Development and testing of a genome-wide polygenic score for coronary artery disease in South Asians

1
2　Brief title: Coronary artery disease genome-wide polygenic score in South Asians
3

Minxian Wang, PHD,[a] Ramesh Menon, PHD,[b] Sanghamitra Mishra, PHD,[b] Aniruddh P. Patel, MD[a,c,d], Mark Chaffin, MSc,[a] Tanneeru Deepak, M.Tech,[b] Manjari Deshmukh, MSc,[b] Oshin Mathew, MSc,[b] Sanika Apte, MSc[b] Christina S Devanboo, MSc[b] Sumathi Sundaram, BSc[b], Praveena L Samson, MSc[b] Sakthivel Murugan,PHD[b] Krishna Kumar Sharma, PHD[e], Karthikeyan R, BPT[f] Sam Santhosh, B.Tech, MBA[b] Thachathodiyl Rajesh, MBBS, MD[g], Hisham Ahamed, MD[g] Aniketh Vijay Balegadde, MBBS, MD[g] Thomas Alexander, MD[h], Krishnan Swaminathan, MD[h] Rajeev Gupta, MD, PHD[e] Ajit S Mullasari, MBBS, MD[i], Alben Sigamani, MBBS, MD[f] Muralidhar Kanchi, MBBS, MD, MBA[f] Andrew S. Peterson, PHD[j], Adam S Butterworth, PHD,[k,l] John Danesh, DPHIL,[k,l,m,n,o,p] Emanuele Di Angelantonio,MD,PHD, [k,l] Aliya Naheed,MBBS,MPH,PHD,[q] Michael Inouye, PHD[r,s,t,u,v] Rajiv Chowdhury, MPH,PHD,[k,w] Ramprasad Vedam L, PHD,[b] Sekar Kathiresan, MD[d,x] Ravi Gupta, PHD,[b] Amit V. Khera, MD, MSc[a,c,d]

a. Cardiovascular Disease Initiative, Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, MA, USA.
b. MedGenome Labs Ltd., Bengaluru, India
c. Center for Genomic Medicine, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.
d. Cardiology Division, Department of Medicine, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.
e. Eternal Heart Care Centre, Jaipur, India
f. Narayana Health, Bengaluru, India
g. Amrita Institute Medical Sciences, Kochi, India
h. Kovai Medical Center and Hospital Research Foundation, Coimbatore, India
i. Madras Medical Mission, Chennai, India
j. MedGenome Inc., Foster City, CA USA
k. British Heart Foundation Cardiovascular Epidemiology Unit, Department of Public Health and Primary Care, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK
l. National Institute for Health Research Blood and Transplant Research Unit in Donor Health and Genomics, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK
m. British Heart Foundation Centre of Research Excellence, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK
n. National Institute for Health Research Cambridge Biomedical Research Centre, University of Cambridge and Cambridge University Hospitals, Cambridge, UK
o. Health Data Research UK Cambridge, Wellcome Genome Campus and University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK
p. Department of Human Genetics, Wellcome Sanger Institute, Hinxton, UK
q. International Centre for Diarrhoeal Disease Research, Dhaka, Bangladesh
r. Cambridge Baker Systems Genomics Initiative, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia, and Cambridge, United Kingdom;
s. Baker Heart and Diabetes Institute, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

t. Department of Public Health and Primary Care, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom;

u. Department of Clinical Pathology and School of BioSciences, University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, Australia;

v. The Alan Turing Institute, London, United Kingdom;

w. Centre for Non-Communicable Disease Research, Dhaka, Bangladesh

x. Verve Therapeutics, Cambridge, MA, USA

4

14   **Disclosures**

Dr. Kathiresan is an employee of Verve Therapeutics; holds equity in Verve Therapeutics, Maze Therapeutics, Catabasis, and San Therapeutics; has served on scientific advisory boards for Regeneron Genetics Center and Corvidia Therapeutics; has served as a consultant for Acceleron, Eli Lilly, Novartis, Merck, Novo Nordisk, Novo Ventures, Ionis, Alnylam, Aegerion, Haug Partners, Noble Insights, Leerink Partners, Bayer Healthcare, Illumina, Color Genomics, MedGenome, Quest, Pfizer, and Medscape; and has patents related to a method of identifying and treating a person having a pre-disposition to or afflicted with cardiometabolic disease (20180010185) and a genetics risk predictor (20190017119). Dr. Khera has served as a consultant to or received honoraria from Color Genomics, Illumina, Novartis, Maze Therapeutics, and Navitor Pharmaceuticals; has received grant support from the Novartis Institute for Biomedical Research; and has a patent related to a genetic risk predictor (20190017119). Dr. Menon, Dr. Mishra, Dr. Deepak, Dr. Deshmukh, Dr. Mathew, Dr. Apte, Dr. Devanboo, Dr. Sundaram, Dr. Samson, Dr. Murugan, Dr. Santhosh, Dr. Vedam L, Dr. Gupta are employees of MedGenome (Bangalore, India). All other authors have reported that they have no relationships relevant to the contents of this paper to disclose.

Please address correspondence to:
        Amit V. Khera, MD, MSc
        Center for Genomic Medicine
        Massachusetts General Hospital
        185 Cambridge Street | CPZN 6.256
        Boston, MA 02114
        Tel: 617-643-3388
        Fax: 8779915996

E-mail: avkhera@mgh.harvard.edu

15 **Twitter**
16 @amitvkhera
17 Development, testing, and implementation of an approach to assess a genome-wide polygenic
18 score for coronary artery disease in South Asian populations.
19

ABSTRACT

Background: Genome-wide polygenic scores (GPS) integrate information from many common DNA variants into a single number. Because rates of coronary artery disease (CAD) are substantially higher among South Asians, a GPS to identify high-risk individuals may be particularly useful in this population.

Objectives: We used summary statistics from a prior genome-wide association study to derive a new GPS_{CAD} for South Asians.

Methods: We validated this GPS_{CAD} in 7,244 South Asian UK Biobank participants and tested it in 491 individuals from a case-control study in Bangladesh. Next, we built a static ancestry and GPS_{CAD} reference distribution using whole genome sequencing from 1,522 Indian individuals, and tested a framework for projecting individuals onto this static ancestry and GPS_{CAD} reference distribution using 1,800 CAD cases and 1,163 controls newly recruited in India.

Results: The GPS_{CAD}, containing 6,630,150 common DNA variants, had odds ratio per standard deviation (OR/SD) of 1.58 in South Asian UK Biobank participants and 1.60 in the Bangladeshi study ($p < 0.001$ for each). We next projected individuals of the Indian case-control study onto static reference distributions, observing an OR/SD of 1.66 ($p < 0.001$). Compared to the middle quintile, risk for CAD was most pronounced for those in the top 5% of the GPS_{CAD} distribution – ORs of 4.16, 2.46, and 3.22 in the South Asian UK Biobank, Bangladeshi, and Indian studies, respectively ($p < 0.05$ for each).

Conclusions: We developed and tested a new GPS_{CAD} using three distinct South Asian studies, and provide a generalizable framework for ancestry-specific GPS assessment.

Condensed abstract

Genome-wide polygenic scores are a new approach to quantify inherited risk for a given disease using information from many common sites of DNA variation. The predictive capacity of a polygenic score for coronary artery disease in South Asians – a population that suffers from coronary artery disease at significantly higher rates – is largely unknown. Here, we build a polygenic score consisting of over 6.6 million common DNA variants and a workflow for ancestry-corrected risk quantification. Results confirm striking and consistent relationships with coronary artery disease in South Asian populations from the United Kingdom, Bangladesh, and India.

