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Association between neurological soft signs, temperament and character in patients with schizophrenia and non-psychotic relatives

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The heritability of schizophrenia and most personality traits has been well established, but the role of personality in susceptibility to schizophrenia remains uncertain. The aim of this study was to test for an association between personality traits and Neurological Soft Signs (NSS), a well-known biological marker of schizophrenia, in non-psychotic relatives of patients with schizophrenia. For this purpose, we evaluated the NSS scale and personality measured by the Temperament and Character inventory (TCI-R) in three groups of subjects: 29 patients with schizophrenia, 24 unaffected relatives and 37 controls. The results showed that patients with schizophrenia were more asocial (higher harm avoidance and lower reward dependence), more perseverative (higher persistence), and more schizotypal (lower self-directedness and cooperativeness, higher self-transcendence). The unaffected relatives showed higher harm avoidance, lower self-directedness and cooperativeness than the healthy controls. Higher NSS scores and sub-scores were found in patients and non-psychotic relatives compared with the controls. Among all the patients, total NSS scores were positively correlated with harm avoidance but negatively correlated with novelty seeking and persistence. Total NSS were also correlated with low scores on self-directedness and cooperativeness, which are indicators of personality disorder. Our results show that susceptibility to NSS and to schizophrenia are both related to individual differences in the temperament and character features in non-psychotic relatives of patients with schizophrenia. High harm avoidance, low persistence, low self-directedness and low cooperativeness contribute to both the risk of NSS and schizophrenia. These findings highlight the value of using both assessments to study high risk populations.

1 **Association between neurological soft signs,**
2 **temperament and character in patients with**
3 **schizophrenia and non-psychotic relatives**

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27 Abstract

28

29 The heritability of schizophrenia and most personality traits has been well established,

30 but the role of personality in susceptibility to schizophrenia remains uncertain. The aim

31 of this study was to test for an association between personality traits and Neurological

32 Soft Signs (NSS), a well-known biological marker of schizophrenia, in non-psychotic

33 relatives of patients with schizophrenia. For this purpose, we evaluated the NSS scale

34 and personality measured by the Temperament and Character inventory (TCI-R) in three

35 groups of subjects: 29 patients with schizophrenia, 24 unaffected relatives and 37

36 controls. The results showed that patients with schizophrenia were more asocial (higher

37 harm avoidance and lower reward dependence), more perseverative (higher

38 persistence), and more schizotypal (lower self-directedness and cooperativeness, higher

39 self-transcendence). The unaffected relatives showed higher harm avoidance, lower self-

40 directedness and cooperativeness than the healthy controls. Higher NSS scores and sub-

41 scores were found in patients and non-psychotic relatives compared with the controls.

42 Among all the patients, total NSS scores were positively correlated with harm avoidance

43 but negatively correlated with novelty seeking and persistence. Total NSS were also

44 correlated with low scores on self-directedness and cooperativeness, which are indicators

45 of personality disorder. Our results show that susceptibility to NSS and to schizophrenia

46 are both related to individual differences in the temperament and character features in

47 non-psychotic relatives of patients with schizophrenia. High harm avoidance, low

48 persistence, low self-directedness and low cooperativeness contribute to both the risk of

49 NSS and schizophrenia. These findings highlight the value of using both assessments to
50 study high risk populations.

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54 **1. Introduction**

55 Although the etiology of schizophrenia is still largely unknown, the genetic basis of this
56 disorder has been well established (Singh et al. 2014). The expression of susceptibility to
57 schizophrenia is incomplete and variable, as shown by the non-psychotic status of most
58 monozygotic co-twins of patients with schizophrenia, and the complex relationships of
59 different sets of genes with distinct sets of clinical features (Arnedo et al. 2014).
60 Fortunately, more subtle expressions of susceptibility to schizophrenia can be evaluated
61 by studying neuropsychological markers of susceptibility, such as personality traits and
62 neurological soft signs in the non-psychotic relatives of patients with schizophrenia (Smith
63 et al. 2008).

64 Several studies have shown an association between schizophrenia and certain
65 personality traits, however, the nature of this relationship is not clarified (Silberschmidt &
66 Sponheim 2008; Smith et al. 2008). Among the different models for studying personality,
67 Cloninger's model is the one with the most explicit neurobiological basis (Cloninger et al.
68 1993). This model suggests that a person's temperament is heritable and regulated by
69 neurotransmitters and brain circuits, which are involved in the pathophysiology of
70 schizophrenia. Both temperament and character traits are equally heritable (Gillespie et
71 al. 2003), but character is more shaped by sociocultural influences as it develops across
72 a lifespan (Josefsson, Jokela, Cloninger, et al. 2013; Josefsson, Jokela, Hintsanen, et al.
73 2013). Temperament consists of individual differences in behavioral conditioning of habits
74 and skills, whereas character comprises of individual differences based on goals and
75 values, which involve higher cognitive processes of semantic and autobiographical
76 learning and memory (Silberschmidt & Sponheim 2008; Van Schuerbeek et al. 2014).

