# GenNet framework: interpretable deep learning for predicting phenotypes from genetic data

Supplementary Information

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#### <span id="page-2-0"></span>**Supplementary Method 1. Simulations**

#### <span id="page-2-1"></span>**1.1 Proof of concept**

This experiment is easily reproduced by running: *<https://tinyurl.com/y8hh8rul>*\_online<sup>1</sup>. The first experiment is a simple experiment designed to show the working principle and how to interpret the results. 200 SNPs are simulated by drawing from a binomial distribution. These SNPs are assigned to 10 genes. The first 5 are set to be causal for our phenotype while the last 5 function as controls. The sizes of the genes are varied to observe the effects of different sizes on the importance, for every causal gene there is a control gene with the same size. (Gene sizes  $=$ [50, 30, 10, 5, 5, 50, 30, 10, 5, 5]. The training, validation and test set consist of 10000, 2000 and 2000 subjects respectively (50 % cases vs 50% controls). To ensure equal importance of the genes (even with different gene size) only 1 SNP per gene is set to be causal. Therefore, there are 5 different subtypes of the disease each subtype prevalent in 1/5th of the simulated population.

This is a relatively simple problem and the neural network performs as expected with a near perfect score (AUC of 0.99) in the test set. It can be seen in figure 1 that the network identifies the first five genes to be causal and the last five control genes to be of insignificant importance. Inspection of the weights between SNPs and genes identifies the causal SNPs without any unambiguity for all causal genes. The direction of effect is easily derived by the sign of the weights. Subtypes of the simulated phenotype can be distinguished by activation patterns.



*Supplementary Figure 1: A simple, non-linear proof of concept. In this simulation, each gene in the causal region has two causal SNPs that cause the simulated disease. The magnitude of the learned weight is represented by the line thickness (contributing causal connections in red, noncontributing control connections in grey). The right side shows how this converts to a sunburst plot.*

#### <span id="page-3-0"></span>**1.2 Synthetic data**

In this simulation the performance of the network is evaluated when heritability, polygenicity and training set sample size are varied. 100,000 SNPs are simulated for N subjects by drawing from a binomial distribution ( $n=2$ ,  $p=0.3$ ). Causal SNPs are selected randomly and assigned equal effect size. The number of causal SNPs is controlled by the polygenicity variable. Liability is calculated according to: *Liability* =  $\sqrt[2]{h^2g} + q\sqrt[2]{1-h^2}$  with  $h^2$  as heritability, g as genomic risk (effect size multiplied by genotype matrix) and with  $q$  as random noise.

Phenotype is based on a liability-threshold model with the threshold half a standard deviation above the mean liability.



*Supplementary Figure 2: Simulations with synthetic data showing the performance of GenNet expressed in the area under the curve for increasing levels of heritability, training set size and the number of causal SNPs (polygenicity). In total 540 simulations have been run with each 100,000 input variants In black the theoretical maximum of the AUC versus heritability.* 2

Supplementary Figure 2 gives an indication of the expected performance of a 3-layer network for different heritability, polygenicity and sample sizes. The indications are conservative, the network performed better in human genotype than in the simulated data. In genotype data the network obtained better performance for smaller sample sizes and for phenotypes with more causal SNPs than suggested by these simulations. This could be due to the absence of linkage disequilibrium in the simulated data or it could be an artifact of how the phenotype is constructed in the simulations.

#### <span id="page-3-1"></span>**1.3 Genotype data, simulated phenotype**

The simulations are constructed from real data, the genotype matrix from the schizophrenia Sweden study served as a basis for this simulation. New labels were generated for each patient based on the following pseudo code:

Randomly select a set of **P** genes. Randomly sample a number of SNPs in each gene (N). Effect of causal SNPs: 2 NP Effect of non-causal SNPs:  $E = 0$ 

Phenotype risk =  $E M$  (Genotype matrix Sweden  $M$ ) Threshold for cases is the median phenotype risk, in order to obtain an equal case control ratio.

This experiment was designed to show the effect of LD blocks on the behavior of the neural network. Similar as seen in genome wide association studies, the found genes are not guaranteed to be causal.



genes are in black. We can observe that the neural network tags SNPs similar to GWAS. The LD structure adds predictive value to non-causal genes due to the linkage disequilibrium.