Keywords:

Coronary artery disease, polygenic score, South Asian, genomic medicine

Abbreviations

GPS: Genome-wide polygenic score

CAD: coronary artery disease

AUC: area under the receiver-operator curve

CI: Confidence interval

OR/SD: Odds ratios per standard deviation

PCs: principal components

Introduction

Individuals of South Asian ancestry represent 23% of the global population —

corresponding to 1.8 billion people — and suffer from substantially increased risk of coronary

artery disease (CAD) compared to most other ethnicities (1). Practice guidelines in the U.S. now

recognize South Asian ancestry as an important 'risk-enhancing' factor for CAD (2, 3). Because

CAD has a significant inherited component (4, 5), genetic analyses to understand and predict

CAD among South Asian populations are of particular interest.

The inherited risk for CAD can — for about 0.4% of the population — be driven by rare

monogenic variants such as those related to familial hypercholesterolemia (6–10). However, the

vast majority of individuals afflicted by CAD do not harbor any known monogenic mutation (7,

8, 10). A second mechanism of increased genetic risk for CAD is via a 'polygenic' model (11–

13). Here, the risk is driven not by any one variant, but rather the cumulative effect of many

common DNA variants scattered across the genome (11–13). We recently developed a genome-

wide polygenic score for CAD (GPS_{CAD}) that integrates information from over 6 million sites in

the genome (11). Using this approach, we demonstrated that up to 8% of individuals of European

ancestry are at more than triple the normal risk for CAD on the basis of a high GPS — a

prevalence 20 times greater than familial hypercholesterolemia variants that confer similar risk

(11).

Whether a GPS_{CAD} can predict disease in a South Asian population is uncertain for three

key reasons. First, prior genome-wide association studies — needed as input to GPS derivation

to weight a given variant's contribution to the risk of CAD — have been performed primarily in

individuals of European ancestry (14). Second, a GPS derived in individuals of European

ancestry may have attenuated effect when applied to other ethnicities (15, 16), given that variant

92 frequency and correlation patterns vary across ancestral groups (15, 17). A recent study for a

93 range of traits suggested that GPS derived from Europeans displayed somewhat lower predictive

94 power when applied to South Asians (16). Third, cultural and environmental factors unique to

95 South Asian populations may modulate the importance of genetic variation on the risk of CAD

96 (1). A GPS specifically tuned to a South Asian population may thus have enhanced predictive

97 capacity as compared to previously described scored validated in individuals of European

98 ancestry, but this has not been adequately explored to date.

99   Beyond confirmation that a GPS is associated with disease, accurate and consistent GPS

100 calculation in a clinical workflow poses unique challenges when compared to other risk

101 biomarkers (18). First, statistical imputation is needed to ensure that – beyond the variants

102 included on a genotyping array – an identical set of genetic variants is captured in each

103 individual. Second, an individuals' raw GPS scores needs to be interpreted within the context of

104 their genetic ancestry, typically performed by projecting them into static 'principal components

105 of ancestry' space. Third, a reference distribution is needed to determine whether a given

106 individual's GPS is high or low versus others with a similar ancestral background. Overcoming

107 these issues is critically important prior to clinical deployment of GPS disclosure.

108   Here, we aim to address these areas of uncertainty by developing a new GPS_{CAD} tuned to

109 individuals of South Asian ancestry, confirming robust associations of the new GPS_{CAD} with

110 CAD in 7,244 South Asian participants of the UK Biobank and 491 participants of an

111 independent case-control study in Bangladesh, **Figure 1**. Next, we build a new framework to

112 support GPS_{CAD} calculation by developing an ancestry-specific reference distribution from 1,522

113 individuals recruited in India and validate this in 2,963 newly recruited participants of a CAD

114 case-control study in India, **Central illustration**.

115 **Methods**

116 **Study populations and quality control**

117 *UK Biobank.*

118   The UK Biobank recruited over 500,000 participants aged 40-69 years between 2006 and

119 2010 (19, 20). In the present analysis, we focused on 8,025 South Asian participants based on

120 self-report of being Pakistani, Indian, or Bangladeshi (19, 20). Self-reported race designations

121 were highly concordant with quantitative estimates of genetic ancestry, as quantified by principal

122 components (Online Figure 1A, 1B and 2A). UK Biobank participants underwent genotyping

123 using an array and subsequent imputation as previously reported (20). After application of

124 genotyping and relatedness quality control parameters (Online Methods), 7,244 individuals

125 remained for analysis. These South Asian individuals were not included in our prior report based

126 on UK Biobank individuals, which was restricted to those of European ancestry (11). CAD

127 ascertainment was based on a composite of myocardial infarction or coronary revascularization

128 present at time of enrolment based on self-report, hospital admission diagnosis codes, or

129 procedure codes coronary revascularization as described previously (Online Methods) (11).

130 *Bangladesh Risk of Acute Vascular Events study*.

131   We next performed whole-genome sequencing in 500 individuals recruited in Dhaka,

132 Bangladesh, as part of the Bangladesh Risk of Acute Vascular Events (BRAVE) study, a case-

133 control study of first-onset acute myocardial infarction (21). This analysis of newly-generated

134 whole-genome sequencing data has not been included in any prior studies. After application of

135 the participant, variant, and ancestry quality control filters (Online Methods), 247 CAD cases

136 and 244 controls were available for analysis (Online Figure 1A, 1C and 2B).

137 **Polygenic score derivation, calculation, and testing**

138   To derive a new GPS_{CAD}, we started with summary association statistics from a prior

139   GWAS from the CARDIoGRAMplusC4D Consortium, consisting of 60,801 cases and 123,504

140   controls (22). Importantly, the majority of the participants in this study were of European

141   ancestry (77%) with a subset of individuals from South Asian ancestry (13%) (22). There was no

142   overlap of participants in this previous GWAS with individuals assessed in the subsequent

143   derivation and testing of the polygenic score involved in the present analysis.

144   To integrate information from the summary association statistics into a GPS_{CAD}, we

145   applied the LDpred computational algorithm, a Bayesian method that calculates the posterior

146   mean independent effect size of each variant based on the variant's prior joint effect size

147   estimated from GWAS and the correlation pattern between variants (23). A linkage

148   disequilibrium (LD) reference panel – used to compute the correlations between genetic variants

149   – included 503 European individuals from the 1000 Genomes Project Phase 3 (24). Previous

150   analyses have suggested that this LD reference panel mimic the primary ancestral background of

151   the original GWAS, rather than the target population (23). Consistent with this recommendation,

152   we observed slightly decreased performance when we instead used 489 South Asian samples

153   from the 1000 Genomes Project as the LD reference panel (Online Tables 1, 2 and 3).

154   The LDpred computational algorithm includes a tuning parameter ρ, which represents the

155   fraction of variants with non-zero effect size (23), with an optimal value determined by the

156   disease genetic architecture and the sample size used in the GWAS study. Because the parameter

157   ρ is unknown, we tested a range of values for ρ as previously recommended (23).

158   Polygenic scores were calculated in each individual using the plink2 software package,

159   multiplying the effective allele dosage with its LDpred algorithm adjusted effect size and then

160   summing across all of the variants in each individual (25).

161   To account for variations in allele frequency according to genetic ancestry, the polygenic

162   score was adjusted according to the first 5 principal components of ancestry using a linear

163   regression model (12), the residuals from the regression model were used as the ancestry-

164   adjusted GPS_{CAD} and normalized to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 to facilitate

165   interpretation as performed previously (11), **Central illustration**. The best ρ parameter was

166   chosen based on maximal area-under-the-curve (AUC) of the GPS_{CAD} evaluated in a logistic

167   regression model with age, sex, top 5 principal components of ancestry and ancestry adjusted

168   GPS as covariates as performed previously (Online Tables 1 and 2)(11).

169   **Development and testing of an ancestry-specific framework to polygenic score assessment**

170   To build a static and ancestry-specific reference distribution for the GPS_{CAD}, we analyzed

171   high-coverage whole genome sequencing on 1733 individuals from a population-based study in

172   India, recruited without consideration of CAD status as part of phase 2 of the GenomeAsia 100K

173   project (26 and A.S.P., unpublished), **Central illustration**. 1,522 individuals remaining

174   following application of quality control criteria.

175   To provide a set of individuals to test the framework for GPS_{CAD} assessment, a second set

176   of individuals –1,826 CAD cases and 1,209 controls – were recruited from outpatient clinics and

177   hospitals at 5 cities in India -- Kochi, Jaipur, Coimbatore, Chennai and Bangalore. Participants

178   underwent genotyping using the Illumina Global Screening Array Platform, of whom 1,800 CAD

179   cases and 1,163 controls remained after quality control (Online Methods).

180   Clinical-grade GPS_{CAD} assessment requires that an identical set of variants are assessed

181   in individuals in both the reference distribution and newly-recruited individuals. We identified

182   575,778 genetic variants reliably ascertained in both the reference distribution whole-genome

183   sequencing data and the test dataset genotyping array data, and jointly imputed them using the

184 GenomeAsia Pilot (GAsP) project reference panel from the GenomeAsia 100K project (26, 27).

185 This joint imputation with the reference distribution is important in preventing batch effects or

186 artifacts from mixing samples genotyped with sequencing or genotyping array technology.

187   A static genetic ancestry reference distribution was produced using principal components

188 analysis of the 1,522 individuals using FlashPCA software (28) based on independent genetic

189 markers identified using the plink2 software package with parameters: *--indep-pairwise 1000 50*

190 *0.2 --maf 0.01 --hwe 1e-10 --geno 0.05* (25, 29). The static polygenic score reference distribution

191 was produced by adjusting the raw polygenic score values for the first 5 principal components of

192 ancestry using a linear regression model as described previously (12), **Central illustration**.

193 **Statistical analysis and study approval**

194   Statistical analysis and test were performed using R software, version 3.6.1 (R Project for

195 Statistical Computing). AUC was calculated by the "pROC" R package(30). Category-free net

196 reclassification improvement (31) was estimated by the "nricens" R package

197 (https://cran.fiocruz.br/web/packages/nricens/index.html).

198   This research has been conducted using the UK Biobank Resource under Application

199 Number 7089. Analysis of the UK Biobank as analysis of UK Biobank and BRAVE data was

200 approved by the Partners HealthCare institutional review board (protocol 2013P001840).

201 Analysis of MedGenome case-control study was approved by institutional review boards at each

202 of the recruitment sites.

203 **Results**

204 **Derivation of a genome-wide polygenic score for South Asians**

205   We first generated 8 candidate GPSs for CAD for testing in a South Asian population,

206 combining association statistics from a previously published genome-wide association study (22)

207   and the LDpred computational algorithm (23) (**Figure 1**). The 8 scores varied in the tuning

208   parameter (ρ) for the reflection of the proportion of variants assumed to be causal (11, 23).

209   In order to choose among the 8 candidate GPSs, the discriminative capacity of each GPS

210   was tested in 7,244 South Asian participants of the UK Biobank (398 CAD cases and 6,846

211   controls; Online Figure 1A, 1B, 2A and Online Table 4). Each of the scores was associated with

212   CAD, with area under the receiver-operator curve (AUC) values for a logistic regression model

213   including GPS_{CAD}, age, sex and top 5 principal components of ancestry as covariates ranging

214   from 0.796 to 0.805, and odds ratios per standard deviation (OR/SD) increment in the GPS_{CAD}

215   ranging from 1.38 to 1.58, Online Tables 1 and 2. The maximally performing score – with the ρ

216   value of 0.003 – was taken forward into subsequent analyses.

217   This newly developed GPS_{CAD} had improved performance compared to a score our group

218   previously published based on validation and testing in individuals of European ancestry (11),

219   which had OR/SD 1.53 and AUC 0.802 when applied to the UK Biobank South Asian

220   participants (Online Table 5).

221   When using our new South Asian GPS_{CAD} as a predictor of CAD in South Asian UK

222   Biobank participants, the median GPS_{CAD} was in the 66th percentile for CAD cases and in the

223   49th percentile for controls, OR/SD was 1.58 (95% CI 1.42 – 1.76), and a 3.22-fold increase in

224   disease risk was noted in comparing the top versus bottom GPS quintiles (95% CI 2.25 – 4.70),

225   **Figure 2A-B** and Online Figure 3A.

226   In order to assess the clinical importance of a high GPS_{CAD}, we next compared the risk of

227   progressively more extreme cut-points of the polygenic score distribution versus those with a

228   polygenic score in the middle quintile. Those in the top quintile of the GPS_{CAD} distribution had

229   2.16 (95% CI 1.56 – 3.03) increased odds of CAD versus those in the middle quintile, with a risk

230 estimate that continued to increase when modeled as the top 5% (OR 4.16, 95% CI 2.75 – 6.28)

231 or the top 2.5% (OR 5.56, 95% CI 3.40 – 8.98), **Figure 3**.

232   As in previous studies, the risk conferred by a high GPS_{CAD} was largely independent of

233 traditional risk factors(11, 32–34). Within the UK Biobank South Asian dataset, a modest

234 decrement in OR/SD from 1.58 to 1.46 (95% CI 1.29 – 1.65) was noted after additional

235 adjustment for diabetes, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, family history of heart disease,

236 current smoking, BMI and use of lipid-lowering therapy (Online Table 4). Similarly, odds ratio

237 for the top 5% of the GPS distribution versus the middle quintile decreased from 4.16 to 3.68 (95%

238 CI 2.28 – 5.94) after additional adjustment for these risk factors (Online Table 6). Additional of

239 the GPS_{CAD} to logistic regression models with or without clinical risk factors included was

240 associated with improvements in category-free net reclassification of 38.0% and 33.5%

241 respectively (P < 0.001 for each; **Table 1**).