77 Environmental factors do impact on both temperament and character traits, however,
78 these factors are more critical for the development of character than temperament. By
79 using this model, patients with schizophrenia have shown a temperament and character
80 profile that is distinct from the general population (Bora & Veznedaroglu 2007; Glatt et al.
81 2006; Kurs et al. 2005; Ritsner & Susser 2004). Specifically, people with schizophrenia
82 and their non-psychotic relatives are higher in the temperament of harm avoidance (i.e.,
83 more anxious and shy) and lower in the temperament of reward dependence (i.e., more
84 detached and cold emotionally), so that they are more socially distant than controls. More
85 recently, evidence has emerged showing that the dimensions of character are heritable
86 and may also influence the risk of schizotypy (Silberschmidt & Sponheim 2008).
87 Specifically, people with schizophrenia and their non-psychotic relatives have the
88 schizotypal character profile of low self-directedness (i.e., aimless and tending to blame
89 others for their problems), low cooperativeness (i.e., suspicious and lacking in empathy),
90 and high self-transcendence (i.e., prone to fantasy and magical thinking). Thus
91 Cloninger's TCI provides a reliable way to quantify personality traits related to
92 susceptibility to the schizophrenia spectrum.

93 The association between personality and schizophrenia has been reinforced by several
94 studies that relate these personality traits with other abnormalities in schizophrenia. For
95 example, the correlation between some dimensions of temperament and changes in
96 monoaminergic activity has been postulated as the biological basis of schizophrenia
97 (Ebstein 2006; Mitsuyasu et al. 2001). In addition, an interaction has been observed
98 between polymorphisms of these two systems that predicts the scores on harm avoidance
99 (Benjamin et al. 2000).

100 Furthermore, several studies of schizophrenia have suggested an association between
101 personality traits and other candidate markers of vulnerability. Specifically, the presence
102 of schizotypal personality traits correlates with the presence of neurological soft signs
103 (NSS) in relatives of patients with schizophrenia (Mechri et al. 2009; Mechri et al. 2010).
104 Traditionally, NSS are defined as minor neurological abnormalities without a definite
105 localization in the brain, including several clinical manifestations related to simple motor
106 coordination, complex motor sequencing, sensory integration and disinhibition signs
107 (Chan & Gottesman 2008). Alterations in motor coordination and integration of stimuli are
108 positively correlated with both the total scores and with the cognitive perceptive
109 component of scales measuring schizotypy (Chan et al. 2010; Kaczorowski et al. 2009).
110 Thus, NSS have been suggested as markers of disease vulnerability, which are present
111 prior to the start of treatment and are independent of illness state (as well as type of
112 antipsychotic treatment) (Chan et al. 2010; Bombin et al. 2003), and NSS are correlated
113 with structural and functional brain abnormalities related to schizophrenia (Mouchet-
114 Mages et al. 2011; Zhao et al. 2014).

115 Interestingly, temperament and character features and NSS have been shown to
116 aggregate in the relatives of schizophrenia patients (Krebs et al. 2000; Andreasen et al.
117 2005), supporting the view that both are likely to reflect genetic liability to schizophrenia.
118 In addition, the distribution of NSS in schizophrenia, and in first-degree relatives, is
119 consistent with the endophenotype criterion of familial association (Zhao et al. 2014).
120 However, belonging to the same family could act as a confounding factor because it
121 includes environmental influence and common genetic factors unrelated to the illness. In

122 this respect, no studies are available comparing both NSS and personality in patients with
123 schizophrenia and non-psychotic relatives.

124 The aim of this study was to investigate the association between personality traits,
125 neurological soft signs and vulnerability to schizophrenia. Firstly, to determine whether
126 personality traits could be vulnerability markers of schizophrenia, or if they are simply
127 associated with the disease, we compared personality traits and neurological soft signs
128 between patients, relatives and controls. Secondly, to establish whether those domains
129 that showed differences between groups were significantly associated with known
130 markers of disease vulnerability, correlations between personality traits and NSS were
131 calculated for the entire population.

132

133

134 **2. Materials and methods**

135 *2.1. Subjects*

136 A cross-sectional study was conducted on 29 patients with schizophrenia, 24 unaffected
137 relatives of patients and 37 controls. This study was conducted at the Neuropsychiatry
138 and Addictions Institute of the Parc de Salut Mar of Barcelona. The patients and the non-
139 psychotic relatives were recruited from outpatient services of the same institution. Control
140 subjects were recruited by announcements in the University and the Hospital. All
141 participants lived in Spain for more than 5 years and were fluent Spanish speakers. The
142 non-psychotic relatives were not from the same families of the patients included in the
143 study, in order to avoid the effects of similar rearing that could induce potential similarities
144 in temperament and character between patients and siblings. Considering that the total
145 population was organized into 3 categories (patients, unaffected relatives and healthy
146 controls), the participants were matched by gender and age.

