www.sciencemag.org/cgi/content/full/science.1235488]/DC1

Supplementary Materials for

GWAS of 126,559 Individuals Identifies Genetic Variants Associated with Educational Attainment

See the main paper for the full author list.

Corresponding author. E-mail: db468@cornell.edu (D.J.B.); dac12@nyu.edu (D.C.); koellinger@ese.eur.nl (P.D.K.); peter.visscher@uq.edu.au (P.M.V.)

> Published 30 May 2012 on *Science* Express DOI: 10.1126/science.1235488

This PDF file includes:

Materials and Methods Supplementary Text Figs. S1 to S22 Tables S1 to S27 Full Reference List

Supplemental Online Materials

Contents

Materials and Methods

1. Conceptual design GWA study

The GWA study consisted of three parts: the discovery stage, the replication stage, and the combined stage. As predefined in the analysis plan, SNPs with *p*-values $\langle 10^{-6}$ in the discovery stage were eligible for bringing forward to the replication stage. The study cohorts (Table S1) in the discovery stage were recruited from February 2011 – June 2011, and the GWA summary results were uploaded before the end of July 2011. The replication cohorts were recruited from November 2011 – April 2012, and the results were uploaded before the end of May 2012. The combined stage analysis used results from both the discovery and replication stages. All participants provided written informed consent, and the studies were performed in accordance with the respective Local Research Ethics Committees or Institutional Review Boards. The descriptive statistics and study designs are provided in Table S1.

a. Phenotype

Two measures of Educational Attainment (EA) were defined in accordance with the 1997 International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). This classification transforms each country-specific educational system into seven internationally comparable categories of EA *(14)*. In each study, EA of the subjects was first transformed into the appropriate ISCED level of the country. Thereafter the equivalent to US years of schooling was imputed, as described in Table S2. In some countries the measures did not differentiate between levels 5 and 6. In these cases everyone with a tertiary education was coded as ISCED 5, and 20 years of schooling was imputed instead of 19. The resulting continuous measure of EA as US-schooling-year equivalents is abbreviated as *EduYears* throughout the manuscript.

We also analyzed the binary outcome, *College*, which differentiates between individuals who hold a tertiary degree and those who do not. This binary variable was imputed taking the value 1 if the individual had completed a college degree (ISCED level 5 or above of the ISCED classification), and 0 if the individual had not completed a college degree (ISCED level 4 or below).

EduYears may provide more information about individual differences within a country, but *College* may be more comparable across countries. Nonetheless, the point biserial correlation between the two measures is relatively high, e.g., 0.82 (in the STR sample), 0.74 (RS-I), 0.88 (RS-II) and 0.91 (RS-III). Note, however, that the *EduYears* analysis focuses on the effects at the mean of the phenotype distribution, whereas the *College* analysis focuses on differences between the upper tail of the phenotype distribution and the remaining values.

The study-specific phenotype measurements and distributions are summarized in Table S3. All studies used a self-report of educational attainment, except STR. In STR, official register-based results for educational attainment were available. The descriptive statistics for the basic study-specific age and birth years are provided in Table S4.

The combined discovery sample comprises 101,069 individuals for *EduYears* and 95,427 individuals for *College*. Analyses were performed at the cohort level according to a pre-specified analysis plan, which restricted

the sample to Caucasians (to help reduce stratification concerns). Educational attainment was measured after subjects were very likely to have completed their education (over 95% of the sample was aged at least 30). While there are three exceptions to the age cut-off of 30 years, none of them are driving the results. The ALSPAC cohort includes 3,998 women aged < 30 years in the discovery meta-analysis. There were two reasons to deviate from the age-inclusion threshold for this cohort. First, because ALSPAC is a pregnancy cohort recruited in the early 1990s, few participants are likely to have obtained additional education following the peridelivery questionnaire. Second, both for *EduYears* and *College*, the data collected after delivery are highly predictive of that collected at the latest time point available. A detailed description of the ALSPAC cohort can be found under Cohort Specific Acknowledgements below. In GENOA, 8 women between aged 25-30 years and 3 men aged of 26-30 were included in the analyses, since GENOA is a study of sibships. In ORCADES 27 people aged < 30 years (19 females and 8 males) were included in the analysis, with an average age of 28.2.

b. Genotyping

All cohorts were genotyped using commercially available Illumina (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA), Affymetrix (Affymetrix, Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA), or Perlegen (Perlegen Sciences, Inc. Mountain View, CA, USA) genotyping arrays. The quality controls were performed independently for each study. Each study imputed genotype data to HapMap 2 CEU (r22.b36) references using Beagle *(23)*, BIMBAM *(24)*, IMPUTE *(25)*, MaCH *(26)* or PLINK *(27)*. The study-specific details are provided in Table S5.

c. Analysis

For the *EduYears* (respectively, *College*) analysis, each study provided sex-stratified summary results of the ordinary least squares (logistic) regression of *EduYears* (*College*) on the imputed SNPs, the first four principal components of the Identity-by-State (IBS) matrix (to control for subtle population stratification), and [(birth year $-$ 1900)/10], [(birth year $-$ 1900)/10]² and [(birth year $-$ 1900)/10]³ (to control for age). In addition, appropriately-defined dummy variables were included when the educational attainment of some subjects was affected by significant country-specific events, such as World War II, the Vietnam War in the US, or changes in the educational system (Table S5). The family studies also provided GWAS results for males and females pooled, including as additional covariates in their analyses: sex and three interaction terms between sex and [(birth year – 1900)/10], [(birth year – 1900)/10]² and [(birth year – 1900)/10]³.

d. Simulation study of Type I error rate

We performed two simulation experiments to determine whether the skewed, pseudo-continuous distribution of *EduYears* might inflate Type-I errors in the ordinary least squares (OLS) regression. See Figure S1 for a typical example of the distribution of *EduYears* using the data of one of the largest contributing cohorts, the Rotterdam Study I.

In the first simulation experiment we simulated a common $(MAF = 0.331)$ and a rare $(MAF = 0.026)$ SNP for 1,000 individuals using PLINK*(27)*. In each simulation run we generated a phenotype distribution from a multinomial distribution, with probabilities for each category equal to those in RS-I (Figure S1). We performed OLS using PLINK, and we stored the *p*-values of the two regression coefficients. We repeated these calculations 100,000 times and plotted the *p*-values in histograms. Assuming a significance level of 5%, we expected to obtain 5,000 (5%×100,000) *p*-values smaller than 0.05, as there was no association between the genotype and phenotype due to the random data-generation process. Furthermore, we expected a uniform distribution of the *p*values. For both the common and rare SNP, the number of regression coefficients with a *p*-value smaller than 0.05 was close to 5,000—5,132 and 4,922, respectively—and the *p*-values appear nearly uniformly distributed (Figure S2A and S2B).

Potential problems with the inflated Type-I error rate might be amplified in the tails of the distribution, however, due to linkage disequilibrium. These effects were not captured in experiment 1. Therefore, we performed a second simulation experiment using the observed (imputed) genotype data from the Rotterdam Study I. For each of five simulation runs, we permuted the phenotype values of the individuals in the sample and performed a full GWAS on the data. Because the null hypothesis is true in the simulation runs, the expected *p*-values follow a uniform distribution.

We obtained approximately 5×2.5 million $= 12.5$ million *p*-values and plotted the results in a Quantile-Quantileplot (Figure S2C). No genome-wide significant associations ($p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) were observed, and there was no excess of *p*-values in the tail of the distribution.

From the two simulation studies, we concluded that the gaps and the skewness in the phenotype distribution did not inflate the Type I error rate in this study.

e. Quality control and meta-analysis

Each results file going into the meta-analysis contained the following information: SNP ID, coded allele (allele to which regression coefficient refers), non-coded allele, strand, beta (regression coefficient), standard error, *p*value, allele frequency for the coded allele, *N* (sample size) and information (imputation quality score). The SNPs with a Minor Allele Frequency (MAF) < 1% and an imputation quality score < 40% were excluded. For some files, these quality-control filters were slightly adjusted to more stringent levels (Table S5). Summary filespecific Quantile-Quantile plots were visually inspected. After quality control the genomic control (GC) inflation factor *λ (28)* was calculated for each summary file (Table S5). The meta-analysis was performed using METAL *(29)*, with sample-size weighting and single GC. All studies provided GWA summary results for sexspecific analyses, and we also performed sex-specific meta-analyses.

To calculate standardized regression coefficients from the METAL output, we used the formula

$$
\hat{\beta}_j \approx z_j \cdot \frac{\hat{\sigma}_y}{\sqrt{N_j \cdot 2 \cdot MAF_j \cdot (1 - MAF_j)}}
$$

for SNP *j* with minor allele frequency *MAFj*, sample size *Nj*, METAL *z*-statistic *zj*, and standard deviation of the phenotype $\hat{\sigma}_y$ (equal to 1 for *EduYears* after standardizing the phenotype, and equal to $\sqrt{p_i \cdot (1-p_i)}$ for *College*, where p_i is the proportion of cases in the sample (given in Table S3)). This formula is an approximation for *Nj* large and SNP *j* in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. To derive it, substitute the estimated standard error

$$
SE(\hat{\beta}_j) = \left(\frac{\frac{1}{N_j} \sum (y_{ij} - x_{ij} \hat{\beta}_j)^2}{\sum x_{ij}^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left(\frac{1}{N_j} \frac{\hat{\sigma}_y^2 - \hat{\sigma}_{x,j}^2 \hat{\beta}_j^2}{\hat{\sigma}_{x,j}^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

into the definition of the z-statistic $z_j = \hat{\beta}_j / SE(\hat{\beta}_j)$. Squaring and solving for $\hat{\beta}_j^2$ yields

$$
\hat{\beta}_j^2 = \frac{{z_j}^2 \hat{\sigma}_y^2}{N_j \hat{\sigma}_{x,j}^2 (1 + {z_j}^2 / N_j)}.
$$

Assuming Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium,

$$
\hat{\sigma}_{x,j}^2 = 2 \cdot MAF_j \cdot (1 - MAF_j).
$$

Using the definition of the *z*-statistic,

$$
\frac{z_j^2}{N_j} = \frac{\hat{\beta}_j^2}{\sqrt{N_j} \left[\sqrt{N_j} \text{Var}(\hat{\beta}_j)\right]} \to 0
$$

almost surely because the term in brackets converges to a constant (by the Central Limit Theorem). The formula follows from taking the square-root of the expression for $\hat{\beta}_i^2$.

Again assuming Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, we approximate the explained variance R^2 for SNP *j* by

$$
R_j^2 \approx \frac{2 \cdot MAF_j \cdot (1 - MAF_j) \cdot \hat{\beta}_j^2}{\hat{\sigma}_y^2} \,.
$$

For *EduYears*, to convert standardized regression coefficients to regression coefficients in units of years, we multiply each standardized coefficient by the standard deviation of *EduYears* (given in Table S3). For *College*, to generate the regression coefficient $\hat{\beta}_j^{College}$ we divide each standardized coefficient by $p_j(1-p_j)$.

The odd ratio for SNP *j* for *College* is $OR_j = \exp(\hat{\beta}_j^{College}).$

We calculate the marginal effect of SNP *j* as

$$
ME_j = \frac{\frac{p_j}{1 - p_j}OR_j}{1 + \frac{p_j}{1 - p_j}OR_j} - p_j.
$$

To understand this formula, note that *j j p p* $\frac{1-p_i}{1-p_i}$ is the baseline odds that *College* is equal to 1, and hence

$$
\frac{p_j}{1-p_j} OR_j
$$

is the odds for an individual with one additional risk allele. Converting these odds to a probability, the expression

$$
\frac{p_j}{1-p_j}OR_j\left(1+\frac{p_j}{1-p_j}OR_j\right)
$$

is the probability that *College* is equal to 1 for an individual with one additional risk allele. The marginal effect is the difference between that probability and the baseline probability. Finally, for each SNP displayed in the result tables, we used the SNP annotation database SCAN *(30)* to identify which gene it belongs to.

f. Discovery-stage genome-wide association meta-analysis

In the discovery stage, the GWA summary statistics were combined from 42 genome-wide association (GWA) studies in a meta-analysis of 101,069 individuals (40,564 males and 60,505 females) for *EduYears* and of 95,427 individuals (38,307 males and 57,120 females) for *College*. In the *EduYears* analysis, 59.9% of the individuals were female and 96.0% of the individuals were aged >30 years; see Table S4. In the *College* analysis, 59.9% of the individuals were female and 95.8% of the individuals were aged >30; see Table S4). After quality control, a total of 2,515,021 autosomal SNPs were meta-analyzed across 72 input files for *EduYears*. For *College* 2,510,674 autosomal SNPs were meta-analyzed across 65 input files. Only SNPs with an availability of ≥80% in the total sample were selected, resulting in 2,299,174 SNPs for *EduYears* and 2,309,290 SNPs for *College*. No additional genome-wide significant results emerged when the availability filter was not applied. After single GC, the overall genomic control inflation factor *λ* was 1.155 for *EduYears* and 1.154 for *College*. The $λ_{1000}$ (31) genomic control inflation factors were 1.002 and 1.005, respectively, for the number of included individuals *(32)* (assuming that all study samples are controls for *EduYears*). The genomic control inflation factors are relatively high but comparable to those in other large GWAS studies on complex traits; see, for example, (15). SNPs with *p*-values $< 10^{-6}$ in the discovery stage were brought forward for further analysis in the replication stage. Using the clumping command in PLINK *(27)*, we selected SNPs with the strongest independent signals. The HapMap 2 CEU genotypes were used as reference panel; the physical threshold for clumping was 1000 kB, and the R^2 threshold for clumping was 0.01.

All study-specific GWAS results were quality controlled, crosschecked, and meta-analyzed using single genomic control and a sample-size weighting scheme at three independent analysis centers.

g. Replication-stage genome-wide association meta-analysis

The replication stage included 12 studies, comprising 25,490 individuals (11,936 males and 13,554 females) for both *EduYears* and *College*. A total of 53.2% of the individuals across studies were females, and 99.89% of the individuals were aged >30 years, see Table S4. Cohorts in the replication stage provided summary GWA statistics similar to those of the discovery stage cohorts. The quality control procedures and meta-analysis techniques were identical to those of the discovery stage. The results are reported in Table 1.

h. Combined-stage genome-wide association meta-analysis

We conducted an overall meta-analysis, combining data from the discovery and replication stages. The GWA summary statistics were combined from all 54 $(42 + 12)$ genome-wide association (GWA) studies of 126,559 individuals (52,500 males and 74,059 females) for *EduYears* and 120,917 individuals (50,243 males and 70,674 females) for *College*. In the *EduYears* analysis 58.5% of the individuals were female and 96.81% were aged >30 years; see Table S4. In the *College* analysis, 58.4% of the individuals were female and 96.66% were aged >30 years; see Table S4. Using the same quality control filters and meta-analysis techniques as in the discovery stage, we obtained a total of 2,521,321 and 2,518,942 autosomal SNPs meta-analyzed across 98 and 91 input files for *EduYears* and for *College*, respectively. Filtering 80% SNP availability generated 2,310,444 SNPs for *EduYears* and 2,321,8963 SNPs for *College*. No additional genome-wide significant results were obtained when the availability filter was not applied. After single GC, the overall genomic control inflation factor *λ (28)* was 1.207 for *EduYears* and 1.206 for *College*. The *λ1000 (31)* genomic control inflation factors were 1.001 and 1.005, respectively. All replicated SNPs obtained genome-wide significance in the combined meta-analysis (Table 1). Using the clumping command in PLINK (27) (1000 kb, R^2 0.01), we identified 4 and 3 genome-wide significant loci for *EduYears* and *College*, respectively, in the combined meta-analysis (Table S6, S7). Three of these newly genome-wide significant SNPs (rs1487441, rs11584700 and rs4851264) are in linkage disequilibrium with the replicated SNPs. The remaining four are located in different loci and hence warrant further investigation: rs7309, a 3'UTR variant in TANK; rs11687170, close to GBX2; rs1056667, a 3'UTR variant in BTN2A1; and rs13401104 in LOC100128572. Future work should test these additional loci for replication.

QQ-plots of the meta-analysis results are provided in Figures S3 and S4. Manhattan plots summarizing the meta-analyses are displayed in Figures S5 and S6. Forest plots for all genome-wide significant SNPs show that the results are not driven by a few outlier cohorts or cohorts from a specific region (Figures S7-S15). Furthermore, these plots show that the pooled results are not driven by only one of the sexes. The effects of the identified SNPs are also broadly consistent across the two phenotype definitions (Tables S8-S9).

2. The heritability of educational attainment

Since (33), a number of studies have estimated the heritability of educational attainment by contrasting the resemblance of monozygotic and dizygotic twins. Virtually without exception, these studies find that monozygotic twins are appreciably more similar than dizygotic twins on years of educational attainment. Table S10, constructed from the sources compiled by Amelia Branigan, Kenneth J. McCallum and Jeremy Freese *(34)*, lists findings from published studies of American, Western European and Australian samples of twins and the heritability implied by the twin correlations under the assumptions of the standard ACE model. We omit correlations obtained from unpublished sources.

a. Estimates from multiple sibling types

To explore the robustness of the twin-based heritability estimates to the inclusion of other types of siblings, we gathered a large sample of Swedish brothers and data on their educational attainment and cognitive function. This sample, which we refer to as the Brothers Sample and whose construction is described below, contains seven different types of siblings: monozygotic twins (MZ), dizygotic twins (DZ), full siblings reared together (FRT), full siblings reared apart (FRA), half siblings reared together (HRT), half siblings reared apart (HRA) and adoptees (ADO). These correlations are previously unpublished and were part of the dissertation research of one of the authors of this paper *(35)*.

Statistics Sweden maintains a comprehensive database called the Multi-Generation Registry. The registry includes all individuals born after 1931 who were also residents in Sweden at some point since 1961. For individuals born in Sweden in the 1960s, the registry generally contains high-quality information about their biological parents. The registry also records whether an individual was adopted. The structure of the registry thus makes identification of various sibling types straightforward.

To construct the *Brothers Sample*, we used data from the Multi-Generation Registry to identify all Swedish males born between 1950 and 1969, as well as their full brothers and half-brothers (regardless of birth year). We classified brothers with the same biological parents as full siblings and brothers who share only one biological parent as half-siblings. We next assigned to each pair of siblings a rearing status using the quinquennial census data, which records whether or not two brothers are domiciled in the same household. Such census data are available for 1960, 1965, 1970, 1975, 1980 and 1985. Brothers who resided in the same household in every census where both were 18 years of age or younger are classified as reared together. We refer to brothers who share neither biological parent but lived in the same household in every census as adoptees.

We removed brothers born in the same year from the sample (since an overwhelming majority of these individuals are twins whose zygosity we are unable to infer from the administrative records). Brothers who never resided in the same household were classified as reared apart. We discarded ambiguous cases; that is, siblings who were domiciled in the same household in some censuses but not others. The final sample of nontwin brothers was restricted to brother pairs where both were born between 1950 and 1970. With the exception of the adoptees, we also restrict the final sample to siblings who are at most five years apart in age. We then supplemented these data with a sample of twins with known zygosity, also born between 1950 and 1970, using data from the Swedish Twin Registry. The Swedish Twin Registry's data contains information on Swedish twin births since 1886 and onward, and it has been described in detail elsewhere *(36)*.

Creating all possible pairings of relatives from this sample produces: 1,409 pairs of monozygotic twins, 1,922 pairs of dizygotic twins, 206,518 pairs of full siblings reared together, 1,362 pairs of full siblings reared apart, 6,445 pairs of half-siblings reared together, 14,713 pairs of half-siblings reared apart and 858 pairs of adoptees. There are a total of 207,738 pairs with complete data on educational attainment and 154,951 pairs with complete data on cognitive function. The smaller number of pairs with complete data on cognitive function may give the impression that missing data is potentially a serious problem. However, the main reason for the smaller sample is that the conscription records have only been digitized for men born after 1951. Therefore, sibling pairs where one sibling is born before 1951 will be incomplete. For most birth years, over 95% of the men in the Brothers Sample are successfully matched to the conscription records. See *(35)* for a more detailed analysis of the sample.

We matched the *Brothers Sample* to administrative records with information about educational attainment and cognitive function. To measure years of education, we use data drawn from Statistics Sweden's administrative records. To measure cognitive function, we use data from the National Service Administration (which maintains the military conscription records). During the period that we study, Swedish men were required by law to participate in military conscription and underwent a comprehensive drafting procedure that involved taking a battery of mental tests. Cognitive function is measured using data from the Swedish Enlistment Battery, a test similar to the U.S. Armed Forces Qualifying Test.

Table S11 reports cross-sibling pairwise correlations of educational attainment and cognitive function of the siblings in our sample. The diagonal entries represent the cross-sibling correlation for a particular trait, whereas the off-diagonal entries represent the cross-trait correlations between siblings. Siblings reared together always exhibit greater similarity than siblings reared apart, suggesting that differences in common environmental factors account for a substantial portion of variation. Consistent with a broad consensus in behavior genetics

(37), the sibling correlations also suggest that genetic factors account for a larger fraction of variation than common environmental factors.

Finally, we use our data to estimate three highly stylized behavior-genetic models. Model 1 is simply the conventional ACE model. Models 2 and 3 make use of the additional moment conditions described below, to identify richer models which relax some of the restrictions of the ACE model. The three models are estimated by nonlinear least squares by solving

$$
\hat{\Theta} = \arg \min \sum_{i=1}^N [(y_{i1}y_{i2}) - f_i(\Theta)]^2,
$$

where *i* indexes the pair of brothers and $f_i(\Theta)$ is a moment condition which varies by sibling type. The variables are standardized so that they have mean zero and standard deviation one. In the baseline regressions, standard errors are clustered at the level of 1970 household.

The moment conditions for Model 1 are as follows: $h^2 + c^2$ for MZ pairs, $\frac{1}{2}h^2 + c^2$ for DZ pairs and full siblings reared together, $\frac{1}{2}h^2$ for full siblings reared apart, $\frac{1}{4}h^2 + c^2$ for half siblings reared together, $\frac{1}{4}h^2$ for half siblings reared apart, and c^2 for adoptees reared together. The ACE estimates for educational attainment (*N* $= 216,091$) are $\hat{h}^2 = 0.552$ (s.e. 0.027) and $\hat{c}^2 = 0.164$ (s.e. 0.014). The estimates are shown graphically in Figure S16. Despite its strong assumptions, a simple ACE model appears to fit the data surprisingly well.

Model 2 relaxes the assumptions of the ACE model in two ways. First, the degrees of genetic relatedness of full siblings (ρ_{FS}) and half-siblings (ρ_{HS}) are estimated rather than fixed at 0.5 and 0.25 respectively. Second, the model estimates separate c^2 coefficients for non-twin siblings who were reared together and twin siblings. Formally, we denote the amount of shared environmental variation in twins c_T^2 and then estimate the fraction of variation (λ) that is shared by non-twin siblings. The moment conditions are: $h^2 + c_T^2$ for MZ pairs, $\rho_{FS}h^2 + c_T^2$ for DZ pairs and full siblings reared together, $\rho_{FS}h^2$ for full siblings reared apart, $\rho_{HS}h^2 + \lambda c_T^2$ for half siblings reared together, $\rho_{H\text{S}}h^2$ for half siblings reared apart, and λc_T^2 for adoptees reared together. Notice that this model subsumes the ACE model as a special case with $\lambda = 1$, $\rho_{FS} = 0.5$ and $\rho_{HS} = 0.25$ The estimates from this model (*N* = 207,738) are $\hat{h}^2 = 0.494$ (s.e. 0.045) and $\hat{c}_T^2 = 0.211$ (s.e. = 0.033), $\hat{\lambda} = 0.705$ (s.e. = 0.099), $\hat{\rho}_{FS} = 0.591$ (s.e. = 0.052), $\hat{\rho}_{HS} = 0.247$ (s.e. = 0.028).

Model 3 allows the degree of environmental resemblance to vary more flexibly across sibling types, whilst maintaining standard assumptions about the genetic relatedness of full siblings (0.5), half siblings (0.25) and adoptees (0). In this model, the common environmental components are allowed to vary flexibly across MZ twins, DZ twins and all other co-reared non-twin siblings. We call the MZ environmental twin covariance c_{MZ}^2 and parameterize the two other environmental covariance terms as a scalar multiple of c_{MZ}^2 . The moment conditions are: $h^2 + c_{MZ}^2$ for MZ pairs, $\frac{1}{2}h^2 + \lambda_T c_{MZ}^2$ for DZ pairs; $\frac{1}{2}h^2 + \lambda_c^2$ for full siblings reared together, $\frac{1}{4}h^2$ for full siblings reared apart, $\frac{1}{4}h^2 + \lambda c_{MZ}^2$ for half siblings reared together, $\frac{1}{4}h^2$ for half siblings

reared apart, and λc_{MZ}^2 for adoptees reared together. The parameter estimates for educational attainment ($N =$ 207,738) are $\hat{h}^2 = 0.556$ (s.e. = 0.030) and $\hat{c}_{MZ}^2 = 0.149$ (s.e. = 0.043), $\hat{\lambda}_1 = 1.51$ (s.e. = 0.422), $\hat{\lambda}_2 = 1.09$ (s.e. $= 0.258$.

Considered in their entirety, the results reinforce the conclusion that EA is a moderately heritable trait.

b. Estimating the variance in educational attainment explained by all SNPs

In addition to the analyses above, we also used the method developed by *(38)* to estimate the share of variance in *EduYears* and *College* that can be explained by all SNPs. This method provides a lower-bound estimate of narrow heritability, and the output can be interpreted as the fraction of variance that would be explained by all the genotyped SNPs if their effects were observed without error.

There were 3,526 samples from the QIMR cohort and 6,770 samples from the STR cohort. We imputed the SNPs to the HapMap3 CEU panel and retained 1,121,675 SNPs after quality controls. We used GCTA to estimate the genetic relatedness between all the individuals and removed one of each pair of samples with estimated genetic relatedness > 0.025. We then estimated the variance explained by all the HapMap 3 SNPs by GREML analysis for *EduYear* and *College* in GCTA.

The results (see Table S12) suggest that ~20% of the variance in educational attainment in the two samples can be attributed to genetic differences that are captured by the current SNP microarrays. The explanatory power of a linear polygenic score estimated in the same data will be lower because the coefficients used for constructing the score are estimated with error. This explains the difference between the estimates reported here and the performance of our polygenic scores in Figure 2.

3. Health and education

The health-education gradient is one of the most robustly documented and well-studied empirical relationships in social science *(39)* (see *(40)* for a review of the basic findings and an evaluation of the mechanisms at play). Researchers studying this relationship usually distinguish between three basic mechanisms that may explain the relationships. Firstly, poor health in early-life (which may be partly due to genetic factors) may inhibit individuals from acquiring more education. Secondly, other factors, including heritable individual differences, could affect both schooling and health. Thirdly, increased education may improve health, for example through effects on health-related behaviors.

There is evidence, mostly from twin and family studies, of some genetic overlap between (i) education and health-related behaviors (such as smoking or drinking; see (41)), and (ii) education and health outcomes (see, e.g. *(42, 43)*). Other research indicates that education has a causal impact on health. For example, *(44)* uses policy variation across states in compulsory schooling laws to instrument for educational attainment. These results imply that the causal effect of education on health is actually larger than the cross-sectional correlation. Other papers that have also taken quasi-experimental approaches include *(45)* and *(46)*.

To assess the genetic overlap between health and educational attainment due to common genetic variants, we estimated a bivariate GCTA model using the STR data. One of the STR questionnaires asks the respondents: "How would you rate your general health condition?" There are five possible responses, ranging from poor to

excellent. We assigned a value of 1 to the lowest category (poor), 2 to the second lowest category (not so good), and so on. The estimated genetic correlation between this health variable (measured on a continuous scale) and *EduYears* is 13.2% (standard error 23%). We also employed a binary response model to estimate the genetic correlation between a dichotomized health variable and *College*, obtaining an estimate of 33% (standard error 33%). The estimates are imprecise but consistent with the hypothesis of a positive genetic overlap (Table S13).

