicator was assessed heterogeneous across cohorts, but available for a larger sample comprising of 3024 cases and 2741 controls. The polygenic risk scores (PRS) explained 1.18% to 1.71% of variation in MDD risk. No evidence for interaction between PRS and childhood trauma was found with 5-domain CT measure (Table 2) and the 2-domain CT indicator (Table 3). Secondary analyses also showed no evidence for interaction in analyses with PRS based on discovery results from schizophrenia and bipolar disorders, in tests for interaction as departure from additivity, in analyses in males and females separately (Table S6), and in analysis in the five separate domains of CT (Table S7; significance threshold 0.01=0.05/5). Analyses excluding NESDA and RADIANT UK showed no evidence for interaction between the MDD-PRS (p-value threshold 1) and 5-domain CT measure (OR=1.06, p=0.67) and 2-domain CT measure (OR=0.98, p= 0.61) in the remainder of the cohorts.

Remarkably, no interaction-effects were found in NESDA (OR=1.08, 95%CI=0.83-1.39, p=0.56) and RADIANT UK (OR=0.93, 95%CI=0.66-1.31, p=0.67) with the 5-domain CT measure (Table 2), which contrasts previous findings in these respective cohorts by Peyrot et al (OR=1.12, p=0.018, 301 discovery sample N_{effective}=15,295) (27) and Mullins et al (OR=0.96 based on differently scaled PRS 302 and CT, p=0.002, discovery sample $N_{effective}$ =15,540) (28). Aiming to clarify these discrepancies, we analyzed PRS based on discovery results from PGC MDD wave 2 with an effective sample size of approximately 37,000 (Table S8) and confirmed the previously reported interaction-effects in NESDA (OR=1.38, 95%CI=1.07-1.76, p=0.011) and RADIANT UK (OR=0.67, 95%CI=0.51-0.90, p=0.006). Therefore, it appears that the OR of the interaction-effects are reduced by adding deCODE (29), GenScotland (41, 42), GERA (43), iPsych (29) and UK Biobank (44, 45) to the PRS discovery sample. These discrepancies in interaction results may reflect different study designs in the discovery datasets with application of self-reported depression status in UKB and clinical records in iPsych and GERA, contrasting the semi-structured interviews (such as the SCID, CIDI and MINI) applied in most PGC cohorts (29). However, these discrepancies may also reflect random variation in effects with 312 discovery sample size increasing from ~37,000 to ~110,000. The latter possibility seems more likely since: (1) we observe an increase in the variance explained by the PRS from 0.66% (p=2.8e-5) to 1.71% (p=5.1e-11) (Table S8), which corresponds with the increase predicted from theory given the increased sample size (55); (2) a genetic correlation of 0.91-0.96 between the PGC wave 2 discovery results and the extended discovery results as estimated with LD-score regression (30); and (3) an overlap of the 95% CI of the interaction-effects based on the PGC discovery sample and the larger discovery sample applied in this paper (Table S8). In other words, our results suggest that the additional discovery cohorts (deCODE, GenScotland, GERA, iPsych, and UK Biobank) capture the same genetic information as the PGC cohorts. Therefore, we hypothesize that the previously reported interaction results in NESDA (27) and RADIANT UK (28) were both chance findings. The fact that these findings were both significant in an opposite direction may reflect the statistical vulnerability of interaction testing (48, 54, 56).

A source of spurious interaction effects can be found in gene-environment (GE) correlation as explained for twin analyses by Purcell (54). Notably, the PRS based on the PGC wave 2 discovery results were slightly more correlated with childhood trauma in the full population (with approximately -0.09 in NESDA and 0.13 in RADIANT UK) than the PRS based on the extended sample $($ $^{\circ}0.02$ and $^{\circ}0.06$ respectively). A simulation study suggested that the type I error rate can indeed be inflated in the context of GE-correlation, but to a modest extent of 0.075 (with alpha set at 0.05) for a strong correlation of 0.3 between G and E (Supplemental Methods). It is, therefore, unlikely that the GxE-interactions previously found would be attributable to GE-correlation.

The current study has both strengths and limitations. First, this study is the largest to date to test for interaction between polygenic risk scores and CT in MDD risk. Second, polygenic risk scores were based on a powerful discovery GWAS with approximately 110,000 individuals. Third, diagnoses were DSM-based aiming to select clinically relevant cases of MDD. A limitation of our study is that CT was not assessed uniformly across cohorts for the 2-domain measure, but analyses restricted to cohorts assessed uniformly with the 5-domain CTQ-instrument showed similar results. Although this study is the largest to date, power to detect an interaction-effect between PRS and CT was still 339 limited (power ≥ 0.8 for interaction effects with OR ≤ 0.83 or OR ≥ 1.21 for analyses with the 2-domain CT measure in 5,765 individuals based on power analyses with the QUANTO software) (57). Of note, tests of interaction with PRS do not rule out interaction with individual SNPs; the PRS were based on many SNPs, some, but not all of which may be involved in interaction. The current study tested for interaction with childhood trauma, because childhood trauma has been hypothesized to define a distinct type of MDD,(26) but other environmental factors could have also been tested. Nevertheless, testing too many environmental conditions assessed with a variety of instruments may increase risk of publication bias when significant findings would be published selectively (16, 58).

Lastly, we would like to emphasize the complex nature of interaction testing with PRS based on genome-wide SNPs. For analyses with twin data, Purcell described the distinction between qualitative interaction (different genes have an effect across different environments) and quantitative interactions (the same genes have an effect but they explain a different proportion of variance) (54). In an attempt to elucidate some of the characteristics of interaction testing with PRS, we conducted a second simulation study constructing PRS from simulated SNP-level data for different underlying genetic architectures (Supplemental Methods and Table S9). First, we note that the discovery results are typically based on a discovery sample with an unknown mixture of individuals unexposed (CT=0) and individuals exposed to childhood trauma (CT=1). When assuming qualitative genome-wide interaction with different directions of SNP effects in exposed and unexposed individuals (explaining the same proportion of variance in both groups), the discovery GWAS would mainly tag the effects in unexposed individuals that form the majority of the discovery sample. Consequently, negative interaction between PRS and CT would be detected under this scenario. Second and contrary, for quantitative interaction a positive interaction effect may be expected when SNPs would explain more variance in exposed individuals.

To conclude, no overall evidence was found for interaction between PRS and CT. Previously found interaction effects (27, 28) were no longer significant when applying more powerful discovery results. This study provides a cautionary tale for interaction analyses with PRS: it emphasizes the need to meta-analyze results across different cohorts to obtain external validity. The quest continues to clarify the nature of the heterogeneity of MDD, but the present study has shown that the heterogeneity is unlikely to be attributable to moderation of genome-wide genetic effects by CT. Future research may focus on interaction effects between CT and individual SNPs. We hereby call for large GWAS cohorts to assess CT in a uniform manner to facilitate such research in the years the come.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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Legend to Table 1

Information is displayed for the cohorts that assessed childhood trauma with the Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ) covering the 5 domains of sexual abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse, physical neglect and emotional neglect in a dichotomous 5-domain indicator (exposed versus unexposed) and continuous measure (ranging from 25-125). For the dichotomous CT measure, the proportion of exposed individuals is presented in cases, controls, and in terms of the full population (Pop) assuming a population prevalence of MDD of 15% with twice the prevalence in females (20%) as in males (10%), as well as the odds ratio (OR) of exposed versus unexposed to develop MDD. For the continuous CT measure, the means are displayed in the original scale, and the odds ratio for MDD was assessed for the CTQ measure scaled to variance 1, and can thus be interpreted as increased odds per standard deviation (SD) increase in childhood trauma. The ORs were estimated with logistic regression including sex as covariate. The ORs in the Total sample were estimated with random effect meta-analysis.