242 **Testing the South Asian genome-wide polygenic score in a Bangladeshi study**

243   To test this score in an independent dataset, we studied the performance of the South

244 Asian GPS in 247 cases and 244 controls of the BRAVE study of first-ever myocardial infarction

245 in Bangladesh (Online Figure 1A, 1C and 2B). Cases had median age of 34 years, reflective of

246 selection based on premature disease onset, and 91% were male. Controls similarly had median

247 age of 33 years and 90% were male (Online Table 7). The GPS was associated with an OR/SD

248 increment of 1.60 (95% CI 1.32 – 1.94), evaluated in a logistic regression model adjusted for age,

249 sex, and top 5 PCs. Moreover, the median GPS was in the 58th percentile among CAD cases and

250 in the 42nd percentile in controls, and a 3.90-fold increase in disease risk was noted in

251 comparing the top versus bottom GPS quintiles (95% CI 2.14 – 7.26), **Figure 2C-D** and Online

252 Figure 3B. As in prior studies, the risk was substantially increased for those in the extreme tails

253   of the GPS distribution, OR 2.46 (95% CI 1.15 – 5.48; P = 0.02) for those in the top 5%

254   compared to those in the middle quintile, **Figure 3**. Additional adjustment for diabetes,

255   hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, family history of heart disease, current smoking, and family

256   history of myocardial infarction led to a modest decrement in OR/SD from 1.60 to 1.51 (95% CI

257   1.22 – 1.88). Consistent with our observations in the UK Biobank study, the GPS_{CAD} led to an

258   improvement in net reclassification of 35.5% and 32.7% for models with and without clinical

259   risk factors respectively, **Table 1**.

260   **A scalable framework for GPS assessment in South Asian individuals**

261   Encouraged by the strength of association with CAD, we next developed a scalable

262   framework to operationalize GPS assessment. We first analyzed whole-genome sequencing data

263   of 1,522 India individuals from Phase 2 of the GenomeAsia 100K project (26). These data were

264   used in two ways: first, to generate a static ancestry-specific genetic ancestry space; and second,

265   to generate a fixed GPS reference distribution for subsequently recruited individuals seeking

266   GPS_{CAD}, **Central illustration**.

267   To generate a static genetic ancestry panel, we quantified the PCs of ancestry in each of

268   the 1,522 individuals and saved the variant loading coefficients. This allows subsequently

269   recruited participants to be 'projected' onto this fixed ancestral space. To generate a fixed

270   GPS_{CAD} reference distribution, we computed the South Asian GPS_{CAD} in each of the 1,522

271   individuals and adjusted the raw GPS_{CAD} values by the first five PCs of ancestry (**Central**

272   **illustration**).

273   **Testing of the bioinformatics framework in newly-recruited participants in India**

274   Using the newly-developed GPS_{CAD} and bioinformatics framework, we next studied

275   1,800 CAD cases and 1,163 control individuals newly-recruited in India as part of a MedGenome

276   study. Median age of cases and controls was 54 and 55 years, and 90% and 76% were male,

277   respectively (**Figure 4**, Online Figure 1A, 1D and Online Table 8). By projecting each of the

278   CAD cases and controls onto the principal components of ancestry derived from the reference

279   population, we confirmed nearly superimposable distributions of the fixed reference population

280   individuals and the newly-recruited CAD cases and controls, **Figure 4**.

281   We next computed the GPS_{CAD} in each of the participants of the MedGenome case-

282   control study. Consistent with our expectation, median GPS percentile in the controls – who

283   remained free of CAD into middle age – was minimally reduced compared to the reference

284   distribution, in the 48th percentile, **Central illustration C**. By contrast, the CAD cases had a

285   median GPS_{CAD} in the 64th percentile, **Central illustration C** and Online Figure 3C.

286   We studied the relationship of the GPS_{CAD} with CAD in this cohort, noting an OR/SD

287   increment of 1.66 (95% CI 1.53 – 1.81) and 3.91-fold (95% CI 3.04 to 5.04; P = 2.96^{-10}) increase

288   in disease risk comparing the top versus bottom GPS quintiles, **Central illustration D**. Using the

289   top 5% threshold described above, we observe a 3.22-fold (95% CI 2.23 – 4.74) increased risk

290   when compared to those in the middle quintile, **Figure 5**. Additional adjustment for diabetes,

291   hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, smoking, and body mass index led to minimal effect

292   attenuation, OR/SD decreased from 1.66 to 1.58 (95% CI 1.42 – 1.75) (Online Table 8). The

293   GPS_{CAD} led to an improvement in net reclassification of 35.4% and 32.2% for models with and

294   without clinical risk factors respectively, **Table 1**.

295   **Discussion**

296   After deriving a GPS_{CAD} tuned to individuals of South Asian ancestry, our series of

297   analyses confirmed robust associations of this score with CAD in South Asian individuals

298   involved in the UK Biobank and in a separate case-control study based in Bangladesh.

299   Furthermore, we validated a generalizable framework to assess polygenic scores – including the

300   use of an ancestry-specific imputation panel and a static reference distribution – and validated

301   this framework by confirming robust associations of GPS_{CAD} with CAD in an independent study

302   of South Asians based in India.

303   These results indicate that the cumulative impact of common DNA variants – now

304   possible to quantify using a GPS – is an important driver of risk for CAD, even among

305   individuals of South Asian ancestry. By optimizing a polygenic score for CAD in South Asians,

306   we note a 3.22- to 3.91- fold increase in risk when comparing the highest to lowest quintiles

307   across three independent study samples. Moreover, the pattern of disease associations was

308   strikingly concordant across individuals of South Asian ancestry living in the United Kingdom,

309   Bangladesh, and India, with OR/SD increment ranging from 1.58 to 1.66 across the three studies.

310   These results suggest feasibility for the transfer of polygenic scores across varying

311   environmental exposures.

312   We note robust associations with CAD in South Asians, despite using summary statistics

313   from a genome-wide association study conducted primarily in individuals of European ancestry –

314   77% European ancestry and only 13% South Asian ancestry (22). This results observed in our

315   South Asian datasets were broadly comparable but somewhat attenuated when compared to our

316   previous analysis of participants of European ancestry in the UK Biobank, where OR/SD

317   increment was 1.72 as compared to 1.58 to 1.66 observed in the present analysis of South Asian

318   datasets (11). Although we confirm that the newly-derived score outperformed – albeit modestly

319   – our previously published score based on tuning in individuals of European ancestry

320   individuals(11) in all three studies (Online Table 5), the performance of a GPS_{CAD} is likely to

321 improve further if summary statistics from a large genome-wide association study performed

322 specifically in South Asians becomes available for use as input to future GPSs (15, 16, 35).

323   Beyond validation that the GPS_{CAD} associated with disease in South Asians, we describe

324 a new and generalizable framework necessary for deployment of polygenic score assessment

325 within a clinical workflow. We used high-coverage whole-genome sequencing of 1,522 Indian

326 individuals from the Phase 2 of the GenomeAsia 100K project (26) to generate a fixed and

327 ancestry-matched reference distribution for the GPS_{CAD}. We next recruited an additional 1,800

328 CAD cases and 1,163 controls and projected them onto the genetic ancestry and GPS_{CAD}

329 reference distribution, confirming expected associations with CAD. Ongoing efforts to generate

330 whole genome sequencing data needed to enhance imputation and genotyping array data needed

331 to develop and validate polygenic in diverse individuals are likely to enable use of this

332 framework in additional ancestry groups in future studies(17, 36–38).

333   The utility of GPS_{CAD} assessment is likely to be most pronounced among those with

334 extremely high GPS_{CAD}, such as the ~5% of the Indian population cohort that inherited about

335 triple the normal risk on the basis of polygenic variation. These individuals cannot be reliably

336 identified from the remainder of the population without direct access to genotyping data (Online

337 Table 6) (11, 32–34), and is associated with significant improvements in net reclassification

338 indices across all three studies (**Table 1**). We and others have previously demonstrated that

339 individuals with high polygenic scores derive the greatest benefit from both adherence to a

340 healthy lifestyle as well as pharmacologic interventions – including both statins and PCSK9

341 inhibitors (39–42). Previous work has suggested that knowledge of a high polygenic score may

342 enhance motivation to initiate or adhere to risk-reducing interventions (43). Successful

343 generalization of this result to South Asians may thus represent an important public health

344   opportunity, particularly given the increased rates of a sedentary lifestyle and reluctance to take

345   medicines frequently encountered in South Asian individuals(1).