4. Exploring possible explanations for very small effect sizes

The effect sizes we find are much smaller than those found for other replicated SNP association results for complex physical traits such as body height *(15)*, BMI *(18)*, or metabolite profiles *(47)*. In this section, we explore three possible explanations:

- A. Measurement error attenuates the estimated effect;
- B. The genetic effect is conditional on specific environmental circumstances, and hence a meta-analysis approach that averages across different environments partially masks the genetic effect;
- C. "Biologically distal" phenotypes such as years of education have smaller effect sizes than more "biologically proximal" phenotypes such as body height.

These factors are not mutually exclusive and may reinforce each other. Exploration of their relative importance may help to guide future research efforts.

To explore **A.**, we focus on analyses that use *EduYears* as the dependent variable (since the variable *College* used in the other analyses is measured similarly across studies). As a proxy for measurement quality of *EduYears* in a study, we use the number of distinct ISCED categories in the data.

The estimates of the effects of genetic variants are reported in the main text as unstandardized regression coefficients. In theory, to the extent that *EduYears* can be treated as a continuous variable, classical measurement error in *EduYears* should not attenuate the unstandardized regression coefficients (only reduce their precision).

Figure S17 plots the unstandardized coefficient against the number of categories that were available to respondents when they were asked about their educational attainment. For each of the three replicated SNPs, we ran weighted least squares regressions of the *EduYears* coefficients on the number of categories, with weights proportional to the sample size. Consistent with our expectation, we find no evidence that effects are weaker in cohorts with coarser measures. In all three regressions, we cannot reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship (the smallest *p*-value is 0.515).

In contrast, measurement error in *EduYears* is expected to attenuate the standardized regression coefficients by increasing the standard deviation of *EduYears* (similarly attenuating the R^2 of the SNPs). To explore this possibility, we run analogous regressions and generate analogous plots using the standardized regression coefficients. Figure S18 plots the standardized coefficient against the number of categories that were available to respondents when they were asked about their educational attainment. The figure indicates that there is no significant attenuation (the smallest *p*-value is 0.359).

To get a sense for the amount of measurement error in our *EduYears* measure that may be due to errors in self report, we can exploit the fact that within the STR, data are available for both self report of highest educational attainment (a multiple-choice question with ten categories, plus additional open-ended questions about years of educational attainment) and a registry-based measure from government records. The correlation between the survey-based measure and the registry measure (after both are converted to the ISCED categorization and then to U.S. years-of-education equivalents) is 0.81, which suggests to us that the survey responses contain little measurement error relative to the registry-based measure. (Note that under some mild assumptions, 0.81 is an estimate of a lower bound of the reliability of the survey responses because the registry data could also contain errors.)

Regarding **B.**, note that current data availability necessitated pooling GWAS results from different parts of the world and from individuals who completed their education at different points of time under vastly different circumstances in order to achieve a sample of $N > 100,000$. The effects we identified are likely to be the ones that are most robust across various environments. Nevertheless, the meta-analysis results may also mask geneenvironment interactions.

To explore one possible source of gene-environment interaction, we examined how the estimated genetic effects of our three replicated genome-wide SNPs vary with birth cohort (an idea suggested to us by Steven Lehrer and Nicholas Christakis). Birth cohort is a proxy for a number of institutional changes in Western countries in the 20th century that were designed to raise the general level of educational attainment and to reduce inequalities in opportunity. These policies resulted in substantial increases in the rates of secondary and tertiary education.

We use *EduYears* as the dependent variable (also for the SNPs that we found to be significant with the *College* measure) because the large increases over time in the overall frequency of college completion makes it harder to interpret changes over time in genetic effects on the odds of college completion.

Figure S19 plots the study-specific unstandardized regression coefficient against the average birth cohort of participants in the study. The size of each data point is proportional to the study in question. We fit a regression line to these points by weighted least squares. There is no evidence that the effects of any of the three SNPs vary by birth cohort. In all three regressions, we cannot reject the null hypothesis that there is no relationship (the smallest *p*-value is 0.684).

To explore **C.**, we derived a theoretical framework (see section 7 below) within which a distal phenotype is caused by endophenotypes, which in turn are caused by SNPs. We explain why the fact that the polygenic score for educational attainment is *more* predictive of cognitive function than educational attainment is consistent with cognitive function being an endophenotype for education. We similarly conjecture (but cannot yet show) that personality and health traits may also be endophenotypes. The theoretical framework makes clear that SNPs are likely to be more weakly associated with a more distal phenotype such as educational attainment than with an endophenotype.

Considered jointly, our results suggest that the small effect sizes we find are not due to measurement error. We do not find evidence that the genetic effects interact with birth cohort. While we cannot exclude the possibility that stronger effects of individual SNPs on educational attainment exist that are conditional on other aspects of the environment, we note that no single SNP reaches genome-wide significance in any particular cohort included in the meta-analysis, putting an upper bound on the effect sizes that can be expected within specific environments. There are strong theoretical reasons to expect that biologically-distal phenotypes will have weaker relationships with individual SNPs than more biologically-proximal phenotype do, and our empirical findings overall are most consistent with this explanation.

5. Biological annotation

In this section, we report the results from a series of bioinformatics analyses designed to explore possible biological mechanisms that may underlie the associations between the identified loci and educational outcomes.

We began by identifying all functional SNPs in LD with the seven SNPs that reached genome-wide significance in the combined analyses (see subsection *i*). These seven comprise the three original SNPs that reached genomewide significance in the discovery stage and were subsequently replicated (see Table 1) as well as an additional four SNPs that reached genome-wide significance in the combined analyses and were not in linkage disequilibrium (LD) with the original three SNPs (see Tables S6 and S7).

Next, we examined whether any of these seven variants are associated with changes in gene expression levels in blood or brain tissue (see subsections *ii* and *iii*).

We subsequently turned to analyses that take as their input a larger set of SNPs than those meeting the stringent criteria for genome-wide significance. We conducted gene-based tests of association *(48)* (see subsection *iv*); pathway analyses *(49)* (see subsection *v*); and a recently developed method *(50)* (see subsection *vi*) that tests for enrichment of active chromatin in 34 different types of tissues in the regions implicated by the combined-stage GWAS meta-analyses.

From these primary biological follow-up analyses, we identify a set of "candidate" genes. These genes were used as inputs to a functional network analysis that uses gene co-expression data from multiple sources to predict a particular gene's likely functions *(51)* (see subsection *vii*). We also conduct a structured search of the existing genetics literature to explore what is currently known about phenotypes associated with the genes identified by our analyses (see subsection *viii*).

a. Characterizing genome-wide significant SNPs

i. Functional annotation

To identify coding or regulatory variants in close LD $(r^2 > 0.8)$ with any of the seven signals that were either replicated or reached genome-wide significance in the combined analyses, we used the online tool HaploReg (http:/[/www.broadinstitute.org/mammals/haploreg/haploreg.php\)](http://www.broadinstitute.org/mammals/haploreg/haploreg.php). We observed 2 missense variants close to rs1056667 in gene *BTN1A1* and 3 missense variants close to rs11584700 in gene *LRRN2*, which is highly expressed in the brain and regulates axon guidance in model animals *(52)*. The complete set of results from the functional annotation lookup is given in Table S14. Four of the seven SNPs were not in close LD with any coding or regulatory variants and are therefore not listed in the table.

As a complementary analysis, we used the ENCODE custom tracks on the UCSC Genome browser [\(http://genome.ucsc.edu](http://genome.ucsc.edu/)) to screen the implicated regions for overlap with DNAse I hypersensitivity sites and open chromatin. We also used the online resource RegulomeDB [\(http://regulome.stanford.edu](http://regulome.stanford.edu/)) to identify

variants in the proximity of our seven SNPs with known functional annotation. However, we found no compelling evidence of enrichment.

ii. Gene expression eQTL analyses in brain tissue

We examined the association between each of the seven SNPs that either replicated or reached genome-wide significance in the combined analyses and the expression in brain tissue of nearby genes (within 1.2 Mb of the signal). We used data from two independent eQTL resources: SNPexpress *(53)* and Myers et al. *(54)*. The SNPexpress dataset contains expression (Affymetrix Human ST 1.o Exon array) and genotype (Illumina HumanHap 550K v1/3) data for 94 individuals. The Myers et al. dataset contains expression (Illumina Human Refseq-8 Expression BeadChip) and genotype (Affymetrix GeneChip Human Mapping 500K Array) data for 188 neurologically normal controls (data were also available for 176 Alzheimer's cases, but we did not include these data).

The two datasets were independently quality-controlled using identical filters and were analyzed separately. We removed SNPs with low minor allele frequency (MAF < 0.01), SNPs not in Hardy-Weinberg (HWE, $p < 1 \times 10^{-1}$) 6), and SNPs with a low call rate (< 95%). To control for the effects of ancestry, we merged the data with the HapMap 3 ethnicity reference panels and conducted a multidimensional scaling (MDS) analysis was conducted in PLINK *(27)*, restricting the analyses to the SNPs present in both the target and HapMap reference datasets. We subsequently imputed the datasets to the HapMap 2 CEU reference panels using MACH [\(http://www.sph.umich.edu/csg/abecasis/MACH/\)](http://www.sph.umich.edu/csg/abecasis/MACH/).

Using MACH2QTL [\(http://www.sph.umich.edu/csg/abecasis/MACH/\)](http://www.sph.umich.edu/csg/abecasis/MACH/), we performed transcript-wide eQTL analyses for the seven SNPs. In these analyses, we controlled for sex, age, age², post-mortem interval, postmortem interval², dummy variables for three sites, and ancestry (using the first four dimensions of the multidimensional scaling analysis). To adjust for hybridization, the analyses of the Myers et al. *(54)* dataset also included controls for date and brain region.

None of the observed *p*-values survived correction for multiple testing: the lowest nominal *p*-value observed in these analyses was $p \approx 1 \times 10^{-4}$. We note, however, that because the number of brain tissue samples available was small, our power to detect small effects on expression in brain tissue was limited.

iii. Gene expression eQTL analyses in blood tissue

We also examined the association between each of the seven SNPs that either replicated or reached genomewide significance in the combined analyses and the expression in blood tissue of nearby genes (within 1.0 Mb of the signal). We performed this cis-eQTL mapping on three samples of unrelated individuals: 1,240 individuals from Fehrmann with expression data from the Illumina HT12v3 chip; 229 individuals from Fehrmann with expression data from the HT8v2 chip *(55*, *56)*; and 891 individuals from the Estonian Biobank with expression data from the HT12v3 chip *(56)*. The gene expression data were obtained from total RNA in whole blood samples. As with the brain eQTL analyses, the genotype data were first filtered for MAF (> 0.01), HWE ($p \ge$ 1×10^{-6}), and call rate (95%) before imputation using the HapMap 2 CEU reference panel.

To avoid hybridization artifacts, we harmonized the data by aligning the gene expression probes to the human genome build 18 (Ensembl build 54) using BLAT, SOAPAlign v2, and BWA and excluding any probe that mapped to multiple genomic locations or contained more than two mismatches. Each expression dataset was normalized as follows: (1) quantile normalized, (2) log_2 transformed, and (3) standardized to have a mean of zero and variance equal to one. We used the software MixupMapper *(57)* to identify and remove sample mixups. To correct for possible population structure, we residualized the gene expression data on the first four multi-dimensional scaling components obtained from the genotypic data. We residualized the resulting variable on 40 PCs (derived from the variance-covariance matrix of the genotypic data) that did not show any significant evidence of association with the genotypes (and might therefore have a biological interpretation).

To map the cis-eQTLs, we correlated the imputed genotypes with the transformed gene expression data. These analyses were conducted separately for each of the three samples and completed for each gene for which the midpoint of the probe was within 1.0 Mb of the SNP. The *Z*-statistics from the three samples were metaanalyzed, weighting each statistic by the sample size of the dataset. To test for statistical significance while correcting for multiple hypothesis testing (using a false discovery rate of 5%), we generated a distribution for the meta-analyzed Z-statistic under the null hypothesis by simulation: for each of 100 simulation runs, we permuted the sample labels and re-ran the meta-analysis. To determine whether the educational-attainment SNPs have independent cis-eQTL effects in a given loci, we performed conditional analysis as follows. We first determined which SNP showed the strongest cis-eQTL effect for each of the probes associated with the educational-attainment SNPs. Then, we adjusted the gene expression data for these effects using linear regression, and repeated the cis-eQTL analysis on the educational-attainment SNPs.

The analyses revealed several strong cis-regulatory signals for nearby genes (Table S15). Three of the educational-attainment-associated SNP eQTL effects—*BTN2A1*, *HMGN4*, and *MDM4*—remained significant even after removing the effect of the most significant SNP for the specific gene, thus suggesting an extra regulatory mechanism tagged by the GWAS signal.

b. Analyses aggregating effects across multiple SNP signals

iv. Gene-based tests

We used meta-analysis results from the combined-stage GWAS as input for VEGAS *(48)* to test for association at the level of the gene. In total, 17,661 genes were tested for *EduYears* and 17,676 for *College*. The 25 most strongly associated genes for both phenotypes are listed in Tables S16 and S17. After Bonferroni correction, 17 genes for *EduYears* and 7 for *College* are associated (*p*-value $\leq 2 \times 10^{-6}$). Of the 25 top genes for *EduYears* and *College*, 6 genes appear in both lists. Several of these genes (*TUFM*, *ATP2A1*, *ATXN2L*, and *SH2B1*) are located in adjacent positions on chromosome 16.

v. Pathway analyses

Pathway analysis typically entails two steps: first, identify genomic regions of interest (e.g., based on low *p*values); and second, test whether these regions include genes that define known biological pathways more than expected by chance. To determine the genomic regions, we began by selecting a set of index SNPs that reached $p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ in the combined-stage meta-analysis. A region surrounding each index SNP was extended to nominally associated SNPs (*p* < 0.05) within 250kb of the index SNP that were in moderate LD with the index SNP $(r^2 > 0.5)$. LD among SNPs was estimated from the HapMap 2 CEU reference panel using PLINK (27).

Any resulting regions that overlapped were subsequently merged, and only regions overlapping known genes were tested. In total, we identified 33 regions overlapping known genes for each of *EduYears* and *College*.

Next, we used INRICH *(58)* to test the identified genomic regions for overlap with 3,440 pathways listed in the Gene Ontology (GO) database that included between 5 and 200 genes *(59)*. Pathways showing suggestive enrichment (empirical $p < 0.05$) before multiple-testing corrections are listed in Table S18. None of these pathways demonstrated significant overlap with low *p*-value genomic regions in either the *EduYears* or *College* meta-analysis results after adjustment for multiple testing.

vi. Analyses of cell-type specificity

We employed a recently published method ([http://www.broadinstitute.org/mpg/epigwas/,](http://www.broadinstitute.org/mpg/epigwas/) *(50)*) that tests for cell-type-specific enrichment of active chromatin, measured through H3K4me3 chromatin marks *(60)* in regions surrounding IndexSNPs identified by the combined-stage GWAS analysis. A recent paper shows that H3K4me3 chromatin marks are the most cell-type-specific marks in terms of co-localization with previously published GWAS loci *(50)*. The idea behind the method is that variants related to a particular phenotype may affect celltype-specific gene expression by changing regulatory elements in cell types relevant to that phenotype. Hence, overlap between associated variants and chromatin marks should occur preferentially in the relevant cell type(s). Our analysis tested for enrichment of these chromatin marks in 34 different tissues.

We constructed the set of IndexSNPs by first identifying all SNPs that reached $p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ in the combined-stage meta-analysis for each phenotype. We next pruned this set of SNPs to a final list of IndexSNPs, in which no two SNPs were in LD greater than $r^2 = 0.5$. For each IndexSNP, a locus region was defined, bounded on either side of the IndexSNP by the most distant SNP within 250 kb of the IndexSNP that was in LD ($r^2 > 0.8$) with the IndexSNP. For each SNP within each locus, regulatory activity scores were calculated as the height of the nearest H3K4me3 mark divided by distance from the SNP to the H3K4me3 mark. The SNP with the highest score within each IndexSNP locus region in a given tissue was designated the BestSNP, which served as the score representing that locus.

Cell-type-specificity scores per locus were estimated by normalizing BestSNP scores so that the sum of scores for a given locus across all cell types equaled 1. Cell-type-specificity scores per tissue were defined by summing normalized BestSNP scores across all loci within a given tissue. 10,000 sets of SNPs (matched to the IndexSNP regions having the same total number of H3K4me3 peaks) were sampled (from among background SNPs provided with the software) to estimate null distributions of cell-type-specificity scores per locus and per tissue. *P*-values for cell-type-specificity scores summed across all BestSNPs for each tissue (the observed per-tissue score) were estimated as the proportion of random SNP sets with a per-tissue score exceeding the observed pertissue score. We identified loci with BestSNP cell-type-specificity scores falling at or above the 95th percentile of the corresponding null distribution as demonstrating greater than expected specificity within a given cell type *(50)*.

Figure S20 shows *p*-values for the cell-type-specific overlap of H3K4me3 marks and IndexSNP regions for each cell type. Four cell/tissue types showed significant overlap at nominal $p \le 0.05$: for *EduYears*, anterior caudate $(p = 0.0089)$, CD4+ naive primary cells $(p = 0.032)$, hippocampus middle $(p = 0.05)$ and muscle satellite cultured cells ($p = 0.0236$); and for *College*, anterior caudate ($p = 0.0007$). Additionally, for *College* the midfrontal lobe showed marginal enrichment at *p* = 0.0502. Only the anterior caudate results for *College* survive correction for multiple hypothesis testing.

The results from the analysis of overlap between H3K4me4 chromatin marks and education-associated SNP regions suggest gene expression regulatory function for those loci in specific cell types. In particular, we note that anterior caudate tissue appears enriched for both *EduYears* and *College* phenotypes, although only the latter survives multiple testing correction. Figure S21 shows cell-type-specificity scores per locus in the four nominally significant tissues and 95th-percentile threshold (dashed red line). Loci above the threshold were identified as showing greater than chance specificity within that particular cell type. Table S19 identifies these enriched loci, along with distance to the nearest chromatin mark.

c. Functional pathways and phenotypic associations of implicated genes

Table S20 provides an index listing every gene identified by any of the initial biological follow-up analyses (functional annotation, blood eQTL analyses, and the gene-based tests). The functional annotation column identifies genes with functional SNPs (missense, synonymous, or 3'UTR variants) in high LD ($r^2 > 0.8$) with one of the seven independent loci that were either replicated or significant in combined analyses (Tables 1, S6, S7; functional annotation results fully detailed in Table S14). The blood eQTL column lists genes showing a significant cis-eQTL signal within 1.0Mb of one of the seven loci (see Table S15 for blood eQTL details). The third column summarizes all genes that were significant in gene-based tests after correction for multiple testing (regardless of genomic location with regard to individually significant SNPs; full results are reported in Tables S16 for *EduYears*, and S17 for *College*). In the last column, we provide a map between the identified genes and their locations relative to the seven SNPs that were either replicated or reached genome-wide significance in the combined-sample analysis; that is, genes that were within 1.0 Mb of a significant SNP are labeled with the SNP identifier as well as the distance between the SNP and the nearest edge of the gene (or the location of the SNP within the gene, if appropriate). The complete list of genes presented in Table S20 was used as the input for the analyses that follow: examinations of likely gene functions as well as of previously-reported phenotypic associations.

vii. Gene function prediction using a large co-expression framework

We used a recently developed method to gain insight into the putative functions of all the genes listed in Table S20. This method takes as its input a list of genes and infers the probable functions of the genes by pooling published data on 80,000 gene expression profiles from humans, animals and cell lines. The method is described in a recent paper *(51)*, which also reports evidence that a prediction coming out of the framework was validated by subsequent wet lab experiments.

Gene-function prediction is based on the idea that genes with shared expression profiles are likely to have related biological functions. For example, if 50 genes are known to play a role in apoptosis, then a gene with unknown function that is strongly co-expressed with these 50 genes is likely to be part of apoptotic pathways as well. The method of (51) uses data on co-expression profiles to predict the likely functions of as-yet uncharacterized genes and refine our understanding of the function of other genes. The overall workflow of the

method has been graphically visualized at <http://www.genenetwork.nl/genenetwork/>(described at the "method" link).

Table S21 lists all pathways associated with implicated genes after applying a false discovery rate criterion of < 0.05. Four genes queried (*BSN*, *GBX2*, *LRRN2*, *PIK3C2B*) tended to occur within neuronal pathways. Specifically, these genes were associated with axonal (*BSN*, *PIK3C2B*), dendritic (*BSN*, *LRRN2*), neuronal cell body (*LRRN2*), neuron fate (*GBX2*), and synaptic terms (*BSN*, *LRRN2*), as well as pathways related to learning and long-term memory (*BSN*) and glutamate receptor activity (*LRRN2*). In addition, several genes identified through gene-based tests (*PIK3C2B*, *IP6K3*, *ITPR3*, *TET2*) were implicated in muscular contractions and neuron-muscle junctions. Although some of these genes have previously been associated with these functional annotations (such as *BSN* with synaptic terms), others are novel associations detected through the applied gene co-expression analysis (such as *BSN* with long-term memory).

viii. Existing phenotypic asssociations for plausible candidate regions

Previous phenotypic associations were identified in early March 2013 from human and animal web databases (NHGRI's Catalog of Published Genome-Wide Association Studies, [http://www.genome.gov/gwastudies;](http://www.genome.gov/gwastudies) Mouse Genome Informatics, [http://www.informatics.jax.org/;](http://www.informatics.jax.org/) The Zebrafish Model Organism Database, <http://zfin.org/>). All databases were queried for implicated genes listed in Table S20, including alternate/previous gene symbols. From the human GWAS database, findings were considered relevant if a reported significant locus mapped within an implicated gene, or between an implicated gene and another gene, in the current build (b37). From the animal model databases, findings were considered relevant if they suggested neurological or central nervous system alterations caused by polymorphisms, mutations, or knockout models in an implicated gene. Table S22 lists, for each of the genes in Table S20, previously reported associations identified from the human GWAS, zebrafish, or mouse-model databases. This review is not intended as a comprehensive analysis of all phenotypes associated with these genes in humans or model organisms. Rather, we seek to provide an overview of previous findings, highlighting key results that suggest potential mechanisms of genetic influences on educational attainment for future study.

Several notable patterns emerge from previously reported phenotypic associations for genes identified in Table S20. Both the *MDM4-LRRN2* region on chromosome 1 (identified as potential candidates through blood eOTL and functional SNP characterization of the top associated locus tagged by rs11584700) and *STK24* on chromosome 13 (associated with *EduYears* in gene-based tests) have previously reported associations with cognitive phenotypes in humans *(61*, *62)*. In addition, the *GBX2* gene has been robustly demonstrated to affect neural development in both zebrafish *(63)* and mouse models *(64*, *65)*. These previous findings identify these genes as particularly interesting regions for future investigations of cognition-related phenotypes.

The remaining implicated regions show previous associations with basic health and disease phenotypes, primarily body size (including *TET2*, *ITPR3*, and the *ATXN2L*-*TUFM*-*SH2B1*-*ATP2A1* region) and inflammation (including *AFF3*, *BSN*-*APEH*-*MST1*, and *ATXN2L*-*TUFM*-*SH2B1*-*ATP2A1*). Further, the signals on chromosome 6p22-21 surround the Major Histocompatibility Complex (MHC), a dense region of genes, many of which are known to affect immune function and have been implicated in a range of psychiatric disorders including schizophrenia *(66)*. This connection suggests candidate regions for investigation of pleiotropic, causal, or interactive genetic effects that may help inform our understanding of the etiology of the relationship between education and health.

d. Summary and discussion of findings from biological analyses

The supplementary analyses detailed in the previous sections suggest that the meta-analyses of educational attainment phenotypes identify several biologically plausible genomic loci that warrant future investigation. From Table S20 summarizing results of multiple forms of analysis, we note that two loci in particular, marked by rs11584700 at chromosome 1q32 and rs1056667 near the Major Histocompatibility Complex (MHC) on chromosome 6, show converging lines of evidence for association with educational attainment as well as plausible biological function. The region on 1q32 marked by replicated *College*-associated SNP rs11584700 was highlighted by each of the analyses listed in Table S20, showing LD with missense and 3'-UTR variants in *LRRN2*, a blood cis-eQTL signal located in *MDM4*, and significant gene-based association of *PIK3C2B* for the *College* phenotype. Among these genes, the *MDM4*-*LRRN2* locus has been associated with cognitive performance in humans *(61)*, and *MDM4* is known to be involved in central nervous system development in mouse models *(67)*. The genome-wide significant *EduYears* SNP rs1056667 is located near the gene-rich MHC on chromosome 6, a region that has been robustly shown to affect immune function *(66)*. Genes located in this region—including *LRRC16A*, *HMGN4*, four genes from the histone cluster 1 family, and five genes from the butyrophilin family—appeared in results from each of the analyses listed in Table S20.

Beyond the more standard methods of functional annotation, eQTL analysis, and gene-based tests, perhaps the most compelling biological evidence emerged from two novel, powerful methods for identifying potential biological mechanisms underlying the GWAS findings for educational attainment. Within the combined metaanalysis results, loci tagged by SNPs meeting $p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ in the combined meta-analyses showed cell-typespecific overlap with chromatin marks, suggesting cell-type-specific gene expression regulation within the anterior caudate (for both *EduYears* and *College*). The caudate nucleus is located in the basal ganglia, and is strongly implicated in goal-directed behavior *(68)*. Co-expression-based gene-function prediction analysis identified several specific genes previously identified in Table S20 as likely involved in learning, long-term memory, and neuronal function or development pathways (including *GBX2*, *LRRN2*, and *PIK3C2B*, which are located near genome-wide significant loci, as well as *BSN*, which was identified as associated with *EduYears* in the gene-based tests). These genes have several previously reported associations with neural development or cognition-related phenotypes. *LRRN2* has been associated with cognitive performance in humans *(61)*. *GBX2* is known to be involved in anterior hindbrain development in both zebrafish and mouse models *(63, 64, 65)*, as well as being involved in striatal cholinergic interneuron development in mice *(65)*. In addition, *BSN* may influence glutamatergic synapse function in mice *(69)*.

Several of the implicated genes summarized in Table S20 suggest mechanisms potentially related to the wellestablished health-education gradient. In particular, human GWAS associations have been reported for *BSN* with inflammatory bowel disease (IBD; *(70*, *71, 72)*). *MST1 (73, 74, 75, 76)*, *APEH (77)*, and *ATXN2L (78)* also have previously reported associations with various forms of IBD in humans, and *AFF3* has been associated with rheumatoid arthritis *(79)*, suggesting potential pleiotropic or mediation effects between genes related to inflammation and educational attainment. For example, experiencing IBD symptoms may have direct adverse

effects on educational outcomes, such as school attendance and performance *(80*, *81)*, as well as indirect effects mediated by psychosocial adversity, such as increased anxiety or depressive symptoms or family environment stress *(81)*. However, the *BSN* variant often associated with increased risk of IBD, the A allele of rs9858542, was marginally associated with increased levels of educational attainment within the combined-sample metaanalyses ($p_{\text{EduYears}} = 4.1 \times 10^{-7}$, $p_{\text{Collect}} = 9.5 \times 10^{-5}$). This counterintuitive positive association of rs9858542-A to both IBD and educational attainment, coupled with the previously reported negative phenotypic relationship between IBD and education, illustrates the complex relationships that may exist within the apparent genetic overlap between educational attainment and health outcomes. The association suggests *BSN* (along with other education-associated genomic regions previously reported for health phenotypes) as an interesting target for follow-up studies of pleiotropic or mediation effects involved in the etiology of the health-education gradient.

6. Prediction using linear polygenic scores

To investigate how much of the variance in educational attainment is captured by a linear polygenic score (*PGS*) in independent samples, we calculated the effect sizes of SNP j (γ _i) using

$$
\gamma_j = \hat{\sigma}_{x,j} \cdot z_j,
$$

where (under the assumption of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium)

$$
\hat{\sigma}_{x,j} = \sqrt{2 \cdot MAF_j \cdot (1 - MAF_j)}.
$$

There were 6,654 unrelated European Americans from the ARIC cohort with the SNP data imputed to the HapMap2 CEU panel *(82)*. The QIMR (*N* = 3,526) and STR (*N* = 6,770) cohorts were used as the independent validation samples and excluded from the meta-analysis, such that the results of the meta-analysis were based on (All Cohorts minus QIMR) and (All Cohorts minus STR), respectively. The SNP data of these two cohorts were also imputed to the HapMap2 CEU panel.

