# Twelve-Month Cognitive Trajectories in Individuals at Ultra-High Risk for Psychosis: A Latent Class Analysis

Kelly Allott<sup>\*,1,2,18,0</sup>, Stefanie J. Schmidt<sup>3,18</sup>, Hok Pan Yuen<sup>1,2</sup>, Stephen J. Wood<sup>1,2,4</sup>, Barnaby Nelson<sup>1,2</sup>, Connie Markulev<sup>1,2</sup>, Suzie Lavoie<sup>1,2</sup>, Warrick J. Brewer<sup>1,2</sup>, Miriam R. Schäfer<sup>1,2</sup>, Nilufar Mossaheb<sup>5</sup>, Monika Schlögelhofer<sup>5</sup>, Stefan Smesny<sup>6</sup>, Ian B. Hickie<sup>7</sup>, Gregor Emanuel Berger<sup>8</sup>, Eric Y. H. Chen<sup>9</sup>, Lieuwe de Haan<sup>10</sup>, Dorien H. Nieman<sup>10</sup>, Merete Nordentoft<sup>11</sup>, Anita Riecher-Rössler<sup>12,0</sup>, Swapna Verma<sup>13</sup>, Andrew Thompson<sup>1,2,14</sup>, Alison R. Yung<sup>1,2,15,16,17</sup>, Paul Amminger<sup>1,2,19</sup>, Patrick D. McGorry<sup>1,2,19</sup>, and Jessica Hartmann<sup>1,2,19</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Orygen, Parkville, Australia; <sup>2</sup>Centre for Youth Mental Health, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, Australia; <sup>3</sup>Department of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology, University of Bern, Switzerland; <sup>4</sup>School of Psychology, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, UK; <sup>5</sup>Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Clinical Division of Social Psychiatry, Medical University Vienna, Vienna, Austria; <sup>6</sup>Department of Psychiatry, University Hospital Jena, Jena, Germany; <sup>7</sup>Brain and Mind Centre, University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia; <sup>8</sup>Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Service of the Canton of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland; <sup>9</sup>Department of Psychiatry, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, Hong Kong; <sup>10</sup>Department of Psychiatry, Amsterdam University Medical Center, Amsterdam, The Netherlands; <sup>11</sup>Mental Health Centre Copenhagen, Department of Clinical Medicine, Copenhagen University Hospital, Copenhagen, Denmark; <sup>12</sup>Medical Faculty, University of Basel, Basel, Switzerland; <sup>13</sup>Institute of Mental Health, Singapore, Singapore; <sup>14</sup>Unit of Mental Health and Wellbeing, Warwick Medical School, University of Warwick, Coventry, UK; <sup>15</sup>Institute for Mental and Physical Health and Clinical Translation (IMPACT), Deakin University, Geelong, Australia; <sup>16</sup>Division of Psychology and Mental Health, University of Manchester, Manchester, UK; <sup>17</sup>Greater Manchester Mental Health NHS Foundation Trust, Manchester, UK

<sup>18</sup>These authors share joint first authorship for this study.

<sup>19</sup>These authors share joint last/senior authorship for this study.

\*To whom correspondence should be addressed; Orygen, 35 Poplar Road, Parkville, VIC, 3029, Australia; tel: +61 407 365 600, e-mail: kelly.allott@orygen.org.au

Understanding longitudinal cognitive performance in individuals at ultra-high risk for psychosis (UHR) is important for informing theoretical models and treatment. A vital step in this endeavor is to determine whether there are UHR subgroups that have similar patterns of cognitive change over time. The aims were to: i) identify latent class trajectories of cognitive performance over 12-months in UHR individuals, ii) identify baseline demographic and clinical predictors of the resulting classes, and iii) determine whether trajectory classes were associated with transition to psychosis or functional outcomes. Cognition was assessed using the Brief Assessment of Cognition in Schizophrenia (BACS) at baseline, 6- and 12-months (N = 288). Using Growth Mixture Modeling, a single unimpaired improving trajectory class was observed for motor function, speed of processing, verbal fluency, and BACS composite. A twoclass solution was observed for executive function and working memory, showing one unimpaired and a second impaired class. A three-class solution was found for verbal learning and memory: unimpaired, mildly impaired, and initially extremely impaired, but improved ("caught up") to the level of the mildly impaired. IQ, omega-3 index, and premorbid adjustment were associated with class membership,

whereas clinical variables (symptoms, substance use), including transition to psychosis, were not. Working memory and verbal learning and memory trajectory class membership was associated with functioning outcomes. These findings suggest there is no short-term progressive cognitive decline in help-seeking UHR individuals, including those who transition to psychosis. Screening of cognitive performance may be useful for identifying UHR individuals who may benefit from targeted cognitive interventions.

*Key words:* cognition/longitudinal/growth mixture modeling/schizophrenia/omega-3 index

Cognitive impairments emerge prior to first-episode psychosis and are a reliable risk factor for psychotic disorders.<sup>1–5</sup> On average, individuals at ultra-high risk (UHR) for psychosis<sup>6</sup> have poorer cognitive functioning at ascertainment than healthy controls, and those who later transition to psychotic disorder have significantly greater cognitive impairments than UHR individuals who do not transition.<sup>1,2,4</sup> However, the longitudinal course of cognitive functioning in UHR individuals and its relationship with the onset of psychotic disorder and

<sup>©</sup> The Author(s) 2022. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the University of Maryland's school of medicine, Maryland Psychiatric Research Center.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial License (https://creativecommons.org/ licenses/by-nc/4.0/), which permits non-commercial re-use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com Page 1 of 11

other clinical, sociodemographic and functional characteristics is poorly understood. This is an important area of investigation for theoretical and treatment reasons.

Figure 1 shows five hypothetical trajectories of cognitive functioning in early-stage psychosis. Relative to the normative course of cognitive functioning, the early trajectory of cognitive functioning in psychotic disorders (particularly schizophrenia) could reflect a stable *deficit*, developmental lag (slower rate of improvement, indicated by increasing deficit over time), or *deterioration*.<sup>7</sup> Evidence supporting each of these cognitive trajectories has come from large cohort studies that have examined cognitive performance longitudinally in people prior to and after being diagnosed with schizophrenia or other psychotic disorders.<sup>7-11</sup> Different cognitive trajectories have been observed depending on the cognitive domain assessed, the stage of life (e.g., childhood, adolescence, adulthood) and stage of illness (e.g., prodromal, firstepisode) examined, and the length of follow-up period.