147 The exclusion criteria included the presence of a substance dependence disorder (with
148 the exception of nicotine dependence) according to DSM IV-TR (Diagnostic and
149 Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fourth Edition), the presence any other psychiatric
150 disorder of axis I or II of DSM IV-TR as well as the personal history of severe somatic or
151 neurological disorders. All subjects were between 25 and 50 years old and had an
152 estimated IQ > 80 measured by WAIS subscales (Digit, cubes, vocabulary, arithmetic,
153 symbol search). The patients were diagnosed with schizophrenia from the medical record
154 and confirmed by the Structured Clinical Interview for DSM Disorders. Unaffected
155 relatives and healthy controls were evaluated as well. All the patients had a disease
156 duration between 5 and 15 years, were treated with atypical antipsychotics, had never

157 received electroconvulsive therapy and had been clinically stable for the last 6 months
158 (all positive items of the PANSS positive subscale scoring 4 or lower). The non-psychotic
159 relatives were from the same mother and father of a patient with a diagnosis of
160 schizophrenia, according to DSM IV-TR. Control subjects and their first and second
161 degree relatives had to be free of any axis I disorders. The study was approved by the
162 ethics committee of the CEIC-Parc de Salut Mar Hospital (2011/4141/I). All subjects gave
163 informed written consent and were assured of the confidentiality of the data being
164 collected.

165 *2.2. Experimental Procedure*

166 Basic socio-biographical data were collected from the medical history. This data included
167 years of education, socio-economic level, psychiatric and medical history, years from
168 disease onset, administered treatment and psychiatric history of first degree relatives.
169 Patients were clinically assessed using the Positive and Negative Syndrome Scale
170 (PANSS) (Peralta & Cuesta 1994) and the overall functioning of the subjects was
171 assessed using the Global Adaptive Functioning (GAF) (Jones et al. 1995).

172 All subjects were assessed with the Spanish version of the Temperament and Character
173 Inventory (TCI-R) (Gutiérrez-Zotes et al.) and the Neurological Soft Signs Scale (Krebs
174 et al. 2000). Temperament is comprised of novelty seeking (i.e., impulsive, exploratory),
175 harm avoidance (i.e., anxious, shy), reward dependence (i.e., sentimental, approval-
176 seeking) and persistence (i.e., determined, ambitious). Character is comprised of self-
177 directedness (i.e., responsible, purposeful), cooperativeness (i.e., helpful, empathic) and
178 self-transcendence (i.e., imaginative, self-forgetful). The TCI-R sub-scores for each of the
179 seven dimensions were calculated.

180 The NSS scale is composed of 23 items, rated from 0 to 3, and regrouped in five
181 consistent factors: Motor coordination (hand dysrhythmia, finger opposition, fist edge–
182 palm, foot dysrhythmia, alternative movements: foot speed, alternative movements: hand
183 speed, standing heel-to-toe), Motor integration (Romberg, apraxia, tandem walk, finger-
184 to-nose, gait, tongue protrusion), Sensory integration (stereognosia, hand–face,
185 constructive apraxia, graphesthesia, right-left recognition), Quality of lateralization (right-
186 left confusion, lateral preference, right-left asymmetry) and Involuntary movements
187 (abnormal movement and posture, mirror movements).

188 The NSS total score and sub-scores for each of the factors were calculated. Two
189 assessors (LG and FP) were trained to perform the neurological assessment. The inter-
190 rater reliability of the assessment of NSS was established by the two assessors and jointly
191 examined 20 independent subjects. The intra-class correlation coefficient (SPSS: two
192 way Mixed Effect Model, confidence interval=95%) was 0.90 [0.77–0.95].

193

194 2.3. Statistical analysis

195 First, univariate analyses of the sociodemographic data were performed. Differences in
196 age and years of education were determined with the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and
197 the *chi* square test was applied for gender differences. As there were statistical
198 differences in years of education, it was added as a covariate in the rest of the analyses.
199 Temperament, character and NSS scores were analyzed with the Levene test. Then, to
200 study differences between groups, and depending on the results on Levene tests, the
201 analysis was performed with ANOVAs followed by the Bonferroni post-hoc test or a
202 Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Mann-Whitney U test, adding years of education as a

203 covariate. Pearson correlations were performed using the entire population between the
204 total NSS scores and sub-scores for each temperament and character domains, adding
205 years of education as a covariate. Accepting an alpha risk of 0.05 and a beta risk of 0.2
206 in a two-sided test, 23 subjects are necessary in every group to recognize as statistically
207 significant a difference greater than or equal to 1 unit. The common standard deviation is
208 assumed to be 1.2. It has been anticipated a drop-out rate of 0%.

