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Biological Insights From 108 Schizophrenia-Associated Genetic Loci

A full list of authors and affiliations appears at the end of the article.

Summary

Schizophrenia is a highly heritable disorder. Genetic risk is conferred by a large number of alleles, including common alleles of small effect that might be detected by genome-wide association studies. Here, we report a multi-stage schizophrenia genome-wide association study of up to 36,989 cases and 113,075 controls. We identify 128 independent associations spanning 108 conservatively defined loci that meet genome-wide significance, 83 of which have not been previously reported. Associations were enriched among genes expressed in brain providing biological plausibility for the findings. Many findings have the potential to provide entirely novel insights into aetiology, but associations at *DRD2* and multiple genes involved in glutamatergic neurotransmission highlight molecules of known and potential therapeutic relevance to schizophrenia, and are consistent with leading pathophysiological hypotheses. Independent of genes expressed in brain, associations were enriched among genes expressed in tissues that play important roles in immunity, providing support for the hypothesized link between the immune system and schizophrenia.

Schizophrenia has a life time risk of around 1%, and is associated with substantial morbidity and mortality as well as personal and societal costs.¹⁻³ Although pharmacological treatments

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Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Michael O'Donovan: odonovanmc@cardiff.ac.uk or odonovanmc@cf.ac.uk.

Contributions The individual studies or consortia contributing to the GWAS meta-analysis were led by R.A., O.A.A., D.H.R.B., A.D.B., E. Bramon, J.D.B., A.C., D.A.C., S.C., A.D., E. Domenici, H.E., T.E., P.V.G., M.G., H.G., C.M.H., N.I., A.V.J., E.G.J., K.S.K., G.K., J. Knight, T. Lencz, D.F.L., Q.S.L., J.Liu, A.K.M., S.A.M., A. McQuillin, J.L.M., P.B.M., B.J.M., M.M.N., M.C.O'D., R.A.O., M.J.O., A. Palotie, C.N.P., T.L.P., M.R., B.P.R., D.R., P.C.S., P. Sklar, D.St.C., P.F.S., D.R.W., J.R.W., J.T.R.W. and T.W. Together with the core statistical analysis group led by M.J.D. comprising S.R., B.M.N., and P.A.H., this group comprised the management group led by M.C.O'D. who were responsible for the management of the study and the overall content of the manuscript. Additional analyses and interpretations were contributed by E.A., B.B-S., D.K., K.H.F., M. Fromer, H.H., P.L., P.B.M., S.M.P., T.H.P., N.R.W., and P.M.V. The phenotype supervisory group comprised A.C., A.H.F., P.V.G., K.K.K., and B.J.M., D.A.C. led the candidate selected genes subgroup comprised of M.J.D., E. Dominici, J.A.K., A.M.H., M.C.O'D., B.P.R., D.R., E.M.S. and P. Sklar. Replication results were provided by S.S., H.S., and K.S. The remaining authors contributed to the recruitment, genotyping, or data processing for the contributing components of the meta-analysis. A.C., M.J.D., B.M.N., S.R., P.F.S. and M.C.O'D. took responsibility for the primary drafting of the manuscript which was shaped by the management group. All other authors had sight of, had the opportunity to comment on, and approved the final draft.

URLs: Results can be downloaded from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium website (<http://pgc.unc.edu>) and visualized using Ricopili (<http://www.broadinstitute.org/mpg/ricopili>). Genotype data for the samples where the ethics permit deposition are available upon application from the NIMH Genetics Repository (<https://www.nimhgenetics.org>).

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are available for schizophrenia, their efficacy is poor for many patients.⁴ All available antipsychotic drugs are thought to exert their main therapeutic effects through blockade of the type 2 dopaminergic receptor^{5,6} but, since the discovery of this mechanism over 60 years ago, no new antipsychotic drug of proven efficacy has been developed based on other target molecules. Therapeutic stasis is in large part a consequence of the fact that the pathophysiology of schizophrenia is unknown. Identifying the causes of schizophrenia is therefore a critical step towards improving treatments and outcomes for those with the disorder.

High heritability points to a major role for inherited genetic variants in the aetiology of schizophrenia.^{7,8} While risk variants range in frequency from common to extremely rare⁹, estimates^{10,11} suggest half to a third of the genetic risk of schizophrenia is indexed by common alleles genotyped by current genome-wide association study (GWAS) arrays. Thus, GWAS is potentially an important tool for understanding the biological underpinnings of schizophrenia.

To date, around 30 schizophrenia-associated loci¹⁰⁻²³ have been identified through GWAS. Postulating that sample size is one of the most important limiting factors in applying GWAS to schizophrenia, we created the Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC). Our primary aim was to combine all available schizophrenia samples with published or unpublished GWAS genotypes into a single, systematic analysis.²⁴ Here, we report the results of that analysis, including at least 108 independent genomic loci that exceed genome-wide significance. Some of the findings support leading pathophysiological hypotheses of schizophrenia or targets of therapeutic relevance, but most of the findings provide novel insights.

128 Independent Associated Loci

We obtained genome-wide genotype data from which we constructed 49 ancestry matched, non-overlapping case-control samples (46 of European and three of East Asian ancestry, 34,241 cases and 45,604 controls) and 3 family-based samples of European ancestry (1,235 parent affected-offspring trios) (Supplementary Table 1 and Supplementary text). These comprise the primary PGC GWAS dataset. Genotypes from all studies were processed by the PGC using unified quality control procedures followed by imputation of SNPs and insertion-deletions using the 1000 Genomes Project reference panel.²⁵ In each sample, association testing was conducted using imputed marker dosages and principal components (PCs) to control for population stratification. The results were combined using an inverse-weighted fixed effects model.²⁶ After quality control (imputation INFO score \geq 0.6, MAF \geq 0.01, and successfully imputed in \geq 20 samples), we considered around 9.5 million variants. The results are summarized in Figure 1. To enable acquisition of large samples, some groups ascertained cases via clinician diagnosis rather than a research-based assessment and provided evidence of the validity of this approach (Supplementary text).^{11,13} *Post-hoc* analyses revealed the pattern of effect sizes for associated loci was similar across different assessment methods and modes of ascertainment (Extended Data Figure 1), supporting our *a priori* decision to include samples of this nature.

For the subset of LD (linkage disequilibrium)-independent SNPs with $P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ in the meta-analysis, we next obtained results from deCODE genetics (1,513 cases and 66,236 controls of European ancestry). We define LD-independent SNPs as those with low LD ($r^2 < 0.1$) to a more significantly associated SNP within a 500 kb window. Given high LD in the extended MHC region spans ~8 Mb, we conservatively include only a single MHC SNP to represent this locus. The deCODE data were then combined with those from the primary GWAS to give a dataset of 36,989 cases and 113,075 controls. In this final analysis, 128 LD-independent SNPs surpassed genome-wide significance ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) (Supplementary Table 2).

As in meta-analyses of other complex traits which identified large numbers of common risk variants,^{27,28} the test statistic distribution from our GWAS deviates from the null (Extended Data Figure 2). This is consistent with the previously documented polygenic contribution to schizophrenia.^{10,11} The deviation in the test statistics from the null ($\lambda_{GC} = 1.47$, $\lambda_{1000} = 1.01$) is only slightly less than expected ($\lambda_{GC} = 1.56$) under a polygenic model given fully informative genotypes, the current sample size, and the lifetime risk and heritability of schizophrenia.²⁹

Multiple additional lines of evidence allow us to conclude the deviation between the observed and null distributions in our primary GWAS indicates a true polygenic contribution to schizophrenia. First, applying a novel method³⁰ that uses LD information to distinguish between the major potential sources of test statistic inflation, we found our results are consistent with polygenic architecture but not population stratification (Extended Data Figure 3). Second, for 78% of 263 LD-independent SNPs with $P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ in the case-control GWAS, the risk alleles from were overrepresented in cases in the independent samples from deCODE ($P = 5.6 \times 10^{-21}$). This degree of consistency between the primary GWAS and the replication data is highly unlikely to occur by chance ($P = 1 \times 10^{-9}$). (Note the tested alleles surpassed the $P < 10^{-6}$ threshold in our GWAS before we added either the trios or deCODE data to the meta-analysis. This trend test is therefore independent of the primary case-control GWAS). Third, analysing the 1,235 parent-proband trios, we again found excess transmission of the schizophrenia-associated allele at 69% of the LD-independent SNPs with $P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ in the case-control GWAS. This is again unlikely to occur by chance ($P = 1 \times 10^{-9}$) and additionally excludes population stratification as fully explaining the associations that surpassed our threshold for seeking replication. Fourth, we used the trios trend data to estimate the expected proportion of true associations at $P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ in the discovery GWAS, allowing for the fact that half of the index SNPs are expected to show the same allelic trend in the trios by chance, and that some true associations will show opposite trends given the limited number of trio samples (Supplementary Material). Given the observed trend test results, around 67% (95% CI 64%-73%) or $N = 176$ of the associations in the scan at $P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ are expected to be true, and therefore the number of associations that will ultimately be validated from this set of SNPs will be considerably more than those that now meet genome-wide significance. Taken together, these analyses indicate that the observed deviation of test statistics from the null primarily represents polygenic association signal, and that the considerable excess of associations at the tail of extreme significance largely correspond to true associations.

Independently associated SNPs do not translate to well-bounded chromosomal regions. Nevertheless, it is useful to define physical boundaries for the SNP associations to identify candidate risk genes. We defined an associated locus as the physical region containing all SNPs correlated at $r^2 > 0.6$ with each of the 128 index SNPs. Associated loci within 250 kb of each other were merged. This resulted in 108 physically distinct associated loci, 83 of which have not been previously implicated in schizophrenia and therefore harbour potential novel biological insights into disease aetiology (Supplementary Table 3; regional plots in Supplementary Figure 1). The significant regions include all but 5 loci previously reported as genome-wide significant in large samples (Supplementary Table 3).

Characterization of Associated Loci

Of the 108 loci, 75% include protein-coding genes (40% a single gene) and a further 8% are within 20 kb of a gene (Supplementary Table 3). Notable associations relevant to major hypotheses of the aetiology and treatment of schizophrenia include *DRD2* (the target of all effective antipsychotic drugs) and multiple genes (e.g. *GRM3*, *GRIN2A*, *SRR*, *GRI1*) involved in glutamatergic neurotransmission and synaptic plasticity. In addition, associations at *CACNA1C*, *CACNB2*, and *CACNA1I*, which encode voltage-gated calcium channel subunits, extend previous findings implicating members of this family of proteins in schizophrenia and other psychiatric disorders.^{11,13,31,32} Genes encoding calcium channels, and proteins involved in glutamatergic neurotransmission and synaptic plasticity have been independently implicated in schizophrenia by studies of rare genetic variation,³³⁻³⁵ suggesting convergence at a broad functional level between studies of common and rare genetic variation. We highlight in the supplementary text genes of particular interest within associated loci with respect to current hypotheses of schizophrenia aetiology or treatment (although we do not imply these genes are necessarily the causal elements).