Within UHR samples specifically, current evidence suggests that while deficits are evident at ascertainment, longitudinal performance in most cognitive domains remains relatively stable or improves, including in the period following transition to psychotic disorder.<sup>12-16</sup> These trajectories could reflect developmental deficit or lag, although improvement suggests the possibility of an initial *delay* with "catch-up"<sup>15,17</sup> (Figure 1), perhaps within the context of effective treatment. It is also noteworthy that some longitudinal studies have observed no *deficit* in some cognitive domains (Figure 1),<sup>16,18</sup> and one recent study observed a *deterioration* in verbal learning and memory over 10 years in UHR individuals,<sup>12</sup> a finding consistent with an earlier 1-year longitudinal study.<sup>16</sup> A limitation of UHR studies published to date is that cognitive assessments have only been conducted at two time-points, which restrains modeling the dynamic course of cognitive performance. Furthermore, analyses have been based on whole UHR samples versus healthy controls or pre-defined sub-groups (e.g., transition versus

non-transition), which are known to be cognitively heterogeneous.<sup>19</sup> Latent subgroups with similar cognitive trajectories may exist within UHR cohorts, and through their identification improved prognostication and personalized treatment may be possible.

An extensive body of cross-sectional research has parsed the cognitive heterogeneity observed in psychosis using data-driven cluster analytic approaches; recent reviews suggest between 2–5 latent cognitive subgroups across the psychotic-bipolar disorder spectrum.<sup>20,21</sup> To our knowledge, only one study has applied cluster analysis to cognitive performance in UHR individuals, finding four cognitive clusters.<sup>19</sup> Membership of the most impaired cognitive cluster at baseline was associated with a higher likelihood of transition to psychotic disorder, a diagnosis of schizophrenia, and poorer 1-year functional outcome.<sup>19</sup>

An open question is whether there are UHR subgroups with different latent class cognitive trajectories (Figure 1). Identifying subgroups that show different patterns of cognitive change over time is important for understanding associations with illness progression or recovery, as well as non-illness factors, and identifying subgroup(s) in need of tailored treatment. Latent class cognitive trajectories have been identified in established schizophrenia<sup>22-24</sup> using Growth Mixture Modeling or Group-Based Trajectory Modeling. These are flexible, data-driven within-subject methods that classify individuals who have similar patterns of change over time into subgroups. To the best of our knowledge, no previous study has used a data-driven approach to determine whether latent subgroups with comparable trajectories in separate cognitive domains exist in UHR populations, and how these trajectories relate to premorbid/baseline illness and nonillness factors and outcome. The aim of the current study was to i) identify latent classes with different trajectories of cognitive performance over 12-months in UHR individuals, ii) identify demographic and baseline clinical predictors of the resultant classes, and iii) determine

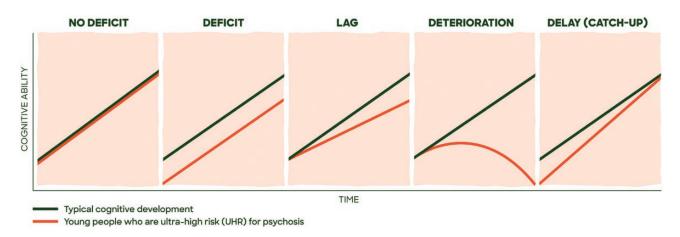


Figure 1. Hypothetical cognitive trajectories in people at risk of psychosis. Adapted and reprinted with permission from the American Journal of Psychiatry (Copyright ©2010). American Psychiatric Association. All Rights Reserved.

whether identified classes are associated with transition to psychosis and functional outcomes.

## **Materials and Methods**

## Design, Procedure, and Participants

This study involved secondary analysis of data from international multi-site randomized controlled an ("Neurapro"; 12608000475347).25 trial ACTRN: Comprehensive details of the study methodology are provided elsewhere.<sup>25</sup> Briefly, UHR individuals were randomly allocated to either long-chain omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids plus cognitive behavioral case management (CBCM), or placebo plus CBCM for 6-months. Cognitive assessment was conducted at baseline, 6-months, and 12-months. There were no significant group differences on the primary (transition to psychosis) or secondary (clinical, functioning) outcomes of the trial,<sup>26,27</sup> but cell membrane markers (eicosapentaenoic acid [EPA], docosahexaenoic acid [DHA], omega-3 index [EPA+DHA]) were associated with functional and symptomatic outcomes.<sup>28</sup> Treatment groups were therefore combined for the current study<sup>29</sup> and omega-3 index included in the analysis. Participants provided informed written consent. Ethics approval was received from the Melbourne Health Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC#:2008.628).

## Measures

*Cognitive Functioning.* Cognition was assessed with the Brief Assessment of Cognition in Schizophrenia (BACS).<sup>30</sup> The BACS examines six cognitive domains, including verbal learning and memory (Verbal Memory task), working memory (Digit Sequencing task), motor function (Token Motor task), verbal fluency (Semantic Fluency and Letter Fluency tasks), speed of processing (Symbol Coding task), and executive function (Tower of London task). T-scores (M = 50, SD = 10) derived from the BACS normative sample were calculated for each cognitive domain and a BACS Composite T-score was calculated by averaging the six standardized domain scores.

*Baseline Independent Variables.* Demographic variables included age, sex, years of education, and premorbid adjustment. Premorbid adjustment was assessed using the Premorbid Adjustment Scale (PAS).<sup>31</sup> The average subscale score from the Childhood, Early Adolescence, and Late Adolescence items was used; higher scores indicate poorer premorbid adjustment. A two-subtest shortform (Vocabulary/Matrix Reasoning) of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale–3<sup>rd</sup> Edition<sup>32,33</sup> was administered at baseline to estimate IQ.

Clinical variables included omega-3 index (fasting cell membrane levels of EPA+DHA assessed by gas chromatography),<sup>34</sup> substance use, symptoms, and

functioning. Substance use (specifically alcohol and cannabis) was assessed with the Alcohol, Smoking, and Substance Involvement Screening Test (ASSIST).<sup>35</sup> The Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale (BPRS)<sup>36</sup> assessed total and positive symptom (suspiciousness, unusual thought content, hallucinations, conceptual disorganization) severity. The Scale for the Assessment of Negative Symptoms (SANS)<sup>37</sup> assessed total negative symptom severity and the Montgomery-Åsberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS)<sup>38</sup> measured depressive symptom severity. Higher scores indicate higher levels of substance use and symptomatology. The Social and Occupational Functioning Assessment Scale (SOFAS)<sup>39</sup> assessed global functioning; higher scores indicate better functioning.