For the trait *College* (respectively, *EduYears*), in addition to using all available SNPs, we selected 3 (5), 113 (127) and 3,506 (3,369) SNPs that were significant at $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$, $p < 5 \times 10^{-5}$ and $p < 5 \times 10^{-3}$. We selected the SNPs by a multiple-SNPs association analysis method *(83)* using the summary statistics from the meta-analysis and linkage disequilibrium (LD) between SNPs estimated from the ARIC (Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study) cohort. This method implements a step-wise model selection procedure to select all the top associated SNPs, taking LD into account. Therefore, the top associated SNPs selected by this approach are either independently (SNPs are in no LD) or jointly (SNPs are in LD but still have significant effects when fitted together in the model) associated with the phenotype. The advantage of using this approach is that we can identify multiple association signals at a locus, and we do not have to set an arbitrary threshold r^2 value for LD pruning. The effects of all the selected SNPs were re-estimated in a multiple SNP model *(83)*, which yields more accurate estimates for individual SNP effects, similar in spirit to the improvement one gets from adding correlated explanatory variables to a multivariate regression model. The analysis was performed using the GCTA software *(84)*. We then used the PLINK *(27)* profile scoring approach to create a *PGS* from these

selected SNPs for *College* and *EduYears* in a set of unrelated individuals of the QIMR (*N* = 3,526) and STR (*N* = 6,770) cohorts. The *PGS* for the *i*-th individual was calculated as

$$
\hat{g}_i = \sum x_{ij} \hat{b}_j ,
$$

where x_{ij} is the number of copies of the effect allele for SNP *j*, and \hat{b}_j is the estimated SNP effect from the multiple-SNP analysis. In both QIMR and STR studies, the observed phenotypes of *EduYears* were adjusted for age, sex, and age×sex interaction, and standardized to *z*-scores. The prediction R^2 was calculated from a linear regression of the *z-*score for *EduYears* on the *PGS*.

In addition to examining how much of the variance in educational attainment is captured by the *PGS*, we also examined how much of the variance in cognitive function in the STR study *(17)* (*N* = 1,419) is captured by the *same PGS* (constructed for *College* and *EduYears*). The measures of cognitive function were also adjusted for age, sex, and age×sex interaction, and standardized to *z*-scores. The basic idea is that if cognitive function is an endophenotype for educational attainment, then the SNPs that are correlated with educational attainment may also be correlated with the cognitive function measure (see section 7 below). The estimated $R^2 \approx 2.5\%$ for cognitive function is slightly larger than the share of variance in educational attainment captured by the score in the STR sample. One possible interpretation is that some of the SNPs used to construct the score matter for education through their stronger, more direct effects on cognitive function (see section 7 below). A mediation analysis (Table S24) provides tentative evidence consistent with this interpretation.

Furthermore, we selected in the QIMR (respectively, STR) cohort the 572 full-sib pairs (2,774 DZ twins) from 572 (2,774) independent families for which we had both phenotype and genotype data available. In these samples, we regressed the difference in observed phenotypes (*z*-scores) on the difference in *PGS* between the full-sibs. This within-family analysis is unconfounded by possible population stratification. For the withinfamily analysis in the STR cohorts, only 399 of the 2,774 DZ twins had data on cognitive function available. The PGS for educational attainment constructed using all SNPs remains significant in these within-family analyses (Tables S23 and S25).

a. Projection of how much variance in educational attainment will be explained by a linear polygenic score as a function of the sample size used for estimating the score

(85) derived an approximation of the correlation between the polygenic score estimated in a discovery sample $(g \rvert)$ and its true value (g) , which is the value it would attain if estimated in an infinite sample:

$$
r^2(g,\hat{g}) \approx \frac{\lambda h^2}{\lambda h^2 + 1},
$$

where h^2 the proportion of additive phenotypic variance captured by all SNPs, and λ^2 is the ratio of the number of individuals in the discovery sample (*N*) to the number of loci that contribute to the heritability (*M*), i.e. $\lambda =$ *N/M*. In practice we do not know the number of loci that contribute to educational attainment. However, to make a prediction without knowing the number of loci we can use the effective number of independent segments that are segregating in the population, which is a function of effective population size (N_e) (86). The resulting prediction of variance explained by a predictor is then for the case where all SNPs are used in a best linear

unbiased prediction (BLUP) analysis of a discovery sample with size *N* that uses individual-level genotype and phenotype data *(87)*.

The proportion of the phenotypic variance explained by a predictor based upon a discovery sample size of *N* is,

$$
R^{2}(y, \hat{g}) = R^{2}(g + e, \hat{g})
$$

=
$$
\frac{\text{cov}^{2}(g, \hat{g})}{\text{var}(\hat{g})\text{var}(y)}
$$

=
$$
r^{2}(g, \hat{g})\frac{\text{var}(g)}{\text{var}(y)}
$$

=
$$
r^{2}(g, \hat{g})h^{2}
$$

=
$$
\frac{\frac{N}{M}h^{4}}{\frac{N}{M}h^{2} + 1}
$$

From (86), $M \approx 2N_e k L / \log(2N_e L)$ where k is the number of chromosomes and $L =$ average length of a chromosome. For human data, $k = 22$, $L \approx 1.6$ and $N_e \approx 10,000$, which gives an estimate of $M \approx 70,000$. In the case of educational attainment, $h^2 \approx 0.2$ ((3) and Table S12).

Using these parameters we predict the prediction accuracy for a range of values of *N* in Table S26 below. The predicted R^2 of 4% for a sample size of $N = 100,000$ is higher than what we observe with the real data (approximately 2-3%), which could be due to:

- the approximations used for calculating the effective number of loci;
- violation of an assumption underlying approximation *(85)*, the assumption being that the SNPs with a non-zero estimated effect included in the polygenic score are exactly the *M* SNPs related to educational attainment;
- $-$ the use of the estimate of h^2 of 0.2, which is from empirical estimates with a non-trivial standard error; or
- the fact that we performed a prediction analysis on summary statistics, which is less efficient than an analysis on individual-level genotype data.

The theoretical results imply that a GWAS of educational attainment on 1 million individuals will generate a polygenic score that can explain 15% of variance in educational attainment in a new sample. In the future, with denser SNP arrays or whole-sequence data, more phenotypic variance is likely to be accounted for by the genotypes, i.e., h^2 from the included genetic variants will be larger. For example, a value of h^2 of 0.4 results in R^2 values of 0.15, 0.30 and 0.34, for *N* of 100,000, 500,000 and 1 million, respectively.

7. Identifying genetic associations using biologically distal phenotypes

In this section, we sketch a simple formal framework for considering in general terms how genetic associations with a distal phenotype, such as educational attainment, may be informative regarding genetic associations with mediating traits (endophenotypes) that are more proximal to the direct effects of the genes.

Let *Y* denote the value of an individual's biologically-distal phenotype, for example, educational attainment. (To avoid cluttering notation, we suppress indexing variables by individual.) We assume that the phenotype is determined by a simple linear function of *K* genetically-influenced endophenotypes:

$$
(1) Y = \sum_{k=1}^K \gamma_k M_k + \varepsilon_Y,
$$

where M_k is the value of the individual's k^{th} endophenotype, γ_k is the effect of M_k on Y , and ϵ_Y is a random variable with mean zero that we assume is independent of the M_k 's. For educational attainment, these mediating variables include cognitive function, personality traits such as perseverance, early-life health conditions, and many others. The error term ε_Y captures all other factors, including exogenous environmental factors that affect *Y*. Without loss of generality, we assume each $\gamma_k > 0$. We normalize *Y* and each M_k so that they have mean zero and variance one (hence regression coefficients are equal to partial correlation coefficients).

Let $j = 1, \ldots, J$ index the SNPs that are causally related to at least one of the mediating factors. We assume that each of the *k* endophenotypes is a simple linear function of the individual's genotype and determined by:

$$
(2) M_k = \sum_{j=1}^J \beta_{kj} X_j + \varepsilon_k ,
$$

-

where *Xj* is the individual's genotype at SNP *j* (again, normalized to have mean zero and variance one), *βkj* is the effect of X_j on M_k (which could be positive or negative, or possibly equal to 0 for particular SNP*j*/endophenotype-*k* combinations), and *εk* is a random variable with mean zero that we assume is independent of the X_i 's. The error term ε_k captures all other factors, including exogenous environmental factors that affect M_k .

The distal phenotype *Y* can be expressed as a function of the SNP genotypes by substituting equation (2) into equation (1):

(3)
$$
Y = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{K} \gamma_k \beta_{kj} \right) X_j + \left(\varepsilon_Y + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \gamma_k \varepsilon_k \right) = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \delta_j X_j + u_Y,
$$

where $\delta_j \equiv \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}$ *K* $\delta_j = \sum_{k=1}^{j} \gamma_k \beta_{kj}$ is the effect of SNP *j* on the distal phenotype *j* (aggregated over all the mediating pathways), and $u_Y \equiv \left(\varepsilon_Y + \sum_{k=1}^K \gamma_k \varepsilon_k\right)$ $\equiv \left(\varepsilon_Y + \sum_{k=1}^K \right)$ *K* $u_Y \equiv \left(\varepsilon_Y + \sum_{k=1} \gamma_k \varepsilon_k \right)$ is a mean-zero composite error term that is independent of the *X_j*'s.

A GWAS of the distal phenotype *Y* estimates the δ_i 's in equation (3).

An immediate implication of our theoretical framework is that if $\delta_i \neq 0$, then $\beta_{ki} \neq 0$ for at least one $k \in \{1, 2, ..., K\}$. Hence if the GWAS of the distal phenotype *Y* credibly identifies a SNP, then that SNP can serve as a plausible "candidate gene" for the mediating traits.^{[1](#page-23-0)}

But if one is interested in identifying SNPs associated with a mediating trait, why not directly run a GWAS of the trait of interest?

¹ The converse does not hold: it is possible that $\beta_{k,j} \neq 0$ for some *k*, but $\delta_j = 0$. Thus, a GWAS on the distal phenotype may not identify all the SNPs related to an endophenotype of interest.

To understand the relevant tradeoffs within the context of our framework, denote by *N*_{distal} the sample size available for the distal GWAS and by N_k the sample size available for a direct GWAS of some endophenotype k . We will argue that if the distal phenotype is available in much larger samples, then a GWAS of *Y* may be better powered than a GWAS of M_k to identify SNPs associated with M_k .

The statistical power of a GWAS to detect the association of a phenotype with a SNP *j* is determined by the sample size of the study (*N*) and the population R^2 from the regression of the phenotype on SNP *j* (R^2 _{phenotype,SNP}). Specifically, power is a function of the non-centrality-parameter (NCP) of a χ^2 test of association, which is approximately equal to $NR^2_{\text{phenotype, SNP}}$. Therefore, the GWAS on the distal phenotype in a sample of size N_{distal} will have approximately the same power as a GWAS on endophenotype k in a sample of size N_k if

$$
N_{\text{distal}} R_{Y,j}^2 = N_k R_{k,j}^2.
$$
 Since $R_{k,j}^2 = \beta_{k,j}^2$ and $R_{Y,j}^2 = \delta_j^2 = \left(\sum_{k=1}^K \gamma_k \beta_{k,j}\right)^2$, the condition for equal power is

$$
N_{\text{distal}} = N_k \frac{\beta_{k,j}^2}{\delta_j^2}.
$$

In theory, it is possible that δ_i^2 exceeds $\beta_{k,j}^2$ —that is, the SNP is *more* strongly associated with the distal phenotype than with the endophenotype—so that the GWAS on the distal phenotype has greater statistical power than the GWAS on the endophenotype even if $N_{\text{distal}} = N_k$. This situation can only arise if SNP *j* is not only associated with endophenotype *k*, but even more strongly associated with a weighted sum of the other endophenotypes $\sum_{k' \neq k} \gamma_{k'} M_{k'}$. We suspect that in practice, most SNPs detected in a GWAS study of a distal outcome do not have this property.

Another possibility is that a SNP operates mainly through one endophenotype. If SNP *j* affects the distal phenotype through exactly one channel, say endophenotype k, then $\delta_j^2 = \gamma_k^2 \beta_{k,j}^2$. This quantity is necessarily smaller than $\beta_{k,j}^2$, and hence the GWAS on the endophenotype has greater statistical power than the GWAS on the distal phenotype if $N_{\text{distal}} = N_k$. In the analysis that follows, we assume that $\delta_j^2 = \gamma_k^2 \beta_{k,j}^2$ in order to quantify the tradeoff between sample size and biological proximity.

Notice, however, that if this simplifying assumption does not hold, the calculations we report below will often be conservative in the sense of understating the benefits of the GWAS on the distal phenotype. To understand why, suppose that SNP *j* impacts the distal phenotype through multiple endophenotypes. We define a SNP as "mono-directional" for endophenotype k if its correlation with the distal phenotype has the same sign as its correlation with the weighted average of the other endophenotypes, $\sum_{k' \neq k} \gamma_{k'} M_{k'}$; and we define a SNP as "bidirectional" for endophenotype *k* otherwise. If a SNP is mono-directional, then $\delta_j^2 > \gamma_k^2 \beta_{k,j}^2$, making the SNP easier to detect than our calculations assume. In contrast, if the SNP is bi-directional, then it will typically be the case that $\delta_j^2 < \gamma_k^2 \beta_{k,j}^2$, and the calculations below are likely to overstate the benefits of the GWAS on the distal

outcome.^{[2](#page-25-0)} However, the SNPs most likely to be discovered by a GWAS on the distal phenotype are those that have the strongest association with the distal phenotype. Therefore, we expect that in practice, the SNPs discovered by a GWAS on the distal phenotype will generally be the mono-directional SNPs.

Assuming that $\delta_j^2 = \gamma_k^2 \beta_{k,j}^2$, the condition for equal power simplifies to $N_{\text{distal}} = N_k / \gamma_k^2$. To be concrete, suppose that the correlation between the distal outcome and the endophenotype is $\gamma_k = 0.5$; for comparison, the correlation between *EduYears* and cognitive function is 0.46 in the STR data analyzed in the prediction exercise of section 6 above. Then a GWAS on the distal phenotype with 100,000 individuals has the same power as a GWAS on the endophenotype with 25,000 individuals. If obtaining high-quality measurement of the endophenotype is costly or time-consuming, it may be more difficult to obtain a sample size of N_k for the endophenotype than a sample size of *N*_{distal} for the distal phenotype.

Figure S22 illustrates explicit power calculations. Each of the three curves graphs a locus of effect-size/samplesize pairs that gives a fixed level of statistical power—80%, 50%, and 16%, respectively—to detect an association with a SNP at $p = 5 \times 10^{-8}$. Effect size is measured in terms of the R^2 from a population regression of the phenotype on the SNP.

Our findings imply that for the SNPs with the largest associations with educational attainment, the R^2 from a population regression of educational attainment on SNP *j* is approximately 0.02% (that is, 0.0002). The black curve shows that our sample size of approximately $N_{\text{distal}} = 100,000$ individuals had about 16% power to detect a SNP of this effect size. Assuming as above that the SNP affects educational attainment only through its effect on a single endophenotype *k* and that $\gamma_k = 0.5$, the R^2 from a population regression of the endophenotype on SNP *j* is $\beta_{k,i}^2 = 0.0002/0.5^2 = 0.0008$. Consistent with the analytical derivation above, the black curve shows that for 16% power to detect this effect, a sample size of approximately $N_k = 25,000$ individuals is needed. The red and green curves numerically illustrate the tradeoff at other levels of statistical power.

We conclude this section by analyzing how well a polygenic score constructed to predict the distal outcome can be expected to predict the endophenotype.

The best possible polygenic score for the purpose of predicting endophenotype *k* is the deterministic component of the population regression equation (2): $PGS_k = \sum_{j=1}^{n}$ *J* $PGS_k = \sum_{j=1}^{k} \beta_{k,j} X_j$. When estimated using GWAS results on endophenotype *k* in a sample of size N_k , the polygenic score is $PGS_{k|N_k} = \sum_{j=1}^{k}$ *J* $\hat{PGS}_{k|N_k} = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \hat{\beta}_{k,j} X_j$. The polygenic score estimated using GWAS results on the distal phenotype in a sample of size N_{distal} is the estimated deterministic component of the population regression equation (3): $PGS_{\text{distall}|N_{\text{distall}}} = \sum_{j=1}^{N}$ *J* $\hat{\text{PGS}}_{\text{distal}|N_{\text{distal}}} = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \hat{\delta}_j X_j$.

-

² In principle, even if a SNP is bi-directional for endophenotype *k*, it is possible that $\delta_j^2 > \beta_{k,j}^2$. This condition means that the SNP's effect on the distal trait is larger in magnitude than the SNP's effect on the endophenotype. However, for a bi-directional SNP, where the SNP's effect on the distal trait is in the opposite direction of the SNP's effect on the endophenotype of interest, we think this possibility is unlikely in most realistic settings.

Is $\hat{PGS}_{k|N_k}$ or $\hat{PGS}_{\text{distall}|N_{\text{distall}}}$ expected to be a better estimate of PGS_k ? There are two countervailing effects. First and more obviously, the $\hat{\beta}_{k,j}$ weights used in constructing $\hat{PGS}_{k|N_k}$ are unbiased estimates of the optimal weights $\beta_{k,j}$, while in general the $\hat{\delta}_j$ weights used in constructing $\hat{PG}_{\text{Sdistall}|N_{\text{distall}}}$ are not unbiased estimates of the weights $\gamma_k \beta_{k,j}$. (The $\hat{\delta}_j$ weights are unbiased estimates of $\delta_j = \sum_{k=1}^{K}$ *K* $\delta_j = \sum_{k=1} \gamma_k \beta_{k,j}$, but these reflect all the mediating pathways, not just the pathway involving endophenotype *k*.) This first effect favors $\hat{PGS}_{k|N_k}$ over $distal|N_{distal}$ $\overset{\wedge}{\text{PGS}}_{\text{distall}|N_{\text{distall}}}$.

However, there is a second effect. For reasons discussed above, if $N_{\text{distal}} > N_k$, then the $\hat{\delta}_j$'s may be estimated more precisely than the $\hat{\beta}_{k,j}$'s. If on average the $\hat{\delta}_j$'s are not too different from the $\beta_{k,j}$'s multiplied by the constant γ_k , then it may be the case that the $\hat{\delta}_j$'s end up as better estimates of the $\gamma_k \beta_{k,j}$'s than the $\hat{\beta}_{k,j}$'s are estimates of the $\beta_{k,j}$'s. Since γ_k is an irrelevant multiplicative constant—that is, $\sum_{j=1}^{k}$ *J* $\sum_{j=1}^{J} \hat{\delta}_j X_j$ predicts exactly the same amount of variance in the endophenotype as $\sum_{j=1}^{J}$ $\frac{1}{2}X_j/\gamma_k$ $\hat{\delta}_j X_j / \gamma_k$ does—this second effect favors $\hat{\text{PGS}}_{\text{distall}|N_{\text{distal}}}$

over $\hat{PGS}_{k|N_k}$ (see *(85)*,*(88)* for a derivation of the effect of sample size on the predictive power of an estimated linear polygenic score).

j

1

In the case of educational attainment and cognitive function, the second effect appears to dominate given currently available sample sizes. A recent paper on childhood intelligence *(20)* constructed a predictive score $(\hat{PGS}_{k|N_k})$ from GWAS findings of ~18,000 individuals and tested the score for association with childhood intelligence in three independent replication samples. The score explained 1.2%, 3.5% and 0.5% of variance in the three replication samples, corresponding to a sample-size weighted average of 1.08%. This is smaller than the approximately 2.5% of variance in cognitive function explained by the predictive score we constructed for educational attainment ($\hat{PGS}_{\text{distall}|N_{\text{distall}}}$).

In the context of our analysis, how is it possible that the polygenic score constructed to predict educational attainment does a better job predicting cognitive function than it does predicting educational attainment? There is a general reason why a polygenic score will tend to predict an endophenotype better than it predicts the distal phenotype: the error term in population regression equation (2) for endophenotype k , ε_k , has smaller variance

than the composite error term in population regression equation (3) for the distal phenotype, $\varepsilon_Y + \sum_{k'=1} \gamma_k \varepsilon_k$ *K k* $\mathcal{E}_Y + \sum \gamma_{k'} \mathcal{E}_{k'}$. 1

The magnitude of the difference in predictive power is easiest to derive analytically in the extreme case where

$$
\delta_j = \sum_{k'=1}^K \gamma_{k'} \beta_{k',j} \approx \gamma_k \beta_{k,j}.
$$
 This approximation would hold, for example, if $\gamma_k >> \gamma_{k'}$ for all $k' \neq k$ (the

mediating pathway k is especially important relative to other pathways, for example if k is the only mediating pathway) or if $\sum_{k' \neq k} \gamma_{k'} \beta_{k',j} \approx 0$ $'P_{k'}$ $k' \neq k$ $\gamma_{k'}\beta_{k',j} \approx 0$ (the other mediating pathways cancel each other out). If $\delta_j = \gamma_k \beta_{k,j}$, then the best possible polygenic score for the distal outcome is identical to the best possible polygenic score for the endophenotype. However, the population R^2 of the polygenic score for predicting the endophenotype will be $\beta_{k,j}^2$, which is larger than the population R^2 of the polygenic score for predicting the distal phenotype, $(\gamma_k \beta_{k,i})^2$.

In interpreting the estimates we report here, it is important to remember that the predictive power of the score may vary across ethnic groups. If our score—which is estimated using a sample of Caucasians—has lower predictive power in non-Caucasians, then the benefits of using it as a control variable in a study of non-Caucasians will be smaller.

8. Using a polygenic score as a control variable in a randomized

experiment

In this section, we calibrate the gains in statistical power that may be afforded by using a polygenic score as a control variable in the context of a simple randomized experiment.

For concreteness, consider an experiment designed to estimate the effect of providing financial incentives for school attendance on educational attainment. Although our specific example is hypothetical, there are important real-world experiments testing how incentives matter for student achievement, e.g. *(89)*. Similarly, there are experiments testing how student achievement is affected by pre-school programs (e.g., *(90)*) or pre-birth interventions (e.g., *(91)*). In these and other examples, the intervention is expensive, and obtaining adequate statistical power from a relatively small sample size is a paramount challenge.

Let *Y* denote the level of an individual's educational attainment. (To avoid cluttering notation, we suppress indexing variables by individual.) Let N_X denote the number of experimental participants. Suppose proportion p of the participants are randomly assigned to the treatment group in which financial incentives are provided, and proportion 1–*p* of the participants are randomly assigned to the control group. The treatment effect, *τ*, is estimated by running the regression:

(1)
$$
Y = \alpha + \sum_{j=1}^{J} \beta_j X_j + \tau I + \varepsilon
$$
,

where the X_i 's are the values of *J* variables correlated with *Y* (such as sex, personality traits, and parental income), $I \in \{0,1\}$ is an indicator variable for assignment to control or treatment group, and the mean-zero error term *ε* captures all other factors that affect *Y*. We denote the variance of *ε* by $σ²$.

Because *I* is randomly assigned, it is independent of the X_i 's and of ε . Therefore, the treatment effect coefficient, $\hat{\tau}_X$, is an unbiased estimate of the true treatment effect τ , whether or not the X_j 's are included in the regression. The standard error of $\hat{\tau}_X$, however, will tend to be smaller the stronger the predictive power of the X_i 's for the

outcome *Y*. To be precise, let R_X^2 denote the R^2 from the population regression of *Y* on $X_1, X_2,...,X_J$. The standard error of $\hat{\tau}_X$ is expected to be approximately equal to $\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{N_X p(1-p)}} \left(1 - R_X^2 \right)$ $\frac{6}{x p(1-p)}(1 - R_X^2)$ $\frac{\sigma}{N_X p(1-p)}\left(1-R_X^2\right).$

Now suppose a polygenic score for educational attainment, PGS, is available for each individual in the experiment. Because the cost of genotyping is falling very rapidly, we anticipate that in a few years, it will be very inexpensive to collect genotypic data on experimental participants. Moreover, as long as the experimental participants are still alive, it is possible to collect their genotypic data and use a PGS as a control variable for reanalyzing experiments that may have been conducted many years in the past.

Now, suppose an otherwise-identical experiment with $N_{X\cup PGS}$ experimental participants is run, and the treatment effect, τ , is estimated by running the regression:

(2)
$$
Y = \alpha + \sum_{j=1}^{J} \beta_j X_j + \gamma (\text{PGS}) + \tau I + u
$$
.

Because *I* is randomly assigned, it is independent of the *Xj*'s, of PGS, and of *ε*. As before, the treatment effect coefficient, $\hat{\tau}_{X \cup PGS}$, is an unbiased estimate of the true treatment effect τ . Now, however, the standard error of

 $\hat{\tau}_{X \cup PGS}$ is expected to be approximately equal to $\sqrt{\frac{O}{N_{X \cup PGS} p(1-p)}} (1 - R_{X \cup PGS}^2)$ 2 $\frac{6}{x \cup \text{PGS} p(1-p)} (1 - R_X^2)$ $\frac{\sigma^2}{N_{X \cup PGS} p(1-p)} (1 - R_{X \cup PGS}^2)$, where $R_{X \cup PGS}^2$ is the R^2

from the population regression of *Y* on X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_J and PGS.

If PGS has predictive power for *Y* conditional on the *X_j*'s, then $R_{X\cup PGS}^2$ is larger than R_X^2 . Hence estimating regression (2) is expected to generate a smaller standard error—i.e., have greater statistical power—than estimating regression (1). To quantify the gain in statistical power, we solve for how much smaller the experimental sample size needs to be when regression (2) is used instead of regression (1) to generate the same anticipated standard error:

$$
(3) \frac{N_{X \cup PGS}}{N_X} = \frac{1 - R_{X \cup PGS}^2}{1 - R_X^2} \, .
$$

Table S27 calibrates this reduction in required sample size for a range of values of R_X^2 and $R_{X\cup PGS}^2$.

The left and right panels examine the gain in power for experiments where the other control variables, the X_i 's, jointly explain 10% and 20% of the variance in educational attainment, respectively.

The first value for $R_{X\cup PGS}^2$, which is 2 percentage points higher than R_X^2 , corresponds to the joint explanatory power of the control variables when the PGS we have estimated in this paper is added the *Xj*'s, assuming that the variance it captures does not overlap with the variance captured by the *Xj*'s. In both panels, a 2% smaller sample size is required for any given level of statistical power. This calculation shows that at presently attainable levels of predictive power, the value of the score is almost certainly too low to result in cost-savings that pass the costbenefit test.

The second and third values for $R_{X\cup PGS}^2$ are 12 and 15 percentage points higher than R_X^2 , respectively. We explore these values because 12% and 15% correspond to the projected explanatory power that a polygenic score for educational attainment would attain if estimated in discovery samples of 500,000 or 1,000,000 individuals, respectively (see section 6 above). The left panel shows that when the other control variables have an R^2 of 10%, the respective reductions in sample size are 13% and 17%. These reductions can represent quite a substantial savings in experimental cost in those instances where the intervention is very costly. For an example of the potential costs, *(92)* estimated the total undiscounted initial program cost of the Abecedarian program for five years as \$76,939 (in 2010 dollars) per child. And *(93)* estimate that the two-year Perry preschool program cost a total of \$19,208.61 (in 2010 dollars) per child. On the other hand, if the intervention is cheap, it is conceivable that even at these higher levels of explanatory power, the cost of genotyping dominates the cost saving obtained from a marginal reduction in sample size.