## <span id="page-5-0"></span>**Supplementary Note 2. Overview of the experiments**

# <span id="page-5-1"></span>**2.1 Gene networks**





*Supplementary Table 1. Summary of the experiments and results in this study for the simplest network in our framework that contains the input SNPs, the gene layer and the output layer. Genes were annotated using ANNOVAR.*<sup>3</sup> *Manhattan plots for gene importance can be found in Supplementary Materials 3,4 & 5. \*MC1R was not present in gene annotations but was identified by linkage disequilibrium. \*\*Many genes contributed to the prediction without clear separation between genes, see Supplementary Materials 4.*



#### <span id="page-6-0"></span>**2.2 Pathway networks**





*Supplementary Table 2: Neural networks build with gene and KEGG pathway*<sup>4</sup> *information. The pathway information is hierarchical with 3 levels: global, mid and local. In this table the top three pathways for each level are displayed in terms of relative contribution. Interactive plots for all phenotypes can be found at: [https://github.com/ArnovanHilten/GenNet\\_paper\\_plots](https://github.com/ArnovanHilten/GenNet_paper_plots)*



## <span id="page-9-0"></span>**2.2 GTEx expression networks**

*Supplementary Table 3: Neural networks build with genes and tissue expression (GTEx) only the* 

*significantly different expressed genes are connected to their tissues Finucane et al. (2018)*<sup>5</sup>  *to* 

*ensure an interpretable network. Interactive plots for all phenotypes can be found at:* 

*[https://github.com/ArnovanHilten/GenNet\\_paper\\_plots](https://github.com/ArnovanHilten/GenNet_paper_plots)*



#### <span id="page-10-0"></span>**2.2 ImmGen expression networks**

*Supplementary Table 4: Neural networks build with genes and Immunological Genome Project*

*data*<sup>6</sup> *. Only the significantly different expressed genes are connected to their tissues Finucane et* 

*al. (2018)*<sup>5</sup>  *to ensure an interpretable network. Interactive plots for all phenotypes can be found* 

*at: [https://github.com/ArnovanHilten/GenNet\\_paper\\_plots](https://github.com/ArnovanHilten/GenNet_paper_plots)*

#### <span id="page-11-0"></span>**Supplementary Note 3. Sweden-Schizophrenia population-based case-control study**

All networks applied on the Sweden Schizophrenia Case Control study are trained with similar parameters, found by optimizing the performance on the validation set for the 'gene network'. The batch size was chosen to be 200, the optimizer Adam (learning rate of 0.0006), and with batch normalization after every tangent hyperbolicus activation. All networks are trained on a single GPU (Nvidia Geforce 1080 GTX) and converged within 3 hours.



*Supplementary Table 5. Overview of the performance for different networks. Area Under the Curve (AUC), Precision, Accuracy and F1 score for the different types of networks. The theoretical maximum accuracy is ~ 72%. The dataset was split 60/20/20 in training validation and with respect to the ratio of cases and controls. All results are reported on the test set with the optimum decision threshold determined by the ROC curve of the validation set.* 

#### <span id="page-12-0"></span>**3.1 Gene network**



Supplementary Figure 4. Gene Importance for Schizophrenia predictions. Area under the curve for this model was 0.73 in the validation set and 0.74 in the test set. This was the best run of a series of experiments run with the same parameters. These models obtained a mean AUC of 0.70  $\pm$  0.018 in the validation set and 0.72  $\pm$  0.016 in the test set.

#### <span id="page-13-0"></span>**3.2 Gene network with an L1 constraint on the weights**



Supplementary Figure 5. Similar to lasso logistic regression, the network can be forced to focus on only the most important genes by adding L1 regularization, easing interpretation while maintaining performance (AUC of 0.74). The network is forced to focus only on the most important genes, leaving most genes with a near zero weight. As a consequence, larger genes are selected, such as *TTN* and *MUC16*. *MIR4436A* is therefore interesting since this is a micro-RNA

of 63 base pairs.

#### <span id="page-14-0"></span>**3.3 Pathway network**



Supplementary Figure 6. The gene-pathway network achieved an AUC of 0.68 in the test set with only 7204 genes annotated by the KEGG database, leaving more than 14 000 genes unconnected. The performance of this network could thus be artificially inflated due to the same LD structure, leaking information of unconnected genes without a pathway. Pathway nodes are not as objectively and uniquely defined as gene nodes (see section 2.4). Nonetheless, pathway annotations could possibly regulate the network further to assign high weights to important pathways, genes and SNPs, guiding the network to select only disease relevant entities. This would ease interpretability, avoid tagging and will definitely increase performance. Moreover, pathway annotations allow us to create deeper networks, carrying more information about how;

from important SNPs to genes, genes to pathways and from pathways to the eventual trait everything relates to each other with respect to the trait.