*Transition and Functioning Outcomes.* Transition to psychosis was defined and assessed according to the operationalized criteria of the Comprehensive Assessment of the At-Risk Mental State.<sup>40</sup> Functioning was assessed with the SOFAS<sup>39</sup> at 12-month and mediumterm follow-up.<sup>27</sup>

# Statistical Analysis

Identifying Cognitive Trajectories. Growth mixture modeling (GMM) was used to identify subpopulations with comparable growth trajectories over time ("latent classes"). T-scores of all cognitive domains at all three time-points (baseline, 6-months, 12-months) were included in the GMM. Participants with at least one cognitive assessment were included in the analyses with missing values handled using Full Information Maximum Likelihood, assuming missingness at random. Variance around the growth parameters (i.e., intercept and slope) was allowed to vary within the latent classes. To identify the optimal number of latent classes, unconditional models with cumulative number of classes ranging from 1-4 were fitted. Number of classes was selected based on interpretability of classes, including sufficient number of cases per class ( $\geq 5\%$ , i.e., 15 participants) and common fit information criteria: Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC), sample size adjusted BIC (aBIC), entropy values, Vuong-Lo-Mendall-Rubin, Lo-Mendall-Rubin Adjusted and bootstrap likelihood ratio test. Lower values of AIC, BIC, aBIC, and higher entropy indicate better fitting models.<sup>41</sup> Likelihood ratio tests provide a quantitative comparison between the model of interest with C and C-1 classes. A significant test (P < .05) indicates the model with C-1 classes should be rejected and the model with C classes should be favored.41,42 Recommendations based on simulation studies prefer BIC/aBIC and Likelihood-based indices over AIC.<sup>41,43</sup> Moreover, entropy is used as a decisive indicator only when selecting among models with very similar fit indices.43,44

It would have been preferable to estimate trajectory classes and their predictors/outcomes within the one

model, but due to the small number of cases per class, the class membership of each participant was saved and merged with the original data for separate analyses of predictors and outcomes.

*Baseline Predictors of Cognitive Trajectories.* Differences between trajectory classes for each cognitive domain on the baseline variables of interest were examined using Fisher's exact test for categorical variables and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for continuous variables. Class membership of each cognitive domain was then entered as dependent variables in separate logistic regression (2 classes) or multinomial regression (3 classes) analyses. Baseline predictors included: age, sex, years of education, premorbid adjustment (PAS average), IQ, omega-3 index, alcohol, and cannabis use (ASSIST), symptoms (BPRS total and psychotic, SANS total, MADRS), and functioning (SOFAS).

Cognitive Trajectories and Relationship to Transition and Functioning. Cognitive trajectory classes were determined using cognitive data collected at set time-points from baseline to 12-months, but the known psychosis transitions occurred at variable times, including before and after 12-months; thus, there was temporal incompatibility between the measurement of cognitive trajectory classes and transition to psychosis. In order to resolve this incompatibility, only transition status (yes/no) within 12-months from baseline (i.e., the same timeframe for cognitive trajectory class determination) was examined. As our aim was to determine whether transition affects trajectory (and not whether trajectory predicts later transition), transition status was recorded as "no" for those who transitioned after 12-months (i.e., transition times >365 days; n = 10). Additionally, for those whose transition times were censored before 12-months (i.e., they dropped out before 12-months and could not have their 12-month transition status determined; n = 51) we could either assume their 12-month transition status was "no" or exclude them from analysis. We ran the analyses using both scenarios using Fisher's exact test and then repeated the logistic/multinomial regression analysis with 12-month transition status (yes/no) added as an independent variable.

Differences in functioning (SOFAS) at 12-month and medium-term follow-up (3.4 years) among the cognitive trajectory classes were examined using ANOVA and Cohen's d effect sizes. Analyses were conducted using Mplus (Version 8.1), SPSS (Version 25), and R.<sup>45</sup>

## Results

Sixteen of the original N = 304 Neurapro participants did not complete any cognitive assessments; thus, 288 participants were included in the current study (n = 287completed baseline, n = 226 completed 6-month and n = 188 completed 12-month cognitive assessments) (Table 1). There were no significant differences in baseline demographic and clinical variables between individuals who completed a baseline assessment only and those with follow-up cognitive data (data not shown).

## Latent Class Trajectories

Figure 2 shows the latent class trajectories identified through GMM and Table 2 shows the parameter estimates of the latent growth classes (Supplementary Table 1 shows fit indices). A single class was most appropriate for verbal fluency, speed of processing, motor function, and BACS composite (Figure 2a-d). For verbal fluency, the single-class solution had the lowest AIC-, BIC-, and aBIC-values, while the Likelihood-based indices did not suggest a distinct class-solution. For speed of processing, the single-class solution had the lowest BIC-value (two- and four-class solutions included classes with small participant numbers per class, 2.0% and 1.5%. respectively). The same applied to motor function, which had the smallest BIC-value (AIC/aBIC suggested a fourclass solution, but lowest class frequency = 0.5%; entropy/Likelihood-tests a two-class solution, but lowest class frequency = 1.1%). For the BACS composite, contrary to the information fit criteria, a single-class solution was selected as all other class solutions produced class frequencies between 1.4 and 3.8%. Each single class was characterized by age-typical (average) performance (T-scores 45–50) with significant slight improvement over the 12-month period (Table 2).

**Table 1.** Baseline Characteristics of the Sample (N = 288)

	Mean/ Number	SD (Min-Max)/ Proportion
Demographic variables		
Age	19.1	4.6 (13-39)
Sex (Female)	158	54.9%
Country of birth (Native)	263	91.3%
Education (Years)	10.3	3.3 (2-21)
Premorbid Adjustment	0.29	0.14 (0-0.69)
Estimated IQ	102.8	14.7 (63–145)
Clinical variables		
BPRS Total	41.4	9.9 (24-86)
BPRS Psychotic	8.2	2.6 (4-16)
SANS Total	18.4	13.1 (0-63)
MADRS Total	19.4	9.0 (0-45)
ASSIST Alcohol Use	5.7	5.4 (0-26)
ASSIST Cannabis Use	4.0	6.8 (0-26)
SOFAS	53.5	11.9 (25-85)
Omega-3 index	7.3	1.8 (1.1–14.9)

*Note:* SD, Standard Deviation; BPRS, Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale; SANS, Scale for the Assessment of Negative Symptoms; MADRS, Montgomery-Åsberg Depression Scale; ASSIST, Alcohol, Smoking and Substance Involvement Screening Test; SOFAS, Social and Occupational Functioning Assessment Scale.