For each of the schizophrenia associated loci, we identified a credible causal set of SNPs (for definition see Supplementary text).³⁶ In only 10 instances (Supplementary Table 4) was the association signal credibly attributable to a known nonsynonymous exonic polymorphism. The apparently limited role of protein coding variants is consistent both with exome sequencing findings³³ and with the hypothesis that most associated variants detected by GWAS exert their effects through altering gene expression rather than protein structure^{37,38} and with the observation that schizophrenia risk loci are enriched for expression quantitative trait loci (eQTL).³⁹

To try to identify eQTLs that could explain associations with schizophrenia, we merged the credible causal set of SNPs defined above with eQTLs from a meta-analysis of human brain cortex eQTL studies (N=550) and an eQTL study of peripheral venous blood (N=3754)⁴⁰ (Supplementary Text). Multiple schizophrenia loci contained at least one eQTL for a gene within 1 Mb of the locus (Supplementary Table 4). However, in only 12 instances was the eQTL plausibly causal (two in brain, and nine in peripheral blood, one in both). This low proportion suggests that if most risk variants are regulatory, available eQTL catalogs do not yet provide power, cellular specificity, or developmental diversity to provide clear mechanistic hypotheses for follow-up experiments.

Brain and Immunity

To further explore the regulatory nature of the schizophrenia associations, we mapped the credible sets (N=108) of causal variants onto sequences with epigenetic markers characteristic of active enhancers in 56 different tissues and cell lines (Supplementary Text). Schizophrenia associations were significantly enriched at enhancers active in brain (Figure 2) but not in tissues unlikely to be relevant to schizophrenia (e.g., bone, cartilage, kidney, and fibroblasts). Brain tissues used to define enhancers consist of heterogeneous populations of cells. Seeking greater specificity, we contrasted genes enriched for expression in neurons and glia using mouse ribotagged lines⁴¹. Genes with strong expression in multiple cortical and striatal neuronal lineages were enriched for associations, providing support for an important neuronal pathology in schizophrenia (Extended Data Figure 4) but this is not statistically more significant than, or exclusionary of, contributions from other lineages⁴².

Schizophrenia associations were also strongly enriched at enhancers that are active in tissues with important immune functions, particularly B-lymphocyte lineages involved in acquired immunity (CD19 and CD20 lines, Figure 2). These enrichments remain significant even after excluding the extended MHC region and regions containing brain enhancers (enrichment P for CD20 $<10^{-6}$), demonstrating that this finding is not an artefact of correlation between enhancer elements in different tissues and not driven by the strong and diffuse association at the extended MHC. Epidemiological studies have long hinted at a role for immune dysregulation in schizophrenia, the present findings provide genetic support for this hypothesis.⁴³

Aiming to develop additional biological hypotheses beyond those that emerge from inspection of the individual loci, we further undertook a limited mining of the data through gene-set analysis. However, since there is no consensus methodology by which such analyses should be conducted, nor an established optimal significance threshold for including loci, we sought to be conservative, using only two of the many available approaches^{44,45} and restricting analyses to genes within genome-wide significant loci. Neither approach identified gene-sets that were significantly enriched for associations after correction for the number of pathways tested (Supplementary Table 5) although nominally significant enrichments were observed among several predefined candidate pathways (Extended Data Table 1). A fuller exploratory analysis of the data will be presented elsewhere.

Overlap with rare mutations

CNVs associated with schizophrenia overlap with those associated with ASD and intellectual disability⁹ as do genes with deleterious *de novo* mutations.³⁴ Here, we find significant overlap between genes in the schizophrenia GWAS associated intervals and those with *de novo* nonsynonymous mutations in schizophrenia ($P=0.0061$) (Extended Data Table 2), suggesting that mechanistic studies of rare genetic variation in schizophrenia will be informative for schizophrenia more widely. We also find evidence for overlap between genes in schizophrenia GWAS regions and those with *de novo* nonsynonymous mutations in

intellectual disability ($P=0.00024$) and ASD ($P=0.035$), providing further support for the hypothesis that these disorders have partly overlapping pathophysiologies.^{9,34}

Polygenic Risk Score Profiling

Previous studies have shown that risk profile scores (RPS) constructed from alleles showing modest association with schizophrenia in a discovery GWAS can predict case-control status in independent samples, albeit with low sensitivity and specificity.^{10,11,16} This finding was robustly confirmed in the present study. The estimate of Nagelkerke R^2 (a measure of variance in case-control status explained) depends on the specific target dataset and threshold (P_T) for selecting risk alleles for RPS analysis (Extended Data Figure 5 & 6a). However, using the same target sample as earlier studies and $P_T=0.05$, R^2 is now increased from 0.03 (reference¹⁰) to 0.184 (Extended Data Figure 5). Assuming a liability-threshold model, a lifetime risk of 1%, independent SNP effects, and adjusting for case-control ascertainment, RPS now explains about 7% of variation on the liability scale⁴⁶ to schizophrenia across the samples (Extended Data Figure 6b), about half of which (3.4%) is explained by genome-wide significant loci.

We also evaluated the capacity of RPS to predict case-control status using a standard epidemiological approach to a continuous risk factor. We illustrate this in three samples, each with different ascertainment schemes (Figure 3). The Danish sample is population-based (i.e. inpatient and outpatient facilities), the Sweden sample is based on all cases hospitalized for schizophrenia in Sweden, and the MGS study was ascertained specially for genetic studies from clinical sources in the US and Australia. We grouped individuals into RPS deciles and estimated the odds ratios for affected status for each decile with reference to the lowest risk decile. The odds ratios increased with greater number of schizophrenia risk alleles in each sample, maximizing for the tenth decile in all samples: Denmark 7.8 (95% CI 4.4-13.9), Sweden 15.0 (95% CI 12.1-18.7), and MGS 20.3 (95% CI 14.7-28.2). Given the need for measures that index liability to schizophrenia,^{47,48} the ability to stratify individuals by RPS offers new opportunities for clinical and epidemiological research. Nevertheless, we stress that the sensitivity and specificity of RPS do *not* support its use as a predictive test. For example in the Danish epidemiological sample, the area under the receiver operating curve is only 0.62 (Extended Data Figure 6c, Supplementary Table 6).

Finally, seeking evidence for non-additive effects on risk, we tested for statistical interaction between all pairs of 125 autosomal SNPs that reached genome-wide significance. P -values for the interaction terms were distributed according to the null, and no interaction was significant after correction for multiple comparisons. Thus, we find no evidence for epistatic or non-additive effects between the significant loci (Extended Data Figure 7). It is possible that such effects could be present between other loci, or occur in the form of higher order interactions.

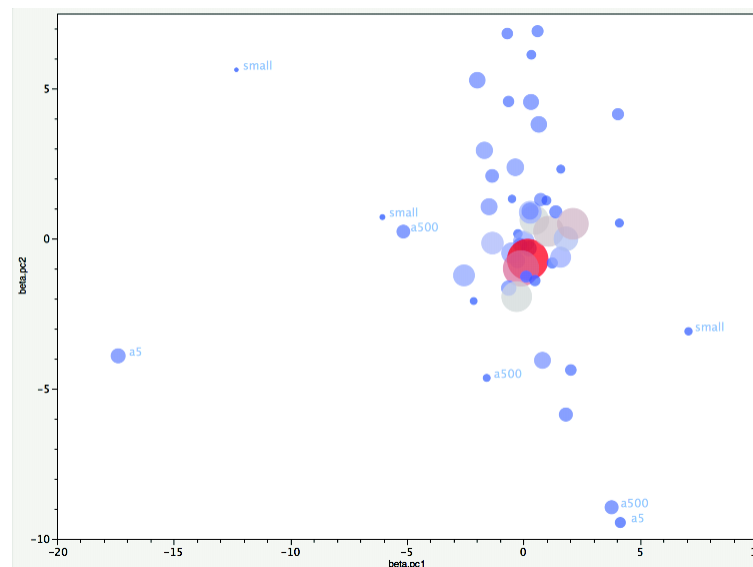
Discussion

In the largest molecular genetic study of schizophrenia ever conducted, or indeed of any neuropsychiatric disorder, we demonstrate the power of GWAS to identify large numbers of

risk loci. We also show that the use of alternative ascertainment and diagnostic schemes designed to rapidly increase sample size does not inevitably introduce a crippling degree of heterogeneity. That this is true for a phenotype like schizophrenia where there are no biomarkers or supportive diagnostic tests provides grounds to be optimistic about applying GWAS to other disorders where diagnosis is similarly clinician-based, and recruitment traditionally constrained by the need for expensive and time consuming assessments.

We further show that the associations are not randomly distributed across genes of all classes and function; rather they converge upon genes that are expressed in certain tissues and cellular types. The findings include molecules that are the current, or the most promising, targets for therapeutics, and point to systems that align with the predominant aetiological hypotheses of the disorder. This suggests that the many novel findings we report also provide a aetiologically relevant foundation for mechanistic and treatment development studies. We additionally find overlap between genes affected by rare variants in schizophrenia and those within GWAS loci, and broad convergence in the functions of some of the clusters of genes implicated by both sets of genetic variants, particularly genes related to abnormal glutamatergic synaptic and calcium channel function. How variation in these genes impact function to increase risk for schizophrenia cannot be answered by genetics, but the overlap strongly suggests that common and rare variant studies are complementary rather than antagonistic, and that mechanistic studies driven by rare genetic variation will be informative for schizophrenia.

