1 Prediction of Atrial and Ventricular Arrhythmias using Multiple Cardiovascular

2 Risk Factor Polygenic Risk Scores

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47 Abstract

Background: Atrial fibrillation (AF) prediction improves by combining clinical scores
with a polygenic risk score (PRS) for AF (AF-PRS), but there are limited studies of
PRS for ventricular arrhythmia (VA) prediction.

51 **Objective:** We assessed the value of including multiple PRS for cardiovascular risk 52 factors (CV-PRS) for incident AF and VA prediction.

53 **Methods:** We used 158,733 individuals of European ancestry from UK Biobank to 54 build three models for AF: CHARGE-AF (AF1), AF1 + AF-PRS (AF2), AF2 + CV-PRS 55 (AF3). Models for VA included sex and age (VA1), VA1 + coronary artery disease 56 (CAD) PRS (CAD-PRS, VA2), and VA2 + CV-PRS (VA3), conducting separate 57 analyses in subjects with and without ischemic heart disease (IHD). Performance was 58 evaluated in individuals of European (N=158,733), African (N=7,200), South Asian 59 (N=9,241) and East Asian (N=2,076) ancestry from UK Biobank.

Results: AF2 had a higher C-index than AF1 (0.762 versus 0.746, P<0.001), marginally improving to 0.765 for AF3 (P<0.001, including PRS for heart failure, electrocardiogram and cardiac magnetic resonance measures). In South Asians, AF2 C-index was higher than AF1 (P<0.001). For VA, the C-index for VA2 was greater than VA1 (0.692 versus 0.681, P<0.001) in Europeans, which was also observed in South Asians (P<0.001). VA3 improved prediction of VA in individuals with IHD.

Conclusion: CV-PRS improved AF prediction compared to CHARGE-AF and AF PRS. A CAD-PRS improved VA prediction, while CV-PRS contributed in IHD. AF- and
 CAD-PRS were transferable to individuals of South Asian ancestry. Our results inform
 of the use of CV-PRS for personalised screening.

- 70 Keywords: atrial fibrillation, ventricular arrhythmia, polygenic risk scores, risk
- 71 prediction, UK Biobank
- 72 Abbreviations
- 73 AF: atrial fibrillation
- 74 CAD: coronary artery disease
- 75 CHARGE: Cohorts for Heart and Aging Research in Genetic Epidemiology
- 76 ECG: electrocardiogram
- 77 ICD-10: international classification of diseases, tenth revision
- 78 IHD: ischaemic heart disease
- 79 MRI: magnetic resonance image
- 80 PRS: polygenic risk score
- 81 VA: ventricular arrhythmia

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90 Introduction

Atrial and ventricular arrhythmia are a cause of substantial morbidity and 91 mortality in the general population. Atrial fibrillation (AF) is the most common cardiac 92 arrhythmia and associated with increased risk for cardioembolic stroke and heart 93 failure¹. Ventricular arrhythmia (VA) are the primary cause of sudden cardiac death, 94 with ~50% of these deaths occurring in individuals considered low risk using current 95 clinical criteria². Therefore, AF and VA risk stratification tools need to improve the 96 identification of high-risk individuals in low-risk populations who may benefit from early 97 98 implementation of primary prevention strategies.

The Cohorts for Heart and Aging Research in Genetic Epidemiology 99 (CHARGE)-AF score was developed for primary screening of incident AF risk in the 100 101 general population³. A polygenic risk score (PRS) combining an individual's genetic predisposition for AF showed a strong association with AF risk independently from 102 traditional risk factors⁴. When combined with the CHARGE-AF score, three-times 103 more AF cases were identified compared to CHARGE-AF alone⁵. For VA, there is no 104 established clinical score, but male sex and age are the main risk factors in the general 105 population⁶. A recent study has reported a coronary artery disease (CAD) PRS is 106 associated with sudden cardiac death in patients with CAD and cardiovascular 107 comorbidities independently from sex and age, with a 70% improvement in 108 109 discrimination when combined with clinical risk factors⁷.