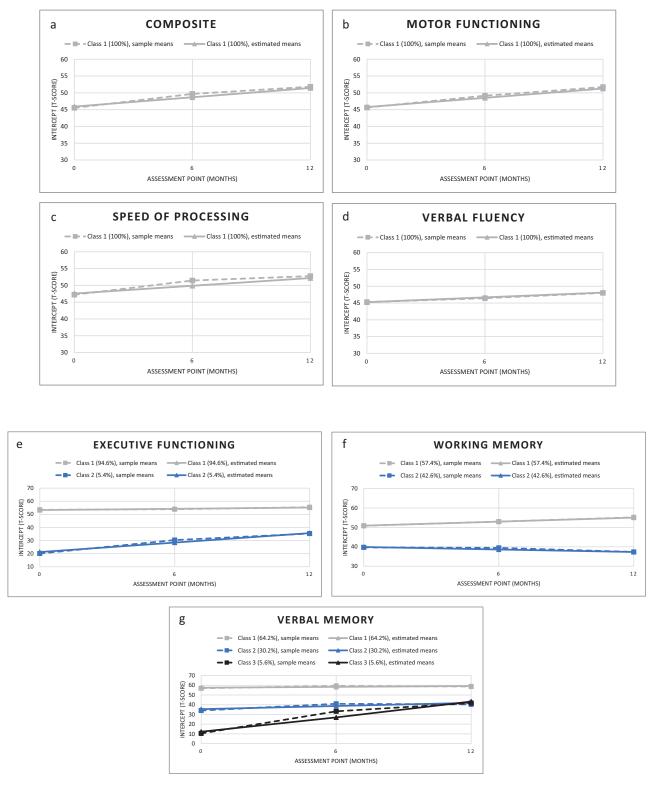


Figure 2. Twelve-month latent class trajectories for each cognitive domain.

A two-class solution was observed for executive function and working memory (Figure 2e-f). For executive function, this was based on the Likelihood-based indices and entropy and small class frequency for a four-class solution (2.4%). Class 1 (n = 272; 94.4%) was characterised by unimpaired (average) mildly improving performance (T-score >50) and class 2 (n = 16; 5.6%) was extremely impaired at baseline (T-score ~21) and significantly improved over the 12-month period, but remained impaired relative to class 1 (T-score ~35). For working

 Table 2. Unstandardised Parameter Estimates of Latent Growth

 Classes

Cognitive domain	Class	Intercept	Slope
		Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
BACSComposite	Class 1	45.91	0.46
1		(0.80)***	(0.05)***
Motor function	Class 1	45.77	0.46
		(0.64)***	(0.06)***
Speed of processing	Class 1	47.56	0.39
		(0.72)***	(0.05)***
Verbal fluency	Class 1	45.25	0.24
		$(0.70)^{***}$	(0.05)***
Executive function	Class 1	53.27	0.16 (0.06)**
		(0.48)***	
	Class 2	21.24	1.20 (0.41)**
		(3.98)***	
Working memory	Class 1	50.90	0.34
		(1.25)***	(0.06)***
	Class 2	39.89	-0.22 (0.11)
		(1.22)***	
Verbal learning and	Class 1	57.56	0.14 (0.07)*
memory		(0.93)***	
	Class 2	35.47	0.54
		(2.06)***	(0.13)***
	Class 3	12.21	2.46 (0.73)**
		(2.68)***	

*Note:* \*P < .05, \*\*P < .01, \*\*\*P < .001

memory, class 1 (n = 170; 59.0%) showed an unimpaired (average) performance (T-score ~50), with significant mild improvement over time, and class 2 (n = 118; 41.0%) showed a mildly impaired performance (T-score ~40) that remained stable over time.

Finally, a three-class solution with significant improvement in all classes was found for verbal learning and memory (Figure 2g) based on the BIC and entropy; class 1 (n = 185; 64.2%) was unimpaired (average; T-score >55), class 2 (n = 86; 29.9%) was mildly impaired (T-score ~35), and class 3 (n = 17; 5.9%) was extremely impaired at baseline (T-score <15), but improved to the level of class 2 (mildly impaired) at 12-months.

Association Between Baseline Variables and Latent Cognitive Trajectories. Table 3 shows baseline demographic, premorbid, and clinical information according to latent trajectory classes for executive function (2 classes), working memory (2 classes), and verbal learning and memory (3 classes). The unique contribution of these variables to class membership was determined using logistic (executive function, working memory) and multinomial (verbal learning and memory; the "average" class set as the reference class) regression analyses. For executive function, IQ was the only significant predictor of class membership. Higher IQ was associated with lower likelihood of belonging to the "impaired" class (OR = 0.90, 95% CI = 0.84–0.95, P < .001). For working memory. IO was again the only significant predictor of class membership, where higher IQ was associated with lower likelihood of belonging to the "impaired" class (OR = 0.94, 95% CI = 0.92-0.96, P < .001). For verbal learning and memory, the omega-3 index, IQ, and premorbid adjustment were significantly associated with class membership. Specifically, a higher omega-3 index was associated with a higher likelihood of belonging to the "extremely impaired" compared with the "average" class (OR = 1.61, 95% CI = 1.10–2.35, P = .016). Higher IO was associated with lower likelihood of belonging to either of the impaired classes compared with the "average" class (Ors = 0.93-0.94, 95% Cis = 0.90-0.96/0.90-0.99, P < .001). Finally, lower premorbid adjustment was associated with higher likelihood of belonging to the "extremely impaired" class compared with the "average" class (OR = 200, 95% CI = 11-3663, P < .001). See Supplementary Table 2 for full details. Given baseline symptom variables were not associated with cognitive class membership, we checked whether changes in symptoms over 12-months differed between the trajectory classes. Executive function, working memory, and verbal learning and memory trajectory classes did not significantly differ in symptom change over the 12-months (Supplementary Table 3).

Transition Status and Functioning Outcomes in Relation to Cognitive Trajectories. Of the included participants, 28 (9.7%) were known to transition to psychosis within the 12-month period (i.e., period determining class membership; n = 16 transitioned before and n = 12 after 6-months). Supplementary Table 4 shows the differences between trajectory classes in relation to 12-month transition rates and Supplementary Table 5 shows mean time to transition within each class, which shows minimal difference between them. Only the working memory classes differed in transition rates, with a significantly higher number of transition cases in the "impaired" compared with the "average" class. When the previous logistic and multinomial regression analyses were repeated with transition status added as an additional independent variable, results remained similar to the previous analyses. Transition status was not significantly associated with cognitive trajectory class membership in any of the three cognitive domains (Supplementary Tables 6 and 7).

