Genome-wide association study identifies 30 Loci Associated with Bipolar Disorder.

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ABSTRACT:

Bipolar disorder is a highly heritable psychiatric disorder that features episodes of mania and depression. We performed the largest genome-wide association study to date, including 20,352 cases and 31,358 controls of European descent, with follow-up analysis of 881 sentinel variants at loci with $P<1x10^{-4}$ in an independent sample of 9,412 cases and 137,760 controls. In the combined analysis, 30 loci achieved genome-wide significance including 18 novel loci. These significant loci contain genes encoding ion channels and neurotransmitter transporters (*CACNA1C*, *GRIN2A*, *SCN2A, SLC4A1*), synaptic components (*RIMS1, ANK3*), immune and energy metabolism components, and multiple potential therapeutic targets for mood stabilizer drugs. Bipolar disorder type I (depressive and manic episodes; ~73% of our cases) is strongly genetically correlated with schizophrenia whereas type II (depressive and hypomanic episodes; ~17% of our cases) correlated more with major depression. Furthermore, bipolar disorder has a positive genetic correlation with educational attainment yet has no significant genetic correlation with intelligence. These findings address key clinical questions and provide potential new biological mechanisms for bipolar disorder.

INTRODUCTION

Bipolar disorder (BD) is a severe neuropsychiatric disorder characterized by recurrent episodes of mania and depression which affect thought, perception, emotion, and social behaviour. A lifetime prevalence of 1-2%, elevated morbidity and mortality, onset in young adulthood, and a frequently chronic course make BD a major public health problem and a leading cause of the global burden of disease [1]. Clinical, twin and molecular genetic data all strongly suggest that BD is a multifactorial disorder [2]. Based on twin studies, the overall heritability of BD has been estimated to be more than 70% [3,4], suggesting a substantial involvement of genetic factors in the development of the disorder, although non-genetic factors also influence risk.

BD can be divided into two main clinical subtypes [5,6]: bipolar I disorder (BD1) and bipolar II disorder (BD2). In BD1, manic episodes typically alternate with depressive episodes during the course of illness. Diagnosis of BD2 is based on the lifetime occurrence of at least one depressive and one hypomanic (but no manic) episode. Although modern diagnostic systems retain the Kraepelinian dichotomy [7] between BD and schizophrenia, the distinction between the two disorders is not always clear-cut, and some patients displaying clinical features of both disorders may receive a diagnosis of schizoaffective disorder (SAB). Likewise, in genetic studies the two diagnoses are usually treated separately, although recent epidemiological and molecular genetic studies provide strong evidence for some overlap between the genetic contributions to their etiology [2,8].

Recent genome-wide association studies (GWASs) in BD have identified a number of significant associations between disease status and common genetic variants [9–23]. The first large

collaborative BD GWAS by the multinational Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) Bipolar Disorder Working Group comprised 7,481 BD patients and 9,250 controls and identified one

95   novel and three known genome-wide significant loci [9]. Three subsequent meta-analyses that included the PGC BD data [10,12,18] identified an additional 5 loci.

Estimates of the proportion of variance in liability attributable to genome-wide SNPs (SNP heritability) indicate that ~¼-⅓ of the heritability for BD is due to common genetic variants [8]. To date, only a small fraction of this heritability is explained by associated loci but results from

100   other human complex traits suggests that many more will be identified by increasing the sample size of the GWAS [24]. Here, we report the second GWAS of the PGC Bipolar Disorder Working Group including 20,352 cases and 31,358 controls of European descent in a single, systematic analysis, with follow up of the top associations in a sample of 9,412 cases and 137,760 controls. Some of our findings reinforce specific hypotheses regarding BD neurobiology; however, the

105   majority of the findings suggest new biological insights.

RESULTS

GWAS of bipolar disorder (BD)

We performed a GWAS meta-analysis of 32 cohorts from 14 countries in Europe, North America and Australia (**Supplementary Table 1A**), totaling 20,352 cases and 31,358 controls of

110   European descent. This increases by 2.7-fold the number of cases in our previous GWAS [9], is the largest GWAS of BD to date, and includes 6,328 case and 7,963 control samples not previously reported. We imputed SNP dosages using the 1000 Genomes world reference panel (see Methods), retaining association results for 7,111,918 autosomal SNPs with imputation quality score $r^2 > 0.3$ and minor allele frequency $\geq 1\%$. We performed logistic regression of case status

115   on imputed SNP dosage using ancestry covariates. The resulting genomic inflation factor (λ_{GC}) was 1.23 and λ_{1000} was 1.01 (**Supplementary Figure 1**). The LD-score regression intercept was not significantly different from 1, indicating that the observed genomic inflation is indicative of polygenicity rather than stratification or cryptic population structure [25]. This was further supported by LD-score regression which yields a highly significant SNP-heritability estimate of

120   between 0.17-0.23 (estimates adjusted to liability scale assuming population lifetime risk of between 0.5-2%). See **Supplementary Table 1A**, **Online Methods** and **Supplementary Note** for sample and method details.

We find a marked increase in polygenic risk score (PRS) variance explained compared to previous studies (weighted mean observed Nagelkerke's R^2 = 0.08 (liability scale R^2=0.04) across

125   datasets for P-threshold ≤ 0.01; **Supplemental Figure 2**). Between the different sample sites, we observed no correlation between the PRS and: the gender distribution of the bipolar disorder subjects; the proportion of subjects with psychosis; the proportion with a family history of bipolar disorder; or by the median age of onset for bipolar disorder (p=0.17-0.82); see **Supplementary Note**). Overall, in our GWAS analysis, we identified 19 loci exceeding

130   genome-wide significance (P< $5x10^{-8}$) and then followed up these loci along with other loci reaching suggestive significance (p<$1x10^{-4}$) in additional samples (see below).

Follow-up of suggestive loci in additional samples

        We meta-analysed all lead SNPs within LD clumps (a total of 881 SNPs) which were significant at P<$1x10^{-4}$ with additional samples totaling 9,412 cases and 137,760 controls

135   (**Supplementary Note** and **Supplementary Table 1B**). Thirty-one SNPs in 30 loci achieved genome-wide significance (P< $5x10^{-8}$) (**Figure 1**, **Table 1**, **Supplementary Figure 3**, **Supplementary Table 2**), including 12 of the 19 loci from our GWAS analysis and three other loci

previously reported to be genome-wide significant. Of the 30 significant loci from this combined

analysis, 20 are novel. Excluding these 30 loci, association results in the remaining 850 SNPs

genotyped in the follow-up sample still contain an excess of nominally significant and

directionally consistent results. 12% or 104 SNPs had $P_{Rep,1t} < 0.05$ (binomial test P = 7×10^{-10}) and

69% or 585 SNPs had the same direction of effect (sign test P < 2×10^{-16}), indicating that within

this set additional associations remain to be discovered in future GWAS.

Table 1. Genome-wide significant bipolar disorder risk loci

Locus Name	Lead SNP	CHR	BP	A1/A2	GWAS Meta-analysis			Follow-up samples		Combined	
					Freq. A1	OR	P-value	OR	P-value	OR	P-value
1	rs7544145	1	150,138,699	T/C	0.81	1.095	4.8E-07	1.064	0.021	1.085	4.8E-08
2,LMAN2L	chr2_97376407_I	2	97,376,407	I/D	0.34	0.92	5.8E-09	0.96	0.059	0.93	3.8E-09
3	rs17183814	2	166,152,389	A/G	0.075	0.87	1.5E-07	0.89	0.0033	0.88	2.0E-09
4	chr2_194465711_D	2	194,465,711	I/D	0.41	0.93	2.3E-08	0.95	0.0063	0.93	7.9E-10
5,TRANK1	rs9834970	3	36,856,030	T/C	0.51	0.90	5.5E-14	0.98	0.30	0.93	5.7E-12
6,ITIH1,3	rs2302417	3	52,814,256	A/T	0.49	0.92	4.9E-09	0.94	0.0024	0.93	6.6E-11
7	rs3804640	3	107,793,709	A/G	0.53	1.075	9.3E-08	1.044	0.032	1.065	2.0E-08
8	rs11724116	4	162,294,038	T/C	0.16	0.90	3.3E-08	0.95	0.061	0.92	2.4E-08
9,ADCY2	chr5_7587236_D	5	7,587,236	I/D	0.82	0.91	1.2E-07	0.94	0.023	0.92	1.5E-08
10	rs10035291	5	80,796,368	T/C	0.68	1.081	1.1E-07	1.047	0.036	1.070	2.7E-08
11	chr6_72519394_D	6	72,519,394	D/I	0.44	1.066	3.1E-06	1.062	0.0033	1.064	3.5E-08
12,POU3F2	rs2388334	6	98,591,622	A/G	0.52	0.93	8.6E-08	0.95	0.010	0.94	4.0E-09
13	rs10455979	6	166,995,260	C/G	0.53	0.93	4.6E-08	0.97	0.092	0.94	4.3E-08
14	rs113779084	7	11,871,787	A/G	0.30	1.068	7.3E-06	1.095	5.7E-05	1.076	2.5E-09
15	rs73188321	7	105,048,158	T/C	0.33	0.92	7.0E-08	0.94	0.0030	0.92	1.1E-09
16	chr7_140700006_I	7	140,700,006	D/I	0.25	0.92	9.4E-08	0.93	0.0015	0.92	6.2E-10
17,ANK3	rs10994318	10	62,125,856	C/G	0.057	1.151	4.5E-07	1.130	0.0041	1.145	6.8E-09
18,ADD3	chr10_111745562_I	10	111,745,562	I/D	0.16	1.105	5.0E-08	1.059	0.034	1.090	1.2E-08
19,FADS2	rs12226877	11	61,591,907	A/G	0.29	1.095	1.2E-08	1.062	0.015	1.085	9.9E-10
20	rs10896090	11	65,945,186	A/G	0.81	1.094	2.1E-07	1.062	0.018	1.084	1.9E-08
21	rs7122539	11	66,662,731	A/G	0.35	0.93	2.2E-07	0.96	0.030	0.94	3.8E-08
22	rs12575685	11	70,517,927	A/G	0.31	1.066	1.2E-05	1.088	1.1E-04	1.073	7.7E-09
23,CACNA1C	rs10744560	12	2,387,099	T/C	0.34	1.087	2.9E-09	1.052	0.017	1.076	3.6E-10
24	rs4447398	15	42,904,904	A/C	0.12	1.112	1.1E-07	1.072	0.016	1.099	9.4E-09
25	chr15_85357857_I	15	85,357,857	I/D	0.28	0.92	8.5E-09	0.97	0.16	0.93	2.7E-08
26	rs11647445	16	9,926,966	T/G	0.65	0.93	1.2E-07	0.93	2.00E-04	0.93	1.1E-10
27	rs112114764	17	42,201,041	T/G	0.69	0.93	1.7E-06	0.94	0.0042	0.93	2.5E-08
28	rs11557713	18	60,243,876	A/G	0.29	1.074	1.2E-06	1.059	0.0077	1.069	3.6E-08
29,NCAN	rs111444407	19	19,358,207	T/C	0.15	1.124	2.4E-10	1.040	0.15	1.097	1.3E-09
30	chr20_43682549_I	20	43,682,549	I/D	0.28	0.92	3.0E-07	0.94	0.0086	0.93	1.1E-08
30*	rs6130764	20	43,750,410	T/C	0.57	1.070	5.8E-07	1.051	0.014	1.064	3.2E-08

* Locus 30 contained two lead SNPs in low linkage disequilibrium (r2<0.1)

Figure 1. Manhattan plot for our primary genomewide association analysis of 20,352 cases and 31,358 controls. -log10P-values are plotted for all SNPs across chromosomes 1-22 (green if P<10-6). Labels correspond to gene symbols previously reported for known loci (black) and the nearest genes for novel bipolar risk loci (blue).

Lead SNPs for loci achieving genome-wide significance are tabulated in **Table 1**, and additional

SNP associations (P<1x10^{-4}) from the BD GWAS that we tested further in the follow-up samples

are presented in **Supplementary Table 2**. In **Supplementary Table 3**, we present detailed

descriptions of the associated loci and genes, with bioinformatic and literature evidence for

 their role in BD.

We conducted conditional analyses across each of the 30 genome-wide significant loci found in

the GWAS sample (**Supplementary Table 4**). Using the LD structure within loci to compute a

multiple-test-corrected conditional significance threshold [26] of P=1.01x10^{-5}, one locus showed

evidence for an independent association signal (rs114534140 near *FSTL5* with P$_{conditional}$ = 2x10^{-6};

155 all other loci had minimum $P_{conditional} > 0.0002$). Conditional analyses including the lead SNPs in

the present GWAS for lead SNPs reported in previous bipolar disorder GWAS studies were

consistent with the same association signal at all loci ($P_{conditional} > 0.01$), despite low LD between

published and current lead SNPs in some cases (see **Supplementary Note**). Thus only the *FSTL5*

locus demonstrated clear evidence of two causal variants, and all other loci were consistent with

160 a single causal variant.