110 Most AF or VA risk factors, including electrocardiogram (ECG) or cardiac 111 magnetic resonance images (MRI) markers, are heritable, with over 1,000 significant 112 loci combined^{4, 8-25}. Our recent work showed that the combination of a CAD PRS with 113 PRS for several cardiovascular risk factors has a better performance in predicting 114 incident CAD risk in the general population than a CAD PRS alone²⁶. Nevertheless,

the AF and VA predictive value of PRS for these risk factors is still unknown, although
this investigation would inform on their utility in risk stratifying individuals who are
otherwise healthy, where there are potentially few confounding factors.

We, thus, hypothesised that additional PRS for AF and VA cardiovascular risk 118 factors, including ECG and MRI risk markers in combination with clinical scores, may 119 capture additional electrophysiological mechanisms relevant for risk stratification. We 120 121 have tested this in a middle-aged population of European ancestry without prevalent cardiovascular disease at recruitment (Figure 1), as well as in individuals with African, 122 123 South and East Asian ancestry. We additionally performed sex-stratified analyses and repeated incident VA association analyses in individuals with and without prevalent 124 ischaemic heart disease (IHD). 125

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127 Methods

128 <u>Study population</u>

UK Biobank is a prospective study of 502,505 individuals, aged 40 to 69 years 129 old at recruitment (2006 - 2008). UK Biobank has approval from the North West Multi-130 Centre Research Ethics Committee, and all participants provided informed consent. 131 The research reported in this paper adhered to the Helsinki Declaration as revised in 132 2013. For AF and VA, individuals with a diagnosis of CAD, VA, AF or heart failure at 133 recruitment were excluded using international Classification of Diseases, Tenth 134 Revision (ICD-10) codes (Supplementary Table 1). The main analysis included 135 398,716 unrelated individuals of European-ancestry (Figure 2). A subset of 81,251 136 individuals who participated in the UK Biobank exercise stress test or in the imaging 137 study was used to obtain the list of variants and weights to build the optimal PRS for 138 each cardiovascular risk factor trait. The remaining 317,465 independent individuals 139

were further split into training (50%) and test (50%) subsets. The training subset was used to derive specific models associated with incident AF and VA, and their performance was evaluated in the test subset (Figure 2). Models were additionally tested in unrelated individuals without prevalent CAD, VA, AF or HF of African (N = 7,200), South Asian (N = 9,241) and East Asian (N = 2,076) ancestry from UK Biobank, given their different genetic background.

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147 AF and VA risk definition

The primary endpoints of the study were incident AF and VA as recorded in hospital episode statistics using ICD10 codes I48, I480, I481, I482 and I489 for AF and I460, I461, I472 and I490 for VA. Follow-up was from the study inclusion date until November, 2022 (median of 13.6 years, interquartile range of 1.2 years).

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153 <u>Calculation of polygenic risk scores</u>

154 Selection of each PRS was based on a prior electrophysiological hypothesis for 155 their association with risk of AF or VA. In total, 36 PRS for clinical risk factors and ECG 156 and MRI measures were derived (Supplementary Methods, Table 1). All PRS were 157 standardised by subtracting the mean and dividing by their standard deviation so that 158 their effect sizes in the models were comparable.

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160 <u>Training of statistical models</u>

In the training set, we fitted three models: CHARGE-AF (AF1), CHARGE-AF and the AF PRS (AF2)⁴, and AF2 and the other 35 PRS (AF3). The CHARGE-AF score was calculated using the original model originally described³. Models 2 and 3 were

also adjusted for the genetic array and the first 10 principal components²⁶. PRS were
 included as continuous variables in the models.

For each model, we performed univariable logistic regression analyses to determine the relationship between each risk factor and incident AF risk²⁷. Then, we took forward into multivariable logistic regression models, clinical risk factors or PRS that were significantly associated with AF (P < 0.05) using backward stepwise elimination to remove markers with a non-significant association with the Akaike information criterion ("stepAIC" function from the "MASS" package in R).

We followed a similar approach for the prediction of VA risk, also fitting three models: sex and age (VA1), sex, age and a CAD PRS⁴ (VA2), and sex, age, a CAD PRS and the other 35 PRS (VA3).

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176 <u>Test of statistical models</u>

In the independent test subset (Figure 2), we calculated risk scores as the weighted sum of significant clinical risk factors and PRS in the respective multivariable models from the training set, weighted by the corresponding beta coefficients^{26, 27}.

Performance of the risk scores was evaluated by measuring the concordance 180 index (C-index). We used bootstrapping to calculate a population of C-indices and to 181 extract confidence intervals. Then, the likelihood ratio test (LRT, package "Imtest" in 182 R) was used to compare nested models. Calibration of the models was evaluated 183 using the integrated calibration index and the scaled Brier score ('psfmi' library in R); 184 calibration plots were made using the 'predtools' library in R The net reclassification 185 improvement (NRI) was computed using the package "PredictABEL" in R to quantify 186 the added predictive value of each score beyond that from the corresponding 187

preceding one for both AF and VA risk. The risk categories used for the NRI analysis
were equivalent to the event rate for each endpoint.

Next, for each score and endpoint, we identified two risk groups based on their 190 training-specific optimal cutoff, calculated as the value of the score that jointly 191 maximized both sensitivity and specificity values using the "cutpointr" package in R. 192 Thus, risk groups were defined as: low-risk (test score values < optimal cutoff) and 193 194 high-risk (test score values > optimal cutoff). Odds ratios (ORs) were calculated using the low-risk group as a reference. To evaluate the dependency of the results on the 195 196 choice of threshold, we repeated the low- and high-risk split using the cut-off value that marks the 90th percentile of the scores in the training set. 197

Finally, we performed survival analyses; Kaplan-Meier curves were derived using the optimal cutoff values, with a comparison of cumulative events performed by using log-rank tests, and plotted using the "survminer" package in R. Hazard ratios (HRs) were derived taking the low-risk group as a reference using univariable Cox regression analyses.

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204 <u>Sex-stratified analyses</u>

To investigate sex-specific contributions of the multiple PRS for incident AF and VA risk stratification, we performed sex-stratified analyses by repeating the training and testing of statistical models in men and women separately.

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209 Incident VA prediction in individuals with and without IHD

Finally, we performed separate incident VA association analyses by repeatingthe training and testing of statistical models in individuals with and without prevalent

IHD to determine whether the underlying aetiology of VA affects PRS performance(Supplementary Methods, Supplementary Figures 1 and 2).

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215 <u>Performance assessment in Non-European ancestries</u>

To assess the generalisability and performance of the statistical models trained in the European individuals for non-European ancestry individuals, we tested in individuals with African, South Asian and East Asian ancestry. To reduce the variation in the PRS distribution due to genetic ancestry, we used the residuals from a linear model after regressing each PRS on the first 4 genetic PCs, as previously described²⁸.

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222 **Results**

The study population consisted of 138,929 men, with a median (interquartile range) age of 58 (13) years old. The demographic characteristics of this population are shown in Table 2.

226 Prediction of incident AF

During the follow-up period, there were 10,411 AF cases (6.6%) in each of the 227 training and test sets (Figure 2). The C-index for AF1 (CHARGE-AF) was 0.746 (0.742 228 -0.751) in the test set, which significantly increased to 0.762 (0.757 -0.766, P < 2.2229 × 10⁻¹⁶) when using AF2 (CHARGE-AF + AF PRS, Figure 3). The C-index for AF3 was 230 statistically significantly higher than that for AF2 (0.765 [0.760 - 0.769], $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-1}$ 231 ¹⁶. The PRS for HF, TMR after exercise, BMI, QT dynamics during exercise, left 232 ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF), Tpe interval, resting HR, left ventricular ejection 233 systolic volume (LVESV), left atrial active minimum volume (LAmin), Brugada 234 syndrome, QRS duration and QT interval (in decreasing order of magnitude and 235 direction of effect) remained significantly associated with incident AF in AF3 (Figure 236