346   These results should be interpreted in the context of several limitations. First, the case-

347   control study design used in the Bangladeshi and Indian studies we analyzed enabled

348   confirmation of relative risk associations but did not allow for calculation of absolute risk of

349   future CAD events. Second, our current efforts focused on CAD. Although this specific disease

350   has particular importance for South Asian individuals, future efforts may allow for an extension

351   of these findings to additional important diseases for this population, including diabetes or

352   central adiposity. Third, additional evidence is needed to confirm that polygenic score disclosure

353   – when integrated into clinical practice in a South Asian population – can improve adherence to a

354   healthy lifestyle or more efficient use of preventive medications. Fourth, our analysis was based

355   on overall genetic ancestry as assessed by principal components. Although this is the current

356   standard, future studies that account for local ancestry – which can vary across chromosomes

357   even in individuals with similar overall genetic ancestry – using new local ancestry inference

358   based approaches may prove useful, especially in populations with recent admixture such as

359   African American or Hispanic individuals (44).

360   In conclusion, we confirm that a newly-derived GPS_{CAD} for South Asians – which can be

361   calculated from the time of birth – enables striking stratification of disease risk in middle-age.

362   Second, we validate a scalable polygenic score framework in India, laying the scientific and

363   operational foundation for clinical implementation.

364   **Clinical Perspectives**

365   **Competency in medical knowledge:** A genome-wide polygenic score for coronary artery

366   disease integrates information from millions of sites of common DNA variation into a single

367   metric – available from birth – of inherited risk.

368   **Competency in medical knowledge:** Because genetic variants vary substantially across racial

369   and ethnic groups, rigorous ancestry-adjustment is needed when computing genome-wide

370   polygenic scores that ideally implements data from ancestry-matched individuals.

371   **Translational outlook:** Additional research is needed to further improve transferability of

372   genome-wide polygenic scores across racial and ethnic groups, and understand how best to

373   integrate such scores into routine clinical practice.

374 **References**

375 1. Volgman AS, Palaniappan LS, Aggarwal NT, et al. Atherosclerotic Cardiovascular Disease in

376 South Asians in the United States: Epidemiology, Risk Factors, and Treatments: A Scientific

377 Statement From the American Heart Association. Circulation 2018;138. Available at:

378 https://www.ahajournals.org/doi/10.1161/CIR.0000000000000580. Accessed January 26, 2020.

379 2. Arnett DK, Blumenthal RS, Albert MA, et al. 2019 ACC/AHA Guideline on the Primary

380 Prevention of Cardiovascular Disease A Report of the American College of

381 Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines. 2019:17.

382 3. Grundy SM, Stone NJ, Bailey AL, et al. 2018 Guideline on the Management of Blood

383 Cholesterol. J. Am. Coll. Cardiol. 2019;73:e285–e350.

384 4. Gertler MM. YOUNG CANDIDATES FOR CORONARY HEART DISEASE. J. Am. Med.

385 Assoc. 1951;147:621.

386 5. Marenberg ME, Risch N, Berkman LF, Floderus B, Faire U de. Genetic Susceptibility to

387 Death from Coronary Heart Disease in a Study of Twins. N. Engl. J. Med. 1994;330:1041–1046.

388 6. Nordestgaard BG, Chapman MJ, Humphries SE, et al. Familial hypercholesterolaemia is

389 underdiagnosed and undertreated in the general population: guidance for clinicians to prevent

390 coronary heart disease: Consensus Statement of the European Atherosclerosis Society. Eur.

391 Heart J. 2013;34:3478–3490.

392 7. Khera AV, Won H-H, Peloso GM, et al. Diagnostic Yield and Clinical Utility of Sequencing

393 Familial Hypercholesterolemia Genes in Patients With Severe Hypercholesterolemia. J. Am.

394 Coll. Cardiol. 2016;67:2578–2589.

395 8. Abul-Husn NS, Manickam K, Jones LK, et al. Genetic identification of familial

396 hypercholesterolemia within a single U.S. health care system. Science 2016;354:aaf7000.

397 9. Benn M, Watts GF, Tybjærg-Hansen A, Nordestgaard BG. Mutations causative of familial

398 hypercholesterolaemia: screening of 98 098 individuals from the Copenhagen General

399 Population Study estimated a prevalence of 1 in 217. Eur. Heart J. 2016;37:1384–1394.

400 10. Patel AP, Wang M, Fahed AC, et al. Association of Rare Pathogenic DNA Variants for

401 Familial Hypercholesterolemia, Hereditary Breast and Ovarian Cancer Syndrome, and Lynch

402 Syndrome With Disease Risk in Adults According to Family History. JAMA Netw. Open

403 2020;3:e203959.

404 11. Khera AV, Chaffin M, Aragam KG, et al. Genome-wide polygenic scores for common

405 diseases identify individuals with risk equivalent to monogenic mutations. Nat. Genet.

406 2018;50:1219–1224.

407 12. Khera AV, Chaffin M, Zekavat SM, et al. Whole-Genome Sequencing to Characterize

408 Monogenic and Polygenic Contributions in Patients Hospitalized With Early-Onset Myocardial

409 Infarction. Circulation 2019;139:1593–1602.

410 13. Inouye M, Abraham G, Nelson CP, et al. Genomic Risk Prediction of Coronary Artery

411 Disease in 480,000 Adults. J. Am. Coll. Cardiol. 2018;72:1883–1893.

412 14. Sirugo G, Williams SM, Tishkoff SA. The Missing Diversity in Human Genetic Studies. Cell

413 2019;177:26–31.

414   15. Martin AR, Gignoux CR, Walters RK, et al. Human Demographic History Impacts Genetic

415   Risk Prediction across Diverse Populations. Am. J. Hum. Genet. 2017;100:635–649.

416   16. Martin AR, Kanai M, Kamatani Y, Okada Y, Neale BM, Daly MJ. Clinical use of current

417   polygenic risk scores may exacerbate health disparities. Nat. Genet. 2019;51:584–591.

418   17. Wojcik GL, Graff M, Nishimura KK, et al. Genetic analyses of diverse populations improves

419   discovery for complex traits. Nature 2019;570:514–518.

420   18. Homburger JR, Neben CL, Mishne G, Zhou AY, Kathiresan S, Khera AV. Low coverage

421   whole genome sequencing enables accurate assessment of common variants and calculation of

422   genome-wide polygenic scores. Genome Med. 2019;11. Available at:

423   https://genomemedicine.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s13073-019-0682-2. Accessed

424   January 27, 2020.

425   19. Sudlow C, Gallacher J, Allen N, et al. UK Biobank: An Open Access Resource for

426   Identifying the Causes of a Wide Range of Complex Diseases of Middle and Old Age. PLOS

427   Med. 2015;12:e1001779.

428   20. Bycroft C, Freeman C, Petkova D, et al. The UK Biobank resource with deep phenotyping

429   and genomic data. Nature 2018;562:203–209.