9. Data on cognitive function in STR

During the study period all Swedish men were required by law to participate in military conscription at or around the age of 18. The men in the STR sample enlisted at a point in time when exemptions from military duty were rare and typically only granted to men who could document a serious handicap that would make it impossible to complete training. The conscription procedure involved several medical and psychological examinations. We use data on performance on the Swedish Enlistment Battery, a test similar to the US Armed Forces Qualifying Test. See *(17)* for a detailed description. Most of the recruits took four subtests (logical, verbal, spatial and technical) which, for most of the study period, were graded on a scale from 0 to 40. Data are available for men born after 1936. To construct the final score, the four raw scores are summed, percentile-rank transformed, and convoluted with the inverse of the standard normal distribution. This procedure ensures that the final test scores are normally distributed. The construction of the final score is performed separately for each birth year in order to take into account small, occasional, year-to-year changes in the test.

10. Supplementary Figures

Figure S1. *EduYears* distribution in Rotterdam Study I

Figure S2. *P*-value distribution from simulation experiments. Panels A and B provide the Q-Q plots for the common and the rare SNP in simulation experiment 1, respectively. Panel C gives the Q-Q plot of simulation experiment 2. The gray shaded areas in the Q–Q plots represent the 95% confidence bands around the *p*-values under the null hypothesis.

Figure S3. Quantile-quantile plots of SNPs for *EduYears* in single genomic control meta-analysis. The gray shaded areas in the Q–Q plots represent the 95% confidence bands around the *p*-values under the null hypothesis.

Figure S4. Quantile-quantile plots of SNPs for *College* in single genomic control meta-analysis. The gray shaded areas in the Q–Q plots represent the 95% confidence bands around the *p*-values under the null hypothesis.

Figure S5. Manhattan plots of SNPs for *EduYears* in single genomic control meta-analysis. SNPs are plotted on the x-axis according to their position on each chromosome against association with *EduYears* on the y-axis (shown as −log10 *p*-value). The solid line indicates the threshold for genome-wide significance (*p* < 5×10-8) and the dashed line the threshold for suggestive hits ($p < 1 \times 10^{-6}$).

Figure S6. Manhattan plots of SNPs for *College* in single genomic control meta-analysis. SNPs are plotted on the *x*-axis according to their position on each chromosome against association with *College* on the *y*-axis (shown as −log10 *p*-value). The solid line indicates the threshold for genome-wide significance (*p* < 5×10-8) and the dashed line the threshold for suggestive hits ($p < 1 \times 10^{-6}$).

Figure S7. Forest plot for rs9320913, a genome-wide significant SNP for *EduYears* in the combined-stage GWAS. The gray lines represent the 95% confidence interval of the effect size estimate. The black rectangles are proportional to the square-root of the sample size.

Figure S8. Forest plot for rs7309 that is genome-wide significant for *EduYears* in the combined discovery + replication stage. The gray lines represent the 95% confidence interval of the effect size estimate. The black rectangles are proportional to the square-root of the sample size.

Figure S9. Forest plot for rs11687170 that is genome-wide significant for *EduYears* in the combined discovery + replication stage. The gray lines represent the 95% confidence interval of the effect size estimate. The black rectangles are proportional to the square-root of the sample size.

Figure S10. Forest plot for rs1056667 that is genome-wide significant for *EduYears* in the combined discovery + replication stage. The gray lines represent the 95% confidence interval of the effect size estimate. The black rectangles are proportional to the square-root of the sample size.

Figure S11. Forest plot for rs1487441 that is genome-wide significant for *EduYears* in the combined discovery + replication stage. The gray lines represent the 95% confidence interval of the effect size estimate. The black rectangles are proportional to the square-root of the sample size.

Figure S12. Forest plot for rs11584700 that is genome-wide significant for *College* in the combined discovery + replication stage. The gray lines represent the 95% confidence interval of the effect size estimate. The black rectangles are proportional to the square-root of the sample size.

Figure S13. Forest plot for rs4851266 that is genome-wide significant for *College* in the combined discovery + replication stage. The gray lines represent the 95% confidence interval of the effect size estimate. The black rectangles are proportional to the square-root of the sample size.

Figure S14. Forest plot for rs4851264 that is genome-wide significant for *College* in the combined discovery + replication stage. The gray lines represent the 95% confidence interval of the effect size estimate. The black rectangles are proportional to the square-root of the sample size.

Figure S15. Forest plot for rs13401104 that is genome-wide significant for *College* in the combined discovery + replication stage. The gray lines represent the 95% confidence interval of the effect size estimate. The black rectangles are proportional to the square-root of the sample size.

Figure S16. Comparison of empirical correlations with predicted correlations from ACE model. Predicted correlations were obtained when fitting the data to a simple ACE model and the sample correlations in the Swedish *Brothers Sample*.

Figure S17. Plots of study-level unstandardized regression coefficients (*β*) against number of survey categories for SNP rs9320913 (panel A), rs11584700 (panel B), and rs4851266 (panel C). Each circle represents a study and is scaled proportional to the sample size of that study. The dashed lines indicate the sample-size-weighted average *β*, while the solid line is the weighted OLS regression line with weights proportional to the sample size. The stars represent the weighted-average *β* for each number of survey categories. The *p*-values of the regressions are 0.515 (panel A), 0.711 (panel B), and 0.665 (panel C). Notice that to facilitate comparisons and interpretation, we report the coefficients from the regression with the *EduYears* measure even in those instances where the genome-wide significant SNP was detected using the *College* measure.

Figure S18. Plots of study-level standardized regression coefficients (*β*) against number of survey categories for SNP rs9320913 (panel A), rs11584700 (panel B), and rs4851266 (panel C). Each circle represents a study and is scaled proportional to the sample size of that study. The dashed lines indicate the sample-size-weighted average *β*, while the solid line is the weighted OLS regression line with weights proportional to the sample size. The stars represent the weighted average *β* for each number of survey categories. The *p*-values of the regressions are 0.359 (panel A), 0.924 (panel B), and 0.753 (panel C). Notice that to facilitate comparisons and interpretation, we report the coefficients from the regression with the *EduYears* measure even in those instances where the genome-wide significant SNP was detected using the *College* measure.

Figure S19. Plots of study-level *EduYears* regression coefficients (*β*) versus average birth year for SNP rs9320913 (panel A), rs11584700 (panel B), and rs4851266 (panel C). Each circle represents a study and is scaled proportionally to the sample size of that study. The dashed lines indicate the sample-size-weighted average *β*, while the solid line is the weighted OLS regression line with weights proportional to the sample size. The *p*-values of the regressions are 0.684 (panel A), 0.824 (panel B), and 0.829 (panel C). Notice that to facilitate comparisons and interpretation, we report the coefficients from the regression with the *EduYears* measure even in those instances where the genome-wide significant SNP was detected using the *College* measure.

Figure S20. Cell-type-specific overlap between H3K4me3 marks and loci tagged by SNPs meeting $p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ for each tissue/cell type. Tissue/cell types with *p*-values to the right of the dashed line are enriched at nominal *p* $≤ 0.05.$

Figure S21. Distribution of cell-type specificity scores for loci tagged by SNPs meeting $p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ within cell types significantly enriched for overlap between H3K4me3 marks and associated loci (Figure S20). Loci above the dashed line (identified and described in Table S19) show specificity to that cell type at nominal $p < 0.05$.

Figure S22. An illustration of the tradeoff between a GWAS on a distal phenotype in a larger sample against a GWAS on the endophenotype in a smaller sample. The *y*-axis shows effect sizes in terms of the population R^2 from the regression of the phenotype on the single SNP, ranging from 0 to 0.1% in increments of 0.01% (onehundredth of one percent). The *x*-axis is the sample size. In these calculations, we assume that the only source of correlation between the SNP and *Y* is the effect of the SNP on the endophenotype of interest. Each curve graphs the locus of effect-size/sample-size pairs that gives a given level of power to detect the association at $p=5\times10^{-8}$.

11.Supplementary Tables

Table S1. Study design, numbers of individuals and sample quality control for GWAS cohorts. "Call rate" refers to the genotyping success rate, i.e., the minimum percentage of successfully genotyped SNPs.

Table S2. ISCED classification scheme

Table S3. Study-specific educational attainment measure and phenotype distribution.

 $\overline{}$

 $\overline{}$

 $\overline{}$

 $\overline{}$

 \sim

		\boldsymbol{N}	Age				Birth year						
Study			mean	SD	min	max	mean	SD	min	max			
Discovery Stage													
AGES	Females	1,863	76.33	5.54	66	95	1926.86	5.61	1908	1936			
	Males	1,349	76.52	5.32	67	94	1926.70	5.38	1910	1935			
	Pooled	3,212	76.41	5.45	66	95	1926.80	5.52	1908	1936			
ALSPAC	Females	6,919	28.69	4.66	15	44	1962.95	4.68	1948	1977			
	Males	$\boldsymbol{0}$	\overline{a}	\sim	\sim	$\overline{}$		\sim					
	Pooled	6,919	28.69	4.66	15	44	1962.95	4.68	1948	1977			
ASPS	Females	482	65.95	8.12	50	85	1931.98	6.23	1909	1945			
	Males	366	64.93	7.77	46	82	1931.96	6.17	1913	1949			
	Pooled	848	65.51	7.98	46	85	1931.97	6.21	1909	1949			
BLSA	Females	371	69.18	16.71	$30\,$	101	1936.80	16.66	1904	1977			
	Males	450	73.66	14.24	31	96	1931.51	14.94	1902	1977			
	Pooled	821	71.63	15.55	30	101	1933.90	15.95	1902	1977			
CAHRES-Cases	Females	788	78.74	6.26	66	$92\,$	1931.41	6.26	1919	1944			
	Males	$\boldsymbol{0}$	\equiv	\sim	\overline{a}	\overline{a}	$\overline{}$	\sim					
	Pooled	788	78.74	6.26	66	92	1931.41	6.26	1919	1944			
CAHRES-Controls	Females	709	79.05	6.32	66	91	1931.12	6.31	1919	1944			
	Males	$\mathbf{0}$		\sim		\sim		\sim					
	Pooled	709	79.05	6.32	66	91	1931.12	6.31	1919	1944			
CAPS-Cases	Females	$\boldsymbol{0}$		\sim	$\overline{}$	\sim		\overline{a}					
	Males	240	68.80	7.73	50	$81\,$	1933.00	7.83	1921	1953			
	Pooled	240	68.80	7.73	50	81	1933.00	7.83	1921	1953			
CAPS-Controls	Females	$\boldsymbol{0}$		\sim	\sim	\overline{a}		\mathbb{Z}					
	Males	219	66.67	7.42	49	80	1935.43	7.50	1922	1954			
	Pooled	219	66.67	7.42	49	80	1935.43	7.50	1922	1954			
$\ensuremath{\text{CCF}}$	Females	118	62.47	$10.01\,$	30	83	1944.25	9.97	1923	1978			
	Males	367	58.39	9.56	31	84	1948.34	9.62	1923	1976			
	Pooled	485	59.39	9.82	30	84	1947.34	9.86	1923	1978			
CoLaus	Females	2,863	53.88	10.72	35	75	1950.64	10.82	1928	1970			
	Males	2,547	52.92	10.77	34	75	1951.62	10.84	1928	1970			
	Pooled	5,410	53.43	10.75	34	75	1951.10	10.84	1928	1970			
Cr_Kor	Females	541	56.52	12.58	30	98	1950.48	12.58	1909	1977			
	Males	302	59.04	12.73	30	90	1947.96	12.73	1917	1977			
	Pooled	843	57.42	12.68	30	98	1949.58	12.68	1909	1977			
Cr_Spl	Females	242	53.51	11.07	30	79	1955.72	11.07	1930	1979			
	Males	175	52.54	12.76	$30\,$	85	1956.37	12.76	1924	1979			
	Pooled	417	53.10	11.74	30	85	1955.90	11.74	1924	1979			
Cr Vis	Females	499	58.48	14.41	30	93	1944.52	14.41	1910	1973			
	Males	365	57.82	13.01	30	88	1945.18	13.01	1915	1973			

Table S4. Study-specific age and birth-year statistics.

Table S5. Information on genotyping methods, quality control of SNPs, imputation, and statistical analyses. "Call rate" refers to the genotyping success rate, i.e., the minimum percentage of successfully genotyped SNPs. "SNPs in analysis after QC" includes the removal of non-HapMap SNPs and technical artifacts, such as SNPs with missing effect size, standard error, etc.; in other words, it is the number of HapMap SNPs that could be handled by METAL.

³ This number includes the removal of rs1259286, *p*-value = 6.28⁻¹³, R^2 = 0.4005.

⁴ This number includes the removal of rs10161503, rs11112192, rs1240825, rs17046226, rs17273464, rs2966996, rs770931 and rs9810816, all with Beta > abs(10¹⁴).

⁵ This number includes the removal of rs17331350, Beta = -6.93^{14} , MAF = 0.028.

⁶ This number includes the removal of rs12123886: *p*-value 9.28⁻¹⁴, MAF 0.030, $R^2 = 0.48$.

	300K									Males	2,025,047	1.034	module)	instead of
										Pooled	2,024,909	1.079		4 PC's
										College Females	2,024,591	1.033		
										Males	2,025,047	1.024		
										Pooled	2,024,909	1.054		
LBC1921	Illumina 610	GenomeStudio	\geq 1%	≥98%	$\geq 10^{-3}$	535,709	MACH	\geq 1%	$R^2 \ge 0.4$	EduYears			MACH2QTL	Age in
	quad v1									Females	2,432,460	1.010		days
										Males	2,432,460	1.003		instead of
										Pooled College	\bar{a}	$\overline{}$		years due to cohort
										Females	\sim			setup
										Males	\overline{a}			
										Pooled	\overline{a}	$\overline{}$		
LBC1936	Illumina 610	GenomeStudio	\geq 1%	≥98%	$\geq 10^{-3}$	535,709	MACH	\geq 1%	$R^2 \ge 0.4$	EduYears			MACH2QTL	Age in
	quad v1									Females	2,433,592	1.011		days instead of years due to cohort setup
										Males	2,433,592	1.020		
										Pooled College	\overline{a}			
										Females	2,428,839	1.018		
										Males	2,431,922	1.024		
										Pooled	\overline{a}	$\overline{}$		
MoBa-Cases	Illumina 660W	GenCall	$\geq 0.5\%$	≥95%	$\geq 10^{-4}$	453,126	PLINK	\geq 1%	$R^2 \ge 0.4$	EduYears			PLINK	
	quad									Females	1,855,625	1.028		
										Males				
										Pooled	\overline{a}			
										College				
										Females	$\overline{}$			
										Males				
										Pooled	\overline{a}			
MoBa-	Illumina 660W	GenCall	\geq 0.5%	$\geq 95\%$	$\geq 10^{-4}$	453,126 PLINK		\geq 1%	$R^2 \ge 0.4$	EduYears			PLINK	
Controls	quad													
										Females	$\frac{1}{8}$,852,751	0.995		
										Males				
										Pooled	\overline{a}			
										College				
										Females	$\overline{}$	$\overline{}$		

⁷ Results for MoBa-Cases were additionally filtered on callrate \geq 95%

⁸ Results for MoBa-Controls were additionally filtered on callrate \geq 95%.

⁹ This number includes the removal of rs2152709: *p*-value 5.90⁻³⁶, MAF 0.027, $R^2 = 0.54$.

 $\sim 10^{11}$

Table S6. *EduYears* association results for the 4 additional independent loci that reached genome-wide significance ($p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) in the combined meta-analysis. I^2 represents the % heterogeneity of effect size between the discovery stage studies. p_{het} is the heterogeneity *p*-value. SNPs are ordered according to ascending *p*-value in the combined stage. The *p*-value in the Replication stage meta-analysis is from a one-sided test.

							Discovery stage				Replication stage		Combined stage				Combined stage – sex-specific	
SNP	Chr	Position	Nearest gene	Effective	Freq	B eta	P-value'			Beta	P -value ^o	Beta	P -value		Beta	P -value ^{θ}	Beta	P -value ^t
		(bp)		allele											(Males)	(Males)	(Females)	(Females)
rs1487441		98660615	LOC100129158		0.480	0.106	4.36×10^{-7}	6.	0.333	0.078	1.05×10^{-2}	J.10'	3.22×10^{-10}	0.688	0.093	2.51×10^{-7}	0.102	8.50×10^{-7}
rs1056667		26618543	BTN1A1		0.538	0.074	1.41×10^{-5}	0.0	0.952	0.159	1.59×10^{-6}	0.093	1.86×10^{-7}	0.762	0.128	8.53×10^{-7}	0.066	1.95×10^{-3}
rs11687170		23672288	GBX2		0.770	0.093	1.68×10^{-3}	0 ²	0.262	0.163	7.83×10^{-4}	0.107	3.25×10	0.278	0.170	$.00\times10^{-7}$	0.065	7.35×10^{-3}
rs7309		161800886	TANK		0.476	-0.085	2.22×10^{-6}	0.0	0.725	-0.093	2.16×10^{-3}	-0.088	3.60×10^{-8}	0.867	-0.115	4.40×10^{-6}	-0.071	5.67×10^{-4}

aFrequency in combined stage meta-analysis.

^bAll *p*-values are based on the sample-size weighted meta-analysis (fixed effects).

Table S7. *College* association results for the 3 additional independent loci that reached genome-wide significance ($p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) in the combined stage meta-analysis. I² represents the % heterogeneity of effect size between the discovery stage studies. p_{het} is the heterogeneity *p*-value. SNPs are ordered according to ascending *p*-value in the combined stage. The *p*-value in the Replication stage meta-analysis is from a one-sided test.

							Discovery stage				Combined stage Replication stage			Combined stage – sex-specific				
SNP	.)hr	Position	Nearest gene	Effectiv	Freq	OR	P -value ^{\circ}			OR	P -value ^{\circ}	OR	P -value ^{θ}		OR	P -value ^t	OR	P -value ^t
				e allele											(Males)	(Males)	(Females)	(Females)
rs11584700		202843606	RRN ₂		0.780	0.921	2.07×1	13.8	0.179	0.912	4.86×10^{4}	0.919	8.24×10^{-12}	0.22	0.934	5.11×10^{-4}	0.911	2.12×10^{-9}
rs4851264		100176620	LOC150577		0.605	0.952	2.52×10^{-7}	26.2	0.03	0.952	2.75×10^{-3}	0.952	4.93×10^{-11}	0.046	0.949	1.96×10^{-5}	0.950	4.87×10^{-8}
rs13401104		236770257	.OC100128572		0.180	0.926	8.37×10^{-6}		0.330	0.866	$.34\times10^{-7}$	0.91	4.60×10^{-5}	0.199	0.901	2.99×10^{-5}	0.920	1.72×10^{-5}

aFrequency in combined stage meta-analysis.

^bAll *p*-values are based on the sample-size weighted meta-analysis (fixed effects).

	College			EduYears
SNP	OR	P -value	Beta	P -value
rs11584700	0.919	8.24×10^{-12}	-0.095	3.25×10^{-7}
rs4851264	0.952	4.93×10^{-11}	-0.083	4.17×10^{-7}
rs4851266	1.050	5.33×10^{-11}	0.082	5.61×10^{-7}
rs13401104	0.913	4.60×10^{-9}	-0.107	4.74×10^{-8}
rs2054125	1.376	2.12×10^{-7}	0.105	7.12×10^{-5}
rs3227	1.037	3.24×10^{-7}	0.074	7.58×10^{-6}
rs4073894	1.062	5.55×10^{-6}	0.080	1.88×10^{-5}
rs12640626	1.034	7.48×10^{-6}	0.070	1.31×10^{-5}

Table S9. Comparison of College associated SNPs (Table 1 and Supplementary Table 7) in *EduYears* analysis (Combined stage).

Country	Gender	Cohort	rMZ	NMZ	rDZ	NDZ	Falconer h^2
Australia (145)	Male Female	1893-1950	0.7 0.77	216 520	0.53 0.55	94 299	0.34 0.44
Australia (145)	Male	1951-1965	0.74	226	0.47	161	0.54
	Female		0.75	479	0.49	290	0.52
Australia (146)	Male	1964-1971	0.674	282	0.532	164	0.284
	Female		0.705	320	0.319	158	0.772
Finland (147)	Male	1936-1955	0.83	1506	0.58	3504	0.5
	Female		0.86	2028	0.62	3870	0.48
Norway (148)	Male	1915-1939	0.86	259	0.77	313	0.18
	Female		0.89	405	0.75	425	0.28
Norway (148)	Male	1940-1949	0.82	253	0.48	284	0.68
	Female		0.85	342	0.68	400	0.34
Norway (148)	Male	1950-1960	0.85	370	0.47	463	0.76
	Female		0.89	518	0.66	576	0.46
Sweden (149)	Mixed	1926-1958	0.76	2492	0.55	3368	0.42
United States (150)	Male	1939-1957	0.76	1019	0.54	907	0.44
United States (151)	Male	1936-1955	0.65	512	0.42	772	0.46
	Female		0.72	758	0.57	1154	0.3
United States (152)	Male	1917-1927	0.764	1234	0.545	1167	0.438

Table S10. Previously published twin study findings on the heritability of educational attainment

Notes: When correlations for multiple cohorts are available in a country, we order them chronologically. Gender is equal to mixed if the estimated correlation coefficients were obtained from a mixed-sex sample. Cohort gives the range of the birth years of the twins used to compute the correlations. rMZ and NMZ are, respectively, the sample correlation in monozygotic twins' years of educational attainment and the number of pairs of twins used to compute the correlation. rDZ and NMZ are defined analogously for the dizygotic twins. Falconer h^2 is calculated as $2\times(rMZ - rDZ)$. This list was compiled by Amelia Branigan, Kenneth J. McCallum and Jeremy Freese *(34)*.

	Education	Cognitive Function	Education	Cognitive Function	
Twins	MZ		DZ		
Education	0.709		0.502		
Cognitive Function	0.512	0.822	0.383	0.534	
Full Brothers	Together		Apart		
Education	0.445		0.198		
Cognitive Function	0.364	0.497	0.198	0.359	
Half Brothers	Together		Apart		
Education	0.246		0.134		
Cognitive Function	0.208	0.320	0.133	0.191	
Adoptees					
Education	0.213				
Cognitive Function	0.149	0.170			

Table S11. Cross-Sib Correlations in Swedish *Brothers Sample*

This table reports cross-sib correlations for educational attainment and cognitive function in seven sibling types. Education is years of education residualized on a third order age polynomial. Cognitive function is measured using data from the Swedish Enlistment Battery, a test similar to the US Armed Forces Qualifying Test. Most of the recruits took four subtests (logical, verbal, spatial and technical) which, for most of the study period, were graded on a scale from 0 to 40. To construct the final score, the four raw scores are summed, percentile-rank transformed, and convoluted with the inverse of the standard normal distribution. This procedure ensures that the final test scores are normally distributed. The construction of the final score is performed separately for each birth year in order to take into account small, occasional, year-to-year changes in the test.

Table S12. Estimated variance explained by all SNPs for EduYears and College. The GCTA analysis for *College* was performed on the observed 0-1 scale and transformed to the underlying scale assuming a threshold model. Notice that the GCTA estimate is based on a sample that overlaps with the sample used by *(3)*.

Cohort	Phenotype	\boldsymbol{N}	h_{G}^2	SE	LRT	p -value
QIMR	EduYears	2281	0.356	0.138	7.03	4.0×10^{-3}
	College	2281	0.599	0.277	4.90	1.0×10^{-2}
STR	EduYears	5678	0.228	0.058	17.04	2.0×10^{-5}
	College	5678	0.213	0.106	4.44	2.0×10^{-2}
OIMR+STR	EduYears	7959	0.224	0.042	31.38	1.0×10^{-8}
	College	7959	0.254	0.078	12.33	2.0×10^{-4}

Table S13. Estimating the genetic correlation between Educational Attainment and health status by whole-genome bivariate analysis using genome-wide SNP data. For *College* and dichotomous health data, the whole-genome bivariate analysis was performed on the observed 0/1 scale.

SNP	Chr.	Position	LD with GWAS SNP	Reference allele	Other allele	Minor Allele Frequency	Gene	dbSNP functional annotation	Amino Acid change
					rs1056667				
rs1321479	6	26501897	0.93	T	\mathcal{C}	0.45	BTNIA1	synonymous	
rs3736781	6	26505362	0.93	G	A	0.45	BTNIA1	missense	A[Ala] > T[Thr]
rs3736782	6	26505403	0.93	\mathcal{C}	\mathbf{A}	0.45	BTNIA1	synonymous	
rs9393728	6	26509330	0.93	C	G	0.45	BTNIA1	missense	D[Asp] > E[Glu]
rs4871	6	26545632	0.93	G	\mathbf{A}	0.45	HMGN4	synonymous	
rs4573	6	26546808	0.87	T	\mathcal{C}	0.43	HMGN4	$3'$ -UTR	
					rs11584700				
rs3789045	1	204586812	0.87	C	T	0.23	LRRN ₂	$3'$ -UTR	
rs11588857	1	204587047	0.87	G	A	0.23	LRRN ₂	missense	P[Pro] > S[Ser]
rs3747631	1	204587569	0.87	G	\mathcal{C}	0.23	LRRN2	missense	L[Leu] > V[Val]
rs3789044	1	204589101	0.87	G	\mathbf{A}	0.23	LRRN ₂	missense	P[Pro] > L[Leu]
					rs7309				
rs7309	2	162092640	1	G	\mathbf{A}	0.52	TANK	$3'$ -UTR	

Table S14. SNP functional annotation. Genome-wide significant SNPs are listed as headers, with SNPs in strong LD reported in the rows beneath.

Table S15. Gene expression blood eQTL analysis results. gSNP – variant associated with educational attainment; eSNP – variant identified as having the strongest cis-effect on a given gene; FDR – false discovery rate; LD – linkage disequilibrium; * denotes that the probe is not annotated**.**

Chr.	μ sing vegad). Gene	Number	Start	Stop	p -value	p -value	p -value	p -value
		of SNPs	position	position	(Pooled)	(Males)	(Females)	(Pooled
								College)
2	GBX2	70	236739045	236741391	$\times 1.00 \times 10^{-6}$	$\sqrt{1.00 \times 10^{-6}}$	9.77×10^{-3}	3.90×10^{-5}
13	STK24	280	97900455	98027397	$< 1.00 \times 10^{-6}$	5.96×10^{-3}	3.50×10^{-5}	$< 1.00 \times 10^{-6}$
16	LOC440350-4	$\mathbf{1}$	28677525	28690630	$< 1.00 \times 10^{-6}$	7.28×10^{-4}	4.40×10^{-4}	4.00×10^{-6}
16	TUFM	26	28761232	28765230	${<}1.00{\times}10^{-6}$	4.91×10^{-4}	4.46×10^{-4}	$5.00\times10^{\text{-}6}$
$\overline{2}$	ASB18	78	236768253	236837727	1.00×10^{-6}	${<}1.00{\times}10^{-6}$	1.32×10^{-2}	1.51×10^{-4}
3	APEH	51	49686438	49695938	1.00×10^{-6}	2.06×10^{-4}	1.58×10^{-3}	7.10×10^{-5}
3	NICN1	33	49434769	49441761	1.00×10^{-6}	6.43×10^{-4}	1.06×10^{-3}	1.12×10^{-4}
3	RNF123	52	49701993	49733966	1.00×10^{-6}	3.60×10^{-4}	2.24×10^{-3}	1.04×10^{-4}
6	BTNIA1	104	26609473	26618631	1.00×10^{-6}	2.80×10^{-5}	1.09×10^{-2}	4.57×10^{-4}
6	HMGN4	79	26646550	26655143	1.00×10^{-6}	3.80×10^{-5}	7.22×10^{-3}	5.46×10^{-4}
6	IHPK3	201	33797420	33822660	1.00×10^{-6}	5.16×10^{-4}	2.53×10^{-4}	2.00×10^{-6}
10	C10orf88	82	124680408	124703909	1.00×10^{-6}	2.03×10^{-3}	3.62×10^{-4}	3.60×10^{-5}
16	ATP2A1	28	28797309	28823331	1.00×10^{-6}	6.09×10^{-4}	7.13×10^{-4}	$1.00\times10^{\text{-}5}$
16	ATXN2L	23	28741914	28756059	1.00×10^{-6}	5.09×10^{-4}	5.01×10^{-4}	8.00×10^{-6}
16	SH2BI	31	28782814	28793027	1.00×10^{-6}	5.28×10^{-4}	6.07×10^{-4}	6.00×10^{-6}
3	BSN	86	49566925	49683986	2.00×10^{-6}	1.46×10^{-4}	1.45×10^{-3}	$3.80{\times}10^{\text{-}5}$
3	MST1	47	49696391	49701099	2.00×10^{-6}	3.31×10^{-4}	1.82×10^{-3}	9.10×10^{-5}
3	TCTA	34	49424642	49428913	3.00×10^{-6}	7.47×10^{-4}	1.23×10^{-3}	1.36×10^{-4}
6	$C6$ orf 125	177	33773323	33787482	3.00×10^{-6}	7.79×10^{-4}	1.16×10^{-3}	4.00×10^{-6}
3	AMT	33	49429214	49435016	4.00×10^{-6}	6.47×10^{-4}	1.35×10^{-3}	1.11×10^{-4}
10	FAM24A	51	124660206	124662617	4.00×10^{-6}	1.87×10^{-3}	1.75×10^{-3}	6.80×10^{-5}
18	KATNAL2	109	42780784	42881663	4.00×10^{-6}	5.41×10^{-1}	$< 1.00 \times 10^{-6}$	2.10×10^{-5}
$\mathbf{1}$	CEP170	$70\,$	241354352	241485331	6.00×10^{-6}	1.09×10^{-3}	4.59×10^{-3}	6.50×10^{-5}
$\overline{4}$	TET2	130	106287391	106420407	6.00×10^{-6}	1.16×10^{-2}	1.60×10^{-4}	5.00×10^{-4}
16	RABEP2	27	28823242	28844033	6.00×10^{-6}	1.30×10^{-3}	1.68×10^{-3}	3.30×10^{-5}

Table S16. Gene-based *p*-values for the top 25 genes associated with *EduYears* in the combined-stage meta-analysis (using VEGAS).