3). The overall mean NRI was 0.288 (0.268 – 0.308, P < 0.001) for AF2 versus AF1, 237 and 0.110 (0.090 – 0.130, P < 0.001) for AF3 versus AF2 (Supplementary Tables 2 238 and 3). Calibration metrics and overall performance of each model using the 'optimal' 239 and the 90th percentile thresholds are shown in Supplementary Table 4 and 240 Supplementary Figure 3). Finally, OR values and 95% CI for individuals in the high-241 risk group versus those in the low-risk group progressively increased from 4.85 (4.63 242 - 5.08) for AF1, to 5.24 (5.01 – 5.48) for AF2, and 5.56 (5.31 – 5.83) for AF3 (Figure 243 3). Hazard ratio (HR) values increased from 4.83 for AF1, to 5.17 for AF2 and to 5.49 244 245 for AF3 (Figure 4).

In sex-specific analyses, AF2 had a significantly higher C-index than AF1 in 246 both men (N = 69,432 in the test set, 6,151 AF cases) and women (N = 89,300 in the 247 248 test set, N = 4,260 AF events). In men, AF2 showed an NRI of 0.287, and OR and HR values for AF1 and AF2 of 4.05 and 4.55, and 4.04 and 4.48, respectively. In women, 249 NRI was 0.284, and OR and HR values were 5.36 for AF2 versus 4.86 for AF1, and 250 5.30 for AF2 versus 4.85 for AF1 (Supplementary Figures 3, 4 and 5, Supplementary 251 Tables 5, 6 and 7). However, CV-PRS (the same PRS from the main analysis, except 252 for the PRS for TMR after exercise, QT dynamics during exercise, LVEF, Tpe interval 253 and LAmin and the addition of CAD and the PR interval) only showed a significant 254 contribution in men. These jointly increased the C-index to 0.772 ($P = 4.6 \times 10^{-4}$) and 255 256 the OR to 4.51, with an NRI of 0.121 (0.094 – 0.147, *P* < 0.001, Supplementary Figure 4, Supplementary Table 7). 257

We tested the performance of each model trained in the main analysis in individuals with African (166 AF cases), South Asian (275 AF cases) and East Asian (42 AF cases) ancestry. In individuals of South Asian ancestry, AF2 had a significantly higher C-index than AF1 (0.787 [0.760 – 0.813] versus 0.774 [0.746 – 0.802], P = 2.9

x 10⁻⁵), which significantly increased to 0.791 (0.764 – 0.817), $P = 1.8 \times 10^{-4}$, for model AF3 (Supplementary Table 4, Supplementary Figure 6). The ORs were 6.52 (4.87 – 8.72) for AF1, 7.08 (5.31 – 9.45) for AF2, and 7.59 (5.64 - 10.22) for AF3, and the HR values were 6.61, 7.16 and 7.64, respectively. In individuals with African or East Asian ancestry, AF2 or AF3 did not significantly improve the predictive value already provided by CHARGE-AF in AF1 alone however there were a smaller number of cases in these ancestry groups.

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270 <u>Prediction of incident VA risk</u>

For prediction of incident VA, there were 621 and 622 VA cases (0.4%) in the 271 training and test sets, respectively (Figure 2). VA1 (sex and age) showed a C-index of 272 273 0.681 (0.660 – 0.701), which significantly increased for VA2 (sex, age and a CAD PRS, $0.692 [0.671 - 0.712], P = 4.1 \times 10^{-11}, Figure 4$. NRI was 0.314 (0.236 - 0.392, P < 0.000)274 0.001, Supplementary Table 8), calibration and performance metrics are shown in 275 Supplementary Table 9 and Supplementary Figure 7). OR and HR values were 3.11 276 (2.64 - 3.67) and 3.27 (2.76 - 3.88), and 3.20 and 3.36, respectively (Figures 5 and 6). 277 After fitting model VA3, the PRS for HF, QT dynamics during exercise, HDL and QT 278 interval remained significantly associated with incident VA, independently from sex, 279 age and the CAD PRS. However in combination, they did not improve discrimination 280 281 compared to VA2 (Figure 5). HR values were 3.20 for VA1, 3.36 for VA2 and 3.26 for VA3 (Figure 6). 282

283 Sex-specific analyses (69,465 men in the training set, 441 VA cases, and 284 69,464 men in the test set, 441 VA cases) showed similar findings, with VA2 having a 285 significantly higher performance than VA1, but the contribution of CV-PRS not being

statistically significant (Supplementary Figures 8 and 9, Supplementary Tables 10 and11).