Supplementary Table 8 shows the differences between classes in functioning (SOFAS) at 12-month and medium-term follow-up. The working memory classes differed significantly, where the "average" class had significantly higher functioning than the "impaired" class at both 12-months (d = 0.42) and medium-term follow-up (d = 0.40). The verbal learning and memory classes also differed significantly, where the "average" class had significantly higher functioning than the mildly impaired class

		Verbal learnin	ng and memory		D	Working memory	Executive function	ncuon
		Average $(n = 185)$	Mildly Impaired $(n = 86)$	Extremely Impaired $(n = 17)$	Average $(n = 170)$	Impaired $(n = 118)$	Average $(n = 272)$	Impaired $(n = 16)$
Sex	% male	52.4 002	33.7	23.5	51.8	35.6	46.0 207	31.2
	r-value	5 01	10.0		.000 10.5	105	100.001	010
280	SD	44	4.4	20.7	46	4.4	44	6.12
	P-value <sup>2</sup>	.014	÷	2	020	t F	.012	0.0
Education (Years)	mean	10.6	9.8	9.8	10.6	9.8	10.3	10.2
~	SD	3.5	2.6	3.0	3.3	3.2	3.3	2.6
	<i>P</i> -value <sup>2</sup>	.213			.042		.953	
Premorbid Adjustment	mean	0.26	0.35	0.33	0.27	0.33	0.29	0.36
	SD $P_{-Value^2}$	0.14 < 001	0.14	0.14	0.13 < 001	0.14	0.14	0.15
Estimated IO	- value	107.6	04.4	03 7	107.8	05 3	103.8	652
	SD	13.4	13.0	13.9	14.4	11.9	14.3	10.4
	P-value <sup>2</sup>	<.001			<.001		<.001	
BPRS Total	mean	40.6	42.5	44.1	41.1	41.8	41.3	42.4
	SD .	9.5 177	9.7	13.8	9.6	10.3	9.5	14.8
	P-value⁴	.10/			875	1	800.	
BPRS Psychotic	SD	7.9 2.5	8.8 7 7	8.6 3 3	8.0 2.5	6.5 0 C	2.8 2.6	8.I 3.3
	P-value <sup>2</sup>	.031		2	.126	2	.771	
SANS Total	mean	18.2	18.1	21.1	18.1	18.8	18.3	19.3
	SD	13.7	11.4	14.7	13.3	12.8	13.1	13.9
	P-value <sup>2</sup>	.670			.673		.766	
MADRS Total	mean	18.7	20.7	20.6	19.1	19.9	19.4	19.7
	SD B moluo2	8.5 107	9.8	10.3	8.5	9.7	8.9 004	11.0
A COLOT Aloched ILee	r-value	.171.	5 1	τ c	00.4.	22	- 704. 7	07
aso initoria i cicc.		0.0	0.1 2 0		0.0	0.0	). / / /	, 4 ער ג
	$D_{\rm evilor}$	2.0	<i><b>K</b>.C</i>	ς.ς	2.6	c.c	5.57 5.57	C.C
A SSIST Cannahis Use	urean	4.4	3.0	0.4	4.00	4.0	4.0	3 4
	SD	7.1	6.8	1.0	6.6	7.2	6.8	7.6
	P-value <sup>2</sup>	.072		0	.975	1	.712	
SOFAS	mean	53.6	53.9	49.2	54.0	52.7	53.7	50.0
	SD	12.5	10.7	11.7	12.1	11.8	11.9	12.2
	P-value <sup>2</sup>	.345			.386		.232	
Omega-3 index	mean	7.3	7.2	8.6	7.3	7.4	7.3	8.4
1	SD	1.8	1.7	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.8	2.1
	P-value <sup>2</sup>	.013			.656		.023	3

Table 3. Baseline Characteristics of the Latent Class Trajectories for Verbal Learning and Memory, Working Memory and Executive Function

Latent Class Cognitive Trajectories in UHR

at 12-months (d = 0.42) and higher functioning than both impaired clusters at medium-term follow-up (d = 0.38and 1.15, respectively). Though, the extremely impaired class was very small (n = 4) due to missing SOFAS data.

## Discussion

These findings extend previous UHR studies of longitudinal cognitive performance through the first application, to our knowledge, of data-driven analyses for identifying latent cognitive trajectories in a relatively large sample. The finding of longitudinal improvement in cognitive performance across several cognitive domains and most latent classes is consistent with some previous studies.<sup>12–14</sup> Our findings suggest that individuals with unimpaired cognitive functioning at UHR ascertainment can be expected to remain unimpaired for at least 12-months while receiving treatment, regardless of transition status. Furthermore, in the case of working memory and verbal learning and memory, unimpaired cognition over time was associated with better functioning outcomes. This finding concurs with previous studies.<sup>19,46-48</sup> Thus, brief cognitive screening is likely to be helpful for guiding clinical prognostication and treatment decision-making, such that interventions specifically targeting cognitive functioning should only be offered to individuals with impaired cognition at ascertainment. To date, most clinical trials of cognitive remediation in UHR included participants with unimpaired cognition, which may partly explain their small effects (e.g.,  $^{49, 50}$ ).

Impaired cognitive trajectory classes were identified in the working memory, executive functioning, and verbal learning and memory domains. The impaired working memory class reflected a subtle lag, given it remained stable and the unimpaired class significantly improved. While both executive functioning classes improved, Figure 2 suggests a *delay* in the impaired class, as there is evidence of some degree of "catch-up". For verbal learning and memory, the mildly impaired class showed a stable *deficit* relative to the unimpaired class (as they both improved), whereas the extremely impaired class showed "catch-up" to the mildly impaired class. These findings suggest that screening for deficits in working memory, executive functioning, and verbal learning and memory may be especially useful for guiding targeted early intervention.

As we did not recruit a demographically-matched healthy comparison group (i.e., age, sex, geographically-matched sample), nor a clinical comparison group, we cannot determine the degree of practice effects evident in each class or whether the cognitive class trajectories observed in the current study are *specifically* associated with UHR status. Indeed, transdiagnostic research in youth with early-stage mental illness has shown cognitive cluster membership to be independent of diagnosis and more strongly associated with functional outcome.<sup>51,52</sup>

Further, a previous data-driven study found 6-year cognitive class trajectories in people with schizophrenia and healthy controls were very similar, suggesting that cognitive heterogeneity is not entirely explained by illnessrelated factors.<sup>24</sup> In the current study, baseline symptoms and substance use were not associated with the observed classes, nor was change in symptoms over 12-months. The lack of longitudinal association between cognition and symptomatology is consistent with previous UHR research,<sup>12</sup> but contrasts with full-threshold stages of psychotic illness, where higher negative symptoms especially, are associated with membership within impaired cognitive clusters cross-sectionally<sup>53-55</sup> and longitudinally<sup>22,23</sup> (relative to unimpaired). Possibly, the relationship between poorer cognition and psychosis becomes progressively stronger with stage of illness; an association that may be indicative of illness severity.

Although the proportion of individuals who transitioned to psychosis differed between the two working memory classes in univariate analysis, when transition status was considered alongside other demographic and clinical variables, it was not associated with trajectory class membership. While poorer cognitive functioning at UHR ascertainment is a well-established predictor (i.e., risk factor) of later transition to psychotic disorder,<sup>1,4,19,56–58</sup> the current weight of evidence suggests that transition to psychosis is not associated with the cognitive *course* over the short-term.<sup>14</sup> Nevertheless, it is possible that the number of people who transitioned over 12-months was too small for transition status to become uniquely associated with working memory trajectory class membership, suggesting caution in interpreting this finding. It might also be that transition to psychosis is less relevant to long-term outcome than persistent negative symptoms<sup>59,60</sup> or cognition.<sup>61</sup> In the current study, 12-month cognition class membership was significantly associated with medium-term functional outcome.