Legend to Figure 1.

Forest plot of impact on major depressive disorder of the continuous childhood trauma (CT) score covering the 5 domains of sexual abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse, emotional neglect, and physical neglect. The odds ratio (OR) represents one standard deviation increased in CT. SHIP-O, SHIP-T and QIMR are community studies with MDD cases and screened controls defined from responses to self-report questionnaires, whilst the other studies recruit MDD cases from in- or out-patient clinics and recruit screened controls with both cases and controls completing the same childhood trauma questionnaires.

Legend to Table 2

The impact on major depressive disorder (MDD) is displayed for polygenic risk scores (PRS) and their interaction with the 5-domain continuous childhood trauma (CT) measure including sexual abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse, physical neglect and emotional neglect. The impact of the PRS is presented as the odds ratio (OR) from logistic regression corrected for sex and three principal components, as well as with the variance explained by the PRS on the liability scale. Interaction of PRS with CT (PRSxCT) was assessed as departure from multiplicativity with logistic regression while additionally correcting for the main effects of PRS and CT. Interaction as departure from additivity was expressed as the relative excess risks due to interaction (RERI) estimated as described in the main text, and their 95% confidence intervals (CI) were estimated with bootstrapping with 10,000 iterations. The PRS were based on discovery GWAS results from MDD, schizophrenia (SCZ) and bipolar disorder (BIP). Results in the Total sample were based on random-effect meta-analysis of the effects in the individual cohorts.

Legend to Table 3

The impact on major depressive disorder (MDD) is displayed for polygenic risk scores (PRS) and their interaction with the childhood trauma (CT) dichotomous indicator covering sexual abuse and physical abuse (broad definition). The prevalence of CT is presented in MDD cases, controls, and in terms of the full population (Pop) assuming a population prevalence of MDD of 15% with twice the prevalence in females (20%) as in males (10%). The impact of the PRS and CT is presented as the odds ratio (OR) from logistic regression corrected for sex and three principal components, as well as with the variance explained by the PRS on the liability scale. Interaction of PRS with CT (PRSxCT) was assessed as departure from multiplicativity with logistic regression while additionally correcting for the main effects of PRS and CT. The PRS were based on discovery GWAS results from MDD including all SNPs, i.e. with significance threshold p<1.

Table 1. Number of depression cases and controls and the 5-domain childhood trauma (CT) measure.

			Dichotomous CT indicator				Continuous CT measure				
	N			Proportion of CT				Mean (SD)			
Cohort		Case Control		Case Control Pop		OR (p-value)	Case	Control	OR (p-value)		
Male and female											
COFAMS	56	22	0.70	0.23	0.30	7.22 (8.6e-04)	54.7 (21.4)	33.2 (11.6)	5.60 (1.2e-03)		
NESDA	1143	272	0.53	0.21	0.26	$4.18(6.9e-19)$	43.0 (14.6)	33.6(9.1)	3.29 (3.4e-21)		
RADIANT UK	269	267	0.62	0.18	0.24	7.60 (1.1e-22)	46.4 (16.2)	32.7(8.8)	4.08 (7.4e-21)		
SHIP-0	340	993	0.36	0.23	0.25	$1.94(1.1e-06)$	37.4 (12.3)	33.0 (8.4)	$1.52(7.4e-11)$		
SHIP-TREND	149	448	0.28	0.15	0.17	$2.43(1.5e-04)$	36.9 (14.2)	31.6(7.3)	$1.72(2.4e-07)$		
Total	1957	2002	0.50	0.21	0.25	3.80 (3.0e-06)	42.4 (15.1)	32.7(8.4)	2.62 (1.4e-05)		
Male only											
COFAMS	20	12	0.55	0.25	0.28	$3.67(1.1e-01)$	50.2 (19.9)	34.8 (14.5)	2.94 (4.4e-02)		
NESDA	357	111	0.53	0.19	0.22	4.70 (5.4e-09)	42.0 (13.5)	33.4(9.1)	$3.17(3.4e-09)$		
RADIANT UK	73	109	0.62	0.18	0.23	7.42 (7.8e-09)	45.5 (14.5)	33.2(9.1)	3.43 (4.4e-08)		
SHIP-0	112	562	0.39	0.25	0.26	$1.95(1.8e-03)$	37.0(9.1)	33.2(7.8)	1.48 (1.8e-05)		
SHIP-TREND	44	246	0.27	0.18	0.19	1.71 (1.5e-01)	35.7 (10.9)	32.3(7.5)	$1.42(1.3e-02)$		
Total	606	1040	0.49	0.22	0.25	3.30 (8.7e-05)	41.3 (13.4)	33.0(8.2)	$2.18(1.1e-04)$		
Female only											
COFAMS	36	10	0.78	0.20	0.32	14.0 (2.9e-03)	57.2 (22.0)	31.4(7.0)	18.44 (2.2e-02)		
NESDA	786	161	0.53	0.23	0.29	$3.90(2.1e-11)$	43.5 (15.1)	33.7 (9.0)	$3.30(1.5e-13)$		
RADIANT UK	196	158	0.61	0.17	0.26	7.70 (2.4e-15)	46.8 (16.8)	32.3(8.6)	4.41 (3.0e-14)		
SHIP-0	228	431	0.35	0.22	0.24	1.94 (1.7e-04)	37.5 (13.6)	32.6(9.0)	1.57 (5.5e-07)		
SHIP-TREND	105	202	0.29	0.11	0.15	$3.10(2.6e-04)$	37.4 (15.4)	30.7(6.9)	2.04 (1.2e-05)		
Total	1351	962	0.50	0.19	0.25	4.03 (2.5e-06)	42.8 (15.8)	32.3(8.6)	2.74 (3.6e-05)		

Table 2. Impact on major depressive disorder of polygenic risk scores and their interaction with the 5-domain childhood trauma (CT) continuous measure of sexual
abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse, physical neglect an

Table 3. Proportion exposed to childhood trauma (CT) measured as either sexual or physical abuse, and its interaction with polygenic risk scores (PRS with SNP threshold p<1) in predicting major depressive disorder (MDD)

Figure
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Major Depressive Disorder Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium

Naomi R Wray* 1, 2 Stephan Ripke* 3, 4, 5 Manuel Mattheisen* 6, 7, 8, 9 Maciej Trzaskowski* 1 Enda M Byrne 1 Abdel Abdellaoui 10 Mark J Adams 11 Esben Agerbo 9, 12, 13 Tracy M Air 14 Till F M Andlauer 15, 16 Silviu-Alin Bacanu 17 Marie Bækvad-Hansen 9, 18 Aartjan T F Beekman 19 Tim B Bigdeli 17, 20 Elisabeth B Binder 15, 21 Douglas H R Blackwood 11 Julien Bryois 22 Henriette N Buttenschøn 8, 9, 23 Jonas Bybjerg-Grauholm 9, 18 Na Cai 24, 25 Enrique Castelao 26 Jane Hvarregaard Christensen 7, 8, 9 Toni-Kim Clarke 11 Jonathan R I Coleman 27 Lucía Colodro-Conde 28 Baptiste Couvy-Duchesne 29, 30 Nick Craddock 31 Gregory E Crawford 32, 33 Gail Davies 34 Ian J Deary 34 Franziska Degenhardt 35, 36 Eske M Derks 28 Nese Direk 37, 38 Conor V Dolan 10 Erin C Dunn 39, 40, 41 Thalia C Eley 27 Valentina Escott-Price 42 Farnush Farhadi Hassan Kiadeh 43 Hilary K Finucane 44, 45 Andreas J Forstner 35, 36, 46, 47 Josef Frank 48 Héléna A Gaspar 27 Michael Gill 49