430   21. Cardiology Research Group, Chowdhury R, Alam DS, et al. The Bangladesh Risk of Acute

431   Vascular Events (BRAVE) Study: objectives and design. Eur. J. Epidemiol. 2015;30:577–587.

432   22. the CARDIoGRAMplusC4D Consortium, Nikpay M, Goel A, et al. A comprehensive 1000

433   Genomes–based genome-wide association meta-analysis of coronary artery disease. Nat. Genet.

434   2015;47:1121–1130.

435   23. Vilhjálmsson BJ, Yang J, Finucane HK, et al. Modeling Linkage Disequilibrium Increases

436   Accuracy of Polygenic Risk Scores. Am. J. Hum. Genet. 2015;97:576–592.

437   24. The 1000 Genomes Project Consortium. A global reference for human genetic variation.

438   Nature 2015;526:68–74.

439   25. Chang CC, Chow CC, Tellier LC, Vattikuti S, Purcell SM, Lee JJ. Second-generation PLINK:

440   rising to the challenge of larger and richer datasets. GigaScience 2015;4:7.

441   26. GenomeAsia100K Consortium. The GenomeAsia 100K Project enables genetic discoveries

442   across Asia. Nature 2019;576:106–111.

443   27. Browning BL, Zhou Y, Browning SR. A One-Penny Imputed Genome from Next-Generation

444   Reference Panels. Am. J. Hum. Genet. 2018;103:338–348.

445   28. Abraham G, Qiu Y, Inouye M. FlashPCA2: principal component analysis of Biobank-scale

446   genotype datasets Stegle O, editor. Bioinformatics 2017;33:2776–2778.

447   29. the Haplotype Reference Consortium. A reference panel of 64,976 haplotypes for genotype

448   imputation. Nat. Genet. 2016;48:1279–1283.

449   30. Robin X, Turck N, Hainard A, et al. pROC: an open-source package for R and S+ to analyze

450   and compare ROC curves. BMC Bioinformatics 2011;12. Available at:

451   https://bmcbioinformatics.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1471-2105-12-77. Accessed May

452   21, 2020.

453   31. Pencina MJ, D'Agostino RB, Steyerberg EW. Extensions of net reclassification improvement

454   calculations to measure usefulness of new biomarkers. Stat. Med. 2011;30:11–21.

455   32. Pereira A, Mendonca MI, Borges S, et al. Additional value of a combined genetic risk score

456   to standard cardiovascular stratification. Genet. Mol. Biol. 2018;41:766–774.

457   33. Natarajan P. Polygenic Risk Scoring for Coronary Heart Disease. J. Am. Coll. Cardiol.

458   2018;72:1894–1897.

459   34. Torkamani A, Wineinger NE, Topol EJ. The personal and clinical utility of polygenic risk

460   scores. Nat. Rev. Genet. 2018;19:581–590.

461   35. Duncan L, Shen H, Gelaye B, et al. Analysis of polygenic risk score usage and performance

462   in diverse human populations. Nat. Commun. 2019;10:3328.

463   36. Gurdasani D, Carstensen T, Fatumo S, et al. Uganda Genome Resource Enables Insights into

464   Population History and Genomic Discovery in Africa. Cell 2019;179:984-1002.e36.

465   37. Kowalski MH, Qian H, Hou Z, et al. Use of >100,000 NHLBI Trans-Omics for Precision

466   Medicine (TOPMed) Consortium whole genome sequences improves imputation quality and

467   detection of rare variant associations in admixed African and Hispanic/Latino populations Barsh

468   GS, editor. PLOS Genet. 2019;15:e1008500.

469   38. Taliun D, Harris DN, Kessler MD, et al. Sequencing of 53,831 diverse genomes from the

470   NHLBI TOPMed Program. Genomics; 2019. Available at:

471   http://biorxiv.org/lookup/doi/10.1101/563866. Accessed May 24, 2020.

472   39. Khera AV, Emdin CA, Drake I, et al. Genetic Risk, Adherence to a Healthy Lifestyle, and

473   Coronary Disease. N. Engl. J. Med. 2016;375:2349–2358.

474   40. Natarajan P, Young R, Stitziel NO, et al. Polygenic Risk Score Identifies Subgroup With

475   Higher Burden of Atherosclerosis and Greater Relative Benefit From Statin Therapy in the

476   Primary Prevention Setting. Circulation 2017;135:2091–2101.

477   41. Damask A, Steg PG, Schwartz GG, et al. Patients with High Genome-Wide Polygenic Risk

478   Scores for Coronary Artery Disease May Receive Greater Clinical Benefit from Alirocumab

479   Treatment in the Odyssey Outcomes Trial. Circulation 2019:CIRCULATIONAHA.119.044434.

480   42. Marston NA, Kamanu FK, Nordio F, et al. Predicting Benefit From Evolocumab Therapy in

481   Patients With Atherosclerotic Disease Using a Genetic Risk Score: Results From the FOURIER

482   Trial. Circulation 2019:CIRCULATIONAHA.119.043805.

483   43. Kullo IJ, Jouni H, Austin EE, et al. Incorporating a Genetic Risk Score Into Coronary Heart

484   Disease Risk Estimates: Effect on Low-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol Levels (the MI-GENES

485   Clinical Trial). Circulation 2016;133:1181–1188.

486   44. Marnetto D, Pärna K, Läll K, et al. Ancestry deconvolution and partial polygenic score can

487   improve susceptibility predictions in recently admixed individuals. Nat. Commun. 2020;11.

488   Available at: http://www.nature.com/articles/s41467-020-15464-w. Accessed April 7, 2020.

489　**Figures**

490　**Figure 1. Genome-wide polygenic score for individuals of South Asian ancestry –**

491　**derivation, validation, and testing workflow.**

492　Candidate genome-wide polygenic scores for coronary artery disease (GPS_{CAD}) were generated

493　using summary association statistics from a large GWAS study – CARDIoGRAMplusC4D

494　[Coronary ARtery DIsease Genome wide Replication and Meta-analysis (CARDIoGRAM) plus

495　The Coronary Artery Disease (C4D) Genetics] – and a linkage disequilibrium reference panel of

496　503 Europeans from the 1000 Genomes Project (22, 24). Eight candidate GPSs were generated

497　using the LDpred computational algorithm, a Bayesian approach to calculate a posterior mean

498　effect for all variants based on a prior (effect size in the previous GWAS) and subsequent

499　shrinkage based on linkage disequilibrium (23). The scores varied with respect to the tuning

500　parameter ρ (that is, the proportion of variants assumed to be causal), as previously

501　recommended. Of the 8 candidate GPSs, the best performing GPS_{CAD} was chosen in a validation

502　dataset of South Asian participants of the UK Biobank. Next, we tested this score in a newly

503　recruited CAD case-control study – the Bangladesh Risk of Acute Vascular Events (BRAVE)

504　Study (21).

505　**Figure 2. Genome-wide polygenic risk scores in coronary artery disease cases and controls.**

506　Polygenic risk score percentile distributions in each cohort stratified by CAD case and control

507　status (A, C). Disease risk across GPS_{CAD} quintiles, as assessed in a logistic regression model (B,

508　D). The quintile bin boundary was estimated from the distribution of control samples within each

509　cohort (B, D). BRAVE, the Bangladesh Risk of Acute Vascular Events study.

510　**Figure 3. Risk associated with high genome-wide polygenic risk scores for coronary artery**

511　**disease according to various cutoffs in the UK Biobank and BRAVE studies**

512   The GPS$_{CAD}$ percentile cut-off was estimated from the score distribution of control samples

513   within each cohort. The number of cases and controls in the top bin was compared to the number

514   of the middle quintile bin. A logistic regression model was used to estimate the odds ratio

515   between GPS subgroups, with age, sex, and genetic ancestry as covariates.