BD subtype GWAS

We performed secondary analyses of the GWAS dataset, focusing on three clinically

recognised subtypes: BD1 (n=14,879 cases), BD2 (n=3,421 cases), and SAB (n= 977 cases;

Supplementary Tables 1A and **5, Supplementary Note**; **Supplementary Figure 4**). A few

165 suggestive subtype-specific associations are noted, although the smaller BD2- and SAB-specific

GWAS did not identify significant associations. BD1, BD2 and SAB all have significant common

variant heritabilities (h^2_{snp} BD1 = 0.25, se = 0.01; BD2: 0.13, se = 0.028; SAB: 0.26, se = 0.10), and

genetic correlations among BD subtypes show that these represent closely related, yet partially

distinct, phenotypes (see below).

170 **Shared loci and genetic correlations with SCZ, Depression and other GWAS traits**

In a series of conditional analyses within bipolar risk loci and genome-wide genetic

correlation analyses, we examined the relationships of BD to other psychiatric disorders and

other traits for which GWAS have been conducted. Looking at individual loci, 8 of the 30

genome-wide significant BD loci also harbor SCZ associations [27–29]. Conditional analyses suggest

175 that the BD and SCZ associations are not independent at 5 of the 8 shared loci (**Supplementary**

Table 6), the exceptions being the *NCAN*, *TRANK1* and chr7q22.3 (105Mb) loci. We did not find

any BD loci (at $p<5x10^{-8}$) that overlap with those identified for major depression, including 44

risk loci identified in the most recent PGC study based on 130,664 major depression cases and

330,470 controls[30], or those reported in a large study of depressive symptoms or subjective

well-being [31]. As reported in smaller studies of BD, we found substantial genome-wide

correlation between BD and SCZ (LD-score regression estimated genetic correlation r_g = 0.70 (se

= 0.02)). The SCZ-depression (r_g = 0.34, se = 0.025) and BD-depression genetic correlations (r_g =

0.35, se = 0.026), although significant, are much smaller than seen for BD-SCZ (**Supplementary**

Table 7A).

**Figure 2. Association of BD subtypes with polygenic risk scores (PRS) derived from PGC2
studies of SCZ and major depression. X-axis = t-statistic from regression of PRS on BD
subtypes. Red line = Bonferroni threshold for 10 thresholds tested. Results are detailed in
Supplementary Table 8.**

Polygenic risk scores and genetic correlations (**Figure 2**, **Supplementary Tables 7A** and

8) provide support for a continuum of SCZ-BD1-BD2-Depression genetic effects, with

significantly greater genetic SCZ polygenic risk scores (PRS) in BD1 cases than in BD2 cases (min

P=1.00x10^{-18}, P threshold = 0.1), and greater Depression PRS in BD2 cases than in BD1 cases (min

P=3.03x10^{-9}, P threshold = 0.2). LD-score regression derived genetic correlations support these

195   results, showing greater genetic correlations for SCZ with BD1 (r_g = 0.71, se = 0.025) than with

BD2 (r_g = 0.51, se = 0.072), P_{diff} = 0.0056, and for depression with BD2 (r_g = 0.69, se = 0.093) than

with BD1 (r_g = 0.30, se = 0.028), P_{diff} = 2.9x10^{-5}.

We found significant genetic correlations between BD and other psychiatric-relevant

traits (**Supplementary Table 7B**). These include significant genetic overlaps with autism (r_g =

200   0.18, P=2x10^{-4}) [8], anorexia nervosa (r_g = 0.23, P=9x10^{-8}) [32], and subjective well-being (r_g = -0.22,

P=4x10^{-7}) [31]. There was suggestive overlap with anxiety disorders (r_g=0.21, P=0.04) [33] and

neuroticism (r_g=0.12, P=0.002) [34].   Significant r_gs are seen with measures of education: college

attendance (r_g = 0.21, P=1=x10[-7]) [35], education years (r_g=0.20, P=6x10^{-14}) [36], but not with

childhood IQ (r_g=0.05, P=0.5) [37] or intelligence (r_g=-0.05, P=0.08) [38]. Among a large number of

205   bipolar risk locus SNPs associated with additional traits from GWAS catalog, we found a handful

of non-independent associations (with educational attainment, biliary atresia, lipid-related

biomarkers) (**Supplementary Table 6**). However, among these, only educational attainment

showed significant genomewide genetic correlations with bipolar disorder (**Supplementary

Table 7B**).