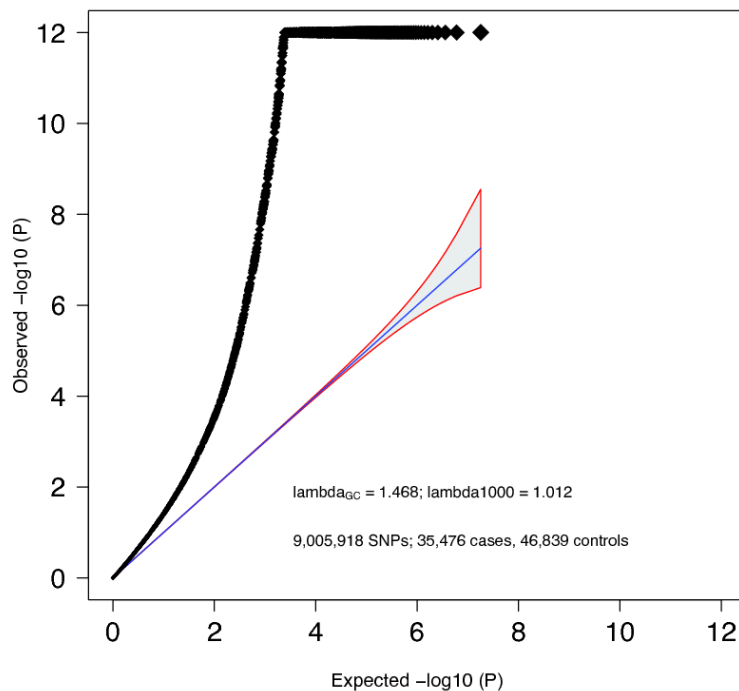
Extended Data



Extended Data Figure 1. Homogeneity of Effects Across Studies

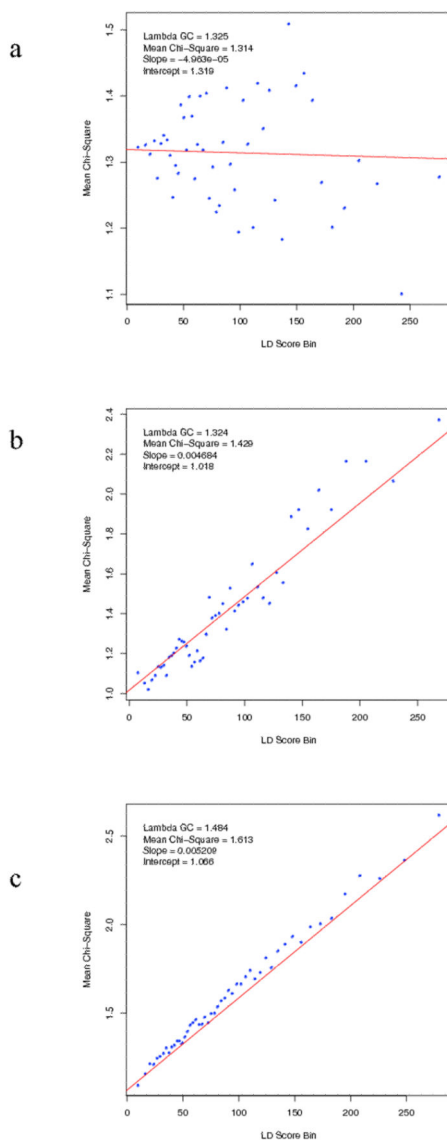
Plot of the first two principal components (PC) from principal components analysis (PCA) of the logistic regression β coefficients for autosomal genome-wide significant associations. The input data were the β coefficients from 52 samples for 112 independent SNP associations (excluding 3 chrX SNPs and 13 SNPs with missing values in Asian samples).

PCAs were weighted by the number of cases. Each circle shows the location of a study on PC1 and PC2. Circle size and colour are proportional to the number of cases in each sample (larger and redder circles correspond to more cases). Most samples cluster. Outliers had either small numbers of cases (“small”) or were genotyped on older arrays. Abbreviations. a500 (Affymetrix 500K); a5 (Affymetrix 5.0). Studies that did not use conventional research interviews are in the central cluster (CLOZUK, Sweden, and Denmark-Aarhus studies).



Extended Data Figure 2. Quantile-quantile plot

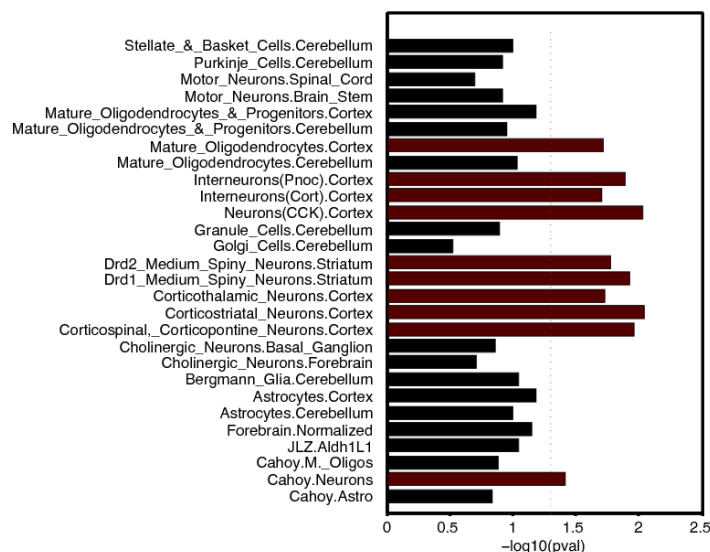
Quantile-quantile plot of GWAS meta-analysis. Expected $-\log_{10}(P)$ -values are those expected under the null hypothesis. For clarity, we avoided expansion of the Y-axis by setting association P -values $< 10^{-12}$ to 10^{-12} . The shaded area surrounded by a red line indicates the 95% confidence interval under the null. Lambda is the observed median χ^2 test statistic divided by the median expected χ^2 test statistic under the null.



Extended Data Figure 3. LD Score regression consistent with polygenic inheritance

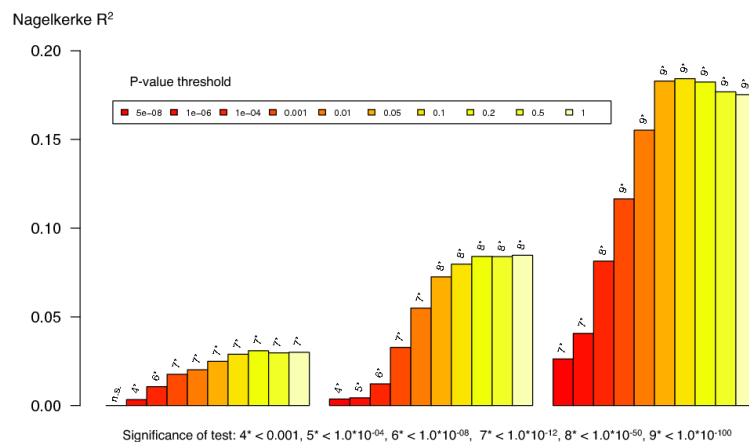
The relationship between marker χ^2 association statistics and linkage disequilibrium (LD) as measured by the LD Score. LD Score is the sum of the r^2 values between a variant and all other known variants within a 1 cM window, and quantifies the amount of genetic variation tagged by that variant. Variants were grouped into 50 equal-sized bins based on LD Score rank. LD Score Bin and Mean χ^2 denotes mean LD score and test statistic for markers each bin. We simulated (Supplementary Text) test statistics under two scenarios: (a) no true association, inflation due to population stratification (b) polygenic inheritance ($\lambda_{GC}=1.32$), in which we assigned independent and identically distributed per-normalized-genotype effects to a randomly selected subset of variants. Panel (c) present results from the PGC schizophrenia GWAS ($\lambda_{GC}=1.48$). The real data are strikingly similar to the simulated data summarized in (b) but not (a). The intercept estimates the inflation in the mean χ^2 that results from confounding biases, such as cryptic relatedness or population stratification.

Thus, the intercept of 1.066 for the schizophrenia GWAS suggests that ~90% of the inflation in the mean χ^2 results from polygenic signal. The results of the simulations are also consistent with theoretical expectation (see Supplementary Text).



Extended Data Figure 4. Enrichment of Associations in Tissues and Cells

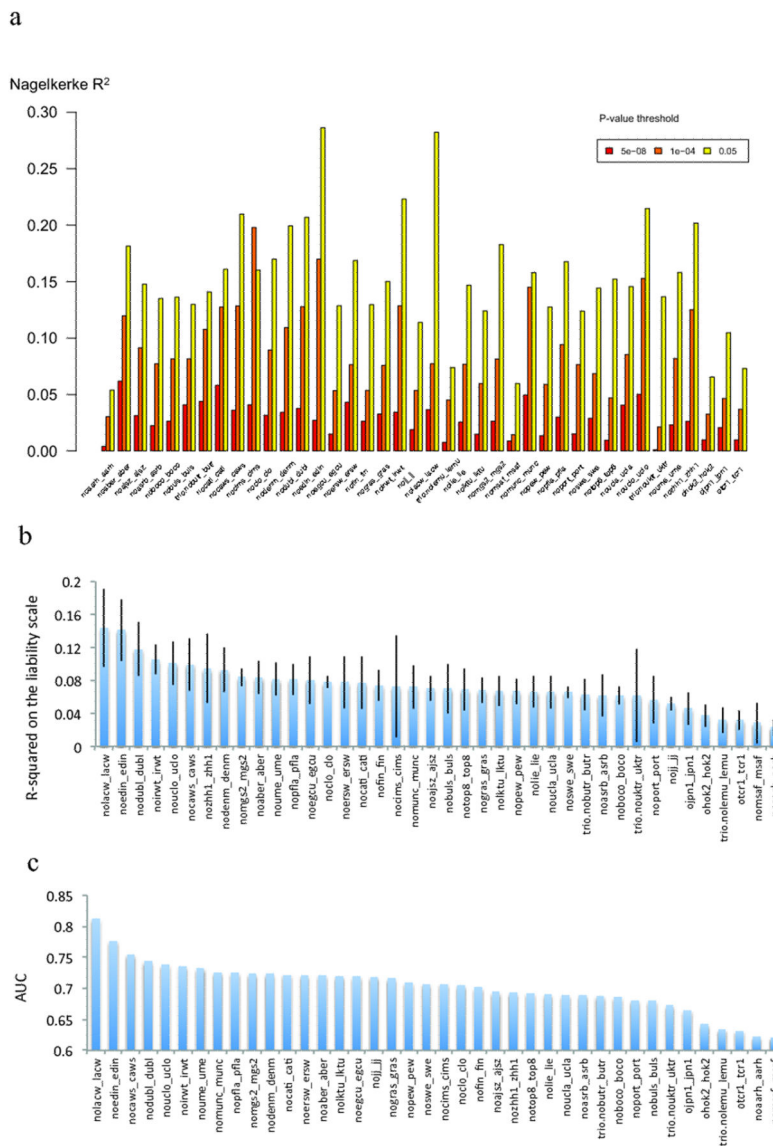
Genes whose transcriptional start is nearest to the most associated SNP at each schizophrenia-associated locus were tested for enriched expression in a) purified brain cell subsets obtained from mouse ribotagged lines⁴¹. The red dotted line indicates $P=0.05$.