μ Chr.	, Gene	Number of SNPs	Start position	Stop position	p -value (Pooled)	p -value (Males)	p -value (Females)	p -value (Pooled EduYears)
1	PIK3C2B	109	202658380	202726097	${<}1.00{\times}10^{5}$	7.09×10^{2}	$< 1.00 \times 10-6$	$8.88{\times}10^{\text{-}3}$
2	ASB18	78	236768253	236837727	$< 1.00 \times 10^{-6}$	1.22×10^{-4}	$2.36 \times 10 - 4$	1.00×10^{-6}
$\overline{2}$	GBX2	70	236739045	236741391	$< 1.00 \times 10^{-6}$	1.30×10^{-5}	$2.62\times10-4$	$< 1.00 \times 10^{-6}$
6	C6orf125	178	33773323	33787482	${<}1.00{\times}10^{5}$	8.90×10^{-5}	$2.72 \times 10 - 3$	3.00×10^{-6}
4	TET2	130	106287391	106420407	1.00×10^{-6}	1.58×10^{-3}	$7.94 \times 10 - 4$	6.00×10^{-6}
6	IHPK3	202	33797420	33822660	1.00×10^{-6}	4.70×10^{-5}	$2.26 \times 10 - 3$	1.00×10^{-6}
6	ITPR3	228	33697138	33772326	1.00×10^{-6}	2.00×10^{-4}	$3.25 \times 10 - 3$	1.60×10^{-5}
3	CCDC14	113	125114963	125162945	4.00×10^{-6}	6.12×10^{-3}	$3.82 \times 10 - 4$	6.62×10^{-3}
10	PSD	39	104152365	104168891	4.00×10^{-6}	1.54×10^{-3}	$2.63 \times 10-3$	6.90×10^{-5}
10	NFKB ₂	28	104144218	104152271	6.00×10^{-6}	1.14×10^{-3}	$2.11 \times 10-3$	6.30×10^{-5}
4	C4orf44	85	3220564	3235638	7.00×10^{-6}	4.61×10^{-2}	$8.80\times10-5$	1.49×10^{-4}
10	ELOVL3	34	103976132	103979334	7.00×10^{-6}	1.02×10^{-3}	$2.35 \times 10-3$	4.00×10^{-5}
10	GBFI	77	103995298	104132639	7.00×10^{-6}	7.45×10^{-4}	$1.30\times10-3$	2.80×10^{-5}
12	PITPNM2	57	122033979	122160928	7.00×10^{-6}	1.52×10^{-2}	$1.15\times10-4$	2.10×10^{-5}
3	MST1R	45	49899439	49916310	$8.00\times10^{\text{-}6}$	4.12×10^{-3}	$1.15 \times 10-3$	1.06×10^{-3}
3	ROPNI	75	125170568	125192889	8.00×10^{-6}	2.68×10^{-2}	$1.93 \times 10 - 4$	8.31×10^{-3}
1	PPPIR15B	93	202639114	202647567	9.00×10^{-6}	1.63×10^{-1}	$8.00\times10-6$	2.47×10^{-2}
12	ARL6IP4	14	122030832	122033413	9.00×10^{-6}	1.90×10^{-2}	$4.00\times10-5$	5.80×10^{-5}
3	TRAIP	50	49841031	49868996	1.00×10^{-5}	2.91×10^{-3}	$1.61\times10-3$	5.98×10^{-4}
3	UBA7	39	49817641	49826395	1.10×10^{-5}	1.94×10^{-3}	$3.19 \times 10 - 3$	3.78×10^{-4}
12	OGFOD2	15	122025306	122030541	1.10×10^{-5}	2.19×10^{-2}	$2.60\times10-5$	8.50×10^{-5}
3	IHPK1	54	49736731	49798977	1.20×10^{-5}	7.80×10^{-4}	$8.11 \times 10 - 3$	6.80×10^{-5}
3	AMIGO3	39	49729968	49732127	1.40×10^{-5}	4.46×10^{-4}	$1.12\times10-2$	1.90×10^{-5}
3	RNF123	52	49701993	49733966	1.40×10^{-5}	3.67×10^{-4}	$1.28 \times 10 - 2$	1.00×10^{-6}
10	PITX3	36	103979935	103991221	1.40×10^{-5}	8.78×10^{-4}	$1.69\times10-3$	3.10×10^{-5}

Table S17. Gene-based *p*-values for the top 25 genes associated with *College* in the combined stage meta-analysis (using VEGAS).

Table S18. Pathway-based *p*-values for pathways showing suggestive overlap ($p < 0.05$) with genomic regions meeting *p*-value <1×10⁻⁵ in the combined-stage GWAS meta-analysis for (A) *EduYears* and (B) *College*. Size refers to the number of genomic intervals defining the pathway, while Overlap indicates the number of LD-independent intervals defined by SNPs meeting $p<1\times10^{-5}$ in the combined discovery and replication GWAS meta-analysis that overlap with genomic intervals defining the pathway. *P* lists the empirical *p*-value, using 1×¹⁰6 permutations, and Corrected *^P* provides the *p*-value adjusted for multiple testing, using 1×10^4 permutations.

A. *EduYears*

B. *College*

Table S19. Loci with cell-type specificity scores $\geq 95^{\text{th}}$ percentile (see Figure S21). IndexSNPs were identified as $p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ (pruned to remove SNPs correlated at $r^2 > 0.5$) from either the *EduYears* or *College* combined stage meta-analyses. BestSNP provides the identity of the SNP in LD with the IndexSNP that displays the highest cell-type specificity score (Score), calculated as the height of the nearest H3K4me3 peak divided by the distance (Distance, in bp) between the H3K4me3 peak and BestSNP and subsequently normalized such that sum of scores for a given locus across the 34 tissues equals one.

Tissue (Phenotype)	IndexSNP	BestSNP	Score	Distance
Brain Anterior Caudate (EduYears)				
	rs6882046	rs6882046	0.45	834
	rs6742801	rs67003507	0.91	37
	rs9320913	6:98566506	0.38	57
	rs791903	rs4711343	0.61	5
	rs2955259	rs13110775	0.41	267
	rs12433424	rs1449108	0.87	2480
	rs7333699	rs12853561	0.98	$\mathbf{0}$
	rs8034147	rs34480933	0.71	41
Brain Anterior Caudate (College)				
	rs6742801	rs67003507	0.91	37
	rs3121417	rs3121417	0.98	434
	rs9320913	6:98566506	0.38	57
	rs791903	rs4711343	0.61	5
	rs12640626	rs12640626	0.74	323
	rs11802889	rs61817490	0.57	866
	rs2540989	rs1206419	1.00	2340
	rs9563527	rs11842899	0.58	327
	rs4365358	rs4321256	0.89	52
Brain Hippocampus Middle (EduYears)				
	rs6882046	rs6882046	0.37	832
	rs7713243	rs324888	0.60	50
	rs9320913	6:98566506	0.81	31
	rs2955259	rs3797042	0.64	180
	rs2930734	rs2930726	0.70	216
CD4 Naïve Primary Cells (EduYears)				
	rs2137835	rs2137835	0.74	6
	rs10176262	rs4851368	0.90	283
	rs1892700	rs16990773	0.40	72
	rs6984449	rs4292704	0.78	100
Muscle Satellite Cultured Cells (EduYears)				
	rs3789044	rs12043569	0.81	815
	rs889956	2:57388609	1.00	367
	rs1056667	rs6918360	0.63	$\mathbf{1}$
	rs652049	rs530614	0.39	136
	rs1391439	rs2047409	0.99	5
	rs11248332	rs10794575	0.95	44

 Table S21. Results of gene function prediction analysis in 80,000 gene expression profiles of identified genes (Table S20). Pathway terms originate from several databases: (1) Gene Ontology Biological Processes, (2) Gene Ontology Molecular Function, (3) Gene Ontology Cellular Component, (4) Reactome, and (5) KEGG. Terms directly related to neuronal or central nervous system function are marked with an asterisk. *P*-values refer to the correlation between the Gene principal component profile and the Term principal component profile, uncorrected for multiple testing; all reported terms meet False discovery rate < 0.05. The Annotated column indicates if the gene has previously been listed as a member of that term (Y) or not (N). Results are sorted alphabetically by gene na

Table S22. Candidate-gene regions (see Table S20) with previously reported associations in human GWAS and/or evidence of neurological or central nervous system function in mouse or zebrafish models.

MDM4, LRRN2 TET2

Central nervous system development (*MDM4*, mouse, Height (15) *(67)*) Pulmonary function *(153)* Cognitive performance (61) Tuberculosis (154)

Cavities (*LRRN2*, *(155)*) Prostate cancer *(156)*

AFF3

Type 1 diabetes nephropathy *(158) LRRC16A, BTN1A1* Rheumatoid arthritis *(79)* Iron status biomarkers *(159)*

Subcutaneous adipose tissue *(162)* Uric acid levels (*LRRC16A*, *(163)*) Treatment response for severe sepsis *(164)* Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis *(165) ITPR3*

Anterior hindbrain development (*GBX2*, zebrafish, *(63)*; *GBX2*, mouse, *(64)*)

Striatal cholinergic interneuron development (*GBX2*, *IP6K3* nouse, (65) Serum

Response to statin therapy (*ASB18*, *(169)*

Glutamatergic synapse function (*BSN*, mouse, *(69)*) Longevity *(170)*

Crohn's disease (*BSN*, *(70*, *71)*; *MST1*, *(73*, *74) ATXN2L, TUFM, SH2B1, ATP2A1* Ulcerative colitis (*BSN*, *(72)*; *APEH*, *(77)*; *MST1*, *(76)*) Inflammatory bowel disease (early onset) (*ATXN2L*, *(78)*) Inflammatory bowel disease (*MST1*, *(75)*) Body mass index (*SH2B1*, *(18*, *171*, *172)*) Primary sclerosing cholangitis (*MST1*, *(173)*) Weight (*SH2B1*, *(171)*)

Immune response to anthrax vaccine *(157)*

 Mean platelet volume (*LRRC16A*, *(160) TANK* Platelet counts (*LRRC16A*, *(161)*)

Height *(15) GBX2, ASB18* Obesity *(166)* Graves' disease *(167)*

Serum phosphorous levels (168)

STK24

BSN, APEH, MST1 Alzheimer's disease (62)

Table S23. Regression results of the polygenic scores (*PGSs*) on *College*, *EduYears* and *Cognitive function* in a set of unrelated individuals of the QIMR (*N* = 3,526) and STR (*N* = 6,770) cohorts using SNPs selected from the meta-analysis excluding the QIMR and STR cohorts. Results for cognitive function are based on a sample of 1,419 individuals from STR. The R^2 's reported in this table are illustrated in Figure 2.

				Prediction in QIMR				Prediction in STR	
Phenotype		$p_{\rm SNPs}$ <	$p_{\rm SNPs}$ <	$p_{\rm SNPs}$ <	All	$p_{\rm SNPs}$ <	$p_{\rm SNPs}$	$p_{\rm SNPs}$ <	All
(PGS)		5×10^{-8}	5×10^{-5}	5×10^{-3}	SNPs	5×10^{-8}	5×10^{-5}	5×10^{-3}	SNPs
EduYears	R^2	0.023	0.210	1.180	2.910	0.170	0.230	0.720	1.800
(College)	(%)								
	$p-$	0.370	0.007	9.1×10^{-11}	1.4×10^{-7}	6.1×10^{-4}	6.9×10^{-5}	3.1×10^{-12}	1.2×10^{-7}
	value				24				28
EduYears	R^2	0.005	0.560	1.020	2.820	0.110	0.370	0.610	1.880
(EduYears)	$(\%)$								
	$p-$	0.689	7.6×10^{-6}	1.7×10^{-9}	7.1×10^{-7}	6.5×10^{-3}	6.4×10^{-7}	1.4×10^{-10}	1.0×10^{-7}
	value				24				29
Cognitive	R^2					0.000	0.160	0.380	2.380
function	(%)								
(College)	$p-$					0.986	0.137	0.021	5.3×10^{-9}
	value								
Cognitive	R^2					0.190	0.420	0.220	2.580
function	$(\%)$								
(EduYears)	$p-$					0.103	0.015	0.077	1.2×10^{-9}
	value								

Table S24. Results of a mediation analysis on educational attainment using the polygenic scores (*PGSs*) from Supplementary Table 12 and a measure of cognitive function in a set of unrelated individuals in the STR sample $(N = 1.419)$. All variables are standardized to *z*-scores. The effect sizes should be interpreted in standarddeviation units. The indirect effect measures the extent to which *EduYears* changes when the *PGS* is held fixed and cognitive function changes to the level it would have attained had the *PGS* increased by one unit *(174).* Put another way, the indirect effect is the difference between the coefficient on the *PGS* with cognitive function as a covariate and the coefficient without it. When cognitive function is included as a covariate, the coefficient on *PGS* declines by ~2/3 and is no longer statistically distinguishable from zero. These findings are consistent with the hypothesis that cognitive function mediates the relationship between the *PGS* and educational attainment.

Table S25. Within-family regression results of the polygenic scores (*PGSs*) on *College*, *EduYears* and *Cognitive function* in the QIMR and STR cohorts using SNPs selected from the meta-analysis excluding the QIMR and STR cohorts. Analyses for QIMR are based on 572 full-sib pairs from independent 572 families (QIMR), and analyses for STR are based on 2,774 DZ twins from 2,774 independent families. Results for cognitive function are based on a sample of 798 individuals from 399 independent families in STR.

Table S26. Theoretically-approximated prediction accuracy of a linear polygenic score for educational attainment, depending on sample size *N* to estimate the effects of individual SNPs using GWAS. $R_{y,\hat{g}}^2$ is the expected prediction accuracy and $r_{g,\hat{g}}^2$ is the correlation between the polygenic score estimated in a discovery sample (\hat{g}) and its true value (g).

\boldsymbol{N}	g, g	\mathbf{D}^{\perp} $\mathbf{r}_{y, g}$	
	$0.22\,$	0.04	
	0.59	0.12	
$\begin{array}{c} 100,000 \\ 500,000 \\ 1,000,000 \end{array}$	0.74	0.15	

Table S27. The reduction in required sample size from including PGS as a control variable.

	$R_{\rm X}^2 = 0.10$			$R_{Y}^{2} = 0.20$		
				$R_{X\cup PGS}^2 = 0.12$ $R_{X\cup PGS}^2 = 0.22$ $R_{X\cup PGS}^2 = 0.25$ $R_{X\cup PGS}^2 = 0.22$ $R_{X\cup PGS}^2 = 0.32$ $R_{X\cup PGS}^2 = 0.35$		
$N_{X\cup PGS}$ $N_{\rm v}$	0.98	0.87	0.83	0.98	0.85	$\rm 0.81$

12. Supplementary Notes

Author contributions

Daniel Benjamin, David Cesarini, and Philipp Koellinger conceived and designed the study and organized the consortium. Cornelius Rietveld, Sarah Medland, Jaime Derringer, and Nico Martin performed the metaanalyses. Cornelius Rietveld conducted the gene-based tests. Peter Visscher contributed to the design of the study, statistical methods and interpretation of the post-GWAS analyses. Jian Yang and Peter Visscher conducted GREML and prediction analyses. Sarah Medland, Tõnu Esko, Harm-Jan Westra and Lude Franke conducted the expression analyses. Tõnu Esko and Lude Franke performed gene-function prediction analyses. Konstantin Shakhbazov performed cell-type-specificity analyses. Jaime Derringer performed the pathway analyses and summarized all biological follow-up results. Adriaan Hofman organized the work on phenotype harmonization. Philipp Koellinger, Daniel Benjamin, David Cesarini, and Sarah Medland wrote the first draft of the manuscript. Cornelius Rietveld prepared most of the tables and figures in the supplementary materials, with the help of Matthijs van der Loos and Jian Yang. Niels Rietveld, Daniel Benjamin, David Cesarini, Jaime Derringer, Philipp Koellinger and Peter Visscher all wrote substantial portions of the supplementary materials. Chris Chabris, Jan-Emmanuel De Neve, Jaime Derringer, Magnus Johannesson, David Laibson, Nick Martin, Michelle Meyer, Nicholas Timpson, Roy Thurik, André Uitterlinden, Cornelia van Duijn, and Peter Visscher critically reviewed and edited the manuscript.

The advisory board members of the SSGAC (Dalton Conley, George Davey Smith, Albert Hofman, Robert Krueger, David Laibson, Sarah Medland, Michelle Meyer, and Peter Visscher) helped to facilitate the establishment of the consortium and provided crucial advice and ideas throughout the project. Jonathan Beauchamp contributed to the early conceptualization of the study.

Cohort-specific contributions

13. Additional acknowledgements

New York University in Abu Dhabi provided generous funding that facilitated the completion of this paper.

17 participating cohorts are also members of the earlier GENTREPRENEUR consortium, which developed from a joint effort of the Erasmus School of Economics and the Erasmus Medical Centre of the Erasmus University Rotterdam starting in 2007 to link entrepreneurship phenotypes to genotypes using GWAS. While being the first large scale attempt to link a socio-economic outcome to genetic information using GWAS, the GENTREPRENEUR consortium did not identify any genome-wide significant loci that replicate *(175)*. Its setup and experience contributed much to the SSGAC and its working methods.

The results from a GWAS of educational attainment in the QIMR data have been separately reported *(124)*.

Group banner **The Lifelines Cohort Study**: Behrooz Z. Alizadeh (1), Rudolf A. de Boer (2), H. Marike Boezen (1), Marcel Bruinenberg (3), Lude Franke (4), Pim van der Harst (2), Hans L. Hillege (1,2), Melanie M. van der Klauw (5), Gerjan Navis (6), Johan Ormel (7), Dirkje S. Postma (8), Judith G.M. Rosmalen (7), Joris P. Slaets (9), Harold Snieder (1), Ronald P. Stolk (1), Bruce H.R. Wolffenbuttel (5), Cisca Wijmenga (4).

(1) Department of Epidemiology, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, The Netherlands,

(2) Department of Cardiology, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, The Netherlands,

(3) LifeLines Cohort Study, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, The Netherlands,

(4) Department of Genetics, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, The Netherlands,

(5) Department of Endocrinology, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, The Netherlands,

(6) Department of Internal Medicine, Division of Nephrology, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, The Netherlands,

(7) Interdisciplinary Center of Psychopathology of Emotion Regulation (ICPE), Department of Psychiatry, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, The Netherlands,

(8) Department of Pulmonology, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, The Netherlands,

(9) University Center for Geriatric Medicine, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, The Netherlands.

National Institute on Aging Intramural Research Program: The following authors are affiliated with the National Institute on Aging (NIA), National Institutes of Health (NIH), and are in part supported by the Intramural Research Program of the National Institute on Aging, NIH, Baltimore, MD: Luigi Ferrucci, Melissa E. Garcia, Tamara B. Harris, Dena G. Hernandez, Lenore J. Launer, David Schlessinger, Toshiko Tanaka and Antonio Terracciano.

Description of the ALSPAC sample

ALSPAC recruited 14,541 pregnant women resident in Avon, UK with expected dates of delivery 1st April 1991 to 31st December 1992. 14,541 is the initial number of pregnancies for which the mother enrolled in the ALSPAC study and had either returned at least one questionnaire or attended a "Children in Focus" clinic by 19/07/99. Of these initial pregnancies, there was a total of 14,676 fetuses, resulting in 14,062 live births and 13,988 children who were alive at 1 year of age.

When the oldest children were approximately 7 years of age, an attempt was made to bolster the initial sample with eligible cases who had failed to join the study originally. As a result, when considering variables collected from the age of seven onwards (and potentially abstracted from obstetric notes) there are data available for more than the 14,541 pregnancies mentioned above.

The number of new pregnancies not in the initial sample (known as Phase I enrolment) that are currently represented on the built files and reflecting enrolment status at the age of 18 is 706 (452 and 254 recruited during Phases II and III respectively), resulting in an additional 713 children being enrolled. The phases of enrolment are described in more detail in the cohort profile paper: [http://ije.oxfordjournals.org/content/early/2012/04/14/ije.dys064.full.pdf+html.](http://ije.oxfordjournals.org/content/early/2012/04/14/ije.dys064.full.pdf+html)

The total sample size for analyses using any data collected after the age of seven is therefore 15,247 pregnancies, resulting in 15,458 fetuses. Of this total sample of 15,458 fetuses, 14,775 were live births and 14,701 were alive at 1 year of age.

A 10% sample of the ALSPAC cohort, known as the Children in Focus (CiF) group, attended clinics at the University of Bristol at various time intervals between 4 to 61 months of age. The CiF group were chosen at random from the last 6 months of ALSPAC births (1432 families attended at least one clinic). Excluded were those mothers who had moved out of the area or were lost to follow-up, and those partaking in another study of infant development in Avon.

Please note that the study website contains details of all the data that is available through a fully searchable data dictionary: [http://www.bris.ac.uk/alspac/researchers/data-access/data-dictionary/.](http://www.bris.ac.uk/alspac/researchers/data-access/data-dictionary/)

AGES (Age, Gene/Environment Susceptibility–Reykjavik Study) - The Age, Gene/Environment Susceptibility-Reykjavik Study is funded by NIH contract N01-AG-12100, the NIA Intramural Research Program, Hjartavernd (the Icelandic Heart Association), and the Althingi (the Icelandic Parliament). Genotyping was conducted at the NIA IRP Laboratory of Neurogenetics. Researchers interested in using the AGES data must obtain approval from the AGES study group. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of a research agreement between them and the AGES investigators. In accordance with Icelandic law, individual level data cannot be released to external investigators, only summary GWAS results. Investigators interested in collaboration can work on individual data at the Icelandic Heart Association site. For further information contact Prof. V. Gudnason ([v.gudnason@hjarta.is\)](mailto:v.gudnason@hjarta.is).

ALSPAC (Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children) - We are extremely grateful to all the families who took part in this study, the midwives for their help in recruiting them, and the whole ALSPAC team, which includes interviewers, computer and laboratory technicians, clerical workers, research scientists, volunteers, managers, receptionists and nurses. The UK Medical Research Council and the Wellcome Trust (Grant ref: 092731) and the University of Bristol provide core support for ALSPAC. This publication is the work of the authors and Lenore J. Launer, Nicholas J. Timpson, George Davey Smith, George McMahon, Beate St Pourcain, Susan M. Ring, David M. Evans and Debbie A. Lawlor will serve as guarantors for the contents of this paper. Details of access procedures are described in our access policy [\(http://www.bristol.ac.uk/alspac/researchers/data-access/policy/](http://www.bristol.ac.uk/alspac/researchers/data-access/policy/)). Genome Wide data is held by ALSPAC and, due to its potential for disclosure of identity, current ethical constraints require these data to be analysed only in Bristol. We are working towards secure remote access that will enable direct access to these data in the future. Individual SNP data can be released under the terms of a Data Transfer Agreement. For further information or to apply for access please contact the ALSPAC Executive [\(alspac-exec@bris.ac.uk\)](mailto:alspac-exec@bris.ac.uk).

ARIC (Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study) - The Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study is carried out as a collaborative study supported by National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute contracts (HHSN268201100005C, HHSN268201100006C, HHSN268201100007C, HHSN268201100008C, HHSN268201100009C, HHSN268201100010C, HHSN268201100011C, and HHSN268201100012C), R01HL087641, R01HL59367 and R01HL086694; National Human Genome Research Institute contract U01HG004402; and National Institutes of Health contract HHSN268200625226C. The authors thank the staff and participants of the ARIC study for their important contributions. Infrastructure was partly supported by Grant Number UL1RR025005, a component of the National Institutes of Health and NIH Roadmap for Medical Research. ARIC genotype data have been deposited in the NIH GWAS repository (dbGaP). Researchers wishing to use the ARIC genetic data must first apply to dbGaP for access. The process to request access to any dbGaP study is done via the dbGaP authorized access system.

ASPS (Austrian Stroke Prevention Study) – The authors thank the staff and the participants of the ASPS for their valuable contributions. We thank Birgit Reinhart for her long-term administrative commitment and Ing Johann Semmler for technical assistance with the creation of the DNA bank. Researchers must obtain approval from the Steering Committee of the Austrian Stroke Prevention Study and from the Institutional Ethics Committee of the Medical University Graz, Austria. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of an Assistance Agreement containing a number of clauses designed to ensure protection of privacy and compliance with relevant laws. For further information, contact Reinhold Schmidt [\(reinhold.schmidt@medunigraz.at\)](mailto:reinhold.schmidt@medunigraz.at).

BLSA (Baltimore Longitudinal Study of Aging) - This research was supported in part by the Intramural Research Program of the National Institutes of Health, National Institute on Aging. A portion of that support was through a R&D contract with MedStar Research Institute. Researchers interested in using BLSA data should know that individual level data cannot be released to external investigators, only summary GWAS results; and that they are required to follow the terms of a research agreement between them and BLSA investigators, submitting an IRB-approved protocol and specific plan to the Steering Committee for consideration (as specified at the website [http://www.blsa.nih.gov\)](http://www.blsa.nih.gov/).

CAHRES (Cancer Hormone Replacement Epidemiology in Sweden) - The CAHRES study was supported by funding from the Agency for Science, Technology and Research of Singapore (A*STAR), the United States National Institute of Health (NIH) and the Susan G. Komen Breast Cancer Foundation. To use the Swedish

CAHRES data, researchers must obtain approval from the Swedish Ethical Review Board and from the Steering Committee of CAHRES. For further information, contact Per Hall [\(per.hall@ki.se](mailto:per.hall@ki.se))

CAPS (Cancer Prostate Sweden) - The CAPS study was supported by grants from the Swedish Research Council, the Swedish Cancer Society, and the National Cancer Institute. Researchers interested in using CAPS data must obtain approval from the Swedish Ethical Review Board and from the Steering Committee of the CAPS. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of an Assistance Agreement containing a number of clauses designed to ensure protection of privacy and compliance with relevant laws. For further information, contact Henrik Grönberg [\(Henrik.Gronberg@ki.se](mailto:Henrik.Gronberg@ki.se)).