209

210

211 **3. Results**

212 *3.1. Demographic characteristics*

213 No significant differences between groups were observed in terms of age or gender;
214 although patients with schizophrenia and non-psychotic relatives showed significantly
215 less years of education than controls (Table 1).

216

217 *3.2. Temperament scores (TCI-R)*

218 Table 2 shows the scores obtained for each temperament dimension in controls, non-
219 psychotic relatives and patients. Harm Avoidance scores were significantly different
220 between the groups [$F(2,88) = 13.10, p < 0.001$] (Fig. 1). Subsequent post-hoc analysis
221 revealed that patients with schizophrenia and non-psychotic relatives obtained
222 significantly higher scores on harm avoidance than controls, and patients showed
223 significantly higher scores than relatives (Fig. 1). In addition, significant differences
224 between the groups were observed in reward dependence [$F(2,88) = 3.15, p < 0.05$] and
225 persistence [$F(2,88) = 3.83, p < 0.05$] scores. The post-hoc test revealed that patients
226 obtained significantly lower reward dependence scores than controls and both patients
227 and non-psychotic relatives had lower persistence scores than controls. No significant
228 differences between groups were observed for novelty seeking scores (Fig. 1).

229

230 *3.3. Character scores (TCI-R)*

231 Table 2 shows the scores obtained for each character dimension in controls, non-
232 psychotic relatives and patients. Significant differences between groups were observed
233 in self-directedness, cooperativeness and self-transcendence scores. A subsequent
234 subgroups analysis revealed that both patients and relatives obtained significantly lower
235 scores on self-directedness and cooperativeness than the controls (Fig. 2). In addition,
236 no significant differences were observed in self-directedness or cooperativeness scores
237 between patients and relatives. Finally, significantly higher self-transcendence scores
238 were observed in patients with schizophrenia than in the controls (Fig. 2).

239

240 *3.4. Neurological Soft Signs Scores*

241 Significant differences between groups were observed for the total NSS scores [$F(2,88)$
242 $=41.98$, $p<0.01$]. A subsequent post-hoc analysis revealed significantly higher NSS
243 scores in both non-psychotic relatives and patients, compared with the control subjects.
244 In addition, patients showed higher total NSS scores than non-psychotic relatives (Fig.
245 3). Scores obtained in each NSS domain for the three groups are shown in Table 3.
246 Significant differences between groups were observed for each of the NSS sub-scores.
247 Post-hoc analyses revealed significantly higher scores in motor coordination and
248 involuntary movements in patients and relatives, as compared with the controls. In
249 addition, patients showed higher scores than relatives in both of these NSS sub-scores.
250 With respect to motor integration and quality of lateralization, patients and relatives also
251 showed higher scores than control subjects, while no significant differences were

252 observed between patients and relatives. For sensory integration, higher scores were
253 observed only in patients compared with the control group (Fig 3).

254

255 *3.5 Correlations between NSS and TCI-R scores*

256 Table 4 shows the Pearson coefficients obtained for correlations between NSS scores
257 and temperament and character scores for the entire population studied. In terms of
258 temperament, total NSS scores were positively correlated with harm avoidance, while a
259 negative correlation was observed between total NSS, novelty seeking and persistence
260 scores. When each temperament dimension was analyzed separately, harm avoidance
261 scores correlated significantly with sensory integration, motor coordination and motor
262 integration scores. For persistence, significant negative correlations were observed with
263 motor coordination, sensory integration, motor integration and involuntary movements.
264 Finally, a positive correlation was observed between reward dependence and involuntary
265 movements. Novelty seeking scores were negatively correlated with sensory integration.
266 With regards to character, total NSS scores were negatively correlated with self-
267 directedness and cooperativeness. For the individual character domains, self-
268 directedness was negatively correlated with motor coordination and motor integration
269 scores, while cooperativeness was negatively correlated with sensory integration, motor
270 integration and motor coordination scores. No significant correlations were observed
271 between self-transcendence and total NSS scores, although a positive correlation was
272 present with motor coordination.

273

275 4. Discussion

276 The major finding in this study was that patients with schizophrenia and non-psychotic
277 relatives display a unique profile of temperament and character that correlates with
278 alterations in NSS. Comparing personality traits and NSS between groups, both patients
279 with schizophrenia and non-psychotic relatives obtained significantly higher scores on
280 harm avoidance than controls, and patients showed significantly higher scores than
281 relatives. Also patients and non-psychotic relatives had lower persistence, self-
282 directedness, and cooperativeness scores than controls. In addition, no significant
283 differences were observed in self-directedness or cooperativeness scores between
284 patients and relatives. Finally, significantly higher self-transcendence scores were
285 observed in patients with schizophrenia, compared to controls.