There were 561 VA cases (5%) in both the training and test sets in individuals 288 with prevalent IHD. Age was not significantly associated with incident VA, and sex 289 alone had a C-index of 0.545 (0.528 – 0.563). The CAD PRS was not significantly 290 associated with incident VA. Thus, VA3 included sex and the PRS for DBP and DCM 291 (the two PRS that remained significantly associated in model VA3). There was a 292 significant increase in the C-index to 0.592 (0.560 – 0.624, $P = 8.5 \times 10^{-3}$) with a mean 293 NRI of 0.216 (0.0972 - 0.3352, P = 0.004, Supplementary Tables 9 and 12, 294 Supplementary Figure 10). OR and HR values were 1.86 (1.44 - 2.42) and 1.84 295 (Supplementary Figure 11). In individuals without IHD, there were 653 VA cases 296 297 (0.2%) in both training and test subsets. The C-index was 0.654 (0.625 - 0.684) for VA1, and the OR was 3.01 (2.41 - 3.75). However, the addition of the CAD PRS (VA2), 298 or VA3 (here the PRS for HF and the spatial QRST angle were the only two PRS that 299 remained significantly associated with incident VA), did not significantly improve model 300 performance (Supplementary Table 12). 301

We finally tested the performance of each model trained in the main analysis in 302 individuals of African, South and East-Asian ancestries. We observed that, in 303 individuals with South Asian ancestry (46 VA cases), VA2 had a significantly higher C-304 index than VA1 (0.722 [0.648 – 0.796] versus 0.640 [0.579 – 0.700], $P = 3.2 \times 10^{-4}$). 305 However, the C-index of VA3 was not significantly higher than that of score 2 (P = 1.7306 x 10⁻¹, Supplementary Table 9, Supplementary Figure 12). The OR and HR values 307 were 3.56 (1.76 - 7.17) and 4.10 for VA1, 2.41 (1.30 - 4.47) and 4.3 for VA2, and 2.26 308 (1.26 - 4.08) and 5.60 for VA3. In individuals with African (22 VA events) or East Asian 309

ancestry (3 VA events), VA2 or VA3 did not significantly improve the performancecompared with VA1 alone.

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313 Discussion

In this work, we assessed the contribution of PRS for cardiovascular risk factors 314 in the prediction of incident AF and VA in a large middle-aged population. We have 315 validated the improvement in incident AF risk stratification provided by the combination 316 of an AF PRS with the CHARGE-AF score, and observed that the inclusion of multiple 317 318 CV-PRS further improved discrimination. For incident VA, we observed that a CAD PRS significantly improved risk stratification compared to sex and age alone, but the 319 addition of the multiple CV-PRS only improved discrimination in individuals with 320 prevalent IHD. We also demonstrated that our models using AF and CAD PRS for 321 incident AF and VA risk prediction are potentially transferable in individuals of South 322 Asian ancestry. 323

It has been reported previously that the combination of polygenic risk for AF 324 with the CHARGE-AF clinical score improves incident AF risk prediction over 325 CHARGE-AF alone in patients with and without cardiovascular diseases and risk 326 factors⁵. Our work builds on these findings demonstrating that inclusion of genetic 327 predisposition for cardiovascular risk factors provides an incremental improvement in 328 329 AF risk prediction in healthy middle-aged individuals of European ancestry. Results showed that genetically-predicted shorter ventricular depolarisation and repolarisation 330 times were associated with increased AF risk, confirming previous observations 331 having also now performed adjustment for additional CV risk factors¹⁴. Finally, the 332 contribution of MRI markers like LVEF or left ventricular ejection systolic volume 333

highlights the role for genetically-determined differences in ventricular structure in AF
risk, potentially through atrial mechanical and cardiac ion channel remodelling.