CCF (Cleveland Clinic Foundation) - R01 HL090620 and R01 HL111314 from the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute (Chung, Barnard, Van Wagoner); NIH/NCRR, CTSA 1UL-RR024989 (Chung, Van Wagoner); Heart and Vascular Institute, Department of Cardiovascular Medicine, Cleveland Clinic (Chung); Leducq Foundation 07-CVD 03 (Van Wagoner, Chung); Atrial Fibrillation Innovation Center, State of Ohio (Van Wagoner, Chung). Researchers interested in using the Cleveland Clinic data must obtain approval from the Cleveland Clinic study group. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of a research agreement between them and the Cleveland Clinic investigators. Note that individual level data cannot be released to external investigators, only summary GWAS results. For further information contact Mina Chung [\(chungm@ccf.org\)](mailto:chungm@ccf.org).

CoLaus (Etude Cohorte Lausannoise) - The CoLaus study was supported by research grants from the Swiss National Science Foundation (grant no: 33CSCO-122661) from GlaxoSmithKline and the Faculty of Biology and Medicine of Lausanne, Switzerland. The authors also express their gratitude to the participants in the Lausanne CoLaus study and to the investigators who have contributed to the recruitment, in particular research nurses Yolande Barreau, Anne-Lise Bastian, Binasa Ramic, Martine Moranville, Martine Baumer, Marcy Sagette, Jeanne Ecoffey and Sylvie Mermoud for data collection. Researchers must obtain approval from the Steering Committee of the CoLaus Study and from the Institutional Ethics Committee of the University in Lausanne, Switzerland. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of an Assistance Agreement containing a number of clauses designed to ensure protection of privacy and compliance with relevant laws. For further information go to www.colaus.ch or contact Peter Vollenweider (peter.vollenweider@chuv.ch).

Cr_Kor (Croatia Korcula) - The CROATIA-Korcula study was funded by grants from the Medical Research Council (UK), European Commission Framework 6 project EUROSPAN (Contract No. LSHG-CT-2006- 018947) and Republic of Croatia Ministry of Science, Education and Sports research grants to I.R. (108- 1080315-0302). We would like to acknowledge the invaluable contributions of the recruitment team in Korcula, the administrative teams in Croatia and Edinburgh and the people of Korcula. The SNP genotyping for the CROATIA-Korcula cohort was performed in Helmholtz Zentrum Munchen, Neuherberg, Germany. Researchers interested in using Croatia Korcula data must obtain approval from the QTL Executive Committee at the University of Edinburgh. Researchers requiring access to the data will also be required to complete a datatransfer agreement and agree to conform to the requirements for confidentiality and to strict guidelines for the protection of the data. For further information contact Carline Hayward ([Caroline.Hayward@igmm.ed.ac.uk\)](mailto:Caroline.Hayward@igmm.ed.ac.uk)

Cr_Spl (Croatia Split) - The CROATIA-Split study iwas funded by grants from the Medical Research Council (UK), European Commission Framework 6 project EUROSPAN (Contract No. LSHG-CT-2006-018947) and Republic of Croatia Ministry of Science, Education and Sports research grants to I.R. (108-1080315-0302). We would like to acknowledge the staff of several institutions in Croatia that supported the field work, including but not limited to The University of Split and Zagreb Medical Schools and the Croatian Institute for Public Health. The SNP genotyping for the CROATIA-Split cohort was performed by AROS Applied Biotechnology, Aarhus, Denmark. Researchers interested in using Croatia Split data must obtain approval from the QTL Executive Committee at the University of Edinburgh. Researchers requiring access to the data will also be required to complete a data-transfer agreement and agree to conform to the requirements for confidentiality and to strict guidelines for the protection of the data. For further information contact Carline Hayward [\(Caroline.Hayward@igmm.ed.ac.uk](mailto:Caroline.Hayward@igmm.ed.ac.uk))

Cr_Vis (Croatia Vis) – The CROATIA-Vis study was funded by grants from the Medical Research Council (UK) and Republic of Croatia Ministry of Science, Education and Sports research grants to I.R. (108-1080315- 0302). We would like to acknowledge the staff of several institutions in Croatia that supported the field work, including but not limited to The University of Split and Zagreb Medical Schools, the Institute for Anthropological Research in Zagreb and Croatian Institute for Public Health. The SNP genotyping for the CROATIA-Vis cohort was performed in the core genotyping laboratory of the Wellcome Trust Clinical Research Facility at the Western General Hospital, Edinburgh, Scotland. Researchers interested in using Croatia Vis data must obtain approval from the QTL Executive Committee at the University of Edinburgh. Researchers requiring access to the data will also be required to complete a data-transfer agreement and agree to conform to the requirements for confidentiality and to strict guidelines for the protection of the data. For further information contact Carline Hayward ([Caroline.Hayward@igmm.ed.ac.uk\)](mailto:Caroline.Hayward@igmm.ed.ac.uk)

DHS (Dortmund Health Study) - The collection of sociodemographic and clinical data in the Dortmund Health Study was supported by the German Migraine & Headache Society (DMKG) and by unrestricted grants of equal share from Almirall, Astra Zeneca, Berlin Chemie, Boehringer, Boots Health Care, Glaxo-Smith-Kline, Janssen Cilag, McNeil Pharma, MSD Sharp & Dohme and Pfizer to the University of Muenster. Blood collection in the Dortmund Health Study was done through funds from the Institute of Epidemiology and Social Medicine University of Muenster. Genotyping for the Human Omni Chip was supported by the German Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF, grant no. 01ER0816). Researchers interested in using DHS data are required to sign and follow the terms of an Cooperation Agreement that includes a number of clauses designed to ensure protection of privacy and compliance with relevant laws. For further information, contact Klaus Berger (bergerk@uni-muenster.de)

ERF (Erasmus Rucphen Family study) -This study is financially supported by the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO), the Internationale Stichting Alzheimer Onderzoek (ISAO), the Hersenstichting Nederland (HSN), and the Centre for Medical Systems Biology (CMSB) in the framework of the Netherlands Genomics Initiative (NGI). We thank the participants from the Genetic Research in Isolated Populations, Erasmus Rucphen Family, who made this work possible. Researchers who wish to use data of the Erasmus Rucphen Family Study must seek approval from the management team of the Erasmus Rucphen Family study. They are advised to contact the study PI, professor Cornelia van Duijn [\(c.vanduijn@erasmusmc.nl\)](mailto:c.vanduijn@erasmusmc.nl).

EGCUT (Estonian Genome Center, University of Tartu) - EGCUT received financing from FP7 programs (ENGAGE, OPENGENE), targeted financing from Estonian Government SF0180142s08, Estonian Research Roadmap through Estonian Ministry of Education and Research, Center of Excellence in Genomics (EXCEGEN) and University of Tartu (SP1GVARENG). Also . We acknowledge EGCUT technical personnel, especially Mr V. Soo and S. Smit. Data analyzes were carried out in part in the High Performance Computing Center of University of Tartu. Researchers interested in using the Estonian Biobank (EGCUT) data must obtain approval from the Estonian Genome Center of University of Tartu (EGCUT)) study group. Note that anonymized individual level data can only be released after study has been approved by Research Ethics Committee of University of Tartu and must be carried out in collaboration with EGCUT investigators. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of a research agreement between them and the EGCUT investigators. For further information visit www.biobank.ee or contact directly the Director of Estonian Biobank, Prof. Andres Metspalu [\(Andres.Metspalu@ut.ee](mailto:Andres.Metspalu@ut.ee)).

FINRISK (FINRISK) - We would like to thank all the Finrisk study participants. The Finrisk surveys were mainly funded by the National Institute for Health and Welfare (THL), Finland. Additional support was obtained through funds from the European Community's Seventh Framework Programme (FP7/2007-2013), ENGAGE Consortium, grant agreement HEALTH-F4-2007-201413, and BioSHaRE Consortium, grant agreement 261433. K.K. was supported by grant number 250207 from the Academy of Finland and a grant from the Orion-Farmos Research Foundation. M.P. is partly financially supported for this work by the Finnish Academy SALVE program ''Pubgensense'' 129322 and by grants from Finnish Foundation for Cardiovascular Research. Researchers wishing to use FINRISK data must send a written proposal to the FINRISK Steering Committee. If the proposal is approved, a specific Data Transfer and Collaboration Agreement must be signed before sending the data. For further information, contact Veikko Salomaa [\(Veikko.Salomaa@thl.fi\)](mailto:Veikko.Salomaa@thl.fi).

FTC (Finnish Twin Cohort) -The FTC was supported by Academy of Finland Center of Excellence in Complex Disease Genetics (grant numbers: 213506, 129680), US P.H.S. NIDA 12854, Global Research Awards for Nicotine Dependence (GRAND), and ENGAGE – European Network for Genetic and Genomic Epidemiology,FP7-HEALTH-F4-2007, grant agreement number 201413. Researchers interested in using FTC data must obtain approval from an Ethical Review Board if not covered by existing ethical approvals, and from the principal investigators of the Finnish Twin Study. To ensure protection of privacy and compliance with national data protection legislation, a data use/transfer agreement is needed, the content and specific clauses of which will depend on the nature of the requested data. It is also possible that requested analyses are run inhouse. For further information please contact Jaakko Kaprio (jaakko.kaprio@helsinki.fi).

GAIN (Genetic Association Information Network Schizophrenia-Controls) / **nonGAIN (Non-Genetic Association Information Network Schizophrenia-Controls)** / **NIA (National Institute of Aging)** - Funding support for the companion studies, Genome-Wide Association Study of Schizophrenia (GAIN) and Molecular Genetics of Schizophrenia - nonGAIN Sample (MGS_nonGAIN), was provided by Genomics Research Branch at NIMH see below) and the genotyping and analysis of samples was provided through the Genetic Association Information Network (GAIN) and under the MGS U01s: MH79469 and MH79470. Assistance with data cleaning was provided by the National Center for Biotechnology Information. The MGS dataset(s) used for the analyses described in this manuscript were obtained from the database of Genotype and Phenotype (dbGaP) found at <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gap> through dbGaP accession numbers phs000021.v2.p1 (GAIN) and phs000167.v1.p1 (nonGAIN). Samples and associated phenotype data for the MGS GWAS study were collected under the following grants: NIMH Schizophrenia Genetics Initiative U01s: MH46276 (CR Cloninger), MH46289 (C Kaufmann), and MH46318 (MTTsuang); and MGS Part 1 (MGS1) and Part 2 (MGS2) R01s: MH67257 (NG Buccola), MH59588 (BJ Mowry), MH59571 (PV Gejman), MH59565 (Robert Freedman), MH59587 (F Amin), MH60870 (WF Byerley), MH59566 (DW Black), MH59586 (JM Silverman), MH61675 (DF Levinson), and MH60879 (CR Cloninger). Further details of collection sites, individuals, and institutions may be found in data supplement Table 1 of Sanders et al.(2008; PMID: 18198266) and at the study dbGaP pages. Funding support for the "Genetic Consortium for Late Onset Alzheimer's Disease" was provided through the Division of Neuroscience, NIA. The Genetic Consortium for Late Onset Alzheimers Disease includes a genome-wide association study funded as part of the Division of Neuroscience, NIA. Assistance with phenotype harmonization and genotype cleaning, as well as with general study coordination, was provided by Genetic Consortium for Late OnsetAlzheimers Disease. Statistical analyses of GAIN, nonGAIN and NIA data were carried out on the Genetic Cluster Computer [\(http://www.geneticcluster.org](http://www.geneticcluster.org/)) which is financially supported by the Netherlands Scientific Organization (NWO 480-05-003). We further wish to acknowledge the financial support of NWO-VI-016-065-318, NWO 645-000-003 and the Center for Neurogenomics and Cognitive Research (CNCR) at the VU University. None of the authors have a conflict of interest to declare. Genotype data are deposited in the NIH GWAS repository (dbGaP). Researchers wishing to use the GAIN/nonGAIN/NIA genetic data must apply to dbGaP for access. The process to request access to any dbGaP study is done via the dbGaP authorized access system.

GENOA (Genetic Epidemiology Network of Arteriopathy) – Genetic Epidemiology Network of Arteriopathy (GENOA) is supported by the National Institutes of Health, grant numbers HL087660 and HL100245 from the National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute and grant number P60MD002249 from the National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities. We thank Eric Boerwinkle, PhD from the Human Genetics Center and Institute of Molecular Medicine and Division of Epidemiology, University of Texas Health Science Center, Houston, Texas, USA and Julie Cunningham, PhD from the Department of Health Sciences Research, Mayo Clinic College of Medicine, Rochester, MN, USA for their help with genotyping. Researchers interestedin using GENOA data should submit a written proposal to the GENOA Steering Committee which includes details on the data being requested and plans for data security. For further information, contact Sharon Kardia [\(skardia@umich.edu](mailto:skardia@umich.edu)).

H2000 (Health 2000) - We would like to thank all the Health 2000 Survey participants. The Health 2000 Study was funded by the National Institute for Health and Welfare (THL), the Finnish Centre for Pensions (ETK), the Social Insurance Institution of Finland (KELA), the Local Government Pensions Institution (KEVA) and other organizations listed on the website of the survey [\(http://www.terveys2000.fi\)](http://www.terveys2000.fi/). V.S. was supported by grants number 129494 and 139635 from the Academy of Finland and a grant from the Finnish Foundation for Cardiovascular Research. Researchers wishing to use H2000 data must send a written proposal to the H2000 Steering Committee. If the proposal is approved, a specific Data Transfer and Collaboration Agreement must be signed before sending the data. For further information, contact Veikko Salomaa [\(Veikko.Salomaa@thl.fi](mailto:Veikko.Salomaa@thl.fi)).

HABC (Health ABC) - The Health ABC Study was supported by NIA contracts N01AG62101, N01AG62103, and N01AG62106 and, in part, by the NIA Intramural Research Program. The genome-wide association study was funded by NIA grant 1R01AG032098-01A1 to Wake Forest University Health Sciences and genotyping services were provided by the Center for Inherited Disease Research (CIDR). CIDR is fully funded through a federal contract from the National Institutes of Health to The Johns Hopkins University, contract number HHSN268200782096C. Genotype data have been deposited in the NIH GWAS repository (dbGaP) and are available through the dbGaP application process. For phenotype data that may not be part of dbGaP, researchers may request the information from the Health ABC Executive Committee by submitting an analysis plan per the guidelines outlined on this website, <http://www.grc.nia.nih.gov/branches/ledb/healthabc/index.htm>. For further information, contact Dr. Tamara B. Harris (harris99@mail.nih.gov).

HBCS (Helsinki Birth Cohort Study) – We thank all study participants as well as everybody involved in the Helsinki Birth Cohort Study. Helsinki Birth Cohort Study has been supported by grants from the Academy of Finland, the Finnish Diabetes Research Society, Folkhälsan Research Foundation, Novo Nordisk Foundation, Finska Läkaresällskapet, Signe and Ane Gyllenberg Foundation, University of Helsinki, Ministry of Education, Ahokas Foundation, Emil Aaltonen Foundation, Juho Vainio Foundation, and Wellcome Trust (grant number WT089062). Researchers interested in using HBCS data must obtain approval from the Steering Committee of the Helsinki Birth Cohort Study. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms in a number of clauses designed to ensure protection of privacy and compliance with relevant Finnish laws. For further information, contact Johan Eriksson [\(johan.eriksson@helsinki.fi\)](mailto:johan.eriksson@helsinki.fi).

HCS (Hunter Community Study) - EGH is supported by the Australian NHMRC Fellowship scheme. Researchers interested in using the HCS data must obtain approval from Principal Investigators involved with the HCS and from the Institutional Ethics Committee of the University of Newcastle, Australia. For further information, contact John Attia ([john.attia@newcastle.edu.au\)](mailto:john.attia@newcastle.edu.au).

HRS (Health and Retirement Study) - HRS is supported by the National Institute on Aging (NIA U01AG009740). The genotyping was funded as a separate award from the National Institute on Aging (RC2 AG036495). Our genotyping was conducted by the NIH Center for Inherited Disease Research (CIDR) at Johns Hopkins University. Genotyping quality control and final preparation of the data were performed by the Genetics Coordinating Center at the University of Washington. HRS genotype data have been deposited in the NIH GWAS repository (dbGaP). Researchers wishing to use the HRS genetic data must first apply to dbGaP for access. The process to request access to any dbGaP study is done via the dbGaP authorized access system. Researchers who wish to obtain HRS phenotype measures that are not in dbGaP must submit a data access use agreement to HRS. For further information, contact [hrsquestions@umich.edu.](mailto:hrsquestions@umich.edu) Relevant websites describing HRS genotype and phenotype data are: [www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/gap/cgi](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/gap/cgi-bin/study.cgi?study_id=phs000428.v1.p1)[bin/study.cgi?study_id=phs000428.v1.p1](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/gap/cgi-bin/study.cgi?study_id=phs000428.v1.p1) and [http://hrsonline.isr.umich.edu.](http://hrsonline.isr.umich.edu/)

InCHIANTI (Invecchiare in Chinati) - The InCHIANTI study baseline (1998-2000) was supported as a "targeted project" (ICS110.1/RF97.71) by the Italian Ministry of Health and in part by the U.S. National Institute on Aging (Contracts: 263 MD 9164 and 263 MD 821336). Researchers interested in using InCHIANTI data should know that individual level data cannot be released to external investigators, only summary GWAS results; and that they are required to follow the terms of a research agreement between them and InCHIANTI investigators, submitting an IRB-approved protocol and specific plan to the Steering Committee for consideration (as specified at the website [http://inchiantistudy.net\)](http://inchiantistudy.net/).

KORA (Kooperative Gesundheitsforschung in der Region Augsburg) - The KORA Augsburg studies were financed by the Helmholtz Zentrum München, German Research Center for Environmental Health, Neuherberg, Germany and supported by grants from the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF). Part of this work was financed by the German National Genome Research Network (NGFN). Our research was supported within the Munich Center of Health Sciences (MC Health) as part of LMUinnovativ. Researchers interested in using the KORA data must obtain approval from the KORA study group. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of a research agreement between them and the KORA investigators. Note that individual level data cannot be released to external investigators, only summary GWAS results. For further information contact the KORA speaker. Prof. Annette Peters [\(peters@helmholtz-muenchen.de\)](mailto:peters@helmholtz-muenchen.de). More information can be found at [http://www.helmholtz-muenchen.de/en/kora-en/information-for](http://www.helmholtz-muenchen.de/en/kora-en/information-for-scientists/participating-in-kora/index.html)[scientists/participating-in-kora/index.html](http://www.helmholtz-muenchen.de/en/kora-en/information-for-scientists/participating-in-kora/index.html).

LifeLines (LifeLines) - The LifeLines Cohort Study, and generation and management of GWAS genotype data for the LifeLines Cohort Study is supported by the Netherlands Organization of Scientific Research NWO (grant 175.010.2007.006), the Economic Structure Enhancing Fund (FES) of the Dutch government, the Ministry of Economic Affairs, the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, the Ministry for Health, Welfare and Sports, the Northern Netherlands Collaboration of Provinces (SNN), the Province of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, the University of Groningen, Dutch Kidney Foundation and Dutch Diabetes Research Foundation. We thank Behrooz Z. Alizadeh, Annemieke Boesjes, Marcel Bruinenberg, Noortje Festen, Pim van der Harst, Ilja Nolte, Lude Franke, Mitra Valimohammadi for their help in creating the GWAS database, and Rob Bieringa, Joost Keers, René Oostergo, Rosalie Visser, Judith Vonk for their work related to data-collection and validation. The authors are grateful to the study participants, the staff from the LifeLines Cohort Study and Medical Biobank Northern Netherlands, and the participating general practitioners and pharmacists. Researchers interested in using the LifeLines data must obtain approval for a specific analysis plan from the scientific board of LifeLines to obtain access to the data. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of a signed agreement containing a number of clauses designed to ensure protection of privacy and compliance with relevant laws. For further information, contact Harold Snieder [\(h.snieder@umcg.nl\)](mailto:h.snieder@umcg.nl).

LBC1921 and LBC1936 (Lothian Birth Cohorts 1921 and Lothian Birth Cohorts 1936) - We thank the cohort participants who contributed to the Lothian Birth Cohorts. The genotyping was supported by the UK's Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC). Phenotype collection in the LBC1921 was supported by the BBSRC, The Royal Society and The Chief Scientist Office of the Scottish Government. Phenotype collection in the LBC1936 was supported by Research Into Ageing (continues as part of Age UK's The Disconnected Mind project). The work was undertaken by The University of Edinburgh Centre for Cognitive Ageing and Cognitive Epidemiology, part of the cross council Lifelong Health and Wellbeing Initiative (G0700704/84698). Funding from the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC), Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC), Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) and Medical Research Council (MRC) is gratefully acknowledged. Researchers interested in using LBC data should approach the Directors of the Lothian Birth Cohorts to obtain a Data Request Form. Approval is required from the relevant medical research ethics committee in Scotland. A data transfer agreement is required. For further information, contact Ian Deary ([i.deary@ed.ac.uk\)](mailto:i.deary@ed.ac.uk).

MoBa (Mother and Child Cohort of NIPH) – This work was supported by grants from the Norwegian Research Council (FUGE 183220/S10, FRIMEDKLI-05 ES236011), Swedish Medical Society (SLS 2008- 21198) and Swedish government grants to researchers in the public health service (ALFGBG-2863, ALFGBG-11522), and the European Community's Seventh Framework Programme (FP7/2007-2013), ENGAGE Consortium, grant agreement HEALTH-F4-2007-201413. The Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study was also supported by the Norwegian Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Education and Research, NIH/NIEHS (contract no N01-ES-75558), NIH/NINDS (grant no.1 UO1 NS 047537-01 and grant no.2 UO1 NS 047537- 06A1), and the Norwegian Research Council/FUGE (grant no. 151918/S10). We are grateful to all the participating families in Norway who take part in this ongoing cohort study. Researchers interested in using MoBa data must obtain approval from the Scientific Management Committee of MoBa and from the Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research Ethics for access to data and biological material. Researchers are required to follow the terms of an Assistance Agreement containing a number of clauses designed to ensure protection of privacy and compliance with relevant laws. For further information, contact the principal investigator of MoBga, Per Magnus [\(per.magnus@fhi.no\)](mailto:per.magnus@fhi.no).

MCTFR (Minnesota Center for Twin and Family Research) - The MCTFR is supported by USPHS Grants from the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism (AA09367 and AA11886), the National Institute on Drug Abuse (DA05147, DA13240, and DA024417), and the National Institute on Mental Health (MH066140). Jaime Derringer was supported by NIH grants DA029377 and MH016880. The genotype data from MCTFR is in the process of being deposited in the Database of Genotypes and Phenotypes (dbGaP) maintained by the US National Center on Bioinformatics (NCBI). Once the process for submitting the MCTFR genotypes is complete and dbGaP is setup to accept additional phenotype data from the MCTFR, the education phenotypes used in the analyses reported here will be deposited there. Requests to use the data could then be made through dbGaP.

NESDA (Netherlands Study of Depression and Anxiety) - We acknowledge financial support from the Geestkracht program of ZonMW (10-000-1002); matching funds from universities and mental health care institutes involved in NESDA; Center for Medical Systems Biology (NWO Genomics), Neuroscience Campus Amsterdam. Genotyping was funded by the Genetic Association Information Network (GAIN) of the Foundation for the US National Institutes of Health. Genotype data were obtained from dbGaP [\(http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/dbgap,](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/dbgap) accession number phs000020.v1.p1). Researchers interested in using the NESDA data must obtain approval from the NESDA study group. Researchers using the data are required to follow the signed terms of a research agreement between them and the NESDA investigators. Note that individual level data cannot be released to external investigators, only summary GWAS results. For further information contact B.W.J.H. Penninx [\(b.penninx@vumc.nl\)](mailto:b.penninx@vumc.nl).

NFBC1966 (Northern Finland Birth Cohorts (1966 Cohort)) – We thank Professor Paula Rantakallio (launch of NFBC1966 and initial data collection), Ms Sarianna Vaara (data collection), Ms Tuula Ylitalo (administration), Mr Markku Koiranen (data management), Ms Outi Tornwall and Ms Minttu Jussila (DNA biobanking). This work was supported by the Academy of Finland [project grants 104781, 120315, 129418, Center of Excellence in Complex Disease Genetics and Public Health Challenges Research Program (SALVE)], University Hospital Oulu, Biocenter, University of Oulu, Finland (75617), the European Commission [EURO- BLCS, Framework 5 award QLG1-CT-2000-01643], The National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute [5R01HL087679-02] through the SNP Typing for Association with Multiple Phenotypes from Existing Epidemiologic Data (STAMPEED) program [1RL1MH083268-01], The National Institute of Health/The National Institute of Mental Health [5R01MH63706:02], European Network of Genomic and Genetic Epidemiology (ENGAGE) project and grant agreement [HEALTH-F4-2007-201413], and the Medical Research Council, UK [G0500539, G0600705, PrevMetSyn/ Public Health Challenges Research Program (SALVE)]. Researchers interested in using NFBC1966 data must obtain approval from the Ethical Committee of Northern Ostrobothnia Hospital District and from the Data and Publication Committee of the Northern Finland Birth Cohorts. Researchers using the data are required to follow The Declaration of Helsinki and rules of practice containing a number of clauses designed to ensure protection of privacy and compliance with relevant laws. For further information, contact Mario-Riitta Jarvelin [\(m.jarvelin@imperial.ac.uk\)](mailto:m.jarvelin@imperial.ac.uk).

NTR (Netherlands Twin Register) – Funding was obtained from the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO: MagW/ZonMW grants 904-61-090, 985-10-002,904-61-193,480-04-004, 400-05-717, Addiction-31160008 Middelgroot-911-09-032, Spinozapremie 56-464-14192), Center for Medical Systems Biology (CSMB, NWO Genomics), NBIC/BioAssist/RK(2008.024), Biobanking and Biomolecular Resources Research Infrastructure (BBMRI –NL, 184.021.007), the VU University's Institute for Health and Care Research (EMGO+) and Neuroscience Campus Amsterdam (NCA), the European Science Foundation (ESF, EU/QLRT-2001-01254), the European Community's Seventh Framework Program (FP7/2007-2013), ENGAGE (HEALTH-F4-2007-201413); the European Science Council (ERC Advanced, 230374), Rutgers University Cell and DNA Repository (NIMH U24 MH068457-06) and the National Institutes of Health (NIH, R01D0042157- 01A). Part of the genotyping and analyses were funded by the Genetic Association Information Network (GAIN) of the Foundation for the US National Institutes of Health, the (NIMH, MH081802) and by the Grand Opportunity grants 1RC2MH089951-01 from the NIMH. AA was supported by CSMB/NCA. Statistical analyses were carried out on the Genetic Cluster Computer [\(http://www.geneticcluster.org\)](http://www.geneticcluster.org/), which is financially supported by the Netherlands Scientific Organization (NWO 480-05-003), the Dutch Brain Foundation and the department of psychology and education of the VU University Amsterdam. Genotype data have been deposited in the NIH GWAS repository (dbGaP). Researchers wishing to use the NTR genetic data must first apply to dbGaP for access. The process to request access to any dbGaP study is done via the dbGaP authorized access system. For further information, contact Dorret Boomsma (d.j.boomsma@vu.nl).

ORCADES (The Orkney Complex Disease Study) - ORCADES was supported by the Chief Scientist Office of the Scottish Government, the Royal Society, the MRC Human Genetics Unit, Arthritis Research UK and the European Union framework program 6 EUROSPAN project (contract no. LSHG-CT-2006-018947). DNA extractions were performed at the Wellcome Trust Clinical Research Facility in Edinburgh. We would like to acknowledge the invaluable contributions of Lorraine Anderson and the research nurses in Orkney, the administrative team in Edinburgh and the people of Orkney. Researchers interested in using the individual level data should contact the ORCADES investigators, who will consider the application. Approval from an appropriate ethics committee must be in place and researchers must then follow the guidelines for ORCADES data. For further information, contact Jim Wilson (*jim.wilson@ed.ac.uk*).