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1, Institute for Molecular Bioscience, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, AU

2, Queensland Brain Institute, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, AU

3, Analytic and Translational Genetics Unit, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, US

4, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Universitätsmedizin Berlin Campus Charité Mitte, Berlin, DE

5, Medical and Population Genetics, Broad Institute, Cambridge, MA, US

6, Centre for Psychiatry Research, Department of Clinical Neuroscience, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, SE

7, Department of Biomedicine, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK

8, iSEQ, Centre for Integrative Sequencing, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK

9, iPSYCH, The Lundbeck Foundation Initiative for Integrative Psychiatric Research, DK

10, Dept of Biological Psychology & EMGO+ Institute for Health and Care Research, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam, NL

11, Division of Psychiatry, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, GB

12, Centre for Integrated Register-based Research, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK

13, National Centre for Register-Based Research, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK

14, Discipline of Psychiatry, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, SA, AU

15, Department of Translational Research in Psychiatry, Max Planck Institute of Psychiatry, Munich, DE

16, Munich Cluster for Systems Neurology (SyNergy), Munich, DE

17, Department of Psychiatry, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, US

18, Center for Neonatal Screening, Department for Congenital Disorders, Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen, DK

19, Department of Psychiatry, Vrije Universiteit Medical Center and GGZ inGeest, Amsterdam, NL

20, Virginia Institute for Psychiatric and Behavior Genetics, Richmond, VA, US

21, Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA, US

22, Department of Medical Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, SE

23, Department of Clinical Medicine, Translational Neuropsychiatry Unit, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK

24, Human Genetics, Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute, Cambridge, GB

25, Statistical genomics and systems genetics, European Bioinformatics Institute (EMBL-EBI), Cambridge, GB

26, Department of Psychiatry, University Hospital of Lausanne, Prilly, Vaud, CH

- 27, MRC Social Genetic and Developmental Psychiatry Centre, King's College London, London, GB
- 28, Genetics and Computational Biology, QIMR Berghofer Medical Research Institute, Herston, QLD, AU
- 29, Centre for Advanced Imaging, The University of Queensland, Saint Lucia, QLD, AU
- 30, Queensland Brain Institute, The University of Queensland, Saint Lucia, QLD, AU

31, Psychological Medicine, Cardiff University, Cardiff, GB

32, Center for Genomic and Computational Biology, Duke University, Durham, NC, US

33, Department of Pediatrics, Division of Medical Genetics, Duke University, Durham, NC, US

34, Centre for Cognitive Ageing and Cognitive Epidemiology, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, GB

35, Institute of Human Genetics, University of Bonn, Bonn, DE

36, Life&Brain Center, Department of Genomics, University of Bonn, Bonn, DE

37, Epidemiology, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, Zuid-Holland, NL

38, Psychiatry, Dokuz Eylul University School Of Medicine, Izmir, TR

39, Department of Psychiatry, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, US

40, Psychiatric and Neurodevelopmental Genetics Unit (PNGU), Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, US

41, Stanley Center for Psychiatric Research, Broad Institute, Cambridge, MA, US

42, Neuroscience and Mental Health, Cardiff University, Cardiff, GB

43, Bioinformatics, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, CA

44, Department of Epidemiology, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston, MA, US

45, Department of Mathematics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, US

46, Department of Psychiatry (UPK), University of Basel, Basel, CH

47, Human Genomics Research Group, Department of Biomedicine, University of Basel, Basel, CH

48, Department of Genetic Epidemiology in Psychiatry, Central Institute of Mental Health, Medical

Faculty Mannheim, Heidelberg University, Mannheim, Baden-Württemberg, DE

49, Department of Psychiatry, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin, IE

50, Psychiatry & Behavioral Sciences, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, US

51, Genetics and Computational Biology, QIMR Berghofer Medical Research Institute, Brisbane, QLD, AU

52, Bioinformatics Research Centre, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK

53, Institute of Genetic Medicine, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne, GB

54, Danish Headache Centre, Department of Neurology, Rigshospitalet, Glostrup, DK

55, Institute of Biological Psychiatry, Mental Health Center Sct. Hans, Mental Health Services Capital Region of Denmark, Copenhagen, DK

56, iPSYCH, The Lundbeck Foundation Initiative for Psychiatric Research, Copenhagen, DK

57, Brain and Mind Centre, University of Sydney, Sydney, NSW, AU

58, Interfaculty Institute for Genetics and Functional Genomics, Department of Functional Genomics, 44, Department of Fpidemiology, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston, MA, US
45, Department of Mathematics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, US
46, Department of Paychiatry (UPK), Universi Vorpommern, DE

59, Roche Pharmaceutical Research and Early Development, Pharmaceutical Sciences, Roche Innovation Center Basel, F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd, Basel, CH

60, Max Planck Institute of Psychiatry, Munich, DE

61, Division of Research, Kaiser Permanente Northern California, Oakland, CA, US

62, Psychiatry & The Behavioral Sciences, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA, US

63, Department of Biomedical Informatics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, US

64, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, MA, US

65, Informatics Program, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, MA, US

66, Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, University of Oxford, Oxford, GB

67, Department of Endocrinology at Herlev University Hospital, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, DK

68, Institute of Social and Preventive Medicine (IUMSP), University Hospital of Lausanne, Lausanne, VD, CH

69, Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics, Lausanne, VD, CH

70, Division of Psychiatry, Centre for Clinical Brain Sciences, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, GB

71, Mental Health, NHS 24, Glasgow, GB

72, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University of Bonn, Bonn, DE

73, Statistics, University of Oxford, Oxford, GB

74, Psychiatry, Columbia University College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York, NY, US

75, School of Psychology and Counseling, Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, QLD, AU

76, Child and Youth Mental Health Service, Children's Health Queensland Hospital and Health Service, South Brisbane, QLD, AU

77, Child Health Research Centre, University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, AU

78, Estonian Genome Center, University of Tartu, Tartu, EE

79, Medical Genetics, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, CA

80, Statistics, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, CA

81, DZHK (German Centre for Cardiovascular Research), Partner Site Greifswald, University Medicine, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, DE

82, Institute of Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, DE

83, Institute of Health and Biomedical Innovation, Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, QLD, AU

84, Humus, Reykjavik, IS

85, MRC Centre for Neuropsychiatric Genetics and Genomics, Cardiff University, Cardiff, GB 86, Virginia Institute for Psychiatric & Behavioral Genetics, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, US

87, Clinical Genetics, Vrije Universiteit Medical Center, Amsterdam, NL

88, Complex Trait Genetics, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam, NL

89, Solid Biosciences, Boston, MA, US

90, Department of Psychiatry, Washington University in Saint Louis School of Medicine, Saint Louis, MO, US

91, Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology II, Institute of Neurosciences, Center for Biomedical Research, University of Granada, Granada, ES

92, Department of Psychiatry, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, Groningen, NL

93, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Medical Center of the University of Munich, Campus Innenstadt, Munich, DE

94, Institute of Psychiatric Phenomics and Genomics (IPPG), Medical Center of the University of Munich, Campus Innenstadt, Munich, DE

95, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD, US

96, Behavioral Health Services, Kaiser Permanente Washington, Seattle, WA, US

97, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Psychiatry, University of Iceland, Reykjavik, IS

98, School of Medicine and Dentistry, James Cook University, Townsville, QLD, AU

99, Institute of Health and Wellbeing, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, GB

100, deCODE Genetics / Amgen, Reykjavik, IS

101, College of Biomedical and Life Sciences, Cardiff University, Cardiff, GB

102, Institute of Epidemiology and Social Medicine, University of Münster, Münster, Nordrhein-Westfalen, DE

103, Institute for Community Medicine, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, DE

104, Department of Psychiatry, University of California, San Diego, San Diego, CA, US

105, KG Jebsen Centre for Psychosis Research, Norway Division of Mental Health and Addiction, Oslo University Hospital, Oslo, NO

106, Medical Genetics Section, CGEM, IGMM, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, GB

107, Clinical Neurosciences, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, GB

108, Internal Medicine, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, Zuid-Holland, NL

109, Roche Pharmaceutical Research and Early Development, Neuroscience, Ophthalmology and Rare Diseases Discovery & Translational Medicine Area, Roche Innovation Center Basel, F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd, Basel, CH

110, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, DE

111, Department of Psychiatry, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, NL

112, Virginia Institute of Psychiatric & Behavioral Genetics, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, US

113, Computational Sciences Center of Emphasis, Pfizer Global Research and Development, Cambridge, MA, US

114, Institute for Molecular Bioscience; Queensland Brain Institute, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, AU

115, Department of Psychiatry, University of Münster, Münster, Nordrhein-Westfalen, DE

116, Institute of Medical Genetics and Pathology, University Hospital Basel, University of Basel, Basel, CH

117, Institute of Neuroscience and Medicine (INM-1), Research Center Juelich, Juelich, DE

118, Amsterdam Public Health Institute, Vrije Universiteit Medical Center, Amsterdam, NL

119, Centre for Integrative Biology, Università degli Studi di Trento, Trento, Trentino-Alto Adige, IT

120, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Medical Center, University of Freiburg, Faculty of Medicine, University of Freiburg, Freiburg, DE

121, Psychiatry, Kaiser Permanente Northern California, San Francisco, CA, US

122, Medical Research Council Human Genetics Unit, Institute of Genetics and Molecular Medicine, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, GB

123, Department of Psychiatry, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, CA

124, Centre for Addiction and Mental Health, Toronto, ON, CA

125, Division of Psychiatry, University College London, London, GB

126, Neuroscience Therapeutic Area, Janssen Research and Development, LLC, Titusville, NJ, US

127, Institute of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of Tartu, Tartu, EE

128, Psychosis Research Unit, Aarhus University Hospital, Risskov, Aarhus, DK

129, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, GB

130, Mental Health Center Copenhagen, Copenhagen University Hospital, Copenhagen, DK

131, Human Genetics and Computational Biomedicine, Pfizer Global Research and Development, Groton, CT, US

132, Psychiatry, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, US

133, Psychiatry, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA, US

134, Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, US 135, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University Medical Center Göttingen, Goettingen, Niedersachsen, DE

136, Human Genetics Branch, NIMH Division of Intramural Research Programs, Bethesda, MD, US

137, Faculty of Medicine, University of Iceland, Reykjavik, IS

138, Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, Zuid-Holland, NL

139, Psychiatry, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, Zuid-Holland, NL

140, Psychiatry, Dalhousie University, Halifax, NS, CA

141, Division of Epidemiology, New York State Psychiatric Institute, New York, NY, US

142, Department of Clinical Medicine, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, DK

143, Department of Medical & Molecular Genetics, King's College London, London, GB

144, Psychiatry & Behavioral Sciences, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, US

145, NIHR BRC for Mental Health, King's College London, London, GB

146, Genetics, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC, US

147, Psychiatry, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC, US

Dichotomous Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ) score

The CTQ covers the five domains of sexual abuse (SA), physical abuse (PA), emotional abuse (EA), emotional neglect (EN), and physical neglect (PN). Each domain is assessed by five questions (scored 1 to 5) resulting in a domain score ranging from 5 to 25. Per domain, cutoffs were applied to define a narrow definition of childhood trauma separating no or mild trauma from moderate or severe trauma, based on cut-offs for moderate/severe of > 7 (SA), > 9 (PA), > 12 (EA), > 14 (EN), > 9 (PN) respectively. These cut-offs are based on the CTQ manual. From this, an overall dichotomous CTQ indicator was constructed to separate trauma in any of the five domains (1) from trauma in none of the domains (0).

Childhood trauma in DGN and QIMR

In the Depression Gene Network (DGN) cohort, sexual abuse was assessed with two questions: "Someone touched parts of your body in a sexual way, or had you touch parts of the person in a sexual way"; and "Someone had or attempted to have oral sex, anal sex, or sexual intercourse with you" Physical abuse in DGN was also assessed with two questions: "Someone outside your household physically attacked or assaulted you, threatened you with a weapon or held you captive"; and "Your mother, father or another adult household member hurt you on purpose (for example, beat, choked, kicked, cut or burned you)". The narrow definition was defined as at least one of four questions occurring frequently versus sometimes, rarely or never, and the broad definition as at least one of four questions occurring frequently or sometimes versus rarely or never. For data from the Queensland Institute of Medical Research (QIMR), two instruments were used to assess childhood trauma before the age of 18. Most QIMR individuals were assessed with an instrument covering sexual abuse: touching your sexual parts, you touching their sexual parts, or sexual intercourse (SA assessed with one question for family members and one question for non-family); and physical abuse: being punished by hitting (one question), hurting from punishment next day (one question), being physically injured on purpose (one question). The other QIMR individuals (on the QIMR_3 genotype-batch labeled as M7) were assessed with a questionnaire covering sexual abuse as the occurrence of: exposure to sexual organs, exposure to masturbation, being touched, attempt to have sex, and have sex (SA specified in 16 separate questions); and for physical abuse the occurrence of: being hit, kicked, choked, throttled or locked in by either father, father-figure, mother, or mother-figure (PA specified in 13 separate questions). For QIMR the narrow and broad definitions were defined as above, except for physical abuse from the second questionnaire (QIMR 3 M7) that didn't distinguish between occurring "frequently" and "sometimes" resulting in converging of the narrow and broad definitions. For the analyses, we applied the broad definition.

Simulation study 1: impact of gene-environment correlation in tests for GxE-interaction

Tests of genotype by environment interaction are known to be scale dependent. In a linear regression model, where a continuous phenotype is regressed on a measured genetic variant (e.g. a candidate gene) and a measured exposure, non-normality of the phenotypic distribution can give rise to spurious interaction effects. We considered this issue given logistic regression of a binary phenotype by means of a small simulation study. We generated phenotypic data based on 12 binary symptoms, which were related to an underlying normally distributed depression liability by a Rasch model (1). The parameters of the Rasch model were chosen so that the distribution of the sum scores based on the 12 symptoms was highly skewed. We dichotomized the sum score of these 12 symptoms to arrive at the binary phenotype with a prevalence of .20. The underlying normally distributed depression liability was subject to main effects of genes (A; explaining 38.8% of the liability variance) and the main effects of a given exposure (explaining 11.1%). There was no interaction effect (AxE). We considered the type I error rate α of the interaction effect, where we regressed the binary phenotype on A, the dichotomized exposure variable (E; prevalence .10) and on the interaction AxE. We set the nominal α at .05. We varied the correlation between the exposure and the genetic variable. Based on 10,000 replications, we observed an inflated type I error rate of the interaction effect as a function of the correlation between the genetic variable and the exposure. However, this inflation was relatively small. The observed type I error rate was .046 (zero correlation), .056 (correlation .15) and .0752 (correlation .30). Note that .056 and .0752 both deviate significantly from the nominal value of .5 (p=.003 and p<.0001, respectively). So in this scenario, which is based on the NESDA and Radiant-UK data, we note that we expect some type I error rate inflation. However, we conclude that the type I error rate inflation in test of GxE in the present setup is small and does not render the test useless. Specifically, in the NESDA and Radiant-UK data the correlation between the genetic variable (polygenic risk score) and the exposure (childhood trauma) is likely to be very low (Table S5).

Simulation study 2

The aim of this simulation study is to aid interpretation of interaction analyses with polygenic risk score (PRS) by simulating different underlying genetic architectures.

Liability threshold model and the impact of childhood trauma (CT) on major depressive disorder (MDD)

Simulation is based on the liability-threshold model, which can be modeled as MDD underpinned by an unobserved liability, l_{MDD} , where individuals are affected when liability exceeds disease threshold, T_{MDD} . The liability is assumed to be normally distributed and scaled to a population mean of 0 and variance of 1 (which defines T_{MDD} given the prevalence of MDD K_{MDD}), and to result from independent normally distributed environmental (e_{MDD}) and genetic effects (g_{MDD}) with l_{MDD} = $g_{MDD} + e_{MDD}$, where $var(g_{MDD})/var(l_{MDD}) = var(g_{MDD}) = h_{l,MDD}^2$, the heritability of MDD on the liability scale. Here, we subdivide the environmental effects as $e_{MDD} = CT_{liability scale} +$ $e_{residual, MDD}$. We assume that $CT_{observed scale}$ is represented by a dichotomous measure that labels individuals as exposed (1) or unexposed (0) with an odd ratio for MDD of exposed of OR_{CT} . For a prevalence of MDD of $K_{MDD} = 0.15$, prevalence of CT of $K_{CT} = 0.25$ and $OR_{CT} = 3.2$, the $CT_{observed scale}$ can be transformed to $CT_{liability scale}$ as -0.16 (unexposed) and 0.47 (exposed), and explains 7.4% of variation on the liability scale (Appendix A). Assuming a heritability of MDD of $h_{LMDD}^2 = 0.35$, the variance explained by the residual environmental effects $e_{residual,MDD}$ follows as 57.6% (assuming that $CT_{liability scale}$, $e_{residual, MDD}$, and g_{MDD} are all independent). For Model 1, we consider CT as part of the environmental effects on MDD, but we note that CT has been found to be heritable itself (2); the consequences of which will be discussed later. In Model 1, we will, further, assume that the genetic and residual environmental effects are equal in those exposed and those unexposed to CT, which can thus be thought of as a "pure additive" model on the liability scale of $CT_{liability scale}$, $e_{residual, MDD}$, and data, we will discuss decreasing the correlation of SNP-effects between those exposed and those unexposed to CT (Model 2), increasing a genetic contribution to CT through introducing a heritability for CT (Model 3), increasing magnitude of SNP-effects on MDD in those exposed compared to those unexposed to CT (Model 4), and decreasing magnitude of residual environmental effects on MDD in those exposed compared to those unexposed to CT (Model 5).

Simulation of SNP data and genetic effects

We simulated individuals in a population one-by-one until a total of 9,000 cases and 9,000 controls were obtained, from which 10,000 were used as discovery and 8,000 as target set. Therefore, we

first simulated the SNPs following the method of Golan et al (3), and subsequently modeled CT and MDD. Briefly, the properties of 10,000 SNPs in full linkage equilibrium were first defined by drawing their minor allele frequencies (MAF) from the uniform distribution from 0.05 to 0.5, and a proportion of 30% of these SNPs were set to have an effect on MDD with effects drawn from a normal distribution with variance $h_{LMDD}^2/3,000$ while the effects of the other SNPs were set at 0. With these SNP effects, an individual i was simulated by first drawing its allele count (x_{ij} ; 0,1 or 2) with probabilities of $(1 - MAF_i)^2$, $2(1 - MAF_i)MAF_i$, and MAF_i^2 respectively for all SNP j, and, second, defining its genetic effects as $g(i)_{MDD} = \sum_j effect_j(x_{ij} - 2MAF_j)/(2(1 - MAF_j)MAF_j)$.
Childhood trauma status of individual *i* was assigned with probability K_{CT} , and transformed to the liability scale $CT(i)_{liability scale}$ as described in Appendix A. The residual environmental effect was drawn from a normal distribution with variance $e(i)_{residual, MDD}$ $1-h_{l,MDD}^2 - var(CT_{liability scale})$, so that the liability of individual *i* followed as $l(i) = g(i)_{MDD} +$ $CT(i)_{liability scale} + e(i)_{residual, MDD}$. Individual *i* was deemed affected with MDD when $l(i)$ T_{MDD} and non affected otherwise, where disease threshold T_{MDD} was defined such that K_{MDD} = $P(z > T_{MDD} | z \sim N(0,1))$. This procedure was repeated until a total of 9,000 cases and 9,000 controls were obtained. Subsequently, a genome-wide association study (GWAS) was conducted with PLINK on 5,000 cases and 5,000 controls (4), the results of which were used to prepare polygenic risk scores in the target set of the other 4,000 cases and 4,000 controls. For every parameterization, the simulation was repeated 10 times.

Simulation - Model 1

For the base assumption of the genetic architecture we assumed a prevalence of MDD of $K_{MDD} = 0.15$, a heritability of MDD of $h_{LMDD}^2 = 0.35$, a prevalence of CT of $K_{CT} = 0.25$, no impact of SNPs in CT ($h_{LCT}^2 = 0$), and odds ratio for MDD in those exposed to childhood trauma of $OR =$ 3.2, and pure additivity on the liability scale (identical genetic and residual environmental effects in those exposed and those unexposed to childhood trauma).

Simulation - Model 2

A clear case of GxE interaction would be when the individual SNP-effects on MDD in those exposed would differ from the effects in those unexposed, i.e. when

 $r_g = cor(effect_{SNPj|CT=1}, effect_{SNPj|CT=0}) = 0$ for the 3,000 effective SNPs. To model this scenario, we further assumed that the effects are on the same 3,000 SNPs and the variance explained is constant, that is $var(effect_{SNP} |_{CT=1}) = var(effect_{SNP} |_{1CT=0}) = 0.35$.

Simulation - Model 3

For the Models 1, 2, 4 and 5 we have assumed that CT is purely environmental, but heritability of childhood trauma has been estimated at around 0.5 (2). Therefore, an impact of SNPs effects on CT is considered here. For this, we assume that CT is a "disease trait" itself with underlying liability as described above for MDD (not suggesting that children are to blame for the trauma they experience, rather we hypothesize that heritability arises from transmitted alleles that affect personality characteristics in parents). Nevertheless, we drew SNP-effects for CT from a random normal distribution with variance $h_{LCT}^2 = 0.5$ and environmental effects from a normal distribution with variance $1-h_{LCT}^2$ to construct a liability of CT l_{CT} , and individuals were deemed exposed to CT when $l_{CT}(i) > T_{CT}$ with the threshold defined such that $K_{CT} = P(z > T_{CT} | z \sim N(0,1))$. The effects were assigned to the same 3,000 SNPs impacting MDD, but drawn from an independent normal distribution. Given the CT status thus simulated, MDD was derived as described above.

Simulation - Model 4

Another way to think about GxE interaction is that environmental stress might potentiate genetic effects. This was modeled by setting a proportion of genetic effects on MDD in those exposed to those unexposed to CT as $var(effect_{SNP} |_{CT=1})/var(effect_{SNP} |_{CT=0}) = 3$ while keeping $cor\left(effect_{SNPj\mid CT=1},effect_{SNPj\mid CT=0}\right)=1.$ The variances of SNP-effects where chosen in such way that the variance of genetic effects in the full population were fixed at 0.35, while the residual environmental effects had the same variance in those exposed and those unexposed to CT (Appendix B).

Simulation - Model 5

A hypothetical scenario could be that environmental risk factors for MDD (such as socioeconomic status and life-stress in adulthood) cluster in those exposed to CT; the link between these environmental risk factors would be captured in estimates of the OR of CT, but could in addition result in less residual environmental variation in those exposed compared to those unexposed to childhood trauma. We modeled this as $var(e_{residual,MDD|CT=1})/var(e_{residual,MDD|CT=0}) = 1/$ 3 while assuming constant genetic effects in those exposed and those unexposed to CT, $\text{eff} \text{ect}_{SNP}$ $\text{if } \text{cr}=1 \text{ }=\text{eff} \text{ect}_{SNP}$ $\text{if } \text{cr}=0$ (Appendix C).

Appendix A. Transformation of OR to liability scale.

To transform the OR from CT on MDD to the liability scale the approach of Witte et al was applied.(5) Therefore, the OR (set at 3.2) was first transformed to the RR (2.6) and consequently to the risk on MDD in exposed ($CT = 1$ with MDD proportion 0.28) and unexposed ($CT = 0$ with MDD in proportion 0.11) assuming a population prevalence of $K_{MDD} = 0.15$ and $K_{CT} = 0.25$. The liability disease threshold for MDD in the full population was found as $T_{MDD, full\ population} = \Phi^{-1}(1 K_{MDD}$) = $\Phi^{-1}(1 - 0.15)$ = 1.0364. First assuming a liability variance of 1 in both exposed and unexposed, the threshold in exposed was found as $T_{MDD|CT=1} = \Phi^{-1}(1-0.28) = 0.589$ and in unexposed as $T_{MDD|CT=1} = \Phi^{-1}(1-0.11) = 1.241$. In line with Witte et al, the mean liability in exposed was found at $\mu_{l|CT=1} = T_{MDD,full\ population} - T_{MDD|CT=1}$ and in unexposed at $\mu_{l|CT=0}$ $T_{MDD, full\ population} - T_{MDD|CT=0}$, allowing to merge exposed and unexposed while ensuring the disease risks of 0.28 and 0.11 respectively. However, because the variance in both exposed and unexposed was assumed to equal 1, the merged sample had a variance larger than 1 introduced by the variance of CT and a mean slightly different from zero. To ease modeling of genetic effects, we rescaled to mean of zero and variance one, also correcting the disease threshold in this manner. With this, a model was derived transposing CT status of exposed and unexposed to the liability scale, while the overall variance of liability was set at 1, and mean at 0, as usual.

Appendix B. Modeling increased magnitude of SNP-effects in CT=1 compared to CT=0

When aiming to model increased variance of SNP effects in those exposed compared to those unexposed to CT, arbitrary choices have to be made about the residual environmental effects in exposed and unexposed, and the variance of liability, genetic effects and environmental effects in the overall population. We choose to fix the full population variance of liability at 1, variance of genetic effects at $h_{LMDD}^2 = 0.35$, and variance of environmental effects at $1-h_{LMDD}^2 = 0.65$ (the latter including both the variance of $CT_{liability}$ as well as residual environmental effects). To obtain e.g. a variance of genetic effects in exposed three times the variance of genetic effects in unexposed $(var(effect_{SNP\ i\,C} \tau_{=1})/var(effect_{SNP\ i\,C} \tau_{=0}) = 3)$, the variance of genetic effects followed as $var(effect_{SNP1|CT=1}) = 0.56$ and $var(effect_{SNP1|CT=0}) = 0.28$ thereby ensuring that the variance of genetic effect in the full population equals $var(effect_{SNP}) =$

 $0.25\mu_{effect_{SNP}j|CT=1}^{2} + 0.75\mu_{effect_{SNP}j|CT=0}^{2} - (0.2\mu_{effect_{SNP}j|CT=1} + 0.8\mu_{effect_{SNP}j|CT=0})^{2} =$ $0.25(0.56 + 0^2) + 0.75(0.28 + 0^2) - 0 = 0.35$. We choose to fix the residual variance in both exposed and unexposed first at $var(e_{residual|CT=1}) = var(e_{residual|CT=1}) = 0.65$, and the overall variance of liability was thus larger in exposed than in unexposed. As a result, the sums in Appendix A were slightly adjusted as the variance and mean of the merged sample differed slightly to the above, and therefore correction to obtain variance of 1 and mean of zero in the full population also differed.

Appendix C. Decreased environmental variation in individuals exposed to CT

When aiming to model a smaller variance of residual environmental effects in those exposed compared to those unexposed to CT, several model choices have again to be made. We chose to fix the full population variance of liability at 1, variance of genetic effects at $h_{l,MDD}^2 = 0.35$ equal in exposed and unexposed, and variance of environmental effects at $1-h_{LMDD}^2 = 0.35$ (the latter including both the variance of $CT_{liability}$ as well as residual environmental effects).

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		N with CT						
			N		information	Demographics		
Cohort	Country		Cases Controls	Cases	Controls	Mean age % female		
COFAMS	Australia	120	126	56	22	38.2	0.59	
DGN	USA	463	459	461	458	$\overline{}$	0.70	
NESDA	Netherlands	1493	1603	1133	271	42.9	0.67	
QIMR (3 sub cohorts)	Australia	1902	1660	613	237	36.3	0.64	
RADIANT UK	UK	1859	1519	262	264	46.0	0.66	
SHIP (2 sub cohorts)	Germany	515	1529	499	1490	53.6	0.50	

Table S1. Demographic information for contributing cohorts of major depressive disorder cases and unaffected controls

CT=childhood trauma

Table S2. Correlation of childhood trauma domains (N=3850)

	EA	PA	SA	EN	PN	SUM					
Childhood Trauma Questionnaire subscales (continuous measures)											
Emotional Abuse (EA)		0.596	0.387	0.609	0.481	0.803					
Physical Abuse (PA)	0.596	1	0.387	0.413	0.410	0.681					
Sexual Abuse (SA)	0.387	0.387	1	0.246	0.285	0.539					
Emotional Neglect (EN)	0.609	0.413	0.246		0.632	0.805					
Physical Neglect (PN)	0.481	0.410	0.285	0.632	1	0.728					
Sum score (SUM)	0.803	0.681	0.539	0.805	0.728	1					
Dichotomous indicator of sexual or physical abuse											
SA/PA (dichotomous)	0.367	0.542	0.754	0.203	0.201	0.497					

The Pearson correlation coefficients (all p-value<2e-16) are displayed between the five domains of the Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ) by applying the residuals of linear regression of the domains on sex and cohort (COFAMS, NESDA, Radiant-UK, SHIP). It can be seen that sexual abuse is slightly less correlated than the other domains, and that there seems no clear distinction between the abuse and neglect domains, which is in line with previous findings from Spinhoven et al.8 In addition, the Spearman's rho correlation coefficient is displayed of the CTQ domains with the dichotomous indicator of sexual abuse and/or physical abuse (SA/PA) that was available for two additional cohorts.

	COFAMS	DGN	NESDA		QIMR 3 QIMR 6 QIMR C RAD. UK			SHIP-0	SHIP-T
COFAMS	771,120	$\overline{}$							$\overline{}$
DGN	741,245	1,051,603	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$					$\overline{}$
NESDA	675,669	851,244	924,741	$\overline{}$					
QIMR 3	626,026	775,291		702,250 821,960	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$			$\overline{}$
QIMR 6	716,604	930,576			822,954 803,446 1,000,453	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$
QIMR C	711,902	746,328		683,496 635,209	724,195	772.404	$\overline{}$		$\qquad \qquad$
RAD. UK	729,795	954.007		840,621 811,506	983,793	736,767	1,028,612	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$
SHIP-0	706,975	905.732		907,329 737,015	871,372	713.690	890.930	992.050	$\overline{}$
SHIP-T	762,091	1,037,269 903,725 809,699			981,370	765,093	1,008,254		967,781 1,131,800

Table S3. Number of overlapping SNPs between cohorts for GRM-based analyses

Table S4. Impact of CTQ subdomain continuous measures on MDD

	Mean (SD)		
Subset	Cases	Controls	OR (p-value)
Emotional Abuse			
Male & Female	9.3(4.8)	6.2(2.3)	2.40 (1.1e-06)
Male	8.5(4.2)	6.0(2.0)	2.01 (7.1e-05)
Female	9.6(5.0)	6.3(2.5)	2.46 (2.1e-07)
Physical Abuse			
Male & Female	6.3(2.8)	5.6(1.6)	1.51 (4.6e-05)
Male	6.3(2.6)	5.7(1.6)	$1.41(1.1e-04)$
Female	6.2(2.9)	5.5(1.5)	1.51 (8.8e-05)
Sexual Abuse			
Male & Female	6.3(3.4)	5.2(1.3)	$1.64(1.6e-03)$
Male	5.8(2.3)	5.1(0.9)	1.25 (3.4e-03)
Female	6.5(3.8)	5.3(1.7)	1.95 (2.9e-03)
Emotional Neglect			
Male & Female	12.6 (5.4)	8.9(4.0)	2.08 (8.4e-06)
Male	12.6(5.2)	9.2(4.1)	1.87 (2.8e-04)
Female	12.5(5.4)	8.6(3.9)	2.14 (4.7e-06)
Physical Neglect			
Male & Female	7.8(3.0)	6.8(2.4)	1.75 (8.4e-05)
Male	7.9(2.9)	7.0(2.5)	1.54 (2.9e-04)
Female	7.8(3.1)	6.6(2.3)	1.79 (9.3e-04)
Overall CTQ score			
Male & Female	42.4 (15.1)	32.7(8.4)	2.62 (1.4e-05)
Male	41.3 (13.4)	33.0 (8.2)	2.18 (1.1e-04)
Female	42.8 (15.8)	32.3 (8.6)	2.74 (3.6e-05)

CTQ = Childhood Trauma Questionnaire; MDD = major depressive disorder; OR = odds ratio; SD =

standard deviation

Table S5. Impact of polygenic risk score (based on MDD discovery p<1) on childhood trauma (i.e. gene-environment correlation)

The impact of the polygenic risk scores (PRS) (based on major depressive disorder [MDD] discovery results p<1) on childhood trauma (CT) is displayed in all individuals, MDD cases only and controls only for the continuous Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ) measure covering five domains (applied in main Table 2) and the dichotomous measure covering sexual and/or physical abuse (applied in main Table 3). However, the potential bias of gene-environment correlation in gene-environment interaction analyses depends on the correlation in the full population. Therefore, cases were randomly sampled such that cases/controls=0.15/0.85 to mimic results in the full population. Sampling was repeated 100 times, and conducted for those cohorts with more than 100 controls only. The Pearson correlation was estimated for the continuous CTQ measure, and the Spearman correlation for the dichotomous CT measure, and analyses were corrected for sex and three principal components.

Table S6. Interaction-analyses for male and female separetely with the PRS based on MDD-PRS including all SNPs (discovery p<1 in the sample of N=112,268)

			Impact on MDD								
		Ν		PRS							
Cohort	Case	Control	OR	P	R2 (SE, %)	OR	P				
			Male & female (i.e. results displayed in main Table 2)								
COFAMS	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13(4.61)	0.38(0.08:1.74)	0.201				
NESDA	1143	272	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.33(0.84)	1.08(0.83:1.39)	0.556				
Radiant-UK	269	267	1.64 (1.35:2.00)	6.8e-07	5.90(2.19)	0.93(0.66:1.31)	0.670				
SHIP-0	340	993	1.30(1.14:1.48)	$1.0e-04$	1.81(0.91)	1.02(0.89:1.18)	0.737				
SHIP-T	149	448	1.33 (1.09:1.63)	0.005	2.10(1.47)	1.28 (0.96:1.72)	0.103				
ALL	1957	2002	1.34 (1.23:1.47)	$5.1e-11$	1.71(0.45)	1.05 (0.91:1.20)	0.519				
Male only											
COFAMS	20	12	1.66 (0.73:4.21)	0.243	5.05(7.95)	0.55(0.06:4.21)	0.553				
NESDA	357	111	1.23 (0.99:1.54)	0.061	1.24(1.31)	1.13(0.75:1.70)	0.565				
Radiant-UK	73	109	1.47 (1.06:2.09)	0.025	3.58(3.01)	0.84(0.47:1.52)	0.561				
SHIP-0	112	562	1.36 (1.10:1.68)	0.005	2.59(1.79)	1.08 (0.90:1.32)	0.424				
SHIP-T	44	246	1.37 (0.98:1.93)	0.072	2.57(2.82)	1.22 (0.83:1.84)	0.316				
ALL	606	1040	1.34 (1.18:1.52)	8.6e-06	1.71(0.72)	1.09(0.91:1.30)	0.367				
Female only											
COFAMS	36	10	1.35 (0.65:2.96)	0.419	3.02(6.29)	0.66(0.05:6.75)	0.689				
NESDA	786	161	1.24 (1.04:1.48)	0.015	1.33(1.08)	1.09(0.78:1.48)	0.609				
Radiant-UK	196	158	1.72 (1.36:2.20)	$1.0e-05$	7.20 (2.96)	1.01 (0.66:1.56)	0.970				
SHIP-0	228	431	1.26 (1.07:1.50)	0.006	1.54(1.10)	1.01 (0.82:1.26)	0.912				
SHIP-T	105	202	1.35 (1.05:1.74)	0.020	2.42(2.00)	1.36 (0.93:2.21)	0.161				
ALL	1351	962	1.35 (1.21:1.50)	5.2e-08	1.93(0.63)	1.07(0.90:1.27)	0.459				

			Impact on MDD								
		Ν		PRSxCT							
CT domain	Case	Control	OR	P	R2 (SE, %)	OR	P				
COFAMS											
Sum	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13(4.61)	0.38(0.08:1.74)	0.201				
EA	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13(4.61)	0.36(0.07:1.73)	0.187				
PA	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13(4.61)	0.01(0.00:1.05)	0.102				
SA	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13(4.61)	0.36(0.01:2.07)	0.369				
EN	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13(4.61)	0.88(0.30:2.98)	0.820				
PN	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13(4.61)	0.27(0.04:1.35)	0.132				
NESDA											
Sum	1143	272	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.33(0.84)	1.08(0.83:1.39)	0.556				
EA	1125	268	1.22(1.07:1.41)	0.004	1.17(0.80)	0.92(0.72:1.19)	0.547				
PA	1134	271	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.33(0.84)	0.89(0.68:1.15)	0.388				
SA	1139	272	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.33(0.84)	0.89(0.60:1.33)	0.573				
EN	1118	270	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.32(0.84)	1.25(1.04:1.51)	0.019				
PN	1125	272	1.25 (1.09:1.43)	0.002	1.38(0.86)	1.01(0.83:1.23)	0.909				
RADIANT UK											
Sum	269	267	1.64(1.35:2.00)		6.8e-07 5.90 (2.19)	0.93(0.66:1.31)	0.670				
EA	266	267	1.64 (1.35:2.01)		7.4e-07 5.89 (2.19)	0.87(0.65:1.18)	0.350				
PA	263	265	1.63 (1.34:1.99)		1.2e-06 5.72 (2.17)	1.05(0.75:1.50)	0.771				
SA	264	265	1.64 (1.35:2.00)		$9.0e-07$ 5.84 (2.19)	1.02(0.73:1.49)	0.923				
EN	260	266	1.64 (1.35:2.01)		8.8e-07 5.89 (2.21)	0.95(0.72:1.26)	0.720				
PN	261	267	1.65 (1.36:2.02)	5.4e-07	6.10(2.24)	0.99(0.76:1.29)	0.935				
SHIP-0											
Sum	340	993	1.30(1.14:1.48)		$1.0e-04$ 1.81 (0.91)	1.02(0.89:1.18)	0.737				
EA	353	1039	1.31(1.15:1.49)		5.0e-05 1.91 (0.92)	1.02(0.89:1.17)	0.795				
PA	353	1048	1.31(1.16:1.50)		3.4e-05 2.00 (0.94)	1.00(0.87:1.15)	0.976				
SA	354	1045	1.31(1.15:1.49)		5.1e-05 1.90 (0.92)	1.07(0.95:1.24)	0.286				
EN	350	1025	1.31(1.16:1.50)		3.7e-05 2.00 (0.94)	1.05(0.92:1.20)	0.497				
PN	351	1030	1.30 (1.15:1.48)		6.0e-05 1.89 (0.92)	1.03(0.90:1.18)	0.686				
SHIP-TREND											
Sum	149	448	1.33 (1.09:1.63)	0.005	2.10(1.47)	1.28 (0.96:1.72)	0.103				
EA	148	446	1.33 (1.09:1.63)	0.005	2.06(1.47)	1.12 (0.87:1.49) 0.426					
PA	146	448	1.34 (1.09:1.64)	0.005	2.12(1.49)	1.09 (0.89:1.42) 0.463					
SA	149	448	1.33(1.09:1.63)	0.005	2.10(1.47)	1.70 (0.77:3.79)	0.166				
EN	149	441	1.34(1.10:1.64)	0.005	2.14(1.49)	1.18(0.94:1.49)	0.166				
PN	147	443	1.33 (1.09:1.63)	0.006	2.06(1.47)	1.30(1.02:1.70)	0.044				
ALL											
Sum	1957	2002	1.34(1.23:1.47)		5.1e-11 1.71 (0.45)	1.05(0.91:1.20)	0.519				
EA	1948	2042	1.34(1.22:1.47)		2.5e-10 1.69 (0.44)	0.96 (0.85:1.09) 0.545					
PA	1952	2054	1.34(1.24:1.46)		$1.4e-12$ 1.74 (0.45)	1.00(0.89:1.12)	0.947				
SA	1962	2052	1.34(1.23:1.46)		9.2e-12 1.72 (0.45)	1.05(0.90:1.21)	0.551				
EN	1933	2024	1.35(1.24:1.47)		5.2e-12 1.76 (0.46)	1.11(1.00:1.22)	0.043				
PN	1940	2034	1.35(1.23:1.47)		3.3e-11 1.76 (0.45)	1.05 (0.93:1.19) 0.441					

Table S7. Interaction-analyses for the separate CT domains with the MDD-PRS including all SNPs (discovery p<1)

Sum = sumscore of all five CT domains; EA = Emotional abuse; PA = Physical Abuse ; SA = Sexual

Abuse ; EN = Emotional Neglect ; PN = Physical Neglect

Table S8. Comparing different discovery samples for MDD

	Effective N	N target		Effect of PRS				Effect of CT	Effect of PRSxCT	
Cohort	discovery	Case	Control	OR	Þ	R ₂	OR	Þ	OR	P
MDD discovery results from PGC, Decode, Genscot, Gera, iPsych and UKB										
COFAMS	112,268	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13(4.61)	6.25	8.0e-04	0.38(0.08:1.74)	0.201
NESDA	112,268	1143	272	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.33 (0.84)	3.29	3.7e-21	1.08(0.83:1.39)	0.556
RADIANT UK	112,268	269	267	1.64 (1.35:2.00)	6.8e-07	5.90(2.19)	4.03	3.0e-20	0.93(0.66:1.31)	0.670
SHIP-0	112,268	340	993	1.30(1.14:1.48)	$1.0e-04$	1.81 (0.91)	1.52	7.0e-11	1.02(0.89:1.18)	0.737
SHIP-TREND	112,268	149	448	1.33(1.09:1.63)	0.005	2.10(1.47)	1.71	3.7e-07	1.28 (0.96:1.72)	0.103
Total	112,268	1957	2002	1.34(1.23:1.47)	$5.1e-11$	1.71(0.45)	2.53	1.3e-09	1.05(0.91:1.20)	0.519
				MDD discovery results from PGC MDD wave 2 leaving the target cohort out						
COFAMS	40,373	56	22	1.02(0.60:1.76)	0.928	0.02(0.36)	6.25	8.0e-04	0.76(0.17:3.80)	0.732
NESDA	37,435	1143	272	1.23 (1.08:1.41)	0.002	1.26 (0.82)	3.29	3.7e-21	1.38(1.07:1.76)	0.011
RADIANT UK	36,909	269	267	1.32(1.10:1.58)	0.003	2.07(1.33)	4.03	3.0e-20	0.67(0.51:0.90)	0.006
SHIP-0	39,406	340	993	1.08 (0.95:1.22)	0.246	0.16(0.28)	1.52	7.0e-11	1.03(0.91:1.17)	0.628
SHIP-TREND	40,084	149	448	1.32 (1.08:1.62)	0.006	1.98 (1.43)	1.71	3.7e-07	1.00(0.79:1.27)	0.987
Total		1957	2002	1.20 (1.10:1.31)	2.8e-05	0.66(0.28)	2.53	1.3e-09	1.00(0.79:1.26)	0.972

Table S9. Polygenic risk scores analyses with simulated data

Simulated data of 10,000 SNPs were based on five models, all assuming heritability of MDD of 0.35, prevalence of MDD of 0.15, prevalence of CT of 0.25 and an odds ratio (OR) of CT on MDD of 3.2 (see Supplmental Methods). Model 1: SNP-effects are the same in exposed and unexposed; Model 2: correlation of 0 between SNP-effects in exposed and unexposed; Model 3: SNP-effects on MDD are the same in exposed and unexposed, heritability of CT of 0.5 (for Models 1,2,4, and 5, heritability of CT was set at 0); Models 4: same direction of SNP-effects in exposed and unexposed (correlation of 1), but 3 times larger variance of effects in exposed than unexposed; Model 5: SNPeffects the same in exposed and unexposed, but three times smaller environmental variance in exposed. Simulation was repeated ten times, the means of which are displayed with the standard error (SE) between brackets.