286 Our results reveal an association between these hypothesized vulnerability markers, as
287 temperament (especially harm avoidance, reward dependence and persistence) and
288 character (especially self-directedness and cooperativeness) correlated with the
289 presence of NSS in the entire sample.

290 Studies in non-psychotic relatives have been essential to uncover new vulnerability
291 biomarkers of schizophrenia. In this sense, several studies have provided evidence
292 showing that particular personality features could be considered as possible
293 schizophrenia-related endophenotypes (Smith et al. 2008). In this study, it was found that
294 non-psychotic relatives had significantly higher harm avoidance scores compared with
295 the controls, but lower scores than patients with schizophrenia. In agreement with our
296 data, Smith et al. (2008) found higher harm avoidance scores in siblings of patients with
297 schizophrenia than in controls subjects, and another study reported that siblings are

298 positioned between controls and patients with schizophrenia, in terms of temperament
299 profile (Calvó de Padilla et al. 2006). In contrast, Bora and Veznedaroglu (2007) did not
300 find differences in temperament between relatives of schizophrenic patients and the
301 controls, although they did observe differences in harm avoidance between controls and
302 relatives with high schizotypy. Together, these studies support the idea that high levels
303 of harm avoidance may be associated with genetic vulnerability to schizophrenia, which,
304 in turn, will interact with environmental and neurobiological influences to determine the
305 expression of the disease. According to Kim et al. (2011) and Hansenne et al. (2003),
306 harm avoidance has been associated with D2/3 receptor availability in the associative
307 and sensorimotor subdivisions of the striatum and high Mismatch Negativity and
308 hypervigilant fear perception, suggesting abnormal sensory gating of aversive stimuli as
309 a vulnerability variable in schizophrenia. Furthermore, a locus on chromosome 8p21
310 associated to schizophrenia showed a linkage to harm avoidance (Zohar et al. 2003)

311 With regards to character, it was found that, similar to patients; non-psychotic relatives
312 had significantly lower self-directedness and cooperativeness scores when compared to
313 controls. Other studies have reported lower levels of self-directedness and
314 cooperativeness in siblings with high schizotypy as compared to controls, and high levels
315 were observed in siblings with low schizotypy (Bora & Veznedaroglu 2007). One
316 important aspect of the data in this study is that even though the non-psychotic relatives
317 that participated in this study did not have familial ties to the patients with schizophrenia,
318 they showed similar low levels of self-directedness and cooperativeness. It is well known
319 that character is influenced more by environmental factors than temperament (Josefsson,
320 Jokela, Cloninger, et al. 2013; Josefsson, Jokela, Hintsanen, et al. 2013). However, the

321 data in this study agrees with other studies, such as Gillespie et al. 2003; Josefsson et
322 al. 2013, showing that character may also have a genetic component. Self-transcendence
323 was higher in patients than in the controls subject, but not in relatives. These results are
324 in agreement with other studies reporting elevated self-transcendence in patients (Glatt
325 et al. 2006; Smith et al. 2008). In contrast, Calvo de Padilla et al. (2006) found lower self-
326 transcendence and cooperativeness in the relatives of patients with schizophrenia with
327 respect to the controls. The discrepancies between studies could be due to the fact that
328 the population used in the Calvo and Padilla study was an indigenous community living
329 in a rural environment and not in an urban environment.

330 In accordance with previous studies, we found lower levels of persistence and reward
331 dependence only in patients with schizophrenia as compared to controls. These findings
332 endorse the hypothesis stating that high harm avoidance, low persistence and low reward
333 dependence constitutes a temperament profile leading to social detachment,
334 perseveration and schizotypy, when combined with a disorganized character profile that
335 impairs emotional regulation (Smith et al. 2008; Bora & Veznedaroglu 2007).

336 As reported previously in patients with schizophrenia (Bombin et al. 2003; Chen et al.
337 2005; Aksoy-Poyraz et al. 2011) and in non-psychotic relatives (Gourion et al. 2004;
338 Mechri et al. 2010), we found higher NSS in both groups as compared with the controls,
339 confirming the hypothesis that NSS is a vulnerability marker for schizophrenia. In addition,
340 these results agree with the idea that NSS segregate with the illness and may be a valid
341 and useful endophenotype (Chan et al. 2010). The association between personality
342 characteristics and NSS has been studied separately in siblings, or in patients with
343 schizophrenia, but there are no prior studies correlating NSS with personality traits in