516   **Figure 4. Principal components of ancestry for individuals recruited as part of the**

517   **MedGenome study**

518   Principal components of ancestry were estimated in 1,522 individuals from Phase 2 of the

519   GenomeAsia project, unascertained for disease status, who underwent whole genome sequencing

520   and served as a static genetic ancestry reference distribution. Subsequently, 1,800 CAD cases

521   and 1,163 controls of the MedGenome cohort were projected onto these static principal

522   components of ancestry space. The first two principal components of ancestry are plotted, with

523   Panel A including all individuals, Panel B only participants of the MedGenome CAD case-

524   control study, and Panel C only the participants of the reference distribution.

525   **Figure 5. Evaluating the performance of the framework for calculating genome-wide**

526   **polygenic scores.**

527   The risk associated with high genome-wide polygenic scores for coronary artery disease

528   according to various cutoffs in the MedGenome evaluation data set, a comparison between

529   samples in the top percentiles to the middle quantile.

530   **Central illustration. Development and implementation of a framework for calculating**

531   **genome-wide polygenic scores in South Asian individuals.**

532   A) We performed whole-genome sequencing in 1,522 individuals from a population-based study

533   in India, recruited without consideration of CAD status (26), to: first, compute quantitative

534   genetic ancestry as assessed by principal components, and second, to derive an ancestry-adjusted
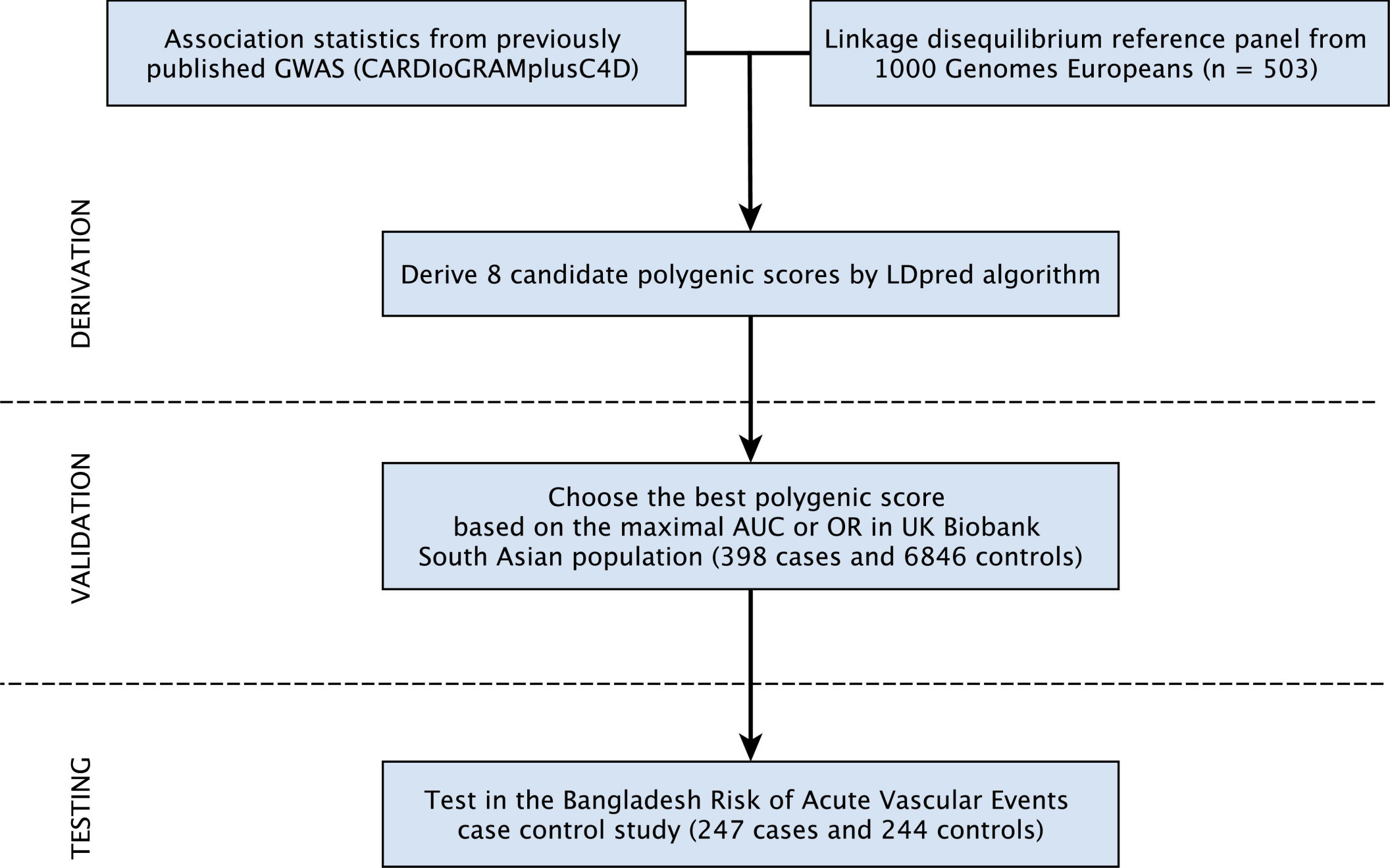
535   genome-wide polygenic score (GPS) reference distribution. With these static reference resources

536   available, subsequently recruited individuals can be projected on to the quantitative ancestry

537   space and an ancestry-adjusted GPS calculated. The ancestry-adjusted GPS was the raw GPS

538   adjusted by the first 5 principal components of ancestry in a linear regression model. This

539   ancestry-adjusted GPS is converted into a percentile rank based on cutoffs derived from the

540   reference distribution. B, C and D) The evaluation of the disease stratification performance of the

541   proposed pipeline by 1,800 cases and 1,163 controls, C) polygenic risk score percentile

542   distribution stratified by coronary artery disease case and control status. D) disease risk across

543   genome-wide polygenic score quintiles, as assessed in a logistic regression model.

544

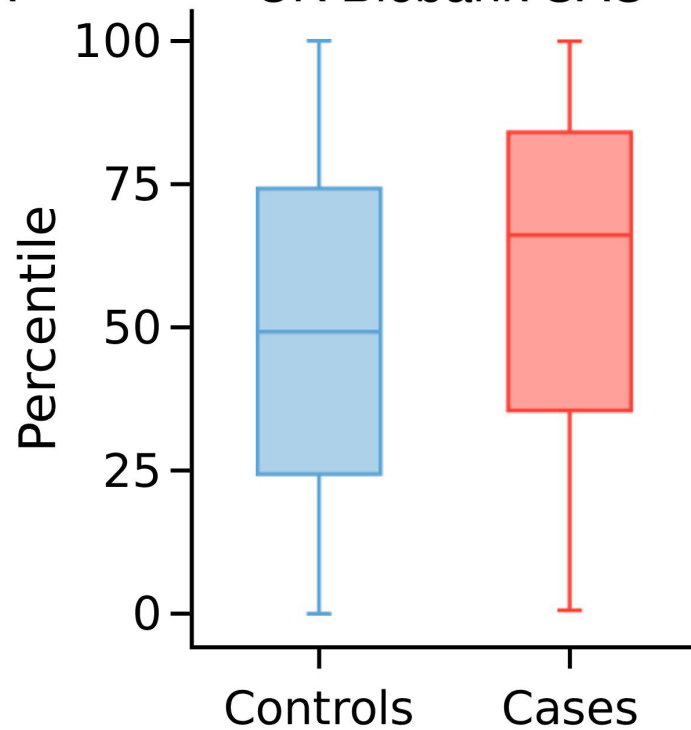545   **Table 1. Net reclassification parameters based on the addition of the genome-wide**

546   **polygenic score**.