The most consistent predictor of cognitive trajectory class membership for the domains of working memory, executive functioning, and verbal learning and memory was baseline estimated IQ, with a higher IQ being associated with a lower likelihood of belonging to the impaired classes in all three cognitive domains. Several cross-sectional cluster analytic studies have shown that both premorbid and current IQ contribute to the prediction of cognitive class membership in first-episode53-55,62 and persistent psychosis.<sup>54,63,64</sup> Our findings fit with a 6-year longitudinal study of people with schizophrenia and their siblings, where IQ was significantly lower in patients and siblings who belonged to a cognitive trajectory class characterized by persistent mild to severe impairment, compared with those who had persistently unimpaired cognitive function.<sup>23</sup>

Baseline omega-3 index was significantly associated with verbal learning and memory trajectory class membership, which is a novel finding. A higher baseline omega-3 index was associated with a higher likelihood of membership in the extremely impaired class relative to the average class. Notably, the extremely impaired class showed the steepest rate of improvement over the 12-month period. We might speculate that the omega-3 index confers longer-term protective effects for memory function, specifically in those who initially present with extreme impairment. Further investigation of omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids as useful biomarkers for cognitive course seems warranted.

Another novel finding was that premorbid adjustment also contributed significantly to prediction of verbal learning and memory trajectory class membership in UHR individuals. Previous studies have shown significant associations between poorer premorbid adjustment and deficits in learning and memory and global cognition in first-episode psychosis<sup>62,65,66</sup> and processing speed and general cognitive performance in established schizophrenia.<sup>67,68</sup> This lends support for neurodevelopmental origins of cognitive trajectory,<sup>7</sup> where the likely path of cognitive performance may be evident early on and more strongly associated with premorbid, rather than illnessrelated factors. Still, persistent symptoms or treatment may impart cumulative impacts (positive or negative) on cognitive functioning over time. Negative symptoms and institutionalization were found to increase one's risk for belonging to a cognitive deterioration trajectory class in older people with schizophrenia.<sup>22,23</sup> While background treatment during the trial was relatively controlled and no one received antipsychotics or mood stabilizers,<sup>26</sup> future research is needed to better delineate the early effects of different treatments on cognition.

Several limitations warrant mention. A 12-month follow-up is relatively short, limiting more precise modeling of the shape of the trajectories (e.g., by piecewise modeling) and detecting deterioration as in some previous studies.<sup>10,12,69</sup> Due to low case numbers per class, it was necessary to estimate trajectory class predictors/ outcomes separately, whereas simultaneous modeling is preferable. Absence of demographically-matched healthy or clinical controls limits the ability to examine practice effects or the specificity of cognitive trajectory classes to UHR. As the assessments of cognition and transition to psychosis did not occur over exactly the same period, we could not consider the association between transition to psychosis between the 12-month and medium-term follow-up (3.4 years) on cognitive trajectory. The number of transitioned cases within the 12-month period was relatively low, perhaps reducing power to detect an association between transition status and cognitive trajectory class membership and also limiting statistical power to include time to transition in the analysis.

In conclusion, data-driven modeling is useful for identifying subgroups with similar cognitive trajectories in help-seeking young people at increased risk for psychosis, where the nature of cognitive trajectory is highly complex during this significant period of neurodevelopment. We found evidence for discrete 12-month latent class trajectories in the domains of working memory, executive function, and verbal learning and memory, which mostly differed in their intercept (baseline severity) and most classes showed significant improvement. IQ, premorbid adjustment, and omega-3 index were associated with trajectory class membership, but symptoms and transition to psychosis status were not. Working memory and verbal learning and memory latent class trajectory membership was associated with functional outcome. These findings require replication in independent UHR samples and their specificity should be determined through comparison to healthy and clinical control samples. Further research should aim to precisely delineate the relationship between cognitive course and treatment effects. Nevertheless, cognitive screening is likely to guide treatment decision-making in UHR individuals.

## **Supplementary Material**

Supplementary data are available at *Schizophrenia Bulletin Open* online.

## Funding

This work was supported by grant 07TGF-1102 from the Stanley Medical Research Institute, grant 566529 from the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) Australia (Drs McGorry, Hickie, and Yung, and Amminger), and a grant from the Colonial Foundation. Dr Allott was supported by a Career Development Fellowship from the NHMRC Australia (1141207) and a Dame Kate Campbell Fellowship from The University of Melbourne; Drs Amminger and Yung were supported by NHMRC Senior Research Fellowships 1080963 and 566593, respectively; Dr Nelson was supported by NHMRC Career Development Fellowship 1027532; and Dr McGorry was supported by Senior Principal Research Fellowship 1060996 from the NHMRC.

## **Conflict of Interest**

The authors have declared that there are no conflicts of interest in relation to the subject of this study.

## References

- 1. Hauser M, Zhang JP, Sheridan EM, *et al.* Neuropsychological test performance to enhance identification of subjects at clinical high risk for psychosis and to be most promising for predictive algorithms for conversion to psychosis: a meta-analysis. *J Clin Psychiatry.* 2017;78(1):e28–e40.
- Allott K, Lin A. Cognitive risk factors for psychosis. In: Thompson AD, Broome MR, editors. *Risk Factors for Psychosis: Paradigms, Mechanisms, and Prevention*. London: Elsevier Science; 2020:269–87.