Extended Data Figure 5. MGS Risk Profile Score Analysis

Polygenic risk profile score (RPS) analyses using the MGS¹⁸ sample as target, and deriving risk alleles from three published schizophrenia datasets (X-axis): ISC (2615 cases and 3338 controls)¹⁰, PGC1 (excluding MGS, 9320 cases and 10,228 controls)¹⁶, and the current meta analysis (excluding MGS) with 32,838 cases and 44,357 controls. Samples sizes differ slightly from original publication due to different analytical procedures. This shows the increasing RPS prediction with increasing training dataset size reflecting improved precision

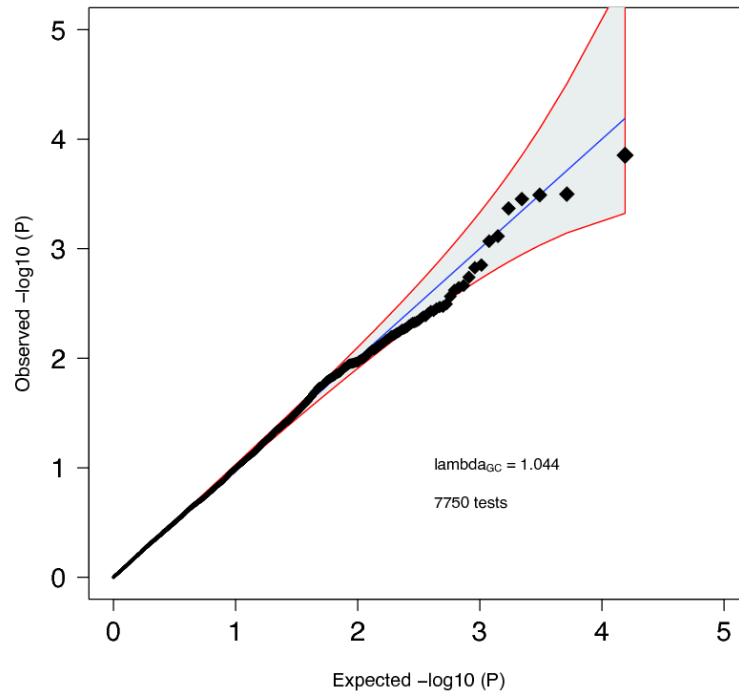
of estimates of the SNP effect sizes. The proportion of variance explained (Y-axis; Nagelkerke's R^2) was computed by comparison of a full model (covariates + RPS) score to a reduced model (covariates only). Ten different P-value thresholds (P_T) for selecting risk alleles are denoted by the colour of each bar (legend above plot). For significance testing, see the bottom legend which denotes the P-value for the test that R^2 is different from zero. All numerical data and methods used to generate these plots are available in Supplementary Tables 6, 7, and Supplementary Text.



Extended Data Figure 6. Risk Profile Score Analysis

We defined 40 target subgroups of the primary GWAS dataset and performed 40 leave-one-out GWAS analyses (see Supplementary Material) from which we derived risk alleles for RPS analysis (X-axis) for each target subgroup. a) The proportion of variance explained (Y-axis; Nagelkerke's R^2) was computed for each target by comparison of a full model (covariates + RPS) score to a reduced model (covariates only). For clarity, 3 different P-

value thresholds (P_T) are presented denoted by the colour of each bar (legend above plot) as for Extended Data Figure 5 but for clarity we restrict to fewer P -value thresholds (P_T of 5×10^{-8} , 1×10^{-4} , and 0.05) and removed the significance values. (b) The proportion of variance on the liability scale from risk scores calculated at the P_T 0.05 with 95% CI bar assuming baseline population disease risk of 1%. (c) Area under the receiver operating curve (AUC). All numerical data and methods used to generate these plots are available in Supplementary Tables 6, 7, and Supplementary Text.



Extended Data Figure 7. Epistasis

Quantile-quantile plot for all pair-wise ($N=7750$) combinations of the 125 independent autosomal genome-wide significant SNPs tested for non-additive effects on risk using case-control datasets of European ancestry (32,405 cases and 42,221 controls). We included as covariates the principal components from the main analysis as well as a study indicator. The interaction model is described by:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 * X_1 * X_2 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5$$

X_1 and X_2 are genotypes at the two loci, $X_1 * X_2$ is the interaction between the two genotypes modeled in a multiplicative fashion, X_4 is the vector of principal components, X_5 is the vector of study indicator variables. Each β is the regression coefficient in the generalized linear model using logistic regression. The overall distribution of P -values did not deviate from the null and the smallest P -value (4.28×10^{-4}) did not surpass the Bonferroni correction threshold ($p=0.05/7750=6.45 \times 10^{-6}$). The line $x=y$ indicates the expected null distribution with the grey area bounded by red lines indicating the expected 95% confidence interval for the null.

Extended Data Table 1
ALIGATOR and INRICH

Gene sets that have been reported to be enriched for schizophrenia associations and or rare mutations were tested for enrichment for genome wide significant associations using ALIGATOR⁴⁴ and INRICH⁴⁵. Specifically, we tested the glutamatergic postsynaptic proteins comprising activity-regulated cytoskeleton-associated protein (ARC) and N-methyl-d-aspartate receptor (NMDAR) complexes³³⁻³⁵, other curated synaptic gene-sets^{14,51}, targets of fragile X mental retardation protein (FMRP)³³⁻³⁵, calcium channels^{11,33}, and TargetScan predicted MIR137 sets^{11,16}. The MIR137 TargetScan sets contain computationally predicted conserved miRNA target sites in 3'UTRs of human genes⁵². The current version is v6, but the version used in the prior PGC SCZ report¹⁶ was based on v5 (filtered for a probability of conserved targeting > 0.9). We report the results of both analyses for consistency with previous work. The association at the extended MHC complex was not included given the extensive linkage disequilibrium at this region spans large numbers of genes. NA means that the pathway in question contained fewer than 2 significant genes (for ALIGATOR) or regions (INRICH).

SET	ALIGATOR	INRICH
<i>Postsynaptic sets</i>		
ARC	NA	1
NMDAR	NA	0.458
<i>Curated pre- and postsynaptic sets</i>		
Cell adhesion and trans8 synaptic signalling	0.902	0.44
Structural plasticity	NA	NA
Excitability	NA	NA
<i>FMRP sets</i>		
FMRP	0.0066	5.00E-05
<i>MIR137 sets</i>		
Targetscan v5 with PCT > 0.9	0.0371	0.0103
Targetscan v6.2	0.059	0.0024
<i>Calcium signalling sets</i>		
CACN* channel subunits	0.0338	0.022

Extended Data Table 2 de novo overlap

Test of overlap between genes mapping to schizophrenia-associated loci in the present study and genes affected by nonsynonymous (NS) de novo mutations. Enrichment was calculated using the dnenrich permutation framework as described³⁴. Genes within the GWS loci were weighted by 1/N, where N is the number of coding genes within each associated locus. The observed test statistic (stat) is the sum of weights of genes impacted by de novo mutations. The expected test statistics are calculated by averaging over 50,000 permuted de novo mutation sets. Genes within schizophrenia-associated loci affected by de novo mutations are listed (multiple hits listed in parentheses). Cohorts: SCZ = schizophrenia, ID = intellectual disability, ASD = autism spectrum disorder. All mutations analysed annotated according to a unified system (see supplementary tables 1 and 2 of ref³⁴). Genes with LoF de novo mutations are underlined and in italics.

Disease group	NS (N)	P	0 NS in PGC2 loci	Observed (stat)	Expected (stat)	Genes
SCZ	702	0.0061	25	10.97	5.27	CACNAC1(x2) <i>CCDC39</i> CDCH(x2) CRCL CUL3 DPEP2 <i>DPYD</i> (x2) EP300 <i>ESAM</i> GRIN2A <i>LRP1</i> NCAN PDCDCC PTPRF RIMSC SBNO2 SGSM2 SLC7A6 STAGC TMEM2C9 <i>ZDHC5</i> ZNF536
ID	141	0.00002	11	6.87	1.05	GRIAC GRIN2A(x2) LRPC NEKC NGEF SATB2 SREBF2 STAGC TCFH(x2)
ASD	789	0.035	19	9.99	5.93	<i>APH1A</i> CNOTC CSMDC <i>CUL3</i> CYPC7AC CYP26B1 EPHX2 LRPC MAPK3 MEF2C MPP6 MYOC5A NISCH PBRMC PRKDC <i>RIMS1</i> TSNAREC WDR55 ZNF80HA
Controls	434	0.15	16	4.88	3.28	ANKRD11H CCORF87 CCDC39 CDK2APC CHRMH DPEP2 EP300 LRPC LRRCH8 MAN2AC MYOCA OSBPL3 RAIC SF3BC SREBF2 TLE3

Supplementary Material

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Authors

Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium, Stephan Ripke^{1,2}, Benjamin M Neale^{1,2,3,4}, Aiden Corvin⁵, James TR Walters⁶, Kai-How Farh¹, Peter A Holmans^{6,7}, Phil Lee^{1,2,4}, Brendan Bulik-Sullivan^{1,2}, David A