Study	Baseline Model							
	Age, sex, principal components of ancestry				Age, sex, principal components of ancestry, and clinical risk factors			
DATA	NRI	NRI+	NRI-	Pvalue	NRI	NRI+	NRI-	Pvalue
GPS validation datasets								
UK Biobank South Asians	0.3804	0.1759	0.2045	4.59E-11	0.3345	0.1383	0.1962	2.76E-06
GPS Testing datasets								
BRAVE	0.3546	0.1579	0.1967	5.75E-05	0.3271	0.1404	0.1867	3.93E-03
MedGenome	0.3539	0.1862	0.1677	1.48E-22	0.3218	0.166	0.1558	7.42E-12

547   The category-free net reclassification improvement was calculated by additionally adding

548   genome-wide polygenic score to a baseline logistic regression model of age, sex and top 5

549   principal components of ancestry as predictors or age, sex, top 5 principal components of

550   ancestry and clinical risk factors as predictors. The risk factors adjusted were listed in Online
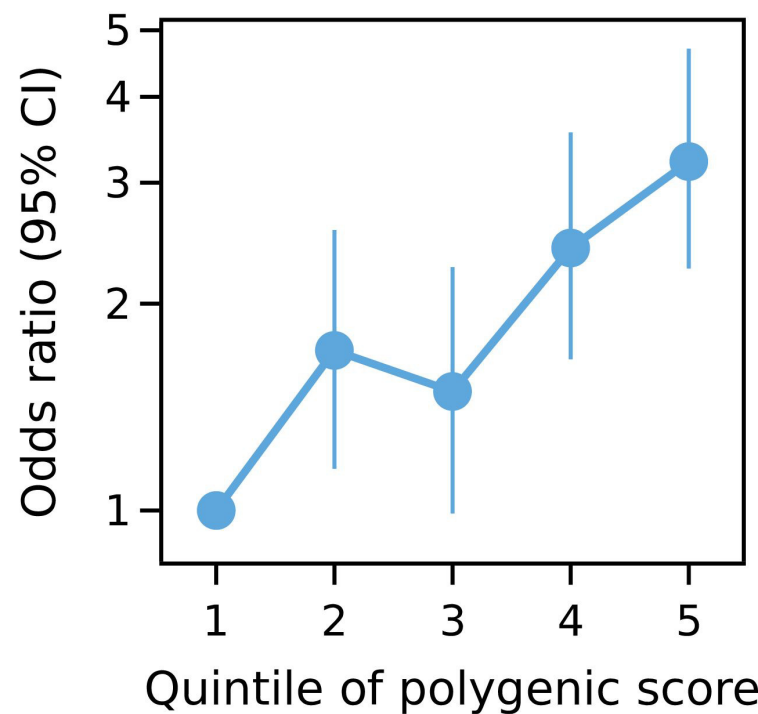
551   Table 4, 7 and 8.

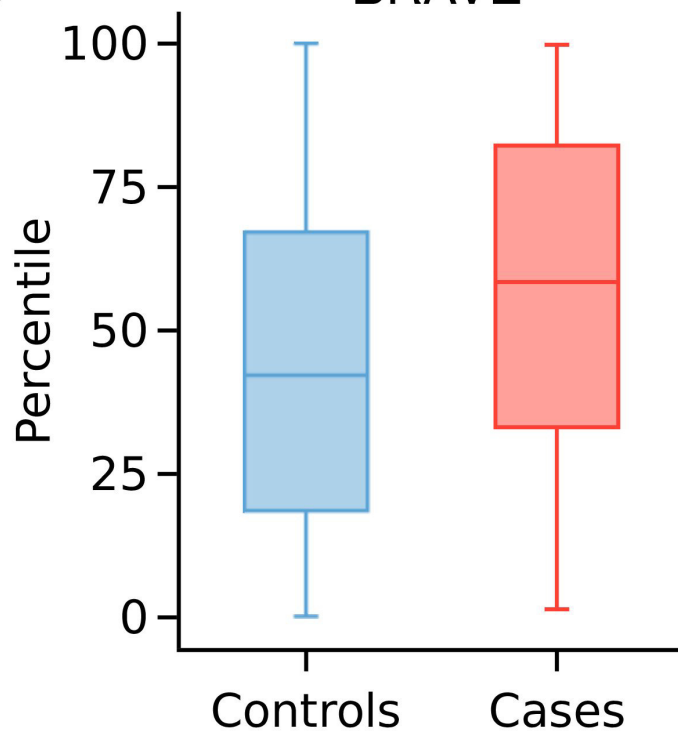552

DERIVATION

Association statistics from previously published GWAS (CARDIoGRAMplusC4D)

Linkage disequilibrium reference panel from 1000 Genomes Europeans (n = 503)

Derive 8 candidate polygenic scores by LDpred algorithm

VALIDATION

Choose the best polygenic score based on the maximal AUC or OR in UK Biobank South Asian population (398 cases and 6846 controls)

TESTING

Test in the Bangladesh Risk of Acute Vascular Events case control study (247 cases and 244 controls)

DATA/CUT-OFF	Top Percentile CASE/CONTROL	Middle Quintile CASE/CONTROL	PVALUE	OR [95CI]
UK Biobank South Asian				
2.5%	33/172	59/1369	4.23e-12	5.56 [3.40-8.98]
5%	53/343	59/1369	1.12e-11	4.16 [2.75-6.28]
10%	78/685	59/1369	1.10e-08	2.91 [2.02-4.22]
20%	126/1369	59/1369	4.83e-06	2.16 [1.56-3.03]
BRAVE				
2.5%	16/7	47/48	8.11e-02	2.41 [0.93-6.85]
5%	31/13	47/48	2.25e-02	2.46 [1.15-5.48]
10%	59/25	47/48	7.23e-03	2.36 [1.27-4.45]
20%	92/49	47/48	2.25e-02	1.87 [1.09-3.22]

Odds Ratio

DATA/CUT−OFF	Top Percentile CASE/CONTROL	Middle Quintile CASE/CONTROL	PVALUE	OR [95CI]
MedGenome South Asian				
2.5%	145/26	381/240	3.79e−07	3.30 [2.11−5.33]
5%	225/43	381/240	1.09e−09	3.22 [2.23−4.74]
10%	348/95	381/240	3.43e−08	2.26 [1.70−3.03]
20%	598/209	381/240	1.27e−06	1.79 [1.42−2.28]

A 1,522 South Asian individuals

Population

Compute principal components of ancestry

Calculate polygenic score based on genetic variants

Individual

① Calculate raw polygenic score based on genetic variants

② Project individual on to principal components of ancestry space

③ Calculate ancestry-adjusted GPS

Create reference distribution

Principal component #2

#1 Principal component

low risk   high risk

of people

GPS

Ancestry-adjusted GPS

B 1800 coronary artery disease patients

1163 controls

C Percentile — Controls, Cases

D Odds ratio (95% CI) — Quintile of polygenic score