Our sex-stratified analyses enabled the investigation of the potential 336 contribution to risk prediction of CV-PRS in each sex separately, as well as the specific 337 genetic architecture of AF and VA. The PRS for cardiovascular risk factors that 338 significantly contributed to AF risk in men predominantly overlapped with those from 339 the main analysis. However, the PRS for LVEF, Tpe interval and resting HR were no 340 longer significant in model AF3, and were replaced by the PRS for CAD and the PR 341 342 interval. In women, inclusion of PRS for cardiovascular risk factors did not significantly contribute to AF risk prediction. The addition of the CAD PRS in the model for men 343 suggests genetic-predisposition to development of an ischemic substrate is an 344 important contributor to AF risk compared to women, as previously reported²⁹, as well 345 as abnormalities in cardiac conduction, which have extensively been linked with AF¹³. 346 Sandhu and colleagues recently demonstrated the added value of a CAD PRS 347 to sex and age in stratifying patients with documented IHD on coronary angiography 348 and cardiovascular comorbidities, according to SCD risk⁷. Our study is the first to 349 report the added value of a CAD PRS to sex and age for prediction of incident VA in 350 the general population, and this improvement held when analysing women and men 351 separately. IHD is the most common risk factor for VA and SCD in middle-aged 352 353 individuals⁶, and identification of individuals early in life with a higher genetic predisposition could improve SCD prevention strategies. Interestingly, our results did 354 not show an added value for the CAD PRS to sex and age alone when performing the 355 analysis separately in individuals with and without prevalent IHD. These findings 356

357 suggest that while a CAD PRS associates with risk for developing IHD, it does not

offer improvements in VA risk stratification when considering the underlying aetiologyfor arrhythmia.

Beyond the presence of ischemia, the causes of malignant VA are multifactorial 360 including cardiomyopathies and inherited channelopathies, which might be reflected 361 on ECG and MRI risk factors through the effects of structural changes, including 362 fibrosis and post myocardial infarction remodeling⁶. In our work, we observed that the 363 PRS for HF, QT dynamics during exercise, HDL and QT interval remained significantly 364 associated with incident VA risk after adjusting for sex, age and the CAD PRS, but 365 366 they did not provide an improvement in risk stratification value. This may be due to small individual effect sizes. In sex-stratified analyses there were similar observations. 367 However, when analysing individuals with prevalent IHD, we observed that inclusion 368 of the PRS for DBP and DCM significantly improved VA risk prediction. The 369 incremental gain by including a DCM PRS could suggest an interaction of ischaemic 370 and non-ischaemic aetiologies in genetically predisposed individuals that contributes 371 to VA risk⁷. Thus, our results extend the observations of Sandhu et al.⁷, and warrant 372 testing of these models in other cohorts including those considered clinically high risk. 373

We also tested the performance of the models trained using individuals with 374 European ancestry in non-European ancestry groups. We observed that the AF and 375 CAD PRS significantly contribute to incident AF and VA prediction, respectively, in 376 377 South Asian ancestry individuals, but not in individuals with African or East Asian ancestry. These findings suggest a good transferability of the AF PRS to a South Asian 378 population, and confirms previous observations for the generalisability of the CAD 379 PRS²⁸. The absence of a significant improvement in African and East Asian individuals 380 could be due to a smaller number of cases, however they may also reflect a need for 381 ancestry-specific PRS for these two populations³⁰. Including multiple CV-PRS in AF3 382

did not improve the performance of AF2 in South Asian ancestry individuals, however it is of interest that the predictive value of CHARGE-AF alone in these individuals was better than AF3 (CHARGE-AF, AF PRS and PRS for multiple cardiovascular risk factors) in European ancestry individuals. This may reflect a greater prevalence of advanced cardiovascular disease in these individuals, that could lessen the additive effect of PRS (Supplementary Table 13).