QIMR (Queensland Institute of Medical Research) - Funding was provided by the Australian National Health and Medical Research Council (241944, 339462, 389927, 389875, 389891, 389892, 389938, 442915, 442981, 496739, 552485, 552498), the Australian Research Council (A7960034, A79906588, A79801419, DP0770096, DP0212016, DP0343921), the FP-5 GenomEUtwin Project (QLG2-CT-2002-01254), and the U.S. National Institutes of Health (NIH grants AA07535, AA10248, AA13320, AA13321, AA13326, AA14041, DA12854, MH66206). A portion of the genotyping on which the QIMR study was based (Illumina 370K scans) was carried out at the Center for Inherited Disease Research, Baltimore (CIDR), through an access award to the authors' late colleague Dr. Richard Todd (Psychiatry, Washington University School of Medicine, St Louis). Imputation was carried out on the Genetic Cluster Computer, which is financially supported by the Netherlands Scientific Organization (NWO 480-05-003). N.W.H.M was supported by a PhD scholarship from the ANZ trust. S.E.M., is supported by the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) Fellowship Scheme. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. Researchers interested in using QIMR data can contact Nick Martin ([Nick.Martin@qimr.edu.au\)](mailto:Nick.Martin@qimr.edu.au) and Sarah Medland (medlandse@gmail.com).

RS (The Rotterdam Study) - The GWA study of the Rotterdam Study was funded by the Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research NWO Investments (nr. 175.010.2005.011, 911-03-012), the Research Institute for Diseases in the Elderly (014-93-015; RIDE2), and the Netherlands Genomics Initiative (NGI)/Netherlands Consortium for Healthy Aging (NCHA) project nr. 050-060-810. We thank Pascal Arp, Mila Jhamai, Michael Moorhouse, Marijn Verkerk, and Sander Bervoets for their assistance in creating the GWAS database. The Rotterdam Study is funded by the Erasmus Medical Center; Erasmus University, Rotterdam; the Netherlands Organization for the Health Research and Development (ZonMw); the Research Institute for Diseases in the Elderly (RIDE); the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Science; the Ministry for Health, Welfare, and Sports; the European Commission (DG XII); and the Municipality of Rotterdam. The authors are very grateful to the participants and staff from the Rotterdam Study, participating general practioners and the pharmacists. We would like to thank Dr. Tobias A. Knoch, Anis Abuseiris, Karol Estrada, Luc V. de Zeeuw, and Rob de Graaf, as well as their institutions, the Erasmus Grid Office, Erasmus MC Rotterdam, The Netherlands, and especially the national German MediGRID and Services@MediGRID part of the German D-Grid, both funded by the German Bundesministerium fuer Forschung und Technology under grants # 01 AK 803 A-H and # 01 IG 07015 G for access to their grid resources. Some of the statistical analyses were carried out on the Genetic Cluster Computer (http://www.geneticcluster.org) which is financially supported by the Netherlands Scientific Organization (NWO 480-05-003 PI: Posthuma) along with a supplement from the Dutch Brain Foundation and the VU University Amsterdam. Researchers who wish to use data of the Rotterdam Study must obtain approval from the Rotterdam Study Management Team. They are advised to contact the PI of the Rotterdam Study, Dr Albert Hofman ([a.hofman@erasmusmc.nl\)](mailto:a.hofman@erasmusmc.nl).

RUSH-MAP (Rush University Medical Center - Memory and Aging Project) / RUSH-ROS (Rush University Medical Center - Religious Orders Study) - The MAP and ROS data used in this analysis was supported by National Institute on Aging grants P30AG10161, R01AG17917, R01AG15819, R01AG30146, the Illinois Department of Public Health, and the Translational Genomics Research Institute. Researchers interested in accessing the clinical and genomic data, in addition to other data and biospecimens, must obtain approved from the Rush Alzheimer's Disease Center resource distribution committee following scientific review of a submitted request. Resource requests can be made via the portal at [http://www.rush.edu/radc.](http://www.rush.edu/radc) Here you find additional information regarding access policies and instructions for submitting requests.

SAGE (Study of Addiction: Genetics and Environment) -Funding support for the Study of Addiction: Genetics and Environment (SAGE) was provided through the NIH Genes, Environment and Health Initiative [GEI] (U01 HG004422). SAGE is one of the genome-wide association studies funded as part of the Gene Environment Association Studies (GENEVA) under GEI. Assistance with phenotype harmonization and genotype cleaning, as well as with general study coordination, was provided by the GENEVA Coordinating Center (U01 HG004446). Assistance with data cleaning was provided by the National Center for Biotechnology Information. Support for collection of datasets and samples was provided by the Collaborative Study on the Genetics of Alcoholism (COGA; U10 AA008401), the Collaborative Genetic Study of Nicotine Dependence (COGEND; P01 CA089392), and the Family Study of Cocaine Dependence (FSCD; R01 DA013423, R01 DA019963). Funding support for genotyping, which was performed at the Johns Hopkins University Center for Inherited Disease Research, was provided by the NIH GEI (U01HG004438), the National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism, the National Institute on Drug Abuse, and the NIH contract "High throughput genotyping for studying the genetic contributions to human disease" (HHSN268200782096C). LJB also receives support from K02DA021237. The phenotypic variables and genotype data may be obtained via request to and approval of dbGAP [\(http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/gap/cgi](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/gap/cgi-bin/study.cgi?study_id=phs000092.v1.p1)bin/study.cgi?study id=phs000092.v1.p1). Access to imputed genotypic data used for the present analysis or other variables may be requested from the PI, Laura Bierut [\(bierutl@psychiatry.wustl.edu](mailto:bierutl@psychiatry.wustl.edu)) and is contingent on approval by the Steering Committees of contributing studies COGEND and FSCD.

SardiNIA (SardiNIA Study of Aging) - This research was supported in part by the Intramural Research Program of the National Institutes of Health, National Institute on Aging. Researchers interested in using SardiNIA data should know that individual level data cannot be released to external investigators, only summary GWAS results; and that they are required to follow the terms of a research agreement between them and SardiNIA investigators, submitting an IRB-approved protocol and specific plan to the Steering Committee for consideration (as specified at the website [http://sardinia.nia.nih.gov\)](http://sardinia.nia.nih.gov/).

SHIP (Study of Health in Pomerania) - SHIP is part of the Community Medicine Research net of the University of Greifswald, Germany, which is funded by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (grants no. 01ZZ9603, 01ZZ0103, and 01ZZ0403), the Ministry of Cultural Affairs as well as the Social Ministry of the Federal State of Mecklenburg-West Pomerania, and the network 'Greifswald Approach to Individualized Medicine (GANI MED)' funded by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (grant 03IS2061A). Genome-wide data have been supported by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (grant no. 03ZIK012) and a joint grant from Siemens Healthcare, Erlangen, Germany and the Federal State of Mecklenburg- West Pomerania. The University of Greifswald is a member of the 'Center of Knowledge Interchange' program of the Siemens AG and the Caché Campus program of the InterSystems GmbH. SHIP data are owned by the Research Network of Community Medicine of the University Medicine Greifswald, Germany. Researches who wish to use SHIP data can apply via http://www.community-medicine.de. Data usage applications have to be approved by the Steering Committee of the research network.

STR (Swedish Twin Registry) – The Jan Wallander and Tom Hedelius Foundation, the Ragnar Söderberg Foundation, the Swedish Council for Working Life and Social Research, the Ministry for Higher Education, the Swedish Research Council (M-2005-1112), GenomEUtwin (EU/QLRT-2001-01254; QLG2-CT-2002-01254), NIH DK U01-066134, The Swedish Foundation for Strategic Research (SSF), the Heart and Lung foundation no. 20070481. Researchers interested in using STR data must obtain approval from the Swedish Ethical Review Board and from the Steering Committee of the Swedish Twin Registry. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of an Assistance Agreement containing a number of clauses designed to ensure protection of privacy and compliance with relevant laws. For further information, contact Patrik Magnusson [\(patrik.magnusson@ki.se](mailto:patrik.magnusson@ki.se)).

THISEAS (The Hellenic study of Interactions between SNPs & Eating in Atherosclerosis Susceptibility) - Recruitment for THISEAS was partially funded by a research grant (PENED 2003) from the Greek General Secretary of Research and Technology; we thank all the dieticians and clinicians for their contribution to the project. The genotyping was funded by the Wellcome Trust. We like to thank the members of the WTSI GenotypingFacility in particular Sarah Edkins and Cordelia Langford. Researchers interested in using the THISEAS data must obtain approval from the THISEAS study group. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of a research agreement between them and the THISEAS investigators. Note that individual level data cannot be released to external investigators, only summary GWAS results. For further information contact George Dedoussis [\(dedousi@hua.gr\)](mailto:dedousi@hua.gr).

TwinsUK (St Thomas' UK Adult Twin Registry) - The study was funded by the Wellcome Trust; European Community's Seventh Framework Programme (FP7/2007-2013), ENGAGE project grant agreement (HEALTH-F4-2007-201413). The study also receives support from the Dept of Health via the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) comprehensive Biomedical Research Centre award to Guy's & St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust in partnership with King's College London. Genotyping was performed by The Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute, support of the National Eye Institute via an NIH/CIDR genotyping project. Researchers interested in using TwinsUK data must obtain approval for data access from the TwinsUK Resource Executive Committee (TREC). All research is approved by the London - Westminster Research Ethics Committee. The Department of Twin Research facilitates and encourages the access and sharing of data with the scientific community to promote and contribute to further scientific research. For further information, please contact Victoria Vazquez ([victoria.vazquez@kcl.ac.uk\)](mailto:victoria.vazquez@kcl.ac.uk) or go to our website [www.twinsuk.ac.uk/data-access/open](http://www.twinsuk.ac.uk/data-access/open-access/)[access/](http://www.twinsuk.ac.uk/data-access/open-access/).

UQ (The University of Queensland) The Australian Research Council (DP130102666), the Australian National Health and Medical Research Council (APP1048853 and APP1052684) and the National Institutes of Health (GM099568, GM075091, MH100141).

YFS (The Cardiovascular Risk in Young Finns Study) – The Young Finns Study has been financially supported by the Academy of Finland: grants 126925, 121584, 124282, 129378 (Salve), 117787 (Gendi), and 41071 (Skidi), the Social Insurance Institution of Finland, Kuopio, Tampere and Turku University Hospital Medical Funds (grant 9M048 and 9N035 for TeLeht), Juho Vainio Foundation, Paavo Nurmi Foundation, Finnish Foundation of Cardiovascular Research and Finnish Cultural Foundation, Tampere Tuberculosis Foundation and Eemil Aaltonen Foundation (T.L). The expert technical assistance in the statistical analyses by Irina Lisinen and Ville Aalto are gratefully acknowledged. Researchers interested in using the YFS data must obtain approval from the YFS study group. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of a research agreement between them and the YFS investigators. For further information contact Olli Raitakari [\(olli.raitakari@utu.fi](mailto:olli.raitakari@utu.fi)).

WASHS (Western Australia Sleep Health Study) – Sir Charles Gairdner and Hollywood Private Hospital Research Foundations and the Western Australian Sleep Disorders Research Institute, Western Australia. Researchers interested in using the WASHS data must request and obtain approval from the Western Australian Sleep Health Study Management Committee through completion of a Data Access Application. Researchers using the data are required to follow the terms of the Data Access Policy containing a number of clauses designed to ensure protection of privacy and compliance with relevant laws. For further information, contact the Chair of the Western Australian Sleep Health Study Management Committee, Dr. Sutapa Mukherjee [\(sutapameister@gmail.com\)](mailto:sutapameister@gmail.com).