- Seidman LJ, Shapiro DI, Stone WS, et al. Association of neurocognition with transition to psychosis: baseline functioning in the second phase of the North American Prodrome Longitudinal Study. JAMA Psychiatry. 2016;73(12):1239–1248.
- Catalan A, Salazar de Pablo G, Aymerich C, et al. Neurocognitive functioning in individuals at clinical high risk for psychosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA Psychiatry. 2021. doi:10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2021.1290
- Riecher-Rössler A, Pflueger MO, Aston J, et al. Efficacy of using cognitive status in predicting psychosis: a 7-year follow-up. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2009;66(11):1023–1030.
- Yung AR, Phillips LJ, Yuen HP, McGorry PD. Risk factors for psychosis in an ultra high-risk group: psychopathology and clinical features. *Schizophr Res.* 2004;67(2-3):131–142.
- Reichenberg A, Caspi A, Harrington H, et al. Static and dynamic cognitive deficits in childhood preceding adult schizophrenia: a 30-year study. Am J Psychiatry. 2010;167(2):160–169.
- Mollon J, David AS, Zammit S, Lewis G, Reichenberg A. Course of cognitive development from infancy to early adulthood in the psychosis spectrum. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2018;75(3):270–279.
- Meier MH, Caspi A, Reichenberg A, et al. Neuropsychological decline in schizophrenia from the premorbid to the postonset period: evidence from a population-representative longitudinal study. Am J Psychiatry. 2014;171(1):91–101.
- 10. Zanelli J, Mollon J, Sandin S, *et al.* Cognitive change in schizophrenia and other psychoses in the decade following the first episode. *Am J Psychiatry.* 2019;176(10):811–819.
- Fett AJ, Velthorst E, Reichenberg A, et al. Long-term changes in cognitive functioning in individuals with psychotic disorders: findings from the Suffolk County Mental Health Project. JAMA Psychiatry. 2019;77(4):387–96.
- Allott K, Wood SJ, Yuen HP, et al. Longitudinal cognitive performance in individuals at ultrahigh risk for psychosis: a 10-year follow-up. Schizophr Bull. 2019;45(5):1101–1111.
- Carrión RE, McLaughlin D, Auther AM, Olsen R, Correll CU, Cornblatt BA. The impact of psychosis on the course of cognition: a prospective, nested case-control study in individuals at clinical high-risk for psychosis. *Psychol Med.* 2015;45(15):3341–3354.
- 14. Bora E, Murray RM. Meta-analysis of cognitive deficits in ultra-high risk to psychosis and first-episode psychosis: do the cognitive deficits progress over, or after, the onset of psychosis? *Schizophr Bull.* 2014;40(4):744–755.
- Lam M, Lee J, Rapisarda A, *et al.* Longitudinal cognitive changes in young individuals at ultrahigh risk for psychosis. *JAMA Psychiatry.* 2018;75(9):929–939.
- 16. Woodberry KA, McFarlane WR, Giuliano AJ, *et al.* Change in neuropsychological functioning over one year in youth at clinical high risk for psychosis. *Schizophr Res.* 2013;146(1-3):87–94.
- 17. Dickson H, Cullen AE, Jones R, *et al.* Trajectories of cognitive development during adolescence among youth at-risk for schizophrenia. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry.* 2018;59(11):1215–1224.
- Pantelis C, Wannan C, Bartholomeusz CF, et al. Cognitive intervention in early psychosis—preserving abilities versus remediating deficits. Curr Opin Behav Sci. 2015;4:63–72.
- Velthorst E, Meyer EC, Giuliano AJ, et al. Neurocognitive profiles in the prodrome to psychosis in NAPLS-1. Schizophr Res. 2019;204:311–319.

- Carruthers SP, Van Rheenen TE, Gurvich C, Sumner PJ, Rossell SL. Characterising the structure of cognitive heterogeneity in schizophrenia spectrum disorders. A systematic review and narrative synthesis. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev.* 2019;107:252–278.
- Green MJ, Girshkin L, Kremerskothen K, Watkeys O, Quidé Y. A systematic review of studies reporting datadriven cognitive subtypes across the psychosis spectrum. *Neuropsychol Rev.* 2020;30(4):446-460.
- 22. Thompson WK, Savla GN, Vahia IV, *et al.* Characterizing trajectories of cognitive functioning in older adults with schizophrenia: does method matter? *Schizophr Res.* 2013;143(1):90–96.
- 23. Islam MA, Habtewold TD, van Es FD, *et al.*; GROUP Investigators. Long-term cognitive trajectories and heterogeneity in patients with schizophrenia and their unaffected siblings. *Acta Psychiatr Scand.* 2018;138(6):591–604.
- 24. Habtewold TD, Liemburg EJ, Islam MA, *et al.*; GROUP Investigators. Association of schizophrenia polygenic risk score with data-driven cognitive subtypes: a six-year longitudinal study in patients, siblings and controls. *Schizophr Res.* 2020;223:135–147.
- 25. Markulev C, McGorry PD, Nelson B, *et al.* NEURAPRO-E study protocol: a multicentre randomized controlled trial of omega-3 fatty acids and cognitive-behavioural case management for patients at ultra high risk of schizophrenia and other psychotic disorders. *Early Interv Psychiatry.* 2017;11(5):418–428.
- 26. McGorry PD, Nelson B, Markulev C, *et al.* Effect of ω-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids in young people at ultrahigh risk for psychotic disorders: the NEURAPRO Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2017;74(1):19–27.
- 27. Nelson B, Amminger GP, Yuen HP, *et al.* NEURAPRO: a multi-centre RCT of omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids versus placebo in young people at ultra-high risk of psychotic disorders-medium-term follow-up and clinical course. *NPJ Schizophr.* 2018;4(1):11.
- 28. Amminger GP, Nelson B, Markulev C, *et al.* The NEURAPRO biomarker analysis: long-chain omega-3 fatty acids improve 6-month and 12-month outcomes in youths at ultra-high risk for psychosis. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2020;87(3):243–252.
- 29. Hartmann JA, Schmidt SJ, McGorry PD, *et al.* Trajectories of symptom severity and functioning over a three-year period in a psychosis high-risk sample: a secondary analysis of the Neurapro trial. *Behav Res Ther.* 2020;124:103527.
- Keefe RS, Goldberg TE, Harvey PD, Gold JM, Poe MP, Coughenour L. The brief assessment of cognition in schizophrenia: reliability, sensitivity, and comparison with a standard neurocognitive battery. *Schizophr Res.* 2004;68(2-3):283–297.
- Cannon-Spoor HE, Potkin SG, Wyatt RJ. Measurement of premorbid adjustment in chronic schizophrenia. *Schizophr Bull.* 1982;8(3):470–484.
- 32. Sattler JM, Ryan JJ. Assessment of Children: Revised and Updated Third Edition: WAIS-III Supplement. 3rd ed. San Diego, CA: Jerome M. Sattler; 1999.
- 33. Wechsler D. Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale—Third Edition (WAIS-III). San Antonio, TX: The Psychological Corporation; 1997.
- McLaverty A, Allott KA, Berger M, et al. Omega-3 fatty acids and neurocognitive ability in young people at ultra-high risk for psychosis. *Early Interv Psychiatry*. 2021;15(4):874–881.
- 35. Humeniuk R, Ali R, Babor TF, *et al.* Validation of the alcohol, smoking and substance involvement screening test (ASSIST). *Addiction.* 2008;103(6):1039–1047.