#### <span id="page-15-0"></span>**3.4 Gene-cell network & gene-GTEx networks**

There are multiple variations of these networks depending on the threshold used for defining connections (i.e., what is the level of expression required to start defining connections?). An interesting point of research and a concern for the interpretability is the uniqueness of the connections required to be still interpretable. In the tissue and cell expression the connections are not as unique as in the gene layer, where overlap between inputs for neurons is rare. To avoid an arbitrary threshold the weights of the connections could be initialized with the level of expression. However, there is no guarantee that such a trained network would be interpretable. To create more uniquely defined nodes, we chose to group and connect only the significantly associated genes per tissue or cell type. For this we used the approach and resources found in Finucane et al  $(2018)^5$ . However, interpretability is still not guaranteed and further research is necessary to confirm interpretability.

Tutorials and examples for creating networks with cell and tissue expression are available on GitHub.



*Supplementary Figure 7: Sunburst of the tissues and their relative importance using the GTEx tissue expression layer.*



*Supplementary Figure 8: Sunburst of the brain tissues and their relative importance using the GTEx brain expression layer.*



*Supplementary Figure 9: Sunburst of the immune cell types and their relative importance using the* ImmGen *layer. We used the preprocessed t-statistics made available from Finucane et al. (2018)* <sup>5</sup> *Raw data can be obtained from [\(http://www.immgen.org/](http://www.immgen.org/) )* 6

#### <span id="page-18-0"></span>**Supplementary Note 4. UK Biobank**

#### <span id="page-18-1"></span>**4.1 Bipolar disorder**



Supplementary Figure 10. Gene contribution for the prediction of bipolar disorder. *LINC00266-1* (Long Intergenic Non-Protein Coding RNA 266-1) on chromosome 22 is the greatest contributor.



Supplementary Figure 11. Pathway contribution for the prediction of bipolar disorder.

#### <span id="page-19-0"></span>**4.2 Skin color**



Supplementary Figure 12. The network to predict skin color obtains a near perfect score (AUC of 0.98 in the validation and test set) for distinguishing between a fair or a dark skin color Predicting skin color (fair vs brown and black) is close to predicting ethnicity. The predictions for skin color can serve as a good example why interpretability is a necessity for reliable predictions: interpretation of the network showed that the predictions are based on other factors such as ethnic background rather than genes related to pigmentation and skin color. Neural networks have better predictive capabilities than regular linear methods and can therefore identify and exploit biases in the dataset more easily. While using neural networks we should thus pay even more attention to confounders. *SMARCAD1* is associated with not having fingerprints.<sup>7</sup>

## <span id="page-20-0"></span>**4.3 Hair color: one versus all**



Gene importance: hair colour blond



Gene importance: hair colour light brown





Supplementary Figure 13 to 17: The region on chromosome 16 contains the *MC1R* gene, a wellknown gene that is associated with red hair color. Even though this gene was not present in the annotations, LD structure and the interpretability of the network allowed us to identify this gene. *OCA2* is a known gene, a melanin precursor, *EXOC2* has been identified before by Han et al.  $(2008)^8$ 



Supplementary Figure 18: Red hair color was dominated by the Fanconi anemia pathway.

#### <span id="page-23-0"></span>**4.4 Hair color: one vs one**



Supplementary Figure 19. *OCA2* is a known gene, a melanin precursor, *EXOC2* has been identified before by Han et al. (2008).<sup>8</sup>





Supplementary Figure 20 & 21: Brown versus red and red versus blond hair. This region on chromosome 16 contains the *MC1R* gene, a well-known gene that is associated with red hair color. Even though this gene was not present in the annotations, LD structure and the interpretability of the network allowed us to identify this gene.



#### <span id="page-24-0"></span>**4.5 Male balding pattern**

Supplementary Figure 22. Manhattan plot for genes important for the network for separating between balding pattern 1 and 4.

#### <span id="page-25-0"></span>**4.6 Breast cancer**



Supplementary Figure 23. Manhattan plot for genes important for the network for separating between cases and controls.



Supplementary Figure 24. Sunburst plot of pathways for cancers. Predictive performance for the pathway network was very low with 0.51 in the test set, 0.56 in the validation set.

#### <span id="page-26-0"></span>**4.7 Asthma**



Supplementary Figure 25. Manhattan plot for genes important for the network for separating between cases and controls for asthma.

#### <span id="page-26-1"></span>**4.8 Dementia**



Supplementary Figure 26. Manhattan plot for genes important for the network for separating between cases and controls for dementia. APOE got assigned a (normalized) weight of 0.08

#### <span id="page-27-0"></span>**4.9 Coronary artery disease**



Supplementary Figure 27. Manhattan plot for genes important for the network for separating between cases and controls for coronary artery disease. The predictive performance was poor; 0.56 in the test set and 0.58 in the validation set and we suspect that we are underpowered. More data will most likely improve the predictive performance and therefore the interpretation.

#### <span id="page-27-1"></span>**4.10 Atrial fibrillation**



Supplementary Figure 28. Manhattan plot for genes important for the network for separating between cases and controls for atrial fibrillation. Similarly, to coronary artery disease we suspect we need a larger sample size.

## <span id="page-28-0"></span>**4.11 Diabetes**



Supplementary Figure 29. Manhattan plot for genes important for the network for separating between cases and controls for diabetes. Although we are underpowered, there seems to be more distinction between genes than for the CAD and AF.

## <span id="page-29-0"></span>**Supplementary Note 5. Rotterdam Study**

#### <span id="page-29-1"></span>**5.1 Eye color – blue vs rest**



Supplementary Figure 30. Manhattan plot for genes important for the network for separating between blue and other color eyes.

#### <span id="page-30-0"></span>**Supplementary Method 6. Estimating upper bound classification accuracy**

Imagine the following hypothetical situation: for every person in our dataset there exists a monozygotic twin. In our experiment we use the monozygotic twin for the prediction of a phenotype.

Our first phenotype of interest is schizophrenia. It has a concordance rate  $= 0.5$  in monozygotic twins and a prevalence of roughly 1%. We can use these to construct a confusion matrix for our phenotype of interest:

*What if the first twin is schizophrenic?*

- The chance that the twin in our dataset is also diseased is simply the concordance rate, 41%.
- $\bullet$  The chance that we misclassify the twin in the real world as a false positive is 1concordance rate  $* 100\% = 59\%$

*What if the first twin is healthy?*

- The chance that the second twin is healthy is higher than the 1-prevalence. Thus, bigger than 99% since the twins share genetically the same code. Let's make this 100% since we are interested in the maximum performance.
- The chance that we misclassify the twin as a false positive is smaller than the prevalence so a maximum of 2%.

Resulting in the following confusion matrix:



Maximum Accuracy 
$$
= \frac{\text{predicted correctly}}{\text{Total}}
$$

$$
= \frac{(\text{concordance} * \text{cases}) + \text{controls}(1 - \text{prevalence})}{\text{Total cases and controls}}
$$

$$
=\frac{0.41*4939+(1-0.02)6245}{4969+6245}=0.73
$$

The maximum accuracy I can reach with this distribution of cases and controls is ~73%.

*This is the perfect classifier if we purely use genetic data. No machine learning or deep learning model can do better without adding (environmental) information.*

The confusion matrix can be used to calculate more metrics such as sensitivity, specificity and F1-score. The sensitivity and specificity can be plotted in the ROC curve to control for overfitting.

#### <span id="page-31-0"></span>**6.1 Overview of the upper bound classification accuracies in this study**

Table with the upper bound accuracy according to the thought experiment in Supplementary 6.1. For some phenotypes such as hair color, the estimate might be less reliable due to migration (i.e., black hair color was natively not this prevalent in the UK). This methodological approach does not take in account migration, because of this the maximum accuracy might be underestimated for hair color.



*Supplementary Table 6 Overview of the estimated upper bound of the accuracy for the datasets used in this study. This table contains all relevant statistics used for this estimate (See supplementary 6). The monozygotic twin concordance and prevalence were obtained from literature. \*This methodological approach does not take in account migration, because of this the upper bound accuracy might be underestimated.*

#### <span id="page-32-0"></span>**Supplementary Discussion 7. Deletion of predictive connections**

In this experiment we evaluate the performance while deleting the connections to the most predictive features. We evaluated this for two widely different phenotypes, eye color, where HERC2 and OCA2 are the main contributors to the prediction of blue eye color and schizophrenia, a polygenic disease with numerous genes contributed to the prediction. As expected, the curves in Supplementary Figures 31  $\&$  32 are different for the two phenotypes. The prediction for eye color deteriorates quickly, even by only deleting the connections to the HERC2 gene, while the predictive performance of schizophrenia is relatively unaffected even if the connections to the top thousand predictive genes are deleted.



*Supplementary Figure 31 & 32. Performance of the network while removing up to 20 000 connections. The genes are sorted by contribution/importance and deleted in this order, with connections to most important genes first deleted.*

#### <span id="page-33-0"></span>**Supplementary Discussion 8. Does prior knowledge improve performance?**

Embedding prior knowledge allows us to interpret the weights in the neural networks. One could speculate that embedding prior knowledge could also help in guiding training, resulting in better converged networks with better performance than networks without prior knowledge.

This experiment is designed to test the hypothesis: '*Embedding prior knowledge (gene annotations) in the neural network results in a network with a better performance than an equivalent network without prior knowledge'*.

In this experiment, we used GenNet networks identical to the network used in the experiments of Supplementary Table 2.1 with gene annotations as prior knowledge embedded in the network. The randomly connected networks are obtained by randomly shuffling the connectivity matrix in the horizