

## ARTICLE OPEN



# A linear weighted combination of polygenic scores for a broad range of traits improves prediction of coronary heart disease

Kristjan Norland<sup>1</sup>, Daniel J. Schaid<sup>2</sup> and Iftikhar J. Kullo<sup>1,3</sup>

© The Author(s) 2023

Polygenic scores (PGS) for coronary heart disease (CHD) are constructed using GWAS summary statistics for CHD. However, pleiotropy is pervasive in biology and disease-associated variants often share etiologic pathways with multiple traits. Therefore, incorporating GWAS summary statistics of additional traits could improve the performance of PGS for CHD. Using lasso regression models, we developed two multi-PGS for CHD: 1) multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub>, utilizing GWAS summary statistics for CHD, its risk factors, and other ASCVD as training data and the UK Biobank for tuning, and 2) extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub>, using existing PGS for a broader range of traits in the PGS Catalog as training data and the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study (ARIC) cohort for tuning. We evaluated the performance of multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> and extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> in the Mayo Clinic Biobank, an independent cohort of 43,578 adults of European ancestry which included 4,479 CHD cases and 39,099 controls. In the Mayo Clinic Biobank, a 1 SD increase in multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> and extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> was associated with a 1.66-fold (95% CI: 1.60–1.71) and 1.70-fold (95% CI: 1.64–1.76) increased odds of CHD, respectively, in models that included age, sex, and 10 PCs, whereas an already published PGS for CHD (CHD\_PRSCS) increased the odds by 1.50 (95% CI: 1.45–1.56). In the highest deciles of extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub>, multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub>, and CHD\_PRSCS, 18.4%, 17.5%, and 16.3% of patients had CHD, respectively.

*European Journal of Human Genetics* (2024) 32:209–214; <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41431-023-01463-0>

## INTRODUCTION

Polygenic scores (PGS) for coronary heart disease (CHD) show great promise for improving the prediction of CHD risk [1, 2], but there is room for improvement [3–5]. Pleiotropy—when a genetic variant associates with multiple phenotypes—is a common phenomenon in biology and variants identified in GWAS are often associated with more than one disease/trait [6]. Incorporating information from traits that are genetically correlated with CHD, such as peripheral artery disease [7], or risk factors like type 2 diabetes [8], has the potential to increase the performance of PGS for CHD [9]. Additionally, biomarkers, such as lipid levels, could have high power to detect the shared genomic components that drive CHD risk due to their quantitative nature [10, 11].

Many methods have been proposed to improve PGS performance by incorporating information from multiple traits. These include 1) meta-analyzing GWAS summary statistics for different traits [12], 2) combining summary statistics using genetic correlations [13], and 3) making use of genomic structural equation models [14]. Methods that additionally use individual-level data for the development of multi-PGS in large cohorts may further boost performance, but such genotype data are not readily available and require significant computational resources [15]. An alternative approach is to linearly combine multiple single-trait PGS into a multi-PGS using penalized regression models, thereby selecting only the traits that contribute to better predictions [16–18]. This approach is flexible as it allows traits to be genetically correlated.

Given the complex multifactorial etiology of CHD, we hypothesized that a PGS incorporating multiple PGS for diverse CHD-associated traits would associate more strongly with CHD than a CHD-specific PGS. We aimed to determine whether a linear weighted sum of PGS for multiple traits could improve the prediction of CHD using two related approaches: 1) We developed 16 PGS for CHD, its risk factors, and other ASCVD from summary statistics and combined them into a multi-PGS<sub>CHD</sub> using the UK Biobank cohort; 2) We used 3,170 existing PGS from the PGS Catalog and tuned an extended-PGS<sub>CHD</sub> using the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study (ARIC) cohort. We then evaluated the performance of these two multi-PGS in an independent cohort, the Mayo Clinic Biobank, a community-based cohort of 43,578 individuals with available EHR data.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

### Datasets

The UK Biobank is a prospective cohort study that was established in 2006 to recruit 500,000 volunteers from across the United Kingdom. The generation of genetic and phenotypic data in the UK Biobank has been described before [19]. We used the imputed dataset generated by the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics. Our study sample included 339,393 unrelated UK Biobank participants, of whom 320,803 were of European (EUR) ancestry, 7726 of African (AFR) ancestry, 2674 of East Asian (EAS) ancestry, and 8290 of South Asian (SAS) ancestry. This research was conducted using the UK Biobank application ID 79990. ARIC is an ongoing prospective community cohort study of cardiovascular risk factors that includes 15,792 participants [20]. We imputed the ARIC genotype data

<sup>1</sup>Department of Cardiovascular Medicine, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA. <sup>2</sup>Department of Quantitative Health Sciences, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA. <sup>3</sup>Gonda Vascular Center, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA. email: kullo.iftikhar@mayo.edu

Received: 9 March 2023 Revised: 7 August 2023 Accepted: 13 September 2023

Published online: 26 September 2023

using the HRC panel [21]. In the Mayo Clinic Biobank, genotyping of 1.4 million variants was done by Regeneron Genetics using the Twist Diversity SNP panel. Imputation was performed using the TOPMed Imputation Server [22], and 59,627,971 autosomal variants were imputed with  $R^2 > 0.3$ .

We excluded variants with MAF < 1% in all cohorts. We excluded variants with imputation information < 0.3 in the UK Biobank, and variants with call rate < 0.99 and HWE  $p$ -value <  $10^{-6}$  in ARIC and Mayo Clinic Biobank cohorts. We estimated the ancestry of UK Biobank and ARIC participants with ADMIXTURE [23]. In the Mayo Clinic Biobank, ancestry was determined by following methods described previously [24]. Briefly, samples were projected onto the PC-space of the HapMap3 reference panel using common high-quality variants common to both datasets. A kernel density estimator trained on the first four HapMap3 PCs was used to assign ancestry groups. Patients were assigned to ancestry groups if they had a minimum likelihood of 0.3 of belonging to a given ancestry group. We restricted the analyses in the Mayo Clinic Biobank to second-degree unrelated patients. In the UK Biobank, we restricted the analyses to participants with no genetic kinship to other participants (data-field 22021). In the Mayo Clinic Biobank, we defined CHD status using International Classification of Diseases (ICD) codes and Current Procedural Terminology (CPT) codes (Supplementary Material).

### Summary statistics

We downloaded GWAS summary statistics for various traits from FinnGen V7 [25], MVP [26, 27], GLGC [11], and CARDIoGRAMplusC4D [28] (Supplementary Table 1). We used the largest multi-ancestry GWAS summary statistics when available. We did not use GWAS summary statistics from multi-ancestry meta-analyses that included the UK Biobank as one of the cohorts. We calculated the total effective sample size for each GWAS using the formula  $4p(1-p)N$ , where  $N$  is the total number of cases and controls and  $p$  is the proportion of cases. We calculated the effective sample size of each SNV using  $4/(2f(1-f)SE^2)$ , where  $f$  is the MAF and  $SE$  is the standard error from the GWAS summary statistics, and bounded it between 0.5 and 1.1 of the total effective sample size of the GWAS [29]. For each atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ASCVD: abdominal aortic aneurysm, CHD, ischemic stroke, and peripheral artery disease), we meta-analyzed GWAS summary statistics from different sources with METAL [30], using the inverse-variance method and genomic control.

We combined the ASCVD using MTAG [12], a method that utilizes genetic correlation to combine GWAS summary statistics. We used the default parameter settings and the European LD reference panel provided by the developers. We derived Z-scores and the effective sample size from GWAS summary statistics and used these as input. For each input trait, MTAG outputs trait-specific summary statistics. We used CHD-specific output statistics in our analyses. By combining summary statistics with MTAG, we

observed a 19% increase in effective sample size for the CHD summary statistics, compared to 57–69% increase in effective sample size for the output for the other ASCVD, as outputted by MTAG (Supplementary Table 2).

### PGS calculation and statistical analyses

To develop genome-wide PGS from GWAS summary statistics, we used PRS-CS [31] with the European LD reference provided by the authors. For each trait, we used the estimated total effective sample size as the input parameter for  $N$ . The hyperparameter  $\phi$  was estimated by the program (PRS-CS-auto). We ran PRS-CS with 1000 iterations for the MCMC Gibbs sampler and 500 burn-in iterations.

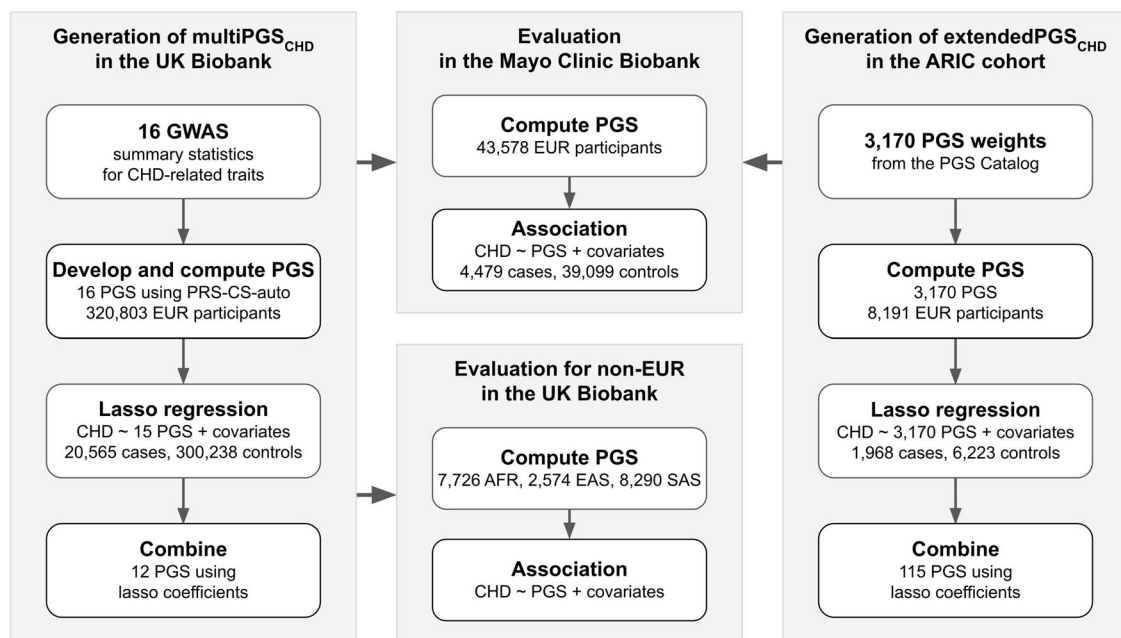
All PGS were computed using the Polygenic Score Catalog Calculator, `pgsc_calc`, developed by the PGS Catalog team [32], using default parameters, removing strand-ambiguous, multiallelic, and duplicated variants before the calculation of PGS. When utilizing existing PGS from the PGS Catalog, we downloaded harmonized weight files. We downloaded metadata files from the PGS Catalog server on 2022/11/30. We excluded all PGS from the analyses that used data from ARIC or Mayo Clinic samples as GWAS data or for the construction of PGS.

We trained the multi-PGS models using lasso regression as implemented in `glmnet` [33] with 10-fold cross-validation and binomial deviance as the loss metric. We used “lambda.min” as the optimal lambda. In the UK Biobank, we included 15 PGS as covariates in the lasso model, whereas in ARIC we included 3170 PGS. We included age, sex, and genetic principal components (PCs) as unpenalized covariates in the models, with 20 PCs included for the UK Biobank and 10 for ARIC. When combining PGS into a multi-PGS, we required variants to be present in the tuning cohort. We allowed different PGS to have different variants and set the weights of absent variants to zero. We summed the weights of the variants using as weights the coefficients from the lasso regressions divided by the standard deviations of the PGS in the tuning cohort. Subsequently, we used these combined weights to calculate the multi-PGS for the Mayo Clinic Biobank and the non-European ancestries in the UK Biobank. In all logistic regression models, we included age, sex, and the genetic PCs as covariates (10 for ARIC, 20 for the UK Biobank and the Mayo Clinic Biobank). We used Nagelkerke’s pseudo  $R^2$  for our logistic regression models. We used the `boot` R package to bootstrap 95% confidence intervals for  $R^2$ , using 1000 replicates and the “perc” method. We computed AUCs using the `pROC` R package.

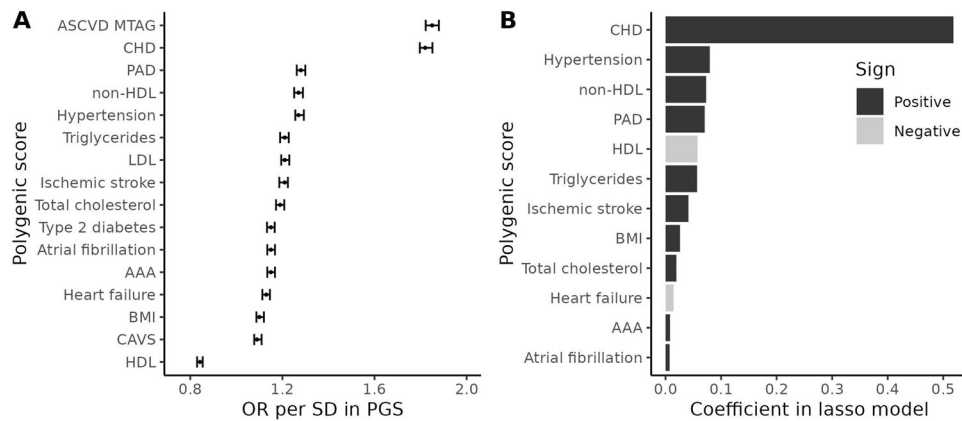
## RESULTS

### Generation of multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> in the UK Biobank

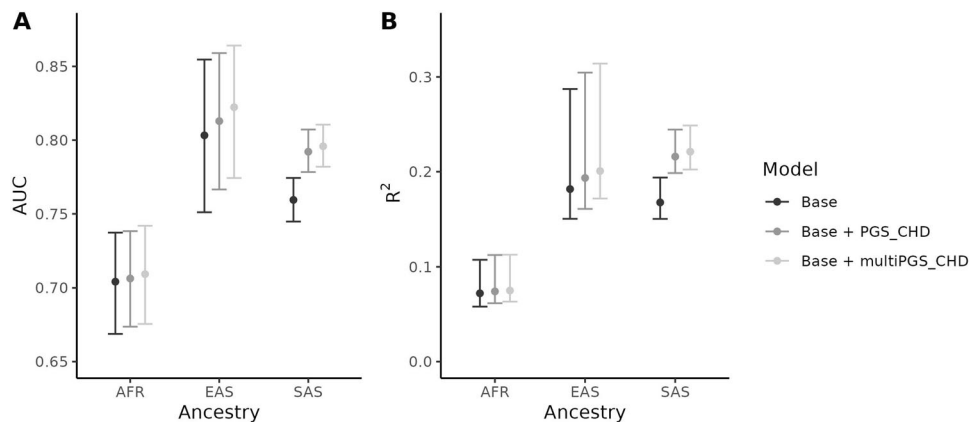
We provide an overview of our study in Fig. 1. We obtained GWAS summary statistics for CHD and 14 other diseases/risk factors/



**Fig. 1** Study flowchart describing the development and evaluation of multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> and extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub>.



**Fig. 2 Associations between PGS and CHD in UK Biobank participants of European ancestry. A** Odds ratios per 1 SD increase in PGS from logistic regression models with CHD as the dependent variable. ASCVD atherosclerotic cardiovascular diseases, CHD coronary heart disease, PAD peripheral artery disease, AAA abdominal aortic aneurysm, CAVS calcific aortic valve stenosis. **B** Non-zero coefficients from the lasso regression model.



**Fig. 3 Performance of PGS<sub>CHD</sub> and multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> in UK Biobank participants of non-European ancestry.** 95% confidence intervals were generated with 1000 bootstrap replicates. **A** Area under the curve (AUC). **B** Nagelkerke  $R^2$ .

biomarkers relevant to CHD and generated PGS weights from each GWAS using PRS-CS. The diseases were ASCVD subtypes of abdominal aortic aneurysm (AAA), ischemic stroke (IS) and peripheral artery disease (PAD), related phenotypes of atrial fibrillation, calcific aortic valve stenosis, and heart failure, and, finally, risk factors for CHD: type 2 diabetes (T2D), hypertension, lipids, and BMI. In addition, we combined ASCVD (CHD, AAA, IS, and PAD) summary statistics with MTAG [12] and generated PGS weights with PRS-CS. We then calculated 16 PGS for UK Biobank [19] participants of European ancestry ( $N = 320,803$ ).

Using 20,565 prevalent and incident CHD cases and 300,238 controls in the UK Biobank, we tested the association of each PGS with CHD status in regression models that also included base covariates (age, sex, and 20 PCs) (Fig. 2A). A 1 SD increase in CHD PGS, hereafter called PGS<sub>CHD</sub>, was associated with a 1.82-fold increase in the odds of CHD. The MTAG-combined PGS had a slightly higher OR, 1.85. Among other traits, the PGS for PAD (OR = 1.28), hypertension (OR = 1.27), and non-HDL-C (OR = 1.27) had the largest odds ratios (Supplementary Table 3).

Next, we trained a lasso regression model of CHD including 15 PGS and base covariates (excluding the MTAG-combined PGS). The lasso model had an area under the curve (AUC) of 0.788 (95% CI: 0.786–0.791) and  $R^2 = 0.179$ , when evaluated on the same training set. PGS<sub>CHD</sub> contributed most to the model, followed by the PGS for non-HDL-C, hypertension, and PAD (Fig. 2B, Supplementary Table 4). The lasso model improved the prediction of CHD compared to a model including only base covariates, which

had an AUC of 0.747 (95% CI: 0.745–0.750) and  $R^2 = 0.124$ , and modestly compared to a model containing PGS<sub>CHD</sub>, which had an AUC of 0.783 (95% CI: 0.781–0.786) and  $R^2 = 0.171$ . We also trained a second lasso regression model including the MTAG-combined PGS in place of the PGS for CHD, AAA, IS, and PAD. However, this model did not improve the AUC and  $R^2$  of the first lasso model and therefore we did not use it in any subsequent analyses. Finally, using coefficients from the first lasso model, we combined 12 different PGS into a multi-PGS which we will hereafter call multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> (Methods).

#### Evaluation of multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> in non-European participants in the UK Biobank

We calculated PGS<sub>CHD</sub> and multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> for UK Biobank participants of non-European ancestry: 7726 of African ancestry (AFR), 2574 of East Asian ancestry (EAS), and 8290 of South Asian ancestry (SAS). In total, there were 249 AFR, 75 EAS, and 938 SAS CHD cases. For each ancestry group, we included PGS<sub>CHD</sub> and multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> in two different logistic regression models of CHD, along with base covariates. Although models including PGS<sub>CHD</sub> and multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> had slightly higher point estimates for AUC and  $R^2$  in all ancestries compared to a model containing only base covariates, most of the confidence intervals largely overlapped, especially in the AFR subgroup (Fig. 3, Supplementary Table 5). In the SAS subgroup, the model containing PGS<sub>CHD</sub> performed significantly better than the base model ( $P = 8 \times 10^{-51}$ , likelihood ratio test) with an AUC of 0.792 (95% CI: 0.778–0.807) compared to

0.759 (95% CI: 0.745–0.774), and  $R^2$  of 0.216 (95% CI: 0.199–0.244) compared to 0.168 (95% CI: 0.150–0.194). A 1 SD increase in  $\text{PGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  was associated with a 1.78-fold increase in CHD risk in the SAS subgroup (95% CI: 1.64–1.92). However,  $\text{multiPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  performed similarly to  $\text{PGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  in the SAS subgroup (OR = 1.86, 95% CI: 1.72–2.01; AUC = 0.796, 95% CI: 0.781–0.810;  $R^2 = 0.221$ , 95% CI: 0.202–0.249).

#### Utilizing the PGS Catalog to generate extended $\text{PGS}_{\text{CHD}}$

We next investigated if combining a larger number of PGS for various traits could improve CHD prediction performance compared to  $\text{multiPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$ . To this end, we utilized the Polygenic Score Catalog (PGS Catalog) [32], which contained 3245 PGS for 570 traits (as of 2022/11/30) that were developed using various methods and populations (Supplementary Table 6). However, many of these PGS were trained on UK Biobank participants and required other cohorts for tuning a multi-PGS. Therefore, we calculated all 3245 PGS Catalog scores for 8191 participants of European ancestry in the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study, which included 1968 prevalent and incident CHD cases. To minimize sample overlap, we discarded all PGS that included ARIC participants in the training or development step. This resulted in a set of 3170 PGS.

To assess the associations between CHD and the 3170 PGS, we regressed each PGS on CHD status. In total, 556 PGS were associated with CHD (5% false discovery rate, Supplementary Table 7). The PGS that associated most strongly with CHD were PGS for coronary artery disease, cardiovascular disease, coronary atherosclerosis, ischemic stroke, hypertension, and type 2 diabetes.

Using the 3,170 PGS as covariates, we trained a lasso regression model of CHD in ARIC. The final model included 115 PGS for 75 different traits and had an AUC of 0.774 (95% CI: 0.762–0.786) and  $R^2 = 0.252$  when evaluated on the same training data (Supplementary Table 8). A base model including only age, sex, and 10 PCs had an AUC of 0.688 (95% CI: 0.675–0.701) and  $R^2 = 0.116$ , and

a model that additionally included a published PGS for CHD ( $\text{CHD\_PRSCS}$ , PGS ID: PGS001780) [2] had an AUC of 0.733 (95% CI: 0.720–0.746) and  $R^2 = 0.190$ . The PGS that contributed most to the lasso model were PGS for CHD, atrial fibrillation, and coronary atherosclerosis. The lasso model included multiple PGS for 18 different traits, including CHD, T2D, and cerebral grey matter volume as well as various PGS for traits and biomarkers that we had not included in the UK Biobank lasso model, such as cystatin C, lipoprotein (a), HbA1c, multiple sclerosis, and brain and eye measurements. Finally, using non-zero coefficients from the ARIC lasso model, we combined 115 PGS into an extended multi-PGS which we hereafter call  $\text{extendedPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$ .

#### Evaluation in the Mayo Clinic Biobank

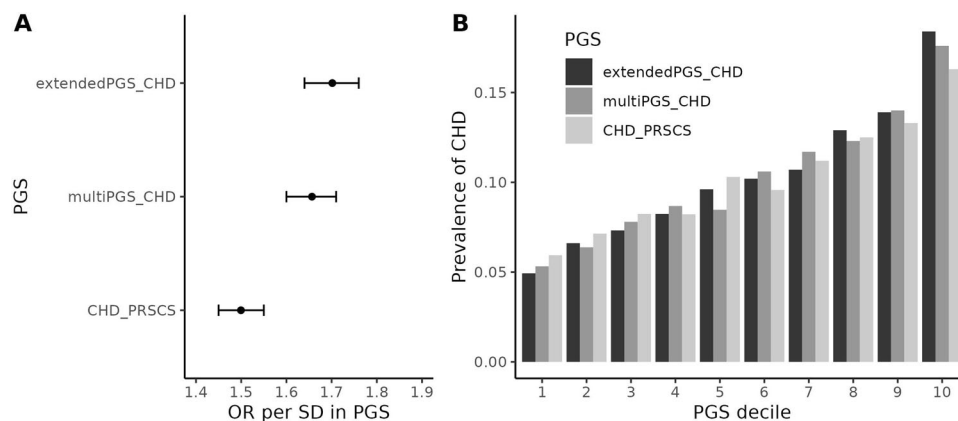
We calculated both  $\text{multiPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  and  $\text{extendedPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  in 43,578 adults of European ancestry in the Mayo Clinic Biobank, of whom 4,479 had CHD and 39,099 were controls. In logistic regression models of CHD including age, sex, and 10 PCs, an increase of 1 SD in  $\text{multiPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  was associated with a 1.66-fold (95% CI: 1.60–1.71) increased odds of CHD, and an increase of 1 SD in  $\text{extendedPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  was associated with a 1.70-fold (95% CI: 1.64–1.76) increased odds (Table 1, Fig. 4A). The 95% CIs from these models largely overlapped, suggesting that the PGS performed similarly. To compare with  $\text{multiPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  and  $\text{extendedPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$ , we computed  $\text{CHD\_PRSCS}$  (PGS001780) in the Mayo Clinic Biobank, since  $\text{CHD\_PRSCS}$  had the strongest association with CHD among all PGS in ARIC and the largest coefficient in the ARIC lasso model.  $\text{CHD\_PRSCS}$  had a lower odds ratio of 1.50 in the Mayo Clinic Biobank, with a 95% CI ranging from 1.45 to 1.56, non-overlapping with both CIs from our multi-PGS models. Adding  $\text{CHD\_PRSCS}$  to a model including base covariates increased AUC by 0.015 and  $R^2$  by 0.025, while adding  $\text{multiPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  increased AUC by 0.023 and  $R^2$  by 0.038, and adding  $\text{extendedPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  increased AUC by 0.025 and  $R^2$  by 0.041 (Table 1).

The overall prevalence of CHD in Mayo Clinic Biobank was 10.3%. For each PGS, we divided the Mayo Clinic Biobank patients

**Table 1.** Evaluation of  $\text{CHD\_PRSCS}$ ,  $\text{multiPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$ , and  $\text{extendedPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  in the Mayo Clinic Biobank.

Model	PGS OR (95% CI)	$R^2$ (95% CI)	AUC (95% CI)	Precision, recall
Base		0.170 (0.162–0.180)	0.767 (0.761–0.774)	0.211, 0.718
$\text{CHD\_PRSCS}$	1.50 (1.45–1.56)	0.195 (0.186–0.206)	0.782 (0.776–0.789)	0.210, 0.747
$\text{MultiPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$	1.66 (1.60–1.71)	0.208 (0.198–0.218)	0.790 (0.783–0.796)	0.231, 0.715
$\text{ExtendedPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$	1.70 (1.64–1.76)	0.211 (0.202–0.222)	0.792 (0.785–0.798)	0.214, 0.764

The base model included age, sex, and 10 PCs and the other models additionally included a PGS.



**Fig. 4** Evaluation of  $\text{PGS}_{\text{CHD}}$ ,  $\text{multiPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$ , and  $\text{extendedPGS}_{\text{CHD}}$  in the Mayo Clinic Biobank. **A** Odds ratios per 1 SD increase in PGS from logistic regression models with CHD as the dependent variable. **B** CHD prevalence binned for each decile in PGS.

into 10 groups based on their PGS decile and analyzed the CHD prevalence within these groups (Fig. 4B). The lowest decile of extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> had a CHD prevalence of 4.9%, while the prevalence was 5.2% for the lowest decile of multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub>, and 5.9% for the lowest decile of CHD\_PRSCS. In the highest decile of extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub>, 18.4% of patients had CHD, while 17.5% in the highest decile of multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub>, and 16.3% in the highest decile of CHD\_PRSCS. These results suggest that extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> may be more effective at classifying low- and high-risk patients compared to the other two PGS.

## DISCUSSION

In this study, we developed two multi-polygenic scores (multi-PGS) for coronary heart disease (CHD) by weighting and linearly combining PGS for CHD and various other traits. We found that using multiple PGS for other cardiovascular diseases (such as peripheral artery disease), risk factors (such as type 2 diabetes and hypertension), and biomarkers (such as non-HDL-C and HDL-C levels) modestly improved the prediction of CHD. We also demonstrated that incorporating hundreds of PGS for a broad range of traits further enhanced the predictive performance. In an independent cohort, the Mayo Clinic Biobank, both multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> and extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> improved the performance of CHD\_PRSCS, a published PGS for CHD. In models that included age, sex, and genetic principal components, adding multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> and extendedPGS increased the  $R^2$  by 0.038 and 0.041, respectively, whereas adding CHD\_PRSCS increased the  $R^2$  by 0.025. There was a significant improvement in the ORs per SD from CHD\_PRSCS (OR = 1.50) to multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> (OR = 1.66) and extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> (OR = 1.70), but the difference in ORs between multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> and extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> was not statistically significant.

Previous studies have shown that combining multiple PGS can improve risk prediction of various diseases, particularly psychiatric disorders [16]. The authors of a study on the Danish iPSYCH cohort combined 937 PGS to improve the prediction of multiple psychiatric traits [17] and found that using a large library of PGS increased the prediction accuracy for all traits tested. Our approach to the construction of extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> shares similarities with this strategy, although we permitted the incorporation of multiple PGS for each trait. The authors also observed that combining the traits using genetic correlation did not perform better than including them separately in lasso models. In another study, a multi-PGS prediction method that incorporated blood and urine biomarker data of UK Biobank participants was applied to various traits and showed increased prediction accuracy on average [34]. However, the approach provided only minimal incremental accuracy for myocardial infarction.

The development of extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> was computationally demanding due to the need to calculate and tune thousands of PGS although it consistently outperformed both PGS<sub>CHD</sub> and multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> both in terms of point estimates and CHD prevalence in the highest PGS decile. The improvements could be due to various reasons. First, including PGS developed on various ancestries and using various methods may increase performance compared to restricting to European samples and PRS-CS. Second, since genetic susceptibility variants for complex diseases such as CHD are likely to be pleiotropic, the additional traits included in extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> possibly contributed to better performance. Finally, the extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> included many more variants (7 M) than PGS<sub>CHD</sub> and multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> (1.1 M), which were both developed using the HapMap3 variants provided by PRS-CS. However, we note that the authors of a recent study found minor improvements in the predictive performance of PGS for diverse quantitative traits, except for height, when extending this set of HapMap3 variants to encompass 9.6 million variants [35]. This approach will likely become more effective as more PGS are

developed using larger GWAS and made available in repositories such as the PGS Catalog. Using well-documented databases of PGS also allows for other approaches that we did not pursue in our analyses: the selection and combination of PGS based on various criteria, for example, ancestry proportions or the method used to develop the PGS. The Polygenic Score Catalog Calculator can facilitate such large-scale PGS analyses and ensure quality control.

Our study had several strengths. We developed two different multi-PGS in two distinct cohorts, the UK Biobank and ARIC, and evaluated them in an independent cohort, the Mayo Clinic Biobank. Our approach using the UK Biobank benefitted from the large sample size of the biobank but included fewer PGS. The multi-PGS tuned in the UK Biobank, multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub>, consisted of PGS developed with the same 1.1 M variants used in PRS-CS, which allowed us to quantify how pleiotropic effects improved the performance of multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> compared to PGS<sub>CHD</sub>. Our approach using all 3170 PGS from the PGS Catalog did not require any pre-selection of PGS. These PGS were developed in diverse populations with various methods, including clumping and thresholding, Bayesian methods that model linkage disequilibrium, and regularized regression models.

Our study had some limitations. First, we developed both the multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> and extendedPGS<sub>CHD</sub> for people of European ancestry, although we did test multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> in people of other ancestries within the UK Biobank. We saw an increase in performance when adding PGS<sub>CHD</sub> to a base model in the people of South Asian ancestry but did not observe significant improvement when using multiPGS<sub>CHD</sub> in any of the non-European ancestries. This could partly be explained by the fact that most samples in the GWAS used to develop the PGS were of European ancestry. Further research is needed to develop multi-PGS to predict CHD in people of non-European ancestry. Second, we calculated our PGS in the UK Biobank using a single method, PRS-CS-auto, which can estimate its hyperparameters from the input data, which may not yield optimal performance compared to using an independent tuning cohort.

In summary, a weighted combination of PGS for various diseases, risk factors, and biomarkers improved the prediction of CHD. We found that using both a multi-PGS that incorporated PGS for CHD-related traits and an extended multi-PGS that additionally incorporated seemingly unrelated traits improved the prediction of CHD in an independent cohort of individuals of European ancestry, compared to using a single PGS for CHD. As more PGS are developed using larger GWAS and made available in repositories like the PGS Catalog, this approach will likely become more effective, with implications for use in the clinical setting.

## DATA AVAILABILITY

Access to the UK Biobank is available through application: <https://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk/enable-your-research/apply-for-access>. ARIC is available on dbGap under phs000280.v8.p2. To apply for access to the Mayo Clinic Biobank, contact [biobank@mayo.edu](mailto:biobank@mayo.edu). A Mayo Clinic researcher must be included as a collaborator on all projects, due to the specifics of the informed consent language. The PGS Catalog is available at <https://www.pgscatalog.org>.

## REFERENCES

1. Khera AV, Chaffin M, Aragam KG, Haas ME, Roselli C, Choi SH, et al. Genome-wide polygenic scores for common diseases identify individuals with risk equivalent to monogenic mutations. *Nat Genet.* 2018;50:1219–24.
2. Tamlander M, Mars N, Pirinen M, Widen E, Ripatti S. Integration of questionnaire-based risk factors improves polygenic risk scores for human coronary heart disease and type 2 diabetes. *Commun Biol.* 2022;5:1–13.
3. Dikilitas O, Schaid DJ, Kosel ML, Carroll RJ, Chute CG, Denny JA, et al. Predictive utility of polygenic risk scores for coronary heart disease in three major racial and ethnic groups. *Am J Hum Genet.* 2020;106:707–16.

4. O'Sullivan JW, Raghavan S, Marquez-Luna C, Luzum JA, Damrauer SM, Ashley EA, et al. Polygenic risk scores for cardiovascular disease: A scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 0(0):<https://doi.org/10.1161/CIR.0000000000001077>.
5. Kullo IJ, Lewis CM, Inouye M, Martin AR, Ripatti S, Chatterjee N. Polygenic scores in biomedical research. *Nat Rev Genet*. 2022;23:524–32.
6. Watanabe K, Stringer S, Frei O, Umičević Mirkov M, de Leeuw C, Polderman TJC, et al. A global overview of pleiotropy and genetic architecture in complex traits. *Nat Genet*. 2019;51:1339–48.
7. van Zuydam NR, Stiby A, Abdalla M, Austin E, Dahlström EH, McLachlan S, et al. Genome-wide association study of peripheral artery disease. *Circ Genom Precis Med*. 2021;14:e002862.
8. Goodarzi MO, Rotter JI. Genetics insights in the relationship between type 2 diabetes and coronary heart disease. *Circ Res*. 2020;126:1526–48.
9. van Rheenen W, Peyrot WJ, Schork AJ, Lee SH, Wray NR. Genetic correlations of polygenic disease traits: from theory to practice. *Nat Rev Genet*. 2019;20:567–81.
10. Ruotsalainen SE, Partanen JJ, Cichonska A, Lin J, Benner C, Surakka I, et al. An expanded analysis framework for multivariate GWAS connects inflammatory biomarkers to functional variants and disease. *Eur J Hum Genet*. 2021;29:309–24.
11. Graham SE, Clarke SL, Wu KHH, Kanoni S, Zajac GJM, Ramdas S, et al. The power of genetic diversity in genome-wide association studies of lipids. *Nature* 2021;600:675–9.
12. Turley P, Walters RK, Maghziyan O, Okbay A, Lee JJ, Fontana MA, et al. Multi-trait analysis of genome-wide association summary statistics using MTAG. *Nat Genet*. 2018;50:229–37.
13. Maier RM, Zhu Z, Lee SH, Trzaskowski M, Ruderfer DM, Stahl EA, et al. Improving genetic prediction by leveraging genetic correlations among human diseases and traits. *Nat Commun*. 2018;9:989.
14. Grotzinger AD, Rhemtulla M, de Vlaming R, Ritchie SJ, Mallard TT, Hill WD, et al. Genomic structural equation modelling provides insights into the multivariate genetic architecture of complex traits. *Nat Hum Behav*. 2019;3:513–25.
15. Chung W, Chen J, Turman C, Lindstrom S, Zhu Z, Loh PR, et al. Efficient cross-trait penalized regression increases prediction accuracy in large cohorts using secondary phenotypes. *Nat Commun*. 2019;10:569.
16. Krapohl E, Patel H, Newhouse S, Curtis CJ, von Stumm S, Dale PS, et al. Multi-polygenic score approach to trait prediction. *Mol Psychiatry*. 2018;23:1368–74.
17. Albiñana C, Zhu Z, Schork AJ, Ingason A, Aschard H, Brikell I, et al. Multi-PGS enhances polygenic prediction: weighting 937 polygenic scores [Internet]. medRxiv; 2022 [cited 2022 Sep 24]. p. 2022.09.14.22279940. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.09.14.22279940v1>.
18. Lu X, Liu Z, Cui Q, Liu F, Li J, Niu X, et al. A polygenic risk score improves risk stratification of coronary artery disease: a large-scale prospective Chinese cohort study. *Eur Heart J*. 2022;43:1702–11.
19. Bycroft C, Freeman C, Petkova D, Band G, Elliott LT, Sharp K, et al. The UK Biobank resource with deep phenotyping and genomic data. *Nature* 2018;562:203–9.
20. The Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study: design and objectives. The ARIC investigators. *Am J Epidemiol* 1989;129:687–702.
21. McCarthy S, Das S, Kretzschmar W, Delaneau O, Wood AR, Teumer A, et al. A reference panel of 64,976 haplotypes for genotype imputation. *Nat Genet*. 2016;48:1279–83.
22. Das S, Forer L, Schönherr S, Sidore C, Locke AE, Kwong A, et al. Next-generation genotype imputation service and methods. *Nat Genet*. 2016;48:1284–7.
23. Alexander DH, Novembre J, Lange K. Fast model-based estimation of ancestry in unrelated individuals. *Genome Res*. 2009;19:1655–64.
24. Horowitz JE, Kosmicki JA, Damask A, Sharma D, Roberts GHL, Justice AE, et al. Genome-wide analysis provides genetic evidence that ACE2 influences COVID-19 risk and yields risk scores associated with severe disease. *Nat Genet*. 2022;54:382–92.
25. Kurki MI, Karjalainen J, Palta P, Sipilä TP, Kristiansson K, Donner K, et al. FinnGen: Unique genetic insights from combining isolated population and national health register data [Internet]. medRxiv; 2022 [cited 2023 Jan 23]. p. 2022.03.03.22271360. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.03.03.22271360v1>.
26. Klarin D, Lynch J, Aragam K, Chaffin M, Assimes TL, Huang J, et al. Genome-wide association study of peripheral artery disease in the Million Veteran Program. *Nat Med*. 2019;25:1274–9.
27. Klarin D, Verma SS, Judy R, Dikilitas O, Wolford BN, Paranjpe I, et al. Genetic architecture of abdominal aortic aneurysm in the million veteran program. *Circulation* 2020;142:1633–46.
28. Nikpay M, Goel A, Won HH, Hall LM, Willenborg C, Kanoni S, et al. A comprehensive 1,000 Genomes-based genome-wide association meta-analysis of coronary artery disease. *Nat Genet*. 2015;47:1121–30.
29. Privé F, Arbel J, Aschard H, Vilhjálmsdóttir BJ. Identifying and correcting for mis-specifications in GWAS summary statistics and polygenic scores. *Hum Genet Genomics Adv*. 2022;3:100136.
30. Willer CJ, Li Y, Abecasis GR. METAL: fast and efficient meta-analysis of genome-wide association scans. *Bioinformatics* 2010;26:2190–1.
31. Ge T, Chen CY, Ni Y, Feng YCA, Smoller JW. Polygenic prediction via Bayesian regression and continuous shrinkage priors. *Nat Commun*. 2019;10:1776.
32. Lambert SA, Gil L, Jupp S, Ritchie SC, Xu Y, Buniello A, et al. The Polygenic Score Catalog as an open database for reproducibility and systematic evaluation. *Nat Genet*. 2021;53:420–5.
33. Friedman JH, Hastie T, Tibshirani R. Regularization paths for generalized linear models via coordinate descent. *J Stat Softw*. 2010;33:1–22.
34. Sinnott-Armstrong N, Tanigawa Y, Amar D, Mars N, Benner C, Aguirre M, et al. Genetics of 35 blood and urine biomarkers in the UK Biobank. *Nat Genet*. 2021;53:185–94.
35. Zabad S, Gravel S, Li Y. Fast and accurate Bayesian polygenic risk modeling with variational inference. *Am J Hum Genet*. 2023;110:741–61.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank the participants in the UK Biobank, ARIC, and the Mayo Clinic Biobank for their contributions.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

KN, DJS, and IJK devised the project. KN carried out the analyses. KN drafted the manuscript, DJS and IJK contributed to the manuscript. IJK supervised the project.

## FUNDING

This work was supported by grants from the Polygenic Risk Methods in Diverse Populations (PRIMED) Consortium through the National Human Genome Research Institute (NHGRI): grant U01 HG11710, the electronic Medical Records and Genomics (eMERGE) Network funded by the NHGRI: grant U01 HG06379, and a National Heart, Lung, and Blood: grant K24 HL137010.

## COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

## ETHICAL APPROVAL

This study was approved by the Mayo Institutional Review Board.

## ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

**Supplementary information** The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41431-023-01463-0>.

**Correspondence** and requests for materials should be addressed to Iftikhar J. Kullo.

**Reprints and permission information** is available at <http://www.nature.com/reprints>

**Publisher's note** Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



**Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.

© The Author(s) 2023