Regarding the clinical implications of our findings, although the combined 389 models are statistically significantly stronger than the clinical risk scores, the 390 391 improvement is marginal. However, even a small improvement in predictive accuracy can be clinically relevant, particularly if it shifts an individual's risk classification from a 392 lower to a higher risk category, as shown in our NRI results. Our results could inform 393 the design of clinical studies to investigate the utility of these PRSs in patient cohorts 394 and higher risk populations, to identify individuals that would benefit most from more 395 intensive screening for earlier AF detection that would facilitate prompt initiation of 396 anticoagulation. 397

A strength of this work is that we developed specific models for prediction of 398 incident AF and VA, both in the overall population, and in men and women separately. 399 Thus, the results are not biased by an 'a priori' specific selection of PRS for each 400 outcome. Moreover, we used one of the largest cohorts available with detailed 401 402 phenotypic and genetic data and relatively long follow-up. In addition, the inclusion of PRS for robust ECG and MRI risk markers allows an extended characterisation of the 403 genetic architecture of AF and VA risk. There are also some limitations in our study. 404 Firstly, the study is limited to the UK Biobank cohort, which is known to have a healthy 405 volunteer selection bias. Calculation of optimal PRS was performed independently 406 from the samples used to train and test the models, thus minimizing the risk of 407

overfitting. However, validation of these findings in other cohorts at different levels of
risk and in other ethnicities will provide support for further generalizability. We used
variants and effect sizes from multi-ancestry GWAS whenever possible to optimise
transferability across ancestries, following findings from previous studies⁸. However,
multi-ancestry GWAS on ECG and MRI traits are not currently available.

In conclusion, in this large middle-aged population-based cohort, the inclusion 413 414 of PRS for cardiovascular risk factors provides an incremental improvement in prediction of incident AF risk when combined with the CHARGE-AF clinical score and 415 416 an AF PRS. Regarding VA risk, although they did not improve the risk stratification value of sex, age and a CAD PRS for incident VA prediction in the main analysis, they 417 showed a significant contribution in individuals with IHD. Our results also indicate a 418 good transferability of the European AF and CAD PRS for AF and VA risk prediction, 419 respectively, in South Asian ancestry individuals. 420

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425

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539 Main Tables

Trait	Ν	GWAS Paper	Includes UK	Derivation
	variants		Biobank	method
AF	6,730,541	-	No	PGS Catalog (PGS000016)
CAD	6,630,150	-	No	PGS Catalog (PGS000013)
HF	909,256	Wang 2023	No	PRScs
Diabetes	6,917,436	-	No	PGS Catalog (PGS000014)
BMI	2,100,302	-	No	PGS Catalog (PGS000027)
SBP	1,108,568	Evangelou 2018	No	PRScs
DBP	1,110,407	Evangelou 2018	No	PRScs
PP	1,108,602	Evangelou 2018	No	PRScs
HDL	1,107,495	Hoffmann 2018	No	PRScs
LDL	1,107,494	Hoffmann 2018	No	PRScs
triglycerides	1,107,494	Hoffmann 2018	No	PRScs
Resting HR	1,108,747	van de Vegte 2023	No	PRScs
HR Response to exercise	14	Ramírez 2018	Yes	Lead SNVs
to recovery	16	Ramírez 2018	Yes	Lead SNVs
PR	583	Ntalla 2020	No	Lead SNVs
QRS	135	Young 2022	No	Lead SNVs
QT	227	Young 2022	No	Lead SNVs
JT	205	Young 2022	No	Lead SNVs
spQRSTa QT dynamics	53	Young 2022	No	Lead SNVs
during exercise OT dynamics	19	van Duijvenboden 2020	Yes	Lead SNVs
during recovery	3	van Duijvenboden 2022	Yes	Lead SNVs
Tpe interval	28	Ramírez 2020	Yes	Lead SNVs
TMRex	8	Ramírez 2019	Yes	Lead SNVs
TMRrec	8	Ramírez 2019	Yes	Lead SNVs
Brugada syndrome	21	Barc 2022	No	Lead SNVs
DCM	13	Tadros 2021	Yes (controls)	Lead SNVs
HCM	16	-	Yes (controls)	PGS Catalog (PGS000778)
LAAEF	6	Ahlberg 2021	Yes	Lead SNVs
LAmin	3	Ahlberg 2021	Yes	Lead SNVs
LVEDV	22	Pirrucello 2020	Yes	Lead SNVs
LVESV	32	Pirrucello 2020	Yes	Lead SNVs

Table 1: List of polygenic risk scores included in the analysis.