344 patients with schizophrenia, non-psychotic relatives and controls. Our correlational
345 analysis, including all three groups, showed that subjects with higher NSS scores
346 exhibited higher harm-avoidance and persistence scores, while they exhibited lower self-
347 directness and cooperativeness. Two related studies have evaluated the association
348 between NSS and schizotypal personality traits with contradictory results. Thus, Mechri
349 et al. (2010), using the Schizotypal Personality Questionnaire (SPQ), showed that the
350 overall NSS score was correlated with the presence of schizotypal traits in both non-
351 psychotic siblings and controls, while no association was found between NSS and
352 schizotypal dimensions in relatives of patients with schizophrenia, when the SPQ test was
353 used (Bollini et al. 2007). The differences observed between these two studies, as well
354 as the present work, could be due to the fact that they used a personality assessment
355 tool based on outdated DSM III criteria. In this respect, one of the strengths of this study
356 is the use of the TCI-R scale, which is a comprehensive personality questionnaire that
357 has been extensively validated in clinical practice and research (Fassino et al. 2013;
358 Fresán et al. 2015). One of the advantages of the TCI-R is that it explores normal and
359 pathological personalities in subjects with mental disorders and also in the general
360 population (Cloninger et al. 2012; Josefsson et al. 2011; De Fruyt et al. 2006). Another
361 advantage is that temperament and character domains have been associated with
362 structural and functional changes in the brain (Laricchiuta et al. 2014; Lei et al. 2014;
363 Tuominen et al. 2013)), and have been related to specific chromosomal regions (Serretti
364 et al. 2008; Zohar et al. 2003) supporting the neurobiological substrate for this personality
365 model (Yang et al. 2015). Another strength of the study is that the relatives of patients

366 with schizophrenia had no familial ties to the patients used, thus decreasing the possibility
367 that similar rearing would confound the results.

368 Finally, several limitations of the study are acknowledged. The first is the small sample
369 size used, even though the TCI-R scores and NSS scores were similar to those reported
370 in larger samples in the literature (Smith et al. 2008; Mechri et al. 2010). The second
371 limitation is the use of an estimate of IQ values as a selection criterion, but not as a
372 covariate in the analysis. This issue may have been a potential confounding factor, since
373 IQ has been previously associated with personality and with NSS.

374 In conclusion, these results showed that patients with schizophrenia were more asocial
375 (higher harm avoidance and lower reward dependence), more perseverative (higher
376 persistence) and more schizotypal (lower self-directedness and cooperativeness, higher
377 self-transcendence). In the group analysis we found significant changes in personality
378 traits in relatives of patients with schizophrenia. Indeed, non-psychotic relatives showed
379 higher harm avoidance, lower self-directedness and lower cooperativeness when compared
380 to control subjects. Interestingly, all three items were correlated with total NSS scores.
381 Thus, a positive correlation was observed between higher harm avoidance and total NSS,
382 and negative correlations were found between lower self-directedness and lower
383 cooperativeness with total NSS. These findings lend support to the idea that such
384 personality traits could be potential vulnerability markers for schizophrenia. These
385 vulnerability markers are likely to be useful tools in the prospective studies of high-risk
386 populations.

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390

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Figure 1 (on next page)

Figure 1

Figure 1. Temperament scores in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia. Harm avoidance (A), reward dependence (B), persistence (C) and novelty seeking (D) scores. The data are represented as mean + SD. * $p < 0.05$ vs controls; # $p < 0.05$ vs relatives.

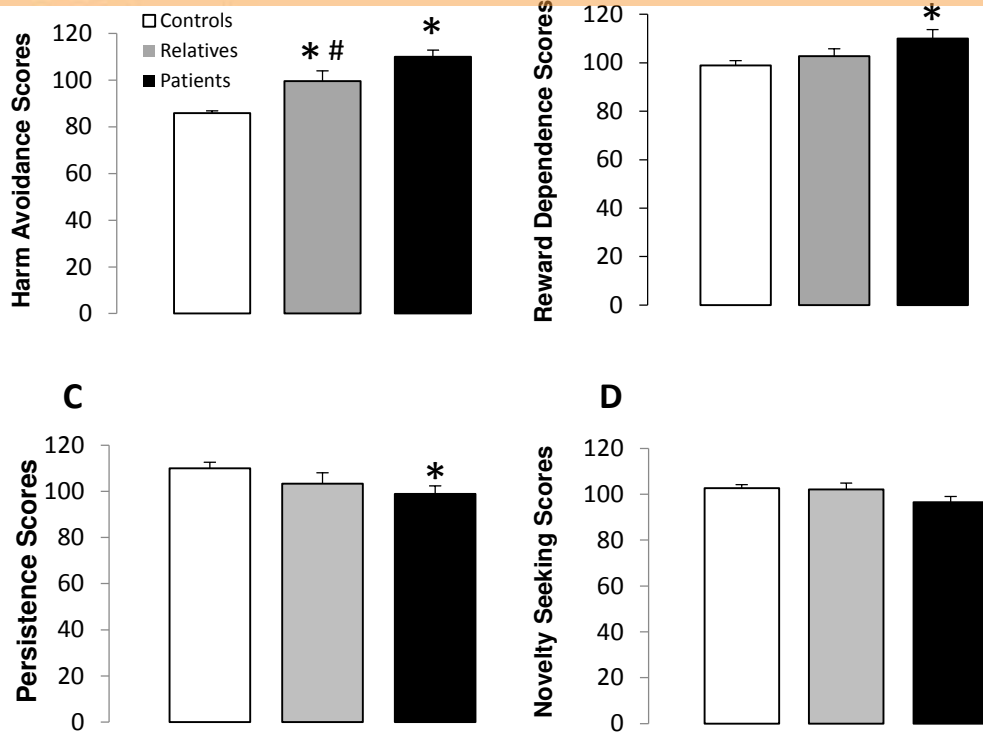


Figure 2 (on next page)