References and Notes

- 1. R. Plomin, J. DeFries, V. Knopik, J. Neiderhiser, *Behavioral Genetics* (Worth Publishers, ed. 6, 2013), pp. 560.
- 2. D. Cesarini, C. T. Dawes, M. Johannesson, P. Lichtenstein, B. Wallace, Genetic variation in preferences for giving and risk taking. *Q. J. Econ.* **124**, 809 (2009). [doi:10.1162/qjec.2009.124.2.809](http://dx.doi.org/10.1162/qjec.2009.124.2.809)
- 3. D. J. Benjamin *et al*., The genetic architecture of economic and political preferences. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **109**, 8026 (2012). [doi:10.1073/pnas.1120666109](http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1120666109) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1120666109)
- 4. J. P. Beauchamp *et al*., Molecular genetics and economics. *J. Econ. Perspect.* **25**, 57 (2011). [doi:10.1257/jep.25.4.57](http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/jep.25.4.57) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/jep.25.4.57)
- 5. Please see the supplementary materials on *Science* Online.
- 6. D. J. Benjamin *et al*., The promises and pitfalls of genoeconomics. *Annu. Rev. Econ.* **4**, 627 (2012). [doi:10.1146/annurev-economics-080511-110939](http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev-economics-080511-110939) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev-economics-080511-110939)
- 7. R. P. Ebstein, S. Israel, S. H. Chew, S. Zhong, A. Knafo, Genetics of human social behavior. *Neuron* **65**, 831 (2010). [doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2010.02.020](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2010.02.020) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2010.02.020)
- 8. L. E. Duncan, M. C. Keller, A critical review of the first 10 years of candidate gene-byenvironment interaction research in psychiatry. *Am. J. Psychiatry* **168**, 1041 (2011). [doi:10.1176/appi.ajp.2011.11020191](http://dx.doi.org/10.1176/appi.ajp.2011.11020191) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1176/appi.ajp.2011.11020191)
- 9. J. P. Ioannidis, Why most published research findings are false. *PLoS Med.* **2**, e124 (2005). [doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.0020124](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.0020124) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.0020124)
- 10. P. M. Visscher, M. A. Brown, M. I. McCarthy, J. Yang, Five years of GWAS discovery. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **90**, 7 (2012). [doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2011.11.029](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2011.11.029) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2011.11.029)
- 11. J. P. Mackenbach *et al*.; European Union Working Group on Socioeconomic Inequalities in Health, Socioeconomic inequalities in health in 22 European countries. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **358**, 2468 (2008). [doi:10.1056/NEJMsa0707519](http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMsa0707519) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMsa0707519)
- 12. I. J. Deary, S. Strand, P. Smith, C. Fernandes, Intelligence and educational achievement. *Intelligence* **35**, 13 (2007). [doi:10.1016/j.intell.2006.02.001](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.intell.2006.02.001)
- 13. J. J. Heckman, Y. Rubinstein, The importance of noncognitive skills: Lessons from the GED testing program. *Am. Econ. Rev.* **91**, 145 (2001). [doi:10.1257/aer.91.2.145](http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/aer.91.2.145)
- 14. UNESCO Institute for Statistics, *International Standard Classification of Education* (2006).
- 15. H. Lango Allen *et al*., Hundreds of variants clustered in genomic loci and biological pathways affect human height. *Nature* **467**, 832 (2010). [doi:10.1038/nature09410](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature09410) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=20881960&dopt=Abstract)
- 16. J. Yang *et al*.; GIANT Consortium, Genomic inflation factors under polygenic inheritance. *Eur. J. Hum. Genet.* **19**, 807 (2011). [doi:10.1038/ejhg.2011.39](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ejhg.2011.39) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ejhg.2011.39)
- 17. B. Carlstedt, *Cognitive Abilities: Aspects of Structure, Process and Measurement* (Acta Universitatis Gothoburgensis, Göteborg, Sweden, 2000).
- 18. E. K. Speliotes *et al*.; MAGIC; Procardis Consortium, Association analyses of 249,796 individuals reveal 18 new loci associated with body mass index. *Nat. Genet.* **42**, 937 (2010). [doi:10.1038/ng.686](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.686) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.686)
- 19. M. H. de Moor *et al*., Meta-analysis of genome-wide association studies for personality. *Mol. Psychiatry* **17**, 337 (2012). [doi:10.1038/mp.2010.128](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/mp.2010.128) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/mp.2010.128)
- 20. B. Benyamin *et al*.; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2 (WTCCC2), Childhood intelligence is heritable, highly polygenic and associated with FNBP1L. *Mol. Psychiatry* 10.1038/mp.2012.184 (2013). [doi:10.1038/mp.2012.184](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/mp.2012.184) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/mp.2012.184)
- 21. C. Jencks, Heredity, environment, and public policy reconsidered. *Am. Sociol. Rev.* **45**, 723 (1980). [doi:10.2307/2094892](http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2094892) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2094892)
- 22. A. S. Goldberger, Heritability. *Economica* **46**, 327 (1979). [doi:10.2307/2553675](http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2553675)
- 23. B. L. Browning, S. R. Browning, A unified approach to genotype imputation and haplotype-phase inference for large data sets of trios and unrelated individuals. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **84**, 210 (2009). [doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2009.01.005](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2009.01.005) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2009.01.005)
- 24. B. Servin, M. Stephens, Imputation-based analysis of association studies: Candidate regions and quantitative traits. *PLoS Genet.* **3**, e114 (2007). [doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.0030114](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.0030114) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.0030114)
- 25. J. Marchini, B. Howie, S. Myers, G. McVean, P. Donnelly, A new multipoint method for genome-wide association studies by imputation of genotypes. *Nat. Genet.* **39**, 906 (2007). [doi:10.1038/ng2088](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng2088) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng2088)
- 26. Y. Li, C. J. Willer, J. Ding, P. Scheet, G. R. Abecasis, MaCH: Using sequence and genotype data to estimate haplotypes and unobserved genotypes. *Genet. Epidemiol.* **34**, 816 (2010). [doi:10.1002/gepi.20533](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/gepi.20533) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/gepi.20533)
- 27. S. Purcell *et al*., PLINK: A tool set for whole-genome association and population-based linkage analyses. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **81**, 559 (2007). [doi:10.1086/519795](http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/519795) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/519795)
- 28. B. Devlin, K. Roeder, Genomic control for association studies. *Biometrics* **55**, 997 (1999). [doi:10.1111/j.0006-341X.1999.00997.x](http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.0006-341X.1999.00997.x) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.0006-341X.1999.00997.x)
- 29. C. J. Willer, Y. Li, G. R. Abecasis, METAL: Fast and efficient meta-analysis of genomewide association scans. *Bioinformatics* **26**, 2190 (2010). [doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btq340](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btq340) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btq340)
- 30. SCAN, SNP and CNV Annotation Database (2012); www.scandb.org/
- 31. M. L. Freedman *et al*., Assessing the impact of population stratification on genetic association studies. *Nat. Genet.* **36**, 388 (2004). [doi:10.1038/ng1333](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng1333) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng1333)
- 32. P. I. W. de Bakker *et al*., Practical aspects of imputation-driven meta-analysis of genomewide association studies. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **17**, R122 (2008). [doi:10.1093/hmg/ddn288](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/hmg/ddn288) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/hmg/ddn288)
- 33. P. Taubman, Earnings, education, genetics, and environment. *J. Hum. Resour.* **11**, 447 (1976). [doi:10.2307/145426](http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/145426) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/145426)
- 34. A. R. Branigan, K. J. McCallum, J. Freese, Variation in the heritability of educational attainment: An international meta-analysis. *Northwestern University Institute for Policy Research Working Paper.* **13-09** (2013).
- 35. D. Cesarini, *Essays on Genetic Variation and Economic Behavior* (Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 2010).
- 36. P. Lichtenstein *et al*., Environmental and heritable factors in the causation of cancer analyses of cohorts of twins from Sweden, Denmark, and Finland. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **343**, 78 (2000). [doi:10.1056/NEJM200007133430201](http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJM200007133430201) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJM200007133430201)
- 37. E. Turkheimer, Three laws of behavior genetics and what they mean. *Curr. Dir. Psychol. Sci.* **9**, 160 (2000). [doi:10.1111/1467-8721.00084](http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.00084)
- 38. J. Yang *et al*., Common SNPs explain a large proportion of the heritability for human height. *Nat. Genet.* **42**, 565 (2010). [doi:10.1038/ng.608](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.608) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.608)
- 39. C. E. Ross, C. Wu, The links between education and health. *Am. Sociol. Rev.* **60**, 719 (1995). [doi:10.2307/2096319](http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2096319)
- 40. D. M. Cutler, A. Lleras-Muney, in *Making Americans Healthier: Social and Economic Policy as Health Policy*, J. House, R. Schoeni, G. Kaplan, H. Pollack, Eds. (Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 2008).
- 41. W. Johnson *et al*., Does education confer a culture of healthy behavior? Smoking and drinking patterns in Danish twins. *Am. J. Epidemiol.* **173**, 55 (2011). [doi:10.1093/aje/kwq333](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwq333) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwq333)
- 42. W. Johnson *et al*., Education reduces the effects of genetic susceptibilities to poor physical health. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **39**, 406 (2010). [doi:10.1093/ije/dyp314](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyp314) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyp314)
- 43. A. P. Vermeiren *et al*., Do genetic factors contribute to the relation between education and metabolic risk factors in young adults? A twin study. *Eur. J. Public Health* 10.1093/eurpub/cks167 (2012). [doi:10.1093/eurpub/cks167](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/cks167) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/eurpub/cks167)
- 44. A. Lleras-Muney, The relationship between education and adult mortality in the United States. *Rev. Econ. Stat.* **72**, 189 (2005). [doi:10.1111/0034-6527.00329](http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/0034-6527.00329)
- 45. A. C. J. Lager, J. Torssander, Causal effect of education on mortality in a quasiexperiment on 1.2 million Swedes. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **109**, 8461 (2012). [doi:10.1073/pnas.1105839109](http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1105839109) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1105839109)
- 46. J. N. Arendt, Does education cause better health? A panel data analysis using school reforms for identification. *Econ. Educ. Rev.* **24**, 149 (2005). [doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2004.04.008](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2004.04.008)
- 47. T. Illig *et al*., A genome-wide perspective of genetic variation in human metabolism. *Nat. Genet.* **42**, 137 (2010). [doi:10.1038/ng.507](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.507) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.507)
- 48. J. Z. Liu *et al*.; AMFS Investigators, A versatile gene-based test for genome-wide association studies. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **87**, 139 (2010). [doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2010.06.009](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2010.06.009) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2010.06.009)
- 49. S. H. Lee, J. Yang, M. E. Goddard, P. M. Visscher, N. R. Wray, Estimation of pleiotropy between complex diseases using using single-nucleotide polymorphism-derived genomic relationships and restricted maximum likelihood. *Bioinformatics* **28**, 2540 (2012). [doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bts474](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bts474)
- 50. G. Trynka *et al*., Chromatin marks identify critical cell types for fine mapping complex trait variants. *Nat. Genet.* **45**, 124 (2013). [doi:10.1038/ng.2504](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.2504) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.2504)
- 51. A. Cvejic *et al*., SMIM1 underlies the Vel blood group and influences red blood cell traits. *Nat. Genet.* **45**, 542 (2013). [doi:10.1038/ng.2603](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.2603) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.2603)
- 52. L. C. Andreae, A. Lumsden, J. D. Gilthorpe, Chick Lrrn2, a novel downstream effector of Hoxb1 and Shh, functions in the selective targeting of rhombomere 4 motor neurons. *Neural Dev.* **4**, 27 (2009). [doi:10.1186/1749-8104-4-27](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1749-8104-4-27) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1749-8104-4-27)
- 53. E. L. Heinzen *et al*., Tissue-specific genetic control of splicing: Implications for the study of complex traits. *PLoS Biol.* **6**, e1 (2008). [doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.1000001](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000001) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1000001)
- 54. J. A. Webster *et al*.; NACC-Neuropathology Group, Genetic control of human brain transcript expression in Alzheimer disease. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **84**, 445 (2009). [doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2009.03.011](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2009.03.011) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2009.03.011)
- 55. R. S. N. Fehrmann *et al*., Trans-eQTLs reveal that independent genetic variants associated with a complex phenotype converge on intermediate genes, with a major role for the HLA. *PLoS Genet.* **7**, e1002197 (2011). [doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1002197](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1002197) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1002197)
- 56. M. Nelis *et al*., Genetic structure of Europeans: A view from the North-East. *PLoS ONE* **4**, e5472 (2009). [doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0005472](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0005472) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0005472)
- 57. H. J. Westra *et al*., MixupMapper: Correcting sample mix-ups in genome-wide datasets increases power to detect small genetic effects. *Bioinformatics* **27**, 2104 (2011). [doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btr323](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btr323) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btr323)
- 58. P. H. Lee, C. O'Dushlaine, B. Thomas, S. M. Purcell, INRICH: Interval-based enrichment analysis for genome-wide association studies. *Bioinformatics* **28**, 1797 (2012). [doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bts191](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bts191) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bts191)
- 59. M. Ashburner *et al*.; The Gene Ontology Consortium, Gene ontology: Tool for the unification of biology. *Nat. Genet.* **25**, 25 (2000). [doi:10.1038/75556](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/75556) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/75556)
- 60. C. M. Koch *et al*., The landscape of histone modifications across 1% of the human genome in five human cell lines. *Genome Res.* **17**, 691 (2007). [doi:10.1101/gr.5704207](http://dx.doi.org/10.1101/gr.5704207) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1101/gr.5704207)
- 61. A. C. Need *et al*., A genome-wide study of common SNPs and CNVs in cognitive performance in the CANTAB. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **18**, 4650 (2009). [doi:10.1093/hmg/ddp413](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/hmg/ddp413) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/hmg/ddp413)
- 62. M. W. Logue *et al*.; Multi-Institutional Research on Alzheimer Genetic Epidemiology (MIRAGE) Study Group, A comprehensive genetic association study of Alzheimer disease in African Americans. *Arch. Neurol.* **68**, 1569 (2011). [doi:10.1001/archneurol.2011.646](http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/archneurol.2011.646) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/archneurol.2011.646)
- 63. J. Burroughs-Garcia, V. Sittaramane, A. Chandrasekhar, S. T. Waters, Evolutionarily conserved function of Gbx2 in anterior hindbrain development. *Dev. Dyn.* **240**, 828 (2011). [doi:10.1002/dvdy.22589](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/dvdy.22589) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/dvdy.22589)
- 64. K. M. Wassarman *et al*., Specification of the anterior hindbrain and establishment of a normal mid/hindbrain organizer is dependent on Gbx2 gene function. *Development* **124**, 2923 (1997). [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=9247335&dopt=Abstract)
- 65. L. Chen, M. Chatterjee, J. Y. Li, The mouse homeobox gene Gbx2 is required for the development of cholinergic interneurons in the striatum. *J. Neurosci.* **30**, 14824 (2010). [doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3742-10.2010](http://dx.doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3742-10.2010) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3742-10.2010)
- 66. M. Muers, Complex disease: Ups and downs at the MHC. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* **12**, 456 (2011). [doi:10.1038/nrg3021](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nrg3021) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nrg3021)
- 67. D. Migliorini *et al*., Mdm4 (Mdmx) regulates p53-induced growth arrest and neuronal cell death during early embryonic mouse development. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **22**, 5527 (2002). [doi:10.1128/MCB.22.15.5527-5538.2002](http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/MCB.22.15.5527-5538.2002) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/MCB.22.15.5527-5538.2002)
- 68. J. A. Grahn, J. A. Parkinson, A. M. Owen, The cognitive functions of the caudate nucleus. *Prog. Neurobiol.* **86**, 141 (2008). [doi:10.1016/j.pneurobio.2008.09.004](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pneurobio.2008.09.004) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=18824075&dopt=Abstract)
- 69. W. D. Altrock *et al*., Functional inactivation of a fraction of excitatory synapses in mice deficient for the active zone protein bassoon. *Neuron* **37**, 787 (2003). [doi:10.1016/S0896-6273\(03\)00088-6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273(03)00088-6) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273(03)00088-6)
- 70. P. R. Burton *et al*.; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium, Genome-wide association study of 14,000 cases of seven common diseases and 3,000 shared controls. *Nature* **447**, 661 (2007). [doi:10.1038/nature05911](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature05911) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature05911)
- 71. M. Parkes *et al*.; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium, Sequence variants in the autophagy gene IRGM and multiple other replicating loci contribute to Crohn's disease susceptibility. *Nat. Genet.* **39**, 830 (2007). [doi:10.1038/ng2061](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng2061) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng2061)
- 72. J. C. Barrett *et al*.; UK IBD Genetics Consortium; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2, Genome-wide association study of ulcerative colitis identifies three new susceptibility loci, including the HNF4A region. *Nat. Genet.* **41**, 1330 (2009). [doi:10.1038/ng.483](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.483) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.483)
- 73. A. Franke *et al*., Genome-wide meta-analysis increases to 71 the number of confirmed Crohn's disease susceptibility loci. *Nat. Genet.* **42**, 1118 (2010). [doi:10.1038/ng.717](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.717) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=21102463&dopt=Abstract)
- 74. J. C. Barrett *et al*.; NIDDK IBD Genetics Consortium; Belgian-French IBD Consortium; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium, Genome-wide association defines more than 30 distinct susceptibility loci for Crohn's disease. *Nat. Genet.* **40**, 955 (2008). [doi:10.1038/ng.175](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.175) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.175)
- 75. L. Jostins *et al*.; International IBD Genetics Consortium (IIBDGC), Host-microbe interactions have shaped the genetic architecture of inflammatory bowel disease. *Nature* **491**, 119 (2012). [doi:10.1038/nature11582](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature11582) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature11582)
- 76. D. P. McGovern *et al*.; NIDDK IBD Genetics Consortium, Genome-wide association identifies multiple ulcerative colitis susceptibility loci. *Nat. Genet.* **42**, 332 (2010). [doi:10.1038/ng.549](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.549) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.549)
- 77. C. A. Anderson *et al*., Meta-analysis identifies 29 additional ulcerative colitis risk loci, increasing the number of confirmed associations to 47. *Nat. Genet.* **43**, 246 (2011). [doi:10.1038/ng.764](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.764) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.764)
- 78. M. Imielinski *et al*.; Western Regional Alliance for Pediatric IBD; International IBD Genetics Consortium; NIDDK IBD Genetics Consortium; Belgian-French IBD Consortium; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium, Common variants at five new loci associated with early-onset inflammatory bowel disease. *Nat. Genet.* **41**, 1335 (2009). [doi:10.1038/ng.489](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.489) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.489)
- 79. E. A. Stahl *et al*.; BIRAC Consortium; YEAR Consortium, Genome-wide association study meta-analysis identifies seven new rheumatoid arthritis risk loci. *Nat. Genet.* **42**, 508 (2010). [doi:10.1038/ng.582](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.582) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.582)
- 80. A. Ferguson, D. M. Sedgwick, J. Drummond, Morbidity of juvenile onset inflammatory bowel disease: Effects on education and employment in early adult life. *Gut* **35**, 665 (1994). [doi:10.1136/gut.35.5.665](http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/gut.35.5.665) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/gut.35.5.665)
- 81. L. M. Mackner, D. P. Sisson, W. V. Crandall, Review: Psychosocial issues in pediatric inflammatory bowel disease. *J. Pediatr. Psychol.* **29**, 243 (2004). [doi:10.1093/jpepsy/jsh027](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jpepsy/jsh027) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jpepsy/jsh027)
- 82. K. A. Frazer *et al*.; International HapMap Consortium, A second generation human haplotype map of over 3.1 million SNPs. *Nature* **449**, 851 (2007). [doi:10.1038/nature06258](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature06258) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature06258)
- 83. J. Yang *et al*.; Genetic Investigation of ANthropometric Traits (GIANT) Consortium; DIAbetes Genetics Replication And Meta-analysis (DIAGRAM) Consortium, Conditional and joint multiple-SNP analysis of GWAS summary statistics identifies additional variants influencing complex traits. *Nat. Genet.* **44**, 369, S1 (2012). [doi:10.1038/ng.2213](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.2213) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.2213)
- 84. J. Yang, S. H. Lee, M. E. Goddard, P. M. Visscher, GCTA: A tool for genome-wide complex trait analysis. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **88**, 76 (2011). [doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2010.11.011](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2010.11.011) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2010.11.011)
- 85. H. D. Daetwyler, B. Villanueva, J. A. Woolliams, Accuracy of predicting the genetic risk of disease using a genome-wide approach. *PLoS ONE* **3**, e3395 (2008). [doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0003395](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0003395) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0003395)
- 86. B. J. Hayes, P. M. Visscher, M. E. Goddard, Increased accuracy of artificial selection by using the realized relationship matrix. *Genet. Res.* **91**, 47 (2009). [doi:10.1017/S0016672308009981](http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0016672308009981) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0016672308009981)
- 87. M. E. Goddard, N. R. Wray, K. Verbyla, P. M. Visscher, Estimating effects and making predictions from genome-wide marker data. *Stat. Sci.* **24**, 517 (2009). [doi:10.1214/09-](http://dx.doi.org/10.1214/09-STS306) [STS306](http://dx.doi.org/10.1214/09-STS306)
- 88. P. M. Visscher, J. Yang, M. E. Goddard, A commentary on 'common SNPs explain a large proportion of the heritability for human height' by Yang et al. (2010). *Twin Res. Hum. Genet.* **13**, 517 (2010). [doi:10.1375/twin.13.6.517](http://dx.doi.org/10.1375/twin.13.6.517) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1375/twin.13.6.517)
- 89. R. G. Fryer, Financial incentives and student achievement: Evidence from randomized trials. *Q. J. Econ.* **126**, 1755 (2011). [doi:10.1093/qje/qjr045](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/qje/qjr045)
- 90. J. Heckman, S. H. Moon, R. Pinto, P. Savelyev, A. Yavitz, Analyzing social experiments as implemented: A reexamination of the evidence from the HighScope Perry Preschool Program. *Quant. Econ.* **1**, 1 (2010). [doi:10.3982/QE8](http://dx.doi.org/10.3982/QE8) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.3982/QE8)
- 91. J. Eckenrode *et al*., Long-term effects of prenatal and infancy nurse home visitation on the life course of youths: 19-year follow-up of a randomized trial. *Arch. Pediatr. Adolesc. Med.* **164**, 9 (2010). [doi:10.1001/archpediatrics.2009.240](http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/archpediatrics.2009.240) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/archpediatrics.2009.240)
- 92. L. N. Masse, W. S. Barnett, A benefit-cost analysis of the Abecedarian early childhood intervention. *Cost-Effectiveness and Educational Policy, Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education, Inc.*, 157-173 (2002).
- 93. J. J. Heckman, S. H. Moon, R. Pinto, P. A. Savelyev, A. Yavitz, The rate of return to the HighScope Perry Preschool Program. *J. Public Econ.* **94**, 114 (2010). [doi:10.1016/j.jpubeco.2009.11.001](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jpubeco.2009.11.001) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jpubeco.2009.11.001)
- 94. T. B. Harris *et al*., Age, Gene/Environment Susceptibility–Reykjavik Study: Multidisciplinary applied phenomics. *Am. J. Epidemiol.* **165**, 1076 (2007). [doi:10.1093/aje/kwk115](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwk115) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwk115)
- 95. A. Fraser *et al*., Cohort profile: The Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children: ALSPAC mothers cohort. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **42**, 97 (2012). 10.1093/ije/dys06[6](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=22507742&dopt=Abstract) **[Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=22507742&dopt=Abstract)**
- 96. R. Schmidt *et al*., Assessment of cerebrovascular risk profiles in healthy persons: Definition of research goals and the Austrian Stroke Prevention Study (ASPS). *Neuroepidemiology* **13**, 308 (1994). [doi:10.1159/000110396](http://dx.doi.org/10.1159/000110396) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1159/000110396)
- 97. R. Schmidt, F. Fazekas, P. Kapeller, H. Schmidt, H. P. Hartung, MRI white matter hyperintensities: Three-year follow-up of the Austrian Stroke Prevention Study. *Neurology* **53**, 132 (1999). [doi:10.1212/WNL.53.1.132](http://dx.doi.org/10.1212/WNL.53.1.132) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1212/WNL.53.1.132)
- 98. N. W. Shock *et al*., Normal human aging: The Baltimore Longitudinal Study of Aging. *NIH Publication* **84-2450** (1984).
- 99. K. Einarsdóttir *et al*., Linkage disequilibrium mapping of *CHEK2*: Common variation and breast cancer risk. *PLoS Med.* **3**, e168 (2006). [doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.0030168](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.0030168) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=16671833&dopt=Abstract)
- 100. E. T. Chang, M. Hedelin, H. O. Adami, H. Grönberg, K. A. Bälter, Alcohol drinking and risk of localized versus advanced and sporadic versus familial prostate cancer in Sweden. *Cancer Causes Control* **16**, 275 (2005). [doi:10.1007/s10552-004-3364-2](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10552-004-3364-2) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=15947879&dopt=Abstract)
- 101. M. Hedelin *et al*., Dietary phytoestrogen, serum enterolactone and risk of prostate cancer: The cancer prostate Sweden study (Sweden). *Cancer Causes Control* **17**, 169 (2006). [doi:10.1007/s10552-005-0342-2](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10552-005-0342-2) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10552-005-0342-2)
- 102. F. Lindmark *et al*., H6D polymorphism in macrophage-inhibitory cytokine-1 gene associated with prostate cancer. *J. Natl. Cancer Inst.* **96**, 1248 (2004). [doi:10.1093/jnci/djh227](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djh227) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djh227)
- 103. M. Firmann *et al*., The CoLaus study: A population-based study to investigate the epidemiology and genetic determinants of cardiovascular risk factors and metabolic syndrome. *BMC Cardiovasc. Disord.* **8**, 6 (2008). [doi:10.1186/1471-2261-8-6](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2261-8-6) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=18366642&dopt=Abstract)
- 104. I. Rudan *et al*., "10001 Dalmatians:" Croatia launches its national biobank. *Croat. Med. J.* **50**, 4 (2009). [doi:10.3325/cmj.2009.50.4](http://dx.doi.org/10.3325/cmj.2009.50.4) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.3325/cmj.2009.50.4)
- 105. G. B. Ehret *et al*.; International Consortium for Blood Pressure Genome-Wide Association Studies; CARDIoGRAM consortium; CKDGen Consortium; KidneyGen Consortium; EchoGen consortium; CHARGE-HF consortium, Genetic variants in novel pathways influence blood pressure and cardiovascular disease risk. *Nature* **478**, 103 (2011). [doi:10.1038/nature10405](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature10405) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature10405)
- 106. K. Sleegers *et al*., Cerebrovascular risk factors do not contribute to genetic variance of cognitive function: The ERF study. *Neurobiol. Aging* **28**, 735 (2007). [doi:10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2006.03.012](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2006.03.012) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2006.03.012)
- 107. F. A. Sayed-Tabatabaei *et al*., Heritability of the function and structure of the arterial wall: Findings of the Erasmus Rucphen Family (ERF) study. *Stroke* **36**, 2351 (2005). [doi:10.1161/01.STR.0000185719.66735.dd](http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/01.STR.0000185719.66735.dd) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/01.STR.0000185719.66735.dd)
- 108. E. Vartiainen *et al*., Thirty-five-year trends in cardiovascular risk factors in Finland. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **39**, 504 (2010). [doi:10.1093/ije/dyp330](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyp330) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyp330)
- 109. J. Kaprio, L. Pulkkinen, R. J. Rose, Genetic and environmental factors in health-related behaviors: Studies on Finnish twins and twin families. *Twin Res.* **5**, 366 (2002)[.](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=12537860&dopt=Abstract) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=12537860&dopt=Abstract)
- 110. S. M. Purcell *et al*.; International Schizophrenia Consortium, Common polygenic variation contributes to risk of schizophrenia and bipolar disorder. *Nature* **460**, 748 (2009). [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=19571811&dopt=Abstract)
- 111. FBPP Investigators, Multi-center genetic study of hypertension: The Family Blood Pressure Program (FBPP). *Hypertension* **39**, 3 (2002). [doi:10.1161/hy1201.100415](http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/hy1201.100415) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=11799070&dopt=Abstract)
- 112. T. B. Harris *et al*., Waist circumference and sagittal diameter reflect total body fat better than visceral fat in older men and women. The Health, Aging and Body Composition Study. *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci.* **904**, 462 (2000). [doi:10.1111/j.1749-](http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-6632.2000.tb06501.x) [6632.2000.tb06501.x](http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-6632.2000.tb06501.x) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=10865790&dopt=Abstract)
- 113. D. J. P. Barker, C. Osmond, T. J. Forsén, E. Kajantie, J. G. Eriksson, Trajectories of growth among children who have coronary events as adults. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **353**, 1802 (2005). [doi:10.1056/NEJMoa044160](http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa044160) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa044160)
- 114. L. Ferrucci *et al*., Subsystems contributing to the decline in ability to walk: bridging the gap between epidemiology and geriatric practice in the InCHIANTI study. *J. Am. Geriatr. Soc.* **48**, 1618 (2000). [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=11129752&dopt=Abstract)
- 115. H.-E. Wichmann, C. Gieger, R. Illig; MONICA/KORA Study Group, KORA-gen Resource for population genetics, controls and a broad specturm of disease phenotypes. *Gesundheitswesen* **67**, 26 (2005). [doi:10.1055/s-2005-858226](http://dx.doi.org/10.1055/s-2005-858226) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1055/s-2005-858226)
- 116. R. P. Stolk *et al*., Universal risk factors for multifactorial diseases. LifeLines: A threegeneration population-based study. *Eur. J. Epidemiol.* **23**, 67 (2008). [doi:10.1007/s10654-007-9204-4](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-007-9204-4) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-007-9204-4)
- 117. I. J. Deary, M. C. Whiteman, J. M. Starr, L. J. Whalley, H. C. Fox, The impact of childhood intelligence on later life: following up the Scottish mental surveys of 1932 and 1947. *J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.* **86**, 130 (2004). [doi:10.1037/0022-3514.86.1.130](http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.86.1.130) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=14717632&dopt=Abstract)
- 118. I. J. Deary *et al*., The Lothian Birth Cohort 1936: A study to examine influences on cognitive ageing from age 11 to age 70 and beyond. *BMC Geriatr.* **7**, 28 (2007). [doi:10.1186/1471-2318-7-28](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2318-7-28) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2318-7-28)
- 119. P. Magnus *et al*.; MoBa Study Group, Cohort profile: The Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study (MoBa). *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **35**, 1146 (2006). [doi:10.1093/ije/dyl170](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyl170) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=16926217&dopt=Abstract)
- 120. L. M. Irgens, The Medical Birth Registry of Norway. Epidemiological research and surveillance throughout 30 years. *Acta Obstet. Gynecol. Scand.* **79**, 435 (2000). [doi:10.1080/j.1600-0412.2000.079006435.x](http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/j.1600-0412.2000.079006435.x) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/j.1600-0412.2000.079006435.x)
- 121. B. W. J. H. Penninx *et al*.; NESDA Research Consortium, The Netherlands Study of Depression and Anxiety (NESDA): Rationale, objectives and methods. *Int. J. Methods Psychiatr. Res.* **17**, 121 (2008). [doi:10.1002/mpr.256](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/mpr.256) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/mpr.256)
- 122. P. Rantakallio, Groups at risk in low birth weight infants and perinatal mortality. *Acta Paediatr. Scand.* **193** (suppl.), 193, 1 (1969). [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=4911003&dopt=Abstract)
- 123. C. Sabatti *et al*., Genome-wide association analysis of metabolic traits in a birth cohort from a founder population. *Nat. Genet.* **41**, 35 (2009). [doi:10.1038/ng.271](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.271) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.271)
- 124. N. W. Martin *et al*., Educational attainment: A genome wide association study in 9538 Australians. *PLoS ONE* **6**, e20128 (2011). [doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0020128](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0020128) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0020128)
- 125. K. Estrada *et al*., GRIMP: A web- and grid-based tool for high-speed analysis of largescale genome-wide association using imputed data. *Bioinformatics* **25**, 2750 (2009). [doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btp497](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp497) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp497)
- 126. A. Hofman *et al*., The Rotterdam Study: 2012 objectives and design update. *Eur. J. Epidemiol.* **26**, 657 (2011). [doi:10.1007/s10654-011-9610-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-011-9610-5) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10654-011-9610-5)
- 127. D. A. Bennett *et al*., Overview and findings from the rush Memory and Aging Project. *Curr. Alzheimer Res.* **9**, 646 (2012). [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=22471867&dopt=Abstract)
- 128. L. J. Bierut *et al*.; Gene, Environment Association Studies Consortium, A genome-wide association study of alcohol dependence. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **107**, 5082 (2010). [doi:10.1073/pnas.0911109107](http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0911109107) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0911109107)
- 129. G. Pilia *et al*., Heritability of cardiovascular and personality traits in 6,148 Sardinians. *PLoS Genet.* **2**, e132 (2006). [doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.0020132](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.0020132) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.0020132)
- 130. H. Völzke *et al*., Cohort profile: The study of health in Pomerania. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **40**, 294 (2011). [doi:10.1093/ije/dyp394](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyp394) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyp394)
- 131. P. K. E. Magnusson *et al*., The Swedish Twin Registry: Establishment of a biobank and other recent developments. *Twin Res. Hum. Genet.* **16**, 317 (2013). [doi:10.1017/thg.2012.104](http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/thg.2012.104) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/thg.2012.104)
- 132. A. Moayyeri, C. J. Hammond, A. M. Valdes, T. D. Spector, Cohort profile: TwinsUK and Healthy Ageing Twin Study. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **42**, 76 (2013). [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=22253318&dopt=Abstract)
- 133. O. T. Raitakari *et al*., Cohort profile: The cardiovascular risk in Young Finns Study. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **37**, 1220 (2008). [doi:10.1093/ije/dym225](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dym225) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dym225)
- 134. V. Pfaffenrath *et al*., Regional variations in the prevalence of migraine and tension-type headache applying the new IHS criteria: The German DMKG Headache Study. *Cephalalgia* **29**, 48 (2009). [doi:10.1111/j.1468-2982.2008.01699.x](http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2982.2008.01699.x) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2982.2008.01699.x)
- 135. M. M. Vennemann, T. Hummel, K. Berger, The association between smoking and smell and taste impairment in the general population. *J. Neurol.* **255**, 1121 (2008). [doi:10.1007/s00415-008-0807-9](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00415-008-0807-9) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00415-008-0807-9)
- 136. A. Aromaa, Health and functional capacity in Finland: Baseline results of the Health 2000 health examination survey. *Kansanterveyslaitos Folkhälsoinstitutet National Public Health Institute Kansanterveyslaitoksen Julkaisuja B12.* (2004).
- 137. M. McEvoy *et al*., Cohort profile: The Hunter Community Study. *Int. J. Epidemiol.* **39**, 1452 (2010). [doi:10.1093/ije/dyp343](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyp343) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyp343)
- 138. D. Weir, in *Biosocial Surveys*, Committee on Advances in Collecting and Utilizing Biological Indicators and Genetic Information in Social Science Surveys, M. Weinstein, J. W. Vaupel, K. W. Wachter, Eds. (2007), pp. 78, chap. 4.
- 139. M. B. Miller *et al*., The Minnesota Center for Twin and Family Research genome-wide association study. *Twin Res. Hum. Genet.* **15**, 767 (2012). [doi:10.1017/thg.2012.62](http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/thg.2012.62) **[Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=23363460&dopt=Abstract)**
- 140. J. H. Lee, R. Cheng, N. Graff-Radford, T. Foroud, R. Mayeux; National Institute on Aging Late-Onset Alzheimer's Disease Family Study Group, Analyses of the National Institute on Aging late-onset Alzheimer's disease family study: Implication of additional loci. *Arch. Neurol.* **65**, 1518 (2008). [doi:10.1001/archneur.65.11.1518](http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/archneur.65.11.1518) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=19001172&dopt=Abstract)
- 141. D. I. Boomsma *et al*., Netherlands Twin Register: From twins to twin families. *Twin Res. Hum. Genet.* **9**, 849 (2006). [doi:10.1375/twin.9.6.849](http://dx.doi.org/10.1375/twin.9.6.849) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1375/twin.9.6.849)
- 142. R. McQuillan *et al*., Runs of homozygosity in European populations. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **83**, 359 (2008). [doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2008.08.007](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2008.08.007) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2008.08.007)
- 143. E. V. Theodoraki *et al*., Fibrinogen beta variants confer protection against coronary artery disease in a Greek case-control study. *BMC Med. Genet.* **11**, 28 (2010). [doi:10.1186/1471-2350-11-28](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2350-11-28) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2350-11-28)
- 144. S. Mukherjee *et al*., Cohort profile: The Western Australian Sleep Health Study. *Sleep Breath.* **16**, 205 (2012). [doi:10.1007/s11325-011-0491-3](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11325-011-0491-3) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11325-011-0491-3)
- 145. L. A. Baker, S. A. Treloar, C. A. Reynolds, A. C. Heath, N. G. Martin, Genetics of educational attainment in Australian twins: Sex differences and secular changes. *Behav. Genet.* **26**, 89 (1996). [doi:10.1007/BF02359887](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF02359887) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF02359887)
- 146. P. Miller, C. Mulvey, N. Martin, The return to schooling: Estimates from a sample of young Australian twins. *Labour Econ.* **13**, 571 (2006). [doi:10.1016/j.labeco.2004.10.008](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2004.10.008)
- 147. K. Silventoinen, R. F. Krueger, T. J. Bouchard Jr., J. Kaprio, M. McGue, Heritability of body height and educational attainment in an international context: Comparison of adult twins in Minnesota and Finland. *Am. J. Hum. Biol.* **16**, 544 (2004). [doi:10.1002/ajhb.20060](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ajhb.20060) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ajhb.20060)
- 148. A. C. Heath *et al*., Education policy and the heritability of educational attainment. *Nature* **314**, 734 (1985). [doi:10.1038/314734a0](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/314734a0) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/314734a0)
- 149. G. Isacsson, Estimating the economic return to educational levels using data on twins. *J. Appl. Econ.* **19**, 99 (2004). [doi:10.1002/jae.724](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jae.724)
- 150. P. Taubman, The determinants of earnings: Genetics, family, and other environments: A study of white male twins. *Am. Econ. Rev.* **66**, 858 (1976).
- 151. D. T. Lykken, T. J. Bouchard Jr., M. McGue, A. Tellegen, The Minnesota Twin Family Registry: Some initial findings. *Acta Genet. Med. Gemellol. (Roma)* **39**, 35 (1990)[.](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=2392892&dopt=Abstract) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=2392892&dopt=Abstract)
- 152. J. R. Behrman, P. Taubman, T. Wales, in Kinometrics: Determinants of Socioeconomic Success Within and Between Families (North-Holland Publishing Company, New York, 1977), pp. 35.
- 153. M. Soler Artigas *et al*.; GIANT consortium, Genome-wide association and large-scale follow up identifies 16 new loci influencing lung function. *Nat. Genet.* **43**, 1082 (2011). [doi:10.1038/ng.941](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.941) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.941)
- 154. T. Thye *et al*.; African TB Genetics Consortium; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium, Genome-wide association analyses identifies a susceptibility locus for tuberculosis on chromosome 18q11.2. *Nat. Genet.* **42**, 739 (2010). [doi:10.1038/ng.639](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.639) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=20694014&dopt=Abstract)
- 155. J. R. Shaffer *et al*., GWAS of dental caries patterns in the permanent dentition. *J. Dent. Res.* **92**, 38 (2013). [doi:10.1177/0022034512463579](http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022034512463579) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022034512463579)
- 156. R. A. Eeles *et al*.; UK Genetic Prostate Cancer Study Collaborators/British Association of Urological Surgeons' Section of Oncology; UK ProtecT Study Collaborators; PRACTICAL Consortium, Identification of seven new prostate cancer susceptibility

loci through a genome-wide association study. *Nat. Genet.* **41**, 1116 (2009). [doi:10.1038/ng.450](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.450) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.450)

- 157. N. M. Pajewski *et al*., A genome-wide association study of host genetic determinants of the antibody response to Anthrax Vaccine Adsorbed. *Vaccine* **30**, 4778 (2012). [doi:10.1016/j.vaccine.2012.05.032](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2012.05.032) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.vaccine.2012.05.032)
- 158. N. Sandholm *et al*.; DCCT/EDIC Research Group, New susceptibility loci associated with kidney disease in type 1 diabetes. *PLoS Genet.* **8**, e1002921 (2012). [doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1002921](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1002921) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1002921)
- 159. B. Benyamin *et al*., Variants in *TF* and *HFE* explain ~40% of genetic variation in serum-transferrin levels. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **84**, 60 (2009). [doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2008.11.011](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2008.11.011) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2008.11.011)
- 160. R. Qayyum *et al*., A meta-analysis and genome-wide association study of platelet count and mean platelet volume in african americans. *PLoS Genet.* **8**, e1002491 (2012). [doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1002491](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1002491) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1002491)
- 161. C. Gieger *et al*., New gene functions in megakaryopoiesis and platelet formation. *Nature* **480**, 201 (2011). [doi:10.1038/nature10659](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature10659) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature10659)
- 162. C. S. Fox *et al*.; GIANT Consortium; MAGIC Consortium; GLGC Consortium, Genome-wide association for abdominal subcutaneous and visceral adipose reveals a novel locus for visceral fat in women. *PLoS Genet.* **8**, e1002695 (2012). [doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1002695](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1002695) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1002695)
- 163. M. Kolz *et al*.; EUROSPAN Consortium; ENGAGE Consortium; PROCARDIS Consortium; KORA Study; WTCCC, Meta-analysis of 28,141 individuals identifies common variants within five new loci that influence uric acid concentrations. *PLoS Genet.* **5**, e1000504 (2009). [doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1000504](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1000504) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1000504)
- 164. M. Man *et al*., Beyond single-marker analyses: Mining whole genome scans for insights into treatment responses in severe sepsis. *Pharmacogenomics J.* **13**, 218 (2012)[.](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=22310353&dopt=Abstract) **[Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=22310353&dopt=Abstract)**
- 165. J. E. Landers *et al*., Reduced expression of the Kinesin-Associated Protein 3 (KIFAP3) gene increases survival in sporadic amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **106**, 9004 (2009). [doi:10.1073/pnas.0812937106](http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0812937106) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0812937106)
- 166. C. Cotsapas *et al*.; GIANT Consortium, Common body mass index-associated variants confer risk of extreme obesity. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **18**, 3502 (2009). [doi:10.1093/hmg/ddp292](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/hmg/ddp292) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/hmg/ddp292)
- 167. K. Nakabayashi *et al*., Identification of independent risk loci for Graves' disease within the MHC in the Japanese population. *J. Hum. Genet.* **56**, 772 (2011). [doi:10.1038/jhg.2011.99](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/jhg.2011.99) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/jhg.2011.99)
- 168. B. Kestenbaum *et al*., Common genetic variants associate with serum phosphorus concentration. *J. Am. Soc. Nephrol.* **21**, 1223 (2010). [doi:10.1681/ASN.2009111104](http://dx.doi.org/10.1681/ASN.2009111104) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=20558539&dopt=Abstract)
- 169. M. J. Barber *et al*., Genome-wide association of lipid-lowering response to statins in combined study populations. *PLoS ONE* **5**, e9763 (2010). [doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0009763](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0009763) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0009763)
- 170. A. I. Yashin, D. Wu, K. G. Arbeev, S. V. Ukraintseva, Joint influence of small-effect genetic variants on human longevity. *Aging* **2**, 612 (2010). [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=20834067&dopt=Abstract)
- 171. G. Thorleifsson *et al*., Genome-wide association yields new sequence variants at seven loci that associate with measures of obesity. *Nat. Genet.* **41**, 18 (2009). [doi:10.1038/ng.274](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.274) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.274)
- 172. C. J. Willer *et al*.; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium; Genetic Investigation of ANthropometric Traits Consortium, Six new loci associated with body mass index highlight a neuronal influence on body weight regulation. *Nat. Genet.* **41**, 25 (2009). [doi:10.1038/ng.287](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.287) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.287)
- 173. E. Melum *et al*., Genome-wide association analysis in primary sclerosing cholangitis identifies two non-HLA susceptibility loci. *Nat. Genet.* **43**, 17 (2011). [doi:10.1038/ng.728](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.728) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/ng.728)
- 174. J. M. Robins, S. Greenland, Identifiability and exchangeability for direct and indirect effects. *Epidemiology* **3**, 143 (1992). [doi:10.1097/00001648-199203000-00013](http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/00001648-199203000-00013) [Medline](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&list_uids=1576220&dopt=Abstract)
- 175. M. J. H. M. van der Loos *et al*., The molecular genetic architecture of self-employment. *PLoS ONE* **8**, e60542 (2013). [doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0060542](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0060542) [Medline](http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0060542)