	LVEF	19	Pirrucello 2022	Yes	Lead SNVs
	LVM	465	-	Yes	PGS Catalog (PGS003427)
	RVESV	21	Pirrucello 2022	Yes	Lead SNVs
	RVEDV	14	Pirrucello 2022	Yes	Lead SNVs
	RVEF	12	Pirrucello 2022	Yes	Lead SNVs
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Table 2: Characteristics of the cohort.

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	Risk factor or endpoint	All N = 317,465	Training N = 158,733	Test N = 158,732	Ρ
	Male sex. n (%)	138,929 (43,76)	69.362 (43.70)	69.567 (43.83)	0.462
	Age	58 (13)	58 (13)	58 (13)	0.350
	Diabetes mellitus n (%)	13 847 (4 36)	6 836 (4 31)	7 011 (4 42)	0.128
	Hypertension n (%)	207 715 (65 43)	103 995 (65 52)	103 720 (65 34)	0.303
	Median CHA2DS2-VA	201,110 (00.10)	100,000 (00.02)	100,720 (00.01)	0.000
	score ³¹ (IQR)	1 (1)	1 (1)	1 (1)	0.394
	Median Height (IQR), cm	168 (14)	168 (14)	168 (14)	0.213
	Median Weight (IQR), kg	76.2 (21.1)	76.2 (21.0)	76.2 (21.1)	0.724
	Previous or current smoker, n (%)	34,915 (11.00)	17,471 (11.01)	17,444 (10.99)	0.879
	Use of antihypertensive medications, n (%)	58,237 (18.34)	29,099 (18.33)	29,138 (18.36)	0.857
	Median CHARGE-AF score (IQR)	11.70 (1.45)	11.70 (1.45)	11.70 (1.45)	0.542
	Incident AF events, n (%) Incident VA events, n (%)	20,822 (6.56) 1,243 (0.39)	10,411 (6.56) 622 (0.39)	10,411 (6.56) 621 (0.39)	1.000 0.977
561	IOR interguartile range: SBP	systolic blood pre	essure: DBP_dias	tolic blood press	ure: AF
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562	atrial fibrillation; VA, ventricula	r arrhythmias			
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574 Main figures



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576 Figure 1: Overview of the models and PRS evaluated in this study to predict incident

577 atrial fibrillation and ventricular arrhythmic risk.



580 Figure 2. Flowchart indicating the number of individuals included in the study and the 581 partition into training and test for incident atrial fibrillation (AF) and ventricular 582 arrhythmias (VA) risk prediction.



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Figure 3: Prediction of incident AF risk. (A) Forest plot illustrating the odds ratio of CHARGE-AF score, the AF PRS and each PRS for cardiovascular risk factors and ECG or MRI risk markers that remained significant in the adjusted model. Concordance indices and odds ratios obtained for CHARGE-AF score (magenta), CHARGE-AF and the AF PRS (cyan) and CHARGE-AF, the AF PRS and the PRS depicted in panel (A) (green) for incident AF risk prediction are shown in panels (B) and (C).



Figure 4: Cumulative atrial fibrillation-free survival probability of individuals in the low- (red)

and high-risk (blue) groups for models AF1 (A), AF2 (B), AF3 (C).

603 HR, hazard ratio.



Figure 5: Prediction of incident VA risk. (A) Forest plot illustrating the odds ratio of sex, age, the CAD PRS and each PRS for cardiovascular risk factors and ECG or MRI risk markers that remained significant in the adjusted model. Concordance indices and odds ratios obtained for sex and age score (magenta), sex, age and the CAD PRS (cyan) and sex, age, the CAD PRS and the PRS depicted in panel (A) (green) for incident VA risk prediction are shown in panels (B) and (C).

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617 Figure 6: Cumulative ventricular arrhythmia-free survival probability of individuals in the low-

618 (red) and high-risk (blue) groups for models VA1 (A), VA2 (B) and VA3 (C).

619 HR, hazard ratio.