Figure 2

Figure 2. Character scores in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia. Self-directedness (A), cooperativeness (B) and self-transcendence (C) scores. The data are represented as mean + SD. * $p < 0.05$ vs controls.

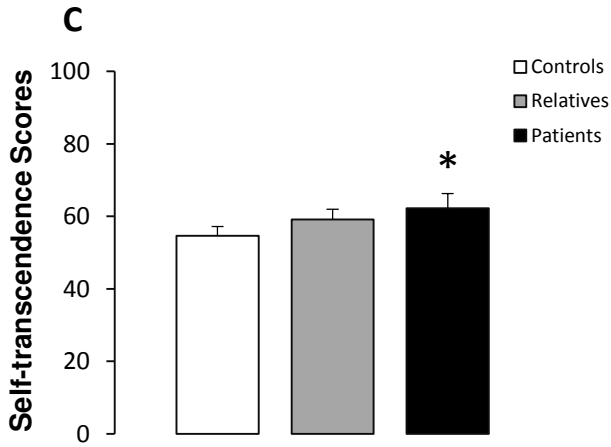
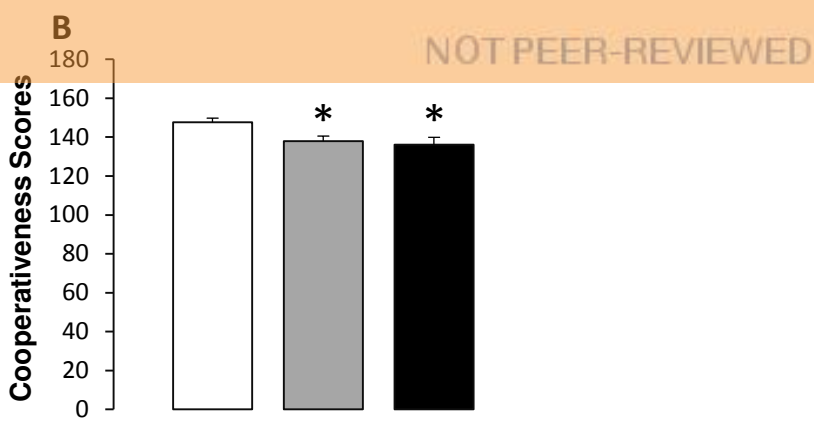
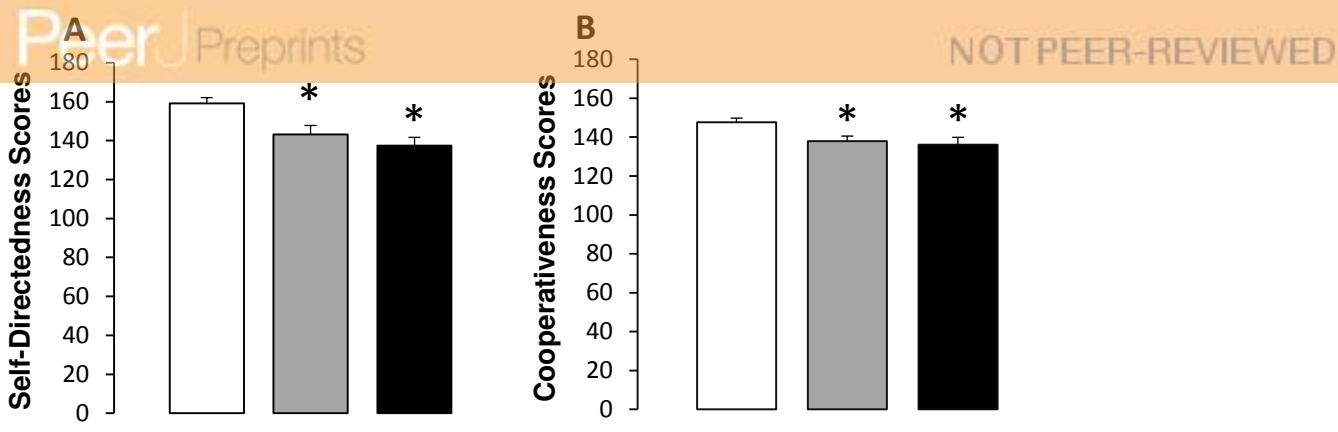


Figure 3 (on next page)

Figure 3

Figure 3. Total neurological soft signs (NSS) scores in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia. The data are represented as mean + SD. * $p < 0.05$ vs controls; # $p < 0.05$ vs relatives.