210   **Systems biology and functional analyses of GWAS results**

In order to try to identify genes with functional variation that might explain the associations, we

used Mendelian randomisation (SMR) [39] to integrate our bipolar disorder GWAS with eQTL data

from dorsolateral prefrontal cortex [40] as well as a large-sample whole blood eQTL dataset [41].

This identified six transcriptome-wide significant genes without signs of heterogeneity between

215   GWAS and eQTL signals (**Supplementary Table 9**). Among these, expression of *LMAN2L* is

indicated as putatively causal for bipolar disorder risk within the chr2q11.2 (97.4Mb) locus. In addition, *FADS1*, *NMB* and *C17ORF65* are highlighted as novel candidates within genome-wide significant loci, although other genes in these loci show suggestive evidence of expression mediating disease risk.

We tested for functional genomic enrichment in our bipolar disorder GWAS using partitioned LD-score regression [42] (**Supplementary Note**, **Supplementary Table 10** and **Supplemental Figure 7**). Annotations tested included tracks representing open chromatin DHS peaks in a range of tissues [43], as well as genic annotations, conservation, a number of functional genomic annotations across tissues that comprise the baseline model for partitioned LD-score regression. BD associations were significantly enriched in open chromatin annotations in brain compared with those in other tissues. (**Supplementary Table 11**).

Finally, we used MAGMA [44] to calculate gene-wide association p-values, and to use these to test curated pathways from multiple sources (see Supplementary Note) for enrichment in BD associations. Genic association results (**Supplementary Table 12**) identify 154 Bonferroni significant genes in total, including 82 genes in 20 genome-wide significant loci (range 1-15 genes per locus) and 73 genes in 27 novel loci. Seven related pathways were enriched (FDR < 0.05) for association including neuron number, endocannabinoid signaling, and several ion channel transport pathways. (**Supplementary Table 13, Supplementary Figure 5**).

DISCUSSION

235   We carried out the largest BD GWAS to date, aiming to identify genetic variants

associated with BD, examine the genetic relationships among BD, BP1, BP2, SAB and SCZ, and

identify biological pathways related to BD through systems genomics. Our GWAS analysis

identified 19 genome-wide significant loci, including 12 loci not previously associated with BD.

Previous BD GWAS have reported a total of 20 loci significantly associated with BD [9–23]; twelve of

240   these previously reported loci were not genome-wide significant in our GWAS analysis but had

$P_{GWAS} \leq 1.3x10^{-5}$. Given the small effect sizes of BD associated SNPs, these results are not

unexpected, reflecting the effects of Winner's curse, amongst other issues [45]. When we

performed a combined meta analysis of the top 881 SNPs (with $p<1x10^{-4}$), 31 SNPs in 30 loci

achieved genome-wide significance ($P_{combined} < 5x10^{-8}$), including 19 SNPs in 18 loci that were not

245   previously genome-wide significant in our main analysis. Our combined analysis identified 10

previously known loci as genome-wide significant, and a total of twenty novel bipolar disorder

risk loci.

        Of these 30 overall loci, 8 also harbor SCZ associations [27–29]. Conditional analyses suggest

that the BD and SCZ associations are not independent at 5 of the 8 shared loci (**Supplementary**

250   **Table 6**), the exceptions being the *NCAN*, *TRANK1* and chr7q22.3 (105Mb) loci. *TRANK1* is our

strongest associated locus; differential BD and SCZ associations there and our other loci may

represent opportunities to understand the genetic distinctions between these closely related

disorders. We did not find BD loci that overlap with those associated with major depression [30].

The lack of overlapping loci with major depression may be due to the variants underlying the

255   genetic correlation seen between major depression and BD having individual lower effect sizes

than our BD GWAS loci.

        The confirmed association with *CACNA1C* and other voltage-gated calcium channels

supports the rekindled interest in calcium channel antagonists as potential treatments for BD with similar examination ongoing of other genes implicated by current GWASs [46]. Other

260 biological pathways implicated by loci associated with BD include energy metabolism and calcium channel processes. These process are both important in neuronal hyperexcitability [47], an excess of which has been reported in iPSC derived neurons from BD patients, where lithium, a classic mood stabilizing drug, differentially affects neuronal excitability [48]. Other genes mapping to associated loci include those coding for neurotransmitter channels (*GRIN2A*), ion channels

265 and transporters (*SCN2A, SLC4A1*) and synaptic components (*RIMS1, ANK3*).

The estimated variance explained by polygenic risk scores (PRS) based on our BD GWAS data is ~8% (observed scale; 4% on the liability scale [49]), an increase from 2.8% from our previous study [9]. Using PRS for other psychiatric phenotypes, we identified differential sharing of risk alleles between common subtypes of BD (BD1 and BD2) with schizophrenia and major

270 depression, effects that are mirrored by the patterns of LD score genetic correlations between the traits (Figure 2). In particular we were able to show that BD1 is genetically more closely related to schizophrenia while BD2 is more closely related to major depression. This finding may make a useful contribution to a topic which has been much debated [3] although further studies are needed to examine the genetic relationship between severe recurrent depression, for which

275 we did not have GWAS data, and BD2 [50]. Likewise, while we see significant genetic correlations of BD with educational attainment, we do not see significant r_gs of BD with either adult or childhood IQ, suggesting the role of BD genetics in increased educational attainment, as suggested by epidemiological studies [51], may be independent of general intelligence, despite its significant r_g with educational attainment ($r_g = 0.70$, P = 2.5×10^{-287}). Our findings address key

280 clinical questions and suggest potential new biological mechanisms for bipolar disorder.

Online Methods

Methods.

GWAS cohorts. We performed GWAS meta-analysis of 32 cohorts from 14 countries in Europe, North America and Australia (**Supplementary Table 1A**), totaling 20,352 cases and 31,358

285 controls of European descent. The **Supplementary Note** summarizes the source and inclusion/exclusion criteria for cases and controls for each cohort. All cohorts in the initial PGC BD paper were included [9]. Cases were required to meet international consensus criteria (DSM-IV, ICD-9, or ICD-10) for a lifetime diagnosis of BD established using structured diagnostic instruments from assessments by trained interviewers, clinician-administered checklists, or

290 medical record review (see **Supplementary Note**). Controls in most cohorts were screened for the absence of lifetime psychiatric disorders and randomly selected from the population. We also conducted BD subtype GWAS (see **Supplementary Note** for details)**.**

Follow-up cohorts. We meta-analysed the 881 variants that had a $p<10^{-4}$ in the BD GWAS data with data from European-ancestry cohorts (totaling 9,412 cases and 137,760 controls).

295 **Supplementary Table 1** summarizes the source and inclusion/exclusion criteria for cases and controls for each cohort. Genotyping and quality control. Genotyping procedures can be found in the GWAS reports or reference publications for each cohort (**Supplementary Table 1** and **Supplementary Note**). Individual genotype data for all GWAS cohorts and the iPSYCH cohort were processed using the PGC "ricopili" pipeline (URLs) for standardized quality control,

300 imputation, and analysis [52]. The follow-up cohorts from were processed by the collaborating research teams using comparable procedures. Quality control filters applied to each cohort included imputation marker INFO score ≥ 0.6 and allele frequencies ≥ 0.01 and ≤ 0.99.

Quality control and imputation on the GWAS cohorts was performed according to standards

from the PGC. SNPs and insertion-deletion polymorphisms were imputed using the 1000

305   Genomes Project multi-ancestry reference panel (URLs)[53] . Principal components based on ld

independent SNPs were calculated to be used as covariates in final association analysis.

Further details of SNP and individual level QC can be found in the Supplementary Note.

Statistical analysis. In each cohort, logistic regression association tests were conducted for

imputed marker dosages with principal components covariates to control for population

310   stratification. Ancestry was evaluated using principal components analysis applied to directly

genotyped SNPs [54]. We tested 20 principal components for association with BD and included 6

principal components covariates for the GWAS cohorts; all other cohorts adopted similar

strategies. The results were combined across samples using an inverse-weighted fixed effects

model [52]. For all GWAS cohorts, X-chromosome association results were conducted separately

315   by sex, and then meta-analysed across sexes. X chromosome genotype data was not available

for the follow-up cohorts.

Defining loci. GWA findings implicate genomic regions containing multiple significant SNPs

("loci"). These are not independent associations but result from LD between SNPs. We collapsed

the significant SNPs to 30 loci via steps described in the Supplementary Note.

320   Polygenic risk score (PRS) analyses. To demonstrate the validity of our GWAS results, we

conducted a series of PRS prediction analyses. Detailed results for all *P*-value thresholds are

reported for the anchor cohorts in **Supplementary Table 14**. We next examined whether the

PRSs for major depression and for SCZ differ between BD type I and type II cases using the entire

GWAS cohort as the target sample. We tested the standardized PRS between BD I cases

325   (N=8044) and BD II cases (N=3365) by regressing the scores on the two subtypes while adjusting

for ancestry principal components and a batch (in this case, cohort) indicator (**Supplementary**

Table 8) using logistic regression [55].

Linkage disequilibrium (LD) score regression [25,56] was used to estimate heritability and bivariate genetic correlations from GWA summary statistics. LD score regression bivariate genetic correlations attributable to genome-wide SNPs were estimated across BD cohorts and between the full BD cohort and other traits and disorders. Additional QC steps were carried out dependant on the properties of each set of summary statistics (see **Supplementary Note).** LD score regression was also used to partition by genomic features [42]. We also used LD score regression to estimate genetic correlation between BD and a range of other disorders, diseases, and human traits [56]. These calculations were done using the internal PGC GWA library and with LD-Hub [56].

Relation of BD GWA findings to tissue and cellular gene expression. We used partitioned LD score regression to evaluate which somatic tissues and brain tissues were enriched for BD heritability. [57] We used summary-data-based Mendelian randomization (SMR) [39] to identify loci with strong evidence of causality via gene expression (**Supplementary Table 9**). Since the aim of SMR is to prioritize variants and genes for subsequent studies, a test for heterogeneity excludes regions that may harbor multiple causal loci (pHET < 0.05).

DNA looping using Hi-C. To examine the 31 significant loci we conducted analysis of DNA looping between top SNPs and nearby genes. This did not yield any significant results; full methods can be found in the **Supplementary Note**.

Gene-wise and pathway analysis. Our approach was guided by rigorous method comparisons conducted by PGC members [44,58]. *P*-values quantifying the degree of association of genes and gene sets with BD were generated using MAGMA (v1.06) [44]. MAGMA was used to calculate gene-wide association by using Brown's method to combine SNP p-values, accounting for the LD structure present in the gene. The resulting p-values are then combined into aggregate p-values

(using Brown's method to correct for correlation between them), thereby increasing power across a range of genetic architectures. We used ENSEMBL gene co-ordinates for 19,079 genes giving a Bonferroni corrected *P*-value threshold of 2.6×10^{-6}. These aggregate gene-wide p-values are then used to perform rests of association enrichment in gene sets using a competitive

355   analysis that tests whether genes in a gene set are more strongly associated with the phenotype than other gene sets, correcting for gene size, SNP density, and LD within and between genes. We used European-ancestry subjects from 1,000 Genomes Project (Phase 3 v5a, MAF ≥ 0.01) [53] for the LD reference. The gene window used was 35 kb upstream and 10 kb downstream to include regulatory elements.

360   Gene sets were compiled from multiple sources. The pathway map (**Supplementary Figure 5**) was constructed using the kernel generative topographic mapping algorithm (k-GTM) as described by [59]. See **Supplementary Note** for further details.

Genome build. All genomic coordinates are given in NCBI Build 37/UCSC hg19.

Availability of results. The PGC's policy is to make genome-wide summary results public.

365   Summary statistics for our meta-analysis of the GWAS cohort samples are available on the PGC web site (URLs). Availability of genotype data for the anchor cohorts can be applied for via http://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/shared-methods. For the expanded cohorts, interested users should contact the lead PIs of these cohorts (which are separate from the PGC).

URLs

370   1000 Genomes Project multi-ancestry imputation panel,

https://mathgen.stats.ox.ac.uk/impute/data_download_1000G_phase1_integrated.html

Bedtools, https://bedtools.readthedocs.io

Genotype-based checksums for relatedness determination,

http://www.broadinstitute.org/~sripke/share_links/checksums_download

375   GTEx, http://www.gtexportal.org/home/datasets

GTMapTool, http://infochim.u-strasbg.fr/mobyle-cgi/portal.py#forms::gtmaptool

LD-Hub, http://ldsc.broadinstitute.org

MDD summary results are available on the PGC website, https://pgc.unc.edu

NIH NeuroBiobank, https://neurobiobank.nih.gov

380   PGC "ricopili" GWA pipeline, https://github.com/Nealelab/ricopili

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DISPLAY ITEMS

Figure 1.

1050   Table 1.

Figure 2.

Figure 3.

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