Collier^{8,9}, Hailiang Huang^{1,3}, Tune H Pers^{3,10,11}, Ingrid Agartz^{12,13,14}, Esben Agerbo^{15,16,17}, Margot Albus¹⁸, Madeline Alexander¹⁹, Farooq Amin^{20,21}, Silviu A Bacanu²², Martin Begemann²³, Richard A Belliveau Jr², Judit Bene^{24,25}, Sarah E Bergen^{2,26}, Elizabeth Bevilacqua², Tim B Bigdeli²², Donald W Black²⁷, Richard Bruggeman²⁸, Nancy G Buccola²⁹, Randy L Buckner^{30,31,32}, William Byerley³³, Wiepke Cahn³⁴, Guiqing Cai^{35,36}, Dominique Campion³⁷, Rita M Cantor³⁸, Vaughan J Carr^{39,40}, Noa Carrera⁶, Stanley V Catts^{39,41}, Kimberley D Chambert², Raymond CK Chan⁴², Ronald YL Chan⁴³, Eric YH Chen⁴⁴, Wei Cheng⁴⁵, Eric FC Cheung⁴⁶, Siow Ann Chong⁴⁷, C Robert Cloninger⁴⁸, David Cohen⁴⁹, Nadine Cohen⁵⁰, Paul Cormican⁵, Nick Craddock^{6,7}, James J Crowley⁵¹, David Curtis^{52,53}, Michael Davidson⁵⁴, Kenneth L Davis³⁶, Franziska Degenhardt^{55,56}, Jurgen Del Favero⁵⁷, Ditte Demontis^{17,58,59}, Dimitris Dikeos⁶⁰, Timothy Dinan⁶¹, Srdjan Djurovic^{14,62}, Gary Donohoe^{5,63}, Elodie Drapeau³⁶, Jubao Duan^{64,65}, Frank Dudbridge⁶⁶, Naser Durmishi⁶⁷, Peter Eichhammer⁶⁸, Johan Eriksson^{69,70,71}, Valentina Escott-Price⁶, Laurent Essioux⁷², Ayman H Fanous^{73,74,75,76}, Martilias S Farrell⁵¹, Josef Frank⁷⁷, Lude Franke⁷⁸, Robert Freedman⁷⁹, Nelson B Freimer⁸⁰, Marion Friedl⁸¹, Joseph I Friedman³⁶, Menachem Fromer^{1,2,4,82}, Giulio Genovese², Lyudmila Georgieva⁶, Ina Giegling^{81,83}, Paola Giusti-Rodríguez⁵¹, Stephanie Godard⁸⁴, Jacqueline I Goldstein^{1,3}, Vera Golimbet⁸⁵, Srihari Gopal⁸⁶, Jacob Gratten⁸⁷, Lieuwe de Haan⁸⁸, Christian Hammer²³, Marian L Hamshere⁶, Mark Hansen⁸⁹, Thomas Hansen^{17,90}, Vahram Haroutunian^{36,91,92}, Annette M Hartmann⁸¹, Frans A Henskens^{39,93,94}, Stefan Herms^{55,56,95}, Joel N Hirschhorn^{3,11,96}, Per Hoffmann^{55,56,95}, Andrea Hofman^{55,56}, Mads V Hollegaard⁹⁷, David M Hougaard⁹⁷, Masashi Ikeda⁹⁸, Inge Joa⁹⁹, Antonio Julià¹⁰⁰, René S Kahn¹⁰¹, Luba Kalaydjieva^{102,103}, Sena Karachanak-Yankova¹⁰⁴, Juha Karjalainen⁷⁸, David Kavanagh⁶, Matthew C Keller¹⁰⁵, James L Kennedy^{106,107,108}, Andrey Khrunin¹⁰⁹, Yunjung Kim⁵¹, Janis Klovins¹¹⁰, James A Knowles¹¹¹, Bettina Konte⁸¹, Vaidutis Kucinskas¹¹², Zita Ausrele Kucinskiene¹¹², Hana Kuzelova-Ptackova^{113,114}, Anna K Kähler²⁶, Claudine Laurent^{19,115}, Jimmy Lee^{47,116}, S Hong Lee⁸⁷, Sophie E Legge⁶, Bernard Lerer¹¹⁷, Miaoxin Li¹¹⁸, Tao Li¹¹⁹, Kung-Yee Liang¹²⁰, Jeffrey Lieberman¹²¹, Svetlana Limborska¹⁰⁹, Carmel M Loughland^{39,122}, Jan Lubinski¹²³, Jouko Lönnqvist¹²⁴, Milan Macek^{113,114}, Patrik KE Magnusson²⁶, Brion S Maher¹²⁵, Wolfgang Maier¹²⁶, Jacques Mallet¹²⁷, Sara Marsal¹⁰⁰, Manuel Mattheisen^{17,58,59,128}, Morten Mattingsdal^{14,129}, Robert W McCarley^{130,131}, Colm McDonald¹³², Andrew M McIntosh^{133,134}, Sandra Meier⁷⁷, Carin J Meijer⁸⁸, Bela Melegh^{24,25}, Ingrid Melle^{14,135}, Raquelle I Mesholam-Gately^{130,136}, Andres Metspalu¹³⁷, Patricia T Michie^{39,138}, Lili Milani¹³⁷, Vihra Milanova¹³⁹, Younes Mokrab⁸, Derek W Morris^{5,63}, Ole Mors^{17,58,140}, Kieran C Murphy¹⁴¹, Robin M Murray¹⁴², Inez Myin-Germeys¹⁴³, Bertram Müller-Myhsok^{144,145,146}, Mari Nelis¹³⁷, Igor Nenadic¹⁴⁷, Deborah A Nertney¹⁴⁸, Gerald Nestadt¹⁴⁹, Kristin K Nicodemus¹⁵⁰, Liene Nikitina-Zake¹¹⁰, Laura Nisenbaum¹⁵¹, Annelie Nordin¹⁵², Eadbhard O'Callaghan¹⁵³, Colm O'Dushlaine², F Anthony O'Neill¹⁵⁴, Sang-Yun Oh¹⁵⁵, Ann Olincy⁷⁹, Line Olsen^{17,90}, Jim Van Os^{143,156}, Psychosis Endophenotypes International Consortium¹⁵⁷, Christos Pantelis^{39,158}, George N Papadimitriou⁶⁰, Sergi Papiol²³, Elena Parkhomenko³⁶, Michele T

Pato¹¹¹, Tiina Paunio^{159,160}, Milica Pejovic-Milovancevic¹⁶¹, Diana O Perkins¹⁶², Olli Pietiläinen^{160,163}, Jonathan Pimm⁵³, Andrew J Pocklington⁶, John Powell¹⁴², Alkes Price¹⁶⁴, Ann E Pulver¹⁴⁹, Shaun M Purcell⁸², Digby Quested¹⁶⁵, Henrik B Rasmussen^{17,90}, Abraham Reichenberg³⁶, Mark A Reimers¹⁶⁶, Alexander L Richards^{6,7}, Joshua L Roffman^{30,32}, Panos Roussos^{82,167}, Douglas M Ruderfer⁸², Veikko Salomaa⁷¹, Alan R Sanders^{64,65}, Ulrich Schall^{39,122}, Christian R Schubert¹⁶⁸, Thomas G Schulze^{77,169}, Sibylle G Schwab¹⁷⁰, Edward M Scolnick², Rodney J Scott^{39,171,172}, Larry J Seidman^{130,136}, Jianxin Shi¹⁷³, Engilbert Sigurdsson¹⁷⁴, Teimuraz Silagadze¹⁷⁵, Jeremy M Silverman^{36,176}, Kang Sim⁴⁷, Petr Slominsky¹⁰⁹, Jordan W Smoller^{2,4}, Hon-Cheong So⁴³, Chris C A Spencer¹⁷⁷, Eli A Stahl^{3,82}, Hreinn Stefansson¹⁷⁸, Stacy Steinberg¹⁷⁸, Elisabeth Stogmann¹⁷⁹, Richard E Straub¹⁸⁰, Eric Strengman^{181,182}, Jana Strohmaier⁷⁷, T Scott Stroup¹²¹, Mythily Subramaniam⁴⁷, Jaana Suvisaari¹²⁴, Dragan M Svrakic⁴⁸, Jin P Szatkiewicz⁵¹, Erik Söderman¹², Srinivas Thirumalai¹⁸³, Draga Toncheva¹⁰⁴, Sarah Tosato¹⁸⁴, Juha Veijola^{185,186}, John Waddington¹⁸⁷, Dermot Walsh¹⁸⁸, Dai Wang⁸⁶, Qiang Wang¹¹⁹, Bradley T Webb²², Mark Weiser⁵⁴, Dieter B Wildenauer¹⁸⁹, Nigel M Williams¹⁹⁰, Stephanie Williams⁵¹, Stephanie H Witt⁷⁷, Aaron R Wolen¹⁶⁶, Emily HM Wong⁴³, Brandon K Wormley²², Hualin Simon Xi¹⁹¹, Clement C Zai^{106,107}, Xuebin Zheng¹⁹², Fritz Zimprich¹⁷⁹, Naomi R Wray⁸⁷, Kari Stefansson¹⁷⁸, Peter M Visscher⁸⁷, Wellcome Trust Case-Control Consortium 2¹⁹³, Rolf Adolphsson¹⁵², Ole A Andreassen^{14,135}, Douglas HR Blackwood¹³⁴, Elvira Bramon¹⁹⁴, Joseph D Buxbaum^{35,36,91,195}, Anders D Børghlum^{17,58,59,140}, Sven Cichon^{55,56,95,196}, Ariel Darvasi¹⁹⁷, Enrico Domenici¹⁹⁸, Hannelore Ehrenreich²³, Tõnu Esko^{3,11,96,137}, Pablo V Gejman^{64,65}, Michael Gill⁵, Hugh Gurling⁵³, Christina M Hultman²⁶, Nakao Iwata⁹⁸, Assen V Jablensky^{39,199,200,201}, Erik G Jönsson¹², Kenneth S Kendler²⁰², George Kirov⁶, Jo Knight^{106,107,108}, Todd Lencz^{203,204,205}, Douglas F Levinson¹⁹, Qingqin S Li⁸⁶, Jianjun Liu^{192,206}, Anil K Malhotra^{203,204,205}, Steven A McCarroll^{2,96}, Andrew McQuillin⁵³, Jennifer L Moran², Preben B Mortensen^{15,16,17}, Bryan J Mowry^{87,207}, Markus M Nöthen^{55,56}, Roel A Ophoff^{38,80,208}, Michael J Owen^{6,7}, Aarno Palotie^{4,163,209}, Carlos N Pato¹¹¹, Tracey L Petryshen^{130,209,210}, Danielle Posthuma^{211,212,213}, Marcella Rietschel⁷⁷, Brien P Riley²⁰², Dan Rujescu^{81,83}, Pak C Sham²¹⁴, Pamela Sklar^{82,91,167}, David St Clair²¹⁵, Daniel R Weinberger^{180,216}, Jens R Wendland¹⁶⁸, Thomas Werge^{17,90,217}, Mark J Daly¹, Patrick F Sullivan^{26,51,162}, and Michael C O'Donovan^{6,7}

Affiliations

¹Analytic and Translational Genetics Unit, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.

²Stanley Center for Psychiatric Research, Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, MA, USA.

³Medical and Population Genetics Program, Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, MA, USA.

⁴Psychiatric and Neurodevelopmental Genetics Unit, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.

- ⁵Neuropsychiatric Genetics Research Group, Department of Psychiatry, Trinity College Dublin, Ireland.
- ⁶MRC Centre for Neuropsychiatric Genetics and Genomics, Institute of Psychological Medicine and Clinical Neurosciences, School of Medicine, Cardiff University, Cardiff, UK.
- ⁷National Centre for Mental Health, Cardiff University, Cardiff, Wales.
- ⁸Eli Lilly and Company Limited, Erl Wood Manor, Sunninghill Road, Windlesham, Surrey, UK.
- ⁹Social, Genetic and Developmental Psychiatry Centre, Institute of Psychiatry, King's College London, London, UK.
- ¹⁰Center for Biological Sequence Analysis, Department of Systems Biology, Technical University of Denmark, Lyngby, Denmark.
- ¹¹Division of Endocrinology and Center for Basic and Translational Obesity Research, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.
- ¹²Department of Clinical Neuroscience, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden.
- ¹³Department of Psychiatry, Diakonhjemmet Hospital, Oslo, Norway.
- ¹⁴NORMENT, KG Jebsen Centre for Psychosis Research, Institute of Clinical Medicine, University of Oslo, Oslo, Norway.
- ¹⁵Centre for Integrative Register-based Research, CIRRAU, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark.
- ¹⁶National Centre for Register-based Research, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark.
- ¹⁷The Lundbeck Foundation Initiative for Integrative Psychiatric Research, iPSYCH, Denmark.
- ¹⁸State Mental Hospital, Haar, Germany.
- ¹⁹Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA.
- ²⁰Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Atlanta Veterans Affairs Medical Center, Atlanta, GA, USA.
- ²¹Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Emory University, Atlanta, GA, USA.
- ²²Virginia Institute for Psychiatric and Behavioral Genetics, Department of Psychiatry, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, USA.
- ²³Clinical Neuroscience, Max Planck Institute of Experimental Medicine, Göttingen, Germany.
- ²⁴Department of Medical Genetics, University of Pécs, Pécs, Hungary.

- ²⁵Szentagothai Research Center, University of Pécs, Pécs, Hungary.
- ²⁶Department of Medical Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden.
- ²⁷Department of Psychiatry, University of Iowa Carver College of Medicine, Iowa City, IA, USA.
- ²⁸University Medical Center Groningen, Department of Psychiatry, University of Groningen, The Netherlands.
- ²⁹School of Nursing, Louisiana State University Health Sciences Center, New Orleans, LA, USA.
- ³⁰Athinoula A. Martinos Center, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.
- ³¹Center for Brain Science, Harvard University, Cambridge MA, USA.
- ³²Department of Psychiatry, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.
- ³³Department of Psychiatry, University of California at San Francisco, San Francisco, CA, USA.
- ³⁴University Medical Center Utrecht, Department of Psychiatry, Rudolf Magnus Institute of Neuroscience, The Netherlands.
- ³⁵Department of Human Genetics, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.
- ³⁶Department of Psychiatry, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.
- ³⁷Centre Hospitalier du Rouvray and INSERM U1079 Faculty of Medicine, Rouen, France.
- ³⁸Department of Human Genetics, David Geffen School of Medicine, University of California, Los Angeles, CA, USA.
- ³⁹Schizophrenia Research Institute, Sydney, Australia.
- ⁴⁰School of Psychiatry, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia.
- ⁴¹Royal Brisbane and Women's Hospital, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.
- ⁴²Institute of Psychology, Chinese Academy of Science, Beijing, PR China.
- ⁴³Department of Psychiatry, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, PR China.
- ⁴⁴Department of Psychiatry and State Key Laboratory for Brain and Cognitive Sciences, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, PR China.
- ⁴⁵Department of Computer Science, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC, USA.

- ⁴⁶Castle Peak Hospital, Hong Kong SAR, PR China.
- ⁴⁷Institute of Mental Health, Singapore.
- ⁴⁸Department of Psychiatry, Washington University, St. Louis, MO, USA.
- ⁴⁹Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Pierre and Marie Curie Faculty of Medicine and Brain and Spinal Cord Institute (ICM), Paris, France.
- ⁵⁰Formerly of Neuroscience Therapeutic Area, Janssen Research and Development, LLC, Raritan, NJ, USA.
- ⁵¹Department of Genetics, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC, USA.
- ⁵²Department of Psychological Medicine, Queen Mary University of London, UK.
- ⁵³Molecular Psychiatry Laboratory, Division of Psychiatry, University College London, UK.
- ⁵⁴Sheba Medical Center, Tel Hashomer, Israel.
- ⁵⁵Department of Genomics, Life and Brain Center, Bonn, Germany.
- ⁵⁶Institute of Human Genetics, University of Bonn, Bonn, Germany.
- ⁵⁷Applied Molecular Genomics Unit, VIB Department of Molecular Genetics, University of Antwerp, Antwerp, Belgium.
- ⁵⁸Centre for Integrative Sequencing, iSEQ, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark.
- ⁵⁹Department of Biomedicine, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark.
- ⁶⁰First Department of Psychiatry, University of Athens Medical School, Athens, Greece.
- ⁶¹Department of Psychiatry, University College Cork, Ireland.
- ⁶²Department of Medical Genetics, Oslo University Hospital, Oslo, Norway.
- ⁶³Cognitive Genetics and Therapy Group, School of Psychology and Discipline of Biochemistry, National University of Ireland Galway, Ireland.
- ⁶⁴Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Neuroscience, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA.
- ⁶⁵Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, NorthShore University HealthSystem, Evanston, IL, USA.
- ⁶⁶Department of Non-Communicable Disease Epidemiology, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, UK.
- ⁶⁷Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, University Clinic of Psychiatry, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia.
- ⁶⁸Department of Psychiatry, University of Regensburg, Regensburg, Germany.
- ⁶⁹Department of General Practice, Helsinki University Central Hospital, Helsinki, Finland.

- ⁷⁰Folkhälsan Research Center, Helsinki, Finland.
- ⁷¹National Institute for Health and Welfare, Helsinki, Finland.
- ⁷²Translational Technologies and Bioinformatics, Pharma Research and Early Development, F.Hoffman-La Roche, Basel, Switzerland.
- ⁷³Department of Psychiatry, Georgetown University School of Medicine, Washington DC, USA.
- ⁷⁴Department of Psychiatry, Keck School of Medicine of the University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA, USA.
- ⁷⁵Department of Psychiatry, Virginia Commonwealth University School of Medicine, Richmond, VA, USA.
- ⁷⁶Mental Health Service Line, Washington VA Medical Center, Washington DC, USA.
- ⁷⁷Department of Genetic Epidemiology in Psychiatry, Central Institute of Mental Health, Medical Faculty Mannheim, University of Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany.
- ⁷⁸Department of Genetics, University of Groningen, University Medical Centre Groningen, The Netherlands.
- ⁷⁹Department of Psychiatry, University of Colorado Denver, Aurora, CO, USA.
- ⁸⁰Center for Neurobehavioral Genetics, Semel Institute for Neuroscience and Human Behavior, University of California, Los Angeles, CA, USA.
- ⁸¹Department of Psychiatry, University of Halle, Halle, Germany.
- ⁸²Division of Psychiatric Genomics, Department of Psychiatry, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.
- ⁸³Department of Psychiatry, University of Munich, Munich, Germany.
- ⁸⁴Departments of Psychiatry and Human and Molecular Genetics, INSERM, Institut de Myologie, Hôpital de la Pitié-Salpêtrière, Paris, France.
- ⁸⁵Mental Health Research Centre, Russian Academy of Medical Sciences, Moscow, Russia.
- ⁸⁶Neuroscience Therapeutic Area, Janssen Research and Development, LLC, Raritan, NJ, USA.
- ⁸⁷Queensland Brain Institute, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia.
- ⁸⁸Academic Medical Centre University of Amsterdam, Department of Psychiatry, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- ⁸⁹Illumina, Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA.
- ⁹⁰Institute of Biological Psychiatry, MHC Sct. Hans, Mental Health Services Copenhagen, Denmark.

- ⁹¹Friedman Brain Institute, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.
- ⁹²JJ Peters VA Medical Center, Bronx, NY, USA.
- ⁹³Priority Research Centre for Health Behaviour, University of Newcastle, Newcastle, Australia.
- ⁹⁴School of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, University of Newcastle, Newcastle, Australia.
- ⁹⁵Division of Medical Genetics, Department of Biomedicine, University of Basel, Basel, Switzerland.
- ⁹⁶Department of Genetics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA.
- ⁹⁷Section of Neonatal Screening and Hormones, Department of Clinical Biochemistry, Immunology and Genetics, Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen, Denmark.
- ⁹⁸Department of Psychiatry, Fujita Health University School of Medicine, Toyoake, Aichi, Japan.
- ⁹⁹Regional Centre for Clinical Research in Psychosis, Department of Psychiatry, Stavanger University Hospital, Stavanger, Norway.
- ¹⁰⁰Rheumatology Research Group, Vall d'Hebron Research Institute, Barcelona, Spain.
- ¹⁰¹Department of Psychiatry, Rudolf Magnus Institute of Neuroscience, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, The Netherlands.
- ¹⁰²Centre for Medical Research, The University of Western Australia, Perth, Western Australia, Australia.
- ¹⁰³Perkins Institute for Medical Research, The University of Western Australia, Perth, Western Australia, Australia.
- ¹⁰⁴Department of Medical Genetics, Medical University, Sofia, Bulgaria.
- ¹⁰⁵Department of Psychology, University of Colorado Boulder, Boulder, CO, USA.
- ¹⁰⁶Campbell Family Mental Health Research Institute, Centre for Addiction and Mental Health, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
- ¹⁰⁷Department of Psychiatry, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
- ¹⁰⁸Institute of Medical Science, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
- ¹⁰⁹Institute of Molecular Genetics, Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow, Russia.
- ¹¹⁰Latvian Biomedical Research and Study Centre, Riga, Latvia.
- ¹¹¹Department of Psychiatry and Zilkha Neurogenetics Institute, Keck School of Medicine at University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA, USA.
- ¹¹²Faculty of Medicine, Vilnius University, Vilnius, Lithuania.

- ¹¹³2nd Faculty of Medicine and University Hospital Motol, Prague, Czech Republic.
- ¹¹⁴Department of Biology and Medical Genetics, Charles University Prague, Prague, Czech Republic.
- ¹¹⁵Pierre and Marie Curie Faculty of Medicine, Paris, France.
- ¹¹⁶Duke-NUS Graduate Medical School, Singapore.
- ¹¹⁷Department of Psychiatry, Hadassah-Hebrew University Medical Center, Jerusalem, Israel.
- ¹¹⁸Centre for Genomic Sciences and Department of Psychiatry, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, PR China.
- ¹¹⁹Mental Health Centre and Psychiatric Laboratory, West China Hospital, Sichuan University, Chendu, Sichuan, PR China.
- ¹²⁰Department of Biostatistics, Johns Hopkins University Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, Maryland, USA.
- ¹²¹Department of Psychiatry, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA.
- ¹²²Priority Centre for Translational Neuroscience and Mental Health, University of Newcastle, Newcastle, Australia.
- ¹²³Department of Genetics and Pathology, International Hereditary Cancer Center, Pomeranian Medical University in Szczecin, Szczecin, Poland.
- ¹²⁴Department of Mental Health and Substance Abuse Services; National Institute for Health and Welfare, Helsinki, Finland.
- ¹²⁵Department of Mental Health, Bloomberg School of Public Health, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, USA.
- ¹²⁶Department of Psychiatry, University of Bonn, Bonn, Germany.
- ¹²⁷Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, Laboratoire de Génétique Moléculaire de la Neurotransmission et des Processus Neurodégénératifs, Hôpital de la Pitié Salpêtrière, Paris, France.
- ¹²⁸Department of Genomics Mathematics, University of Bonn, Bonn, Germany.
- ¹²⁹Research Unit, Sørlandet Hospital, Kristiansand, Norway.
- ¹³⁰Department of Psychiatry, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA.
- ¹³¹VA Boston Health Care System, Brockton, MA, USA.
- ¹³²Department of Psychiatry, National University of Ireland Galway, Ireland.
- ¹³³Centre for Cognitive Ageing and Cognitive Epidemiology, University of Edinburgh, UK.
- ¹³⁴Division of Psychiatry, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK.
- ¹³⁵Division of Mental Health and Addiction, Oslo University Hospital, Oslo, Norway.

- ¹³⁶Massachusetts Mental Health Center Public Psychiatry Division of the Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center, Boston, MA, USA.
- ¹³⁷Estonian Genome Center, University of Tartu, Tartu, Estonia.
- ¹³⁸School of Psychology, University of Newcastle, Newcastle, Australia.
- ¹³⁹First Psychiatric Clinic, Medical University, Sofia, Bulgaria.
- ¹⁴⁰Department P, Aarhus University Hospital, Risskov, Denmark.
- ¹⁴¹Department of Psychiatry, Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, Ireland.
- ¹⁴²King's College London, UK.
- ¹⁴³Maastricht University Medical Centre, South Limburg Mental Health Research and Teaching Network, EURON, Maastricht, The Netherlands.
- ¹⁴⁴Institute of Translational Medicine, University Liverpool, UK.
- ¹⁴⁵Max Planck Institute of Psychiatry, Munich, Germany.
- ¹⁴⁶Munich Cluster for Systems Neurology (SyNergy), Munich, Germany.
- ¹⁴⁷Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Jena University Hospital, Jena, Germany.
- ¹⁴⁸Department of Psychiatry, Queensland Brain Institute and Queensland Centre for Mental Health Research, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia.
- ¹⁴⁹Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland, USA.
- ¹⁵⁰Department of Psychiatry, Trinity College Dublin, Ireland.
- ¹⁵¹Eli Lilly and Company, Lilly Corporate Center, Indianapolis, IN, USA.
- ¹⁵²Department of Clinical Sciences, Psychiatry, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden.
- ¹⁵³DETECT Early Intervention Service for Psychosis, Blackrock, Dublin, Ireland.
- ¹⁵⁴Centre for Public Health, Institute of Clinical Sciences, Queens University Belfast, Belfast, UK.
- ¹⁵⁵Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, University of California at Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, USA.
- ¹⁵⁶Institute of Psychiatry at King's College London, London, UK.
- ¹⁵⁷PEIC.
- ¹⁵⁸Melbourne Neuropsychiatry Centre, University of Melbourne & Melbourne Health, Melbourne, Australia.
- ¹⁵⁹Department of Psychiatry, University of Helsinki, Finland.
- ¹⁶⁰Public Health Genomics Unit, National Institute for Health and Welfare, Helsinki, Finland.

- ¹⁶¹Medical Faculty, University of Belgrade, Belgrade, Serbia.
- ¹⁶²Department of Psychiatry, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC, USA.
- ¹⁶³Institute for Molecular Medicine Finland, FIMM, Helsinki, Finland.
- ¹⁶⁴Department of Epidemiology, Harvard University, Boston, MA, USA.
- ¹⁶⁵Department of Psychiatry, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK.
- ¹⁶⁶Virginia Institute for Psychiatric and Behavioral Genetics, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, USA.
- ¹⁶⁷Institute for Multiscale Biology, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.
- ¹⁶⁸PharmaTherapeutics Clinical Research, Pfizer Worldwide Research and Development, Cambridge, MA, USA.
- ¹⁶⁹Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University of Gottingen, Göttingen, Germany.
- ¹⁷⁰Psychiatry and Psychotherapy Clinic, University of Erlangen, Germany.
- ¹⁷¹Hunter New England Health Service, Newcastle, Australia.
- ¹⁷²School of Biomedical Sciences, University of Newcastle, Newcastle, Australia.
- ¹⁷³Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD, USA.
- ¹⁷⁴University of Iceland, Landspítali, National University Hospital, Reykjavik, Iceland.
- ¹⁷⁵Department of Psychiatry and Drug Addiction, Tbilisi State Medical University (TSMU), Tbilisi, Georgia.
- ¹⁷⁶Research and Development, Bronx Veterans Affairs Medical Center, New York, NY, USA.
- ¹⁷⁷Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, Oxford, UK.
- ¹⁷⁸deCODE Genetics, Reykjavik, Iceland.
- ¹⁷⁹Department of Clinical Neurology, Medical University of Vienna, Austria.
- ¹⁸⁰Lieber Institute for Brain Development, Baltimore, MD, USA.
- ¹⁸¹Department of Medical Genetics, University Medical Centre, Utrecht, The Netherlands.
- ¹⁸²Rudolf Magnus Institute of Neuroscience, University Medical Centre Utrecht, The Netherlands.
- ¹⁸³Berkshire Healthcare NHS Foundation Trust, Bracknell, UK.
- ¹⁸⁴Section of Psychiatry, University of Verona, Verona, Italy.
- ¹⁸⁵Department of Psychiatry, University of Oulu, Finland.

- ¹⁸⁶University Hospital of Oulu, Oulu, Finland.
- ¹⁸⁷Molecular and Cellular Therapeutics, Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, Dublin, Ireland.
- ¹⁸⁸Health Research Board, Dublin, Ireland.
- ¹⁸⁹Department of Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences, School of Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences, Queen Elizabeth II Medical Centre, Perth, Western Australia, Australia.
- ¹⁹⁰Department of Psychological Medicine and Neurology, MRC Centre for Neuropsychiatric Genetics and Genomics, School of Medicine, Cardiff University, Cardiff, Wales, UK.
- ¹⁹¹Computational Sciences CoE, Pfizer Worldwide Research and Development, Cambridge, MA, USA.
- ¹⁹²Human Genetics, Genome Institute of Singapore, A*STAR, Singapore.
- ¹⁹³WTCCC2.
- ¹⁹⁴University College London, UK.
- ¹⁹⁵Department of Neuroscience, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.
- ¹⁹⁶Institute of Neuroscience and Medicine (INM-1), Research Center Juelich, Juelich, Germany.
- ¹⁹⁷Department of Genetics, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Jerusalem, Israel.
- ¹⁹⁸Neuroscience Discovery and Translational Area, Pharma Research and Early Development, F.Hoffman-La Roche, Basel, Switzerland.
- ¹⁹⁹School of Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences, The University of Western Australia, Perth, Australia.
- ²⁰⁰The Perkins Institute of Medical Research, Perth, Australia.
- ²⁰¹UWA Centre for Clinical Research in Neuropsychiatry.
- ²⁰²Virginia Institute for Psychiatric and Behavioral Genetics, Departments of Psychiatry and Human and Molecular Genetics, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, USA.
- ²⁰³The Feinstein Institute for Medical Research, Manhasset, NY, USA.
- ²⁰⁴The Hofstra NS-LIJ School of Medicine, Hempstead, NY, USA.
- ²⁰⁵The Zucker Hillside Hospital, Glen Oaks, NY, USA.
- ²⁰⁶Saw Swee Hock School of Public Health, National University of Singapore, Singapore.
- ²⁰⁷Queensland Centre for Mental Health Research, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia.

²⁰⁸Department of Psychiatry, Brain Center Rudolf Magnus, University Medical Center Utrecht, The Netherlands.

²⁰⁹The Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, MA, USA.

²¹⁰Center for Human Genetic Research and Department of Psychiatry, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA.

²¹¹Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Erasmus University Medical Centre, Rotterdam, The Netherlands.

²¹²Department of Complex Trait Genetics, Neuroscience Campus Amsterdam, VU University Medical Center Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

²¹³Department of Functional Genomics, Center for Neurogenomics and Cognitive Research, Neuroscience Campus Amsterdam, VU University, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

²¹⁴Centre for Genomic Sciences, State Key Laboratory for Brain and Cognitive Sciences, and Department of Psychiatry, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong SAR, PR China.

²¹⁵University of Aberdeen, Institute of Medical Sciences, Aberdeen, Scotland, UK.

²¹⁶Departments of Psychiatry, Neurology, Neuroscience and Institute of Genetic Medicine, Johns Hopkins School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA.

²¹⁷Department of Clinical Medicine, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark.

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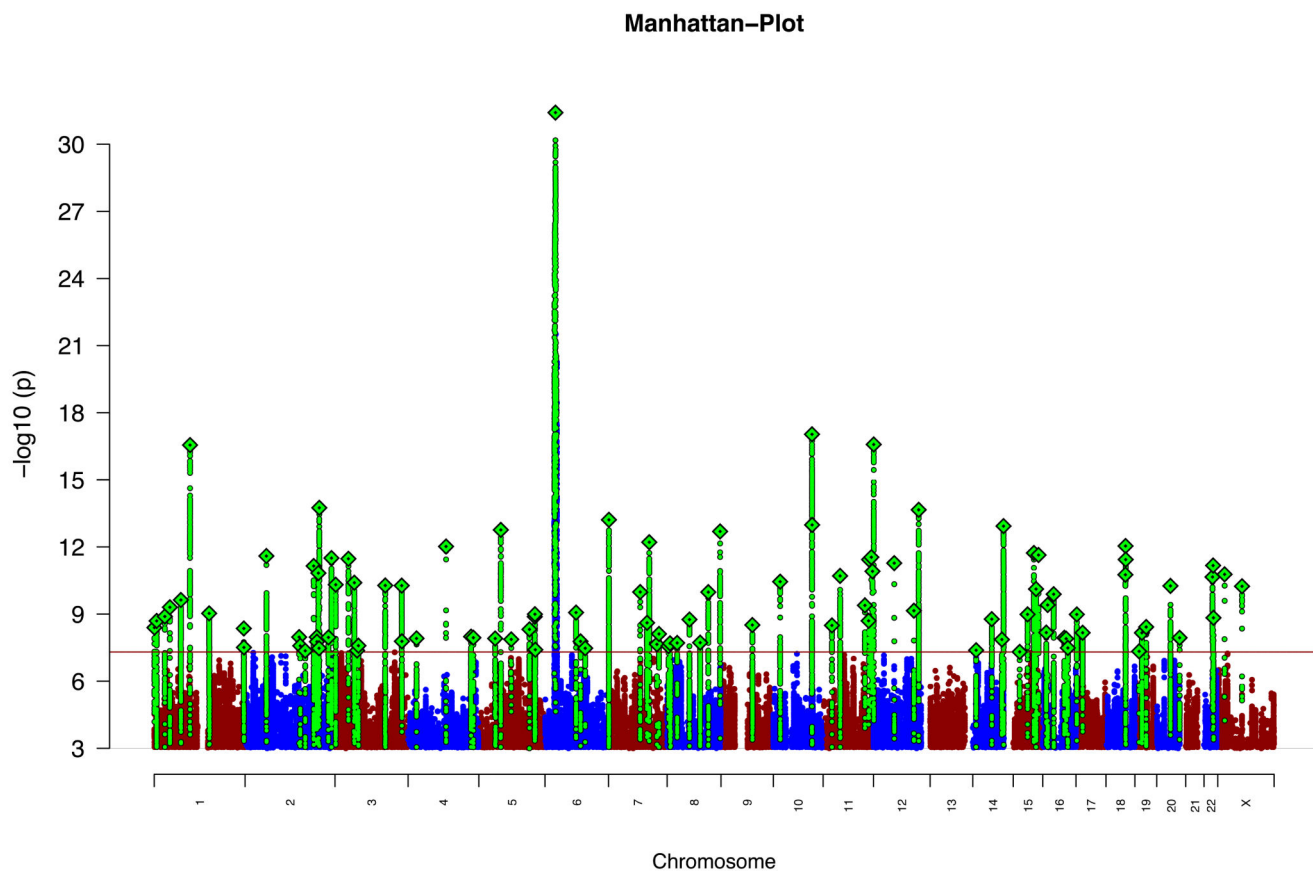


Figure 1. Manhattan plot

Manhattan plot of the discovery genome-wide association meta-analysis of 49 case control samples (34,241 cases and 45,604 controls) and 3 family based association studies (1,235 parent affected-offspring trios). The x-axis is chromosomal position and the y-axis is the significance of association ($-\log_{10}(P)$). The red line shows the genome-wide significance level (5×10^{-8}). SNPs in green are in LD with the index SNPs (diamonds) which represent independent genome-wide significant associations.

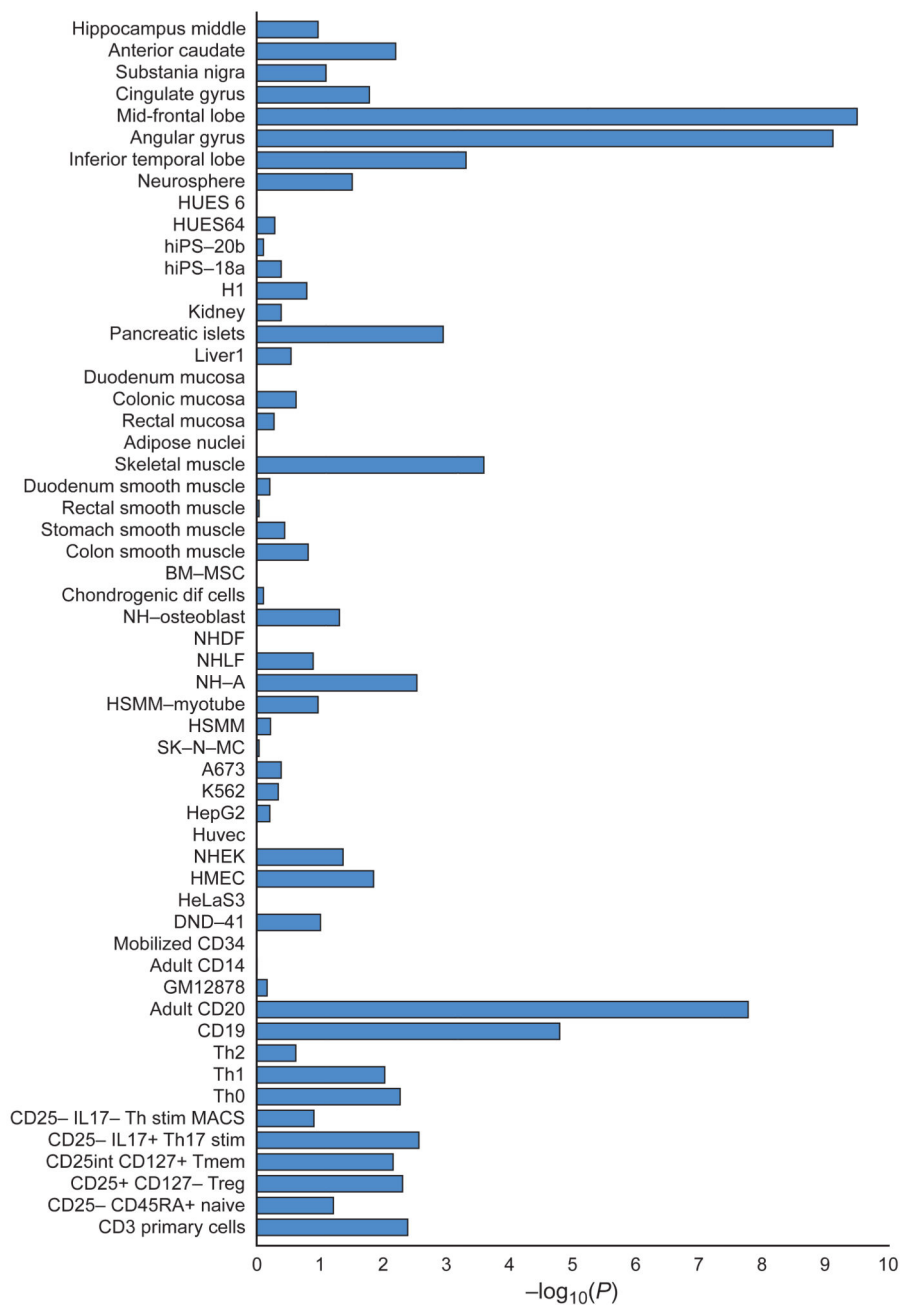


Figure 2. Enrichment in enhancers

Cell and tissue type specific enhancers were identified using ChIP-seq datasets (H3K27ac signal) from 56 cell line and tissue samples (Y-axis). We defined cell and tissue type enhancers as the top 10% of enhancers with the highest ratio of reads in that cell or tissue type divided by the total number of reads. Enrichment of credible causal associated SNPs from the schizophrenia GWAS was compared with frequency matched sets of 1000 Genomes SNPs (Supplementary Text). The X-axis is the $-\log_{10}(P)$ for enrichment. P -values are uncorrected for the number of tissues/cells tested. A $-\log_{10}(P)$ of roughly 3 can be

considered significant after Bonferroni correction. Descriptions of cell and tissue types at the Roadmap Epigenome website (<http://www.roadmapepigenomics.org>).

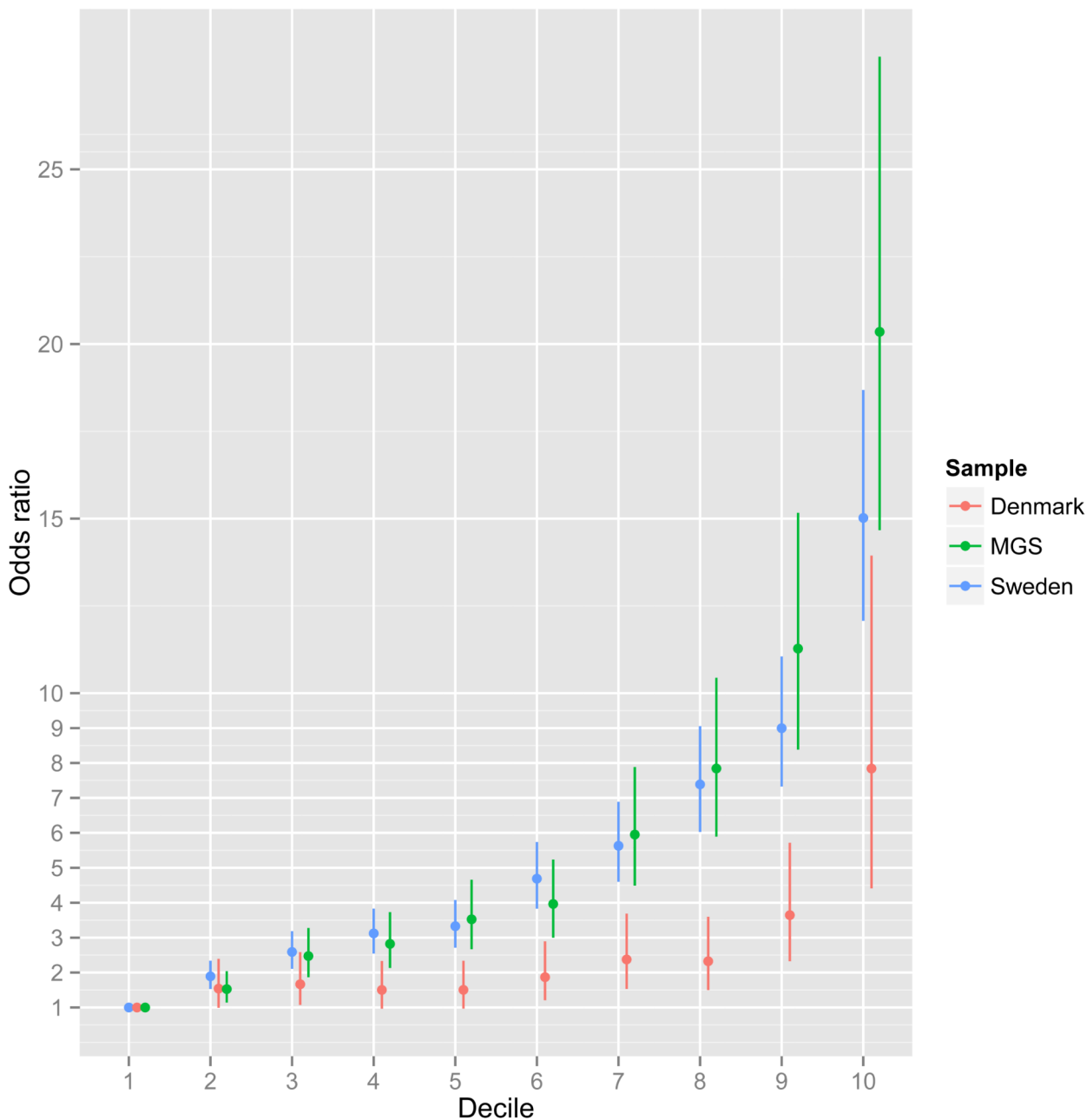


Figure 3. Odds ratio by risk score profile

Odds ratio for schizophrenia by risk score profile (RPS) decile in the Sweden (Sw1-6), Denmark (Aarhus), and Molecular Genetics of Schizophrenia studies (Supplementary text). Risk alleles and weights were derived from ‘leave one out’ analyses in which those samples were excluded from the GWAS meta-analysis (Supplementary text). The threshold for selecting risk alleles was $P_T < 0.05$. The RPS were converted to deciles (1=lowest, 10=highest RPS), and nine dummy variables created to contrast deciles 2-10 to decile 1 as

the reference. Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals (bars) were estimated using logistic regression with PCs to control for population stratification.