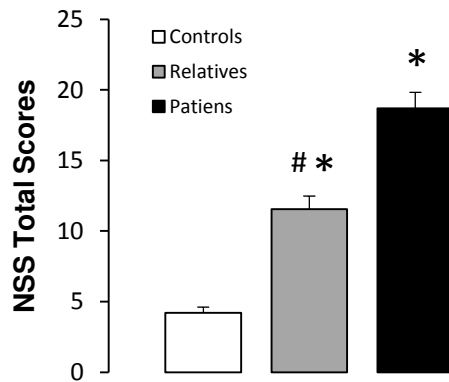


Table 1 (on next page)

Demographic characteristics in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia.

1
2 **Table 1.** Demographic characteristics in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia.

	Controls	Non-psychotic Relatives	Patients	p
	n=37	n=24	n=29	
Mean Age (years) \pm SD	36.78 \pm 7.61	40.92 \pm 10.32	37.97 \pm 7.13	0.165
Gender (M/F)	17/20	11/13	16/13	0.713
Mean years of education (years) \pm SD	12.89 \pm 1.76	11.50 \pm 2.65	10.00 \pm 2.80	<0.05*

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Table 2 (on next page)

Temperament and character scores in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia

Table 2. Temperament and character scores in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia

Table 2. Temperament and character scores in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia.

		Controls	Non-psychotic Relatives	Patients	F	p
		n=37	n=24	n=29		
Temperament	Harm Avoidance (mean ± SEM)	86.18 ± 1.85	99.38 ± 4.49	109.21 ± 2.97	13.10	<0.01*
	Reward Dependence (mean ± SEM)	109.36 ± 2.03	101.38 ± 3.13	99.79 ± 3.66	3.15	<0.05*
	Novelty Seeking (mean ± SEM)	102.39 ± 1.55	102.81 ± 2.88	97.7 ± 2.43	1.29	0.27
	Persistence (mean ± SEM)	113.91 ± 2.63	103.14 ± 4.75	100.58 ± 3.50	3.83	<0.05*
Character	Self-Directedness (mean ± SEM)	159.62 ± 2.87	141.14 ± 4.64	134.67 ± 4.40	10.11	<0.01*
	Cooperativeness (mean ± SEM)	147.17 ± 2.24	137.05 ± 2.57	133.12 ± 3.86	5.59	<0.05*
	Self-Transcendence (mean ± SEM)	54.30 ± 2.56	58.76 ± 2.82	66.25 ± 3.99	3.63	<0.05*

Table 3 (on next page)

NSS scores in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia.

Table 3. NSS scores in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia.

Table 3. NSS scores in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia.

Neurological Soft Sign scores	Controls	Non-psychotic Relatives	Patients	F	P
	n=37	n=24	n=29		
Motor Coordination (mean ± SEM)	0.71 ± 0.18	1.65 ± 0.34	3.13 ± 0.37	15.32	<0.001*
Sensory Integration (mean ± SEM)	1.13 ± 0.15	1.65 ± 0.18	2.57 ± 0.38	6.31	<0.001*
Motor Integration (mean ± SEM)	1.32 ± 0.11	4.85 ± 0.33	4.52 ± 0.33	36.29	<0.001*
Quality of lateralization (mean ± SEM)	0.29 ± 0.09	0.95 ± 0.34	0.73 ± 0.17	4.20	<0.01*
Involuntary Movement(mean ± SEM)	0.94 ± 0.15	1.25 ± 0.18	2.78 ± 0.40	13.03	<0.001*

Table 4(on next page)

Correlations coefficients between NSS and temperament features and between NSS and character traits in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia.

Table 4. Correlations coefficients between NSS and temperament features and between NSS and character traits in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia.

Table 4. Correlations coefficients between NSS and temperament features and between NSS and character traits in controls, non-psychotic relatives and patients with schizophrenia.

	Total NSS	Sensory Integration	Motor Coordination	Motor Integration	Quality lateralization	Involuntary Movement
Harm Avoidance	0.95*	0.38*	0.35**	0.48*	0.03	0.16
Reward Dependence	-0.12	-0.12	-0.16	-0.15	0.10	0.25*
Novelty Seeking	-0.40*	-0.84*	-0.22	-0.15	-0.29*	-0.15
Persistence	-0.95*	-0.43*	0.29*	-0.43*	-0.08	-0.40*
Self-Directedness	-0.80*	-0.18	-0.39*	-0.40*	0.03	-0.08
Cooperativeness	-0.55*	-0.22*	-0.32*	-0.23*	-0.01	-0.13
Self-Transcendence	0.19	0.07	0.27*	0.20	-0.01	-0.01