- 36. Ventura J, Lukoff D, Nuechterlein KH, et al. Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale (BPRS) Expanded Version (4.0). Scales, anchor points, and administration manual. West Los Angeles, CA: UCLA Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences; 1993.
- 37. Andreasen NC. Scale for the Assessment of Negative Symptoms (SANS). Iowa: University of Iowa; 1984.
- Montgomery SA, Asberg M. New depression scale designed to be sensitive to change. Br J Psychiatry. 1979;134(APR):382–9.
- Goldman HH, Skodol AE, Lave TR. Revising axis-V for DSM-IV—a review of measures of social functioning. *Am. J. Psychiatry*. 1992;149(9):1148–56.
- Yung AR, Yuen HP, McGorry PD, et al. Mapping the onset of psychosis: the comprehensive assessment of at-risk mental states. Aust N Z J Psychiatry. 2005;39(11-12):964–971.
- 41. Nylund KL, Asparouhov T, Muthén BO. Deciding on the number of classes in latent class analysis and growth mixture modeling: a Monte Carlo Simulation Study. *Struct Equ Model* 2007;14(4):535–569.
- 42. Muthen B. Latent variable analysis: growth mixture modeling and related techniques for longitudinal data. In: Kaplan D, editor. *Handbook of Quantitative Methodology for the Social Sciences.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage; 2004.
- 43. van de Schoot R, Sijbrandij M, Winter SD, et al. The GRoLTS-Checklist: guidelines for reporting on latent trajectory studies. *Struct Equ Model* 2017;24(3):451–467.
- Ram N, Grimm KJ. Growth mixture modeling: a method for identifying differences in longitudinal change among unobserved groups. *Int J Behav Dev.* 2009;33(6):565–576.
- 45. R Core Team. R: a language and environment for statistical computing. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2020.
- 46. Lin A, Wood SJ, Nelson B, et al. Neurocognitive predictors of functional outcome two to 13 years after identification as ultra-high risk for psychosis. Schizophr Res. 2011;132(1):1–7.
- 47. Niendam TA, Bearden CE, Zinberg J, Johnson JK, O'Brien M, Cannon TD. The course of neurocognition and social functioning in individuals at ultra high risk for psychosis. *Schizophr Bull.* 2007;33(3):772–781.
- 48. Meyer EC, Carrión RE, Cornblatt BA, et al.; NAPLS group. The relationship of neurocognition and negative symptoms to social and role functioning over time in individuals at clinical high risk in the first phase of the North American Prodrome Longitudinal Study. Schizophr Bull. 2014;40(6):1452–1461.
- 49. Glenthøj LB, Mariegaard LS, Fagerlund B, *et al.* Cognitive remediation plus standard treatment versus standard treatment alone for individuals at ultra-high risk of developing psychosis: results of the FOCUS randomised clinical trial. *Schizophr Res.* 2020;224:151–158.
- Glenthøj LB, Hjorthøj C, Kristensen TD, Davidson CA, Nordentoft M. The effect of cognitive remediation in individuals at ultra-high risk for psychosis: a systematic review. NPJ Schizophr. 2017;3:20.
- 51. Crouse JJ, Chitty KM, Iorfino F, *et al.* Transdiagnostic neurocognitive subgroups and functional course in young people with emerging mental disorders: a cohort study. *BJPsych Open.* 2020;6(2):e31.
- 52. Lee RS, Hermens DF, Naismith SL, et al. Neuropsychological and functional outcomes in recent-onset major depression, bipolar disorder and schizophrenia-spectrum disorders: a longitudinal cohort study. *Transl Psychiatry*. 2015;5:e555.
- 53. Uren J, Cotton SM, Killackey E, Saling MM, Allott K. Cognitive clusters in first-episode psychosis: overlap with

healthy controls and relationship to concurrent and prospective symptoms and functioning. *Neuropsychology*. 2017;31(7):787–797.

- 54. Sauvé G, Malla A, Joober R, Brodeur MB, Lepage M. Comparing cognitive clusters across first- and multipleepisode of psychosis. *Psychiatry Res.* 2018;269:707–718.
- 55. Crouse JJ, Moustafa AA, Bogaty SER, Hickie IB, Hermens DF. Parcellating cognitive heterogeneity in early psychosis-spectrum illnesses: a cluster analysis. *Schizophr Res.* 2018;202:91–98.
- 56. Cannon TD, Yu C, Addington J, et al. An individualized risk calculator for research in prodromal psychosis. Am J Psychiatry. 2016;173(10):980–988.
- 57. Bolt LK, Amminger GP, Farhall J, *et al.* Neurocognition as a predictor of transition to psychotic disorder and functional outcomes in ultra-high risk participants: findings from the NEURAPRO randomized clinical trial. *Schizophr Res.* 2019;206:67–74.
- 58. Seidman LJ, Giuliano AJ, Meyer EC, *et al.*; North American Prodrome Longitudinal Study (NAPLS) Group. Neuropsychology of the prodrome to psychosis in the NAPLS consortium: relationship to family history and conversion to psychosis. *Arch Gen Psychiatry.* 2010;67(6):578–588.
- 59. Yung AR, Nelson B, McGorry PD, Wood SJ, Lin A. Persistent negative symptoms in individuals at Ultra High Risk for psychosis. *Schizophr Res.* 2019;206:355–361.
- 60. Devoe DJ, Lu L, Cannon TD, *et al.* Persistent negative symptoms in youth at clinical high risk for psychosis: a longitudinal study. *Schizophr Res.* 2021;227:28–37.
- 61. Yung AR, Nelson B, Thompson A, Wood SJ. The psychosis threshold in Ultra High Risk (prodromal) research: is it valid? *Schizophr Res.* 2010;120(1-3):1–6.
- 62. Tan EJ, Rossell SL, Subotnik KL, et al. Cognitive heterogeneity in first-episode psychosis and its relationship with premorbid developmental adjustment. *Psychol. Med.* 2021:1–10. doi:10.1017/S0033291721000738
- 63. Van Rheenen TE, Lewandowski KE, Tan EJ, *et al.* Characterizing cognitive heterogeneity on the schizophrenia-bipolar disorder spectrum. *Psychol Med.* 2017;47(10):1848–1864.
- Lewandowski KE, Baker JT, McCarthy JM, Norris LA, Öngür D. Reproducibility of cognitive profiles in psychosis using cluster analysis. J Int Neuropsychol Soc. 2018;24(4):382–390.
- 65. Rund BR, Melle I, Friis S, *et al.* Neurocognitive dysfunction in first-episode psychosis: correlates with symptoms, premorbid adjustment, and duration of untreated psychosis. *Am J Psychiatry.* 2004;161(3):466–472.
- 66. Béchard-Evans L, Iyer S, Lepage M, Joober R, Malla A. Investigating cognitive deficits and symptomatology across pre-morbid adjustment patterns in first-episode psychosis. *Psychol Med.* 2010;40(5):749–759.
- Cole VT, Apud JA, Weinberger DR, Dickinson D. Using latent class growth analysis to form trajectories of premorbid adjustment in schizophrenia. J Abnorm Psychol. 2012;121(2):388–395.
- Quee PJ, Meijer JH, Islam MA, *et al.*; GROUP Investigators. Premorbid adjustment profiles in psychosis and the role of familial factors. *J Abnorm Psychol.* 2014;123(3):578–587.
- Wannan CMJ, Bartholomeusz CF, Cropley VL, et al. Deterioration of visuospatial associative memory following a first psychotic episode: a long-term follow-up study. *Psychol Med.* 2018;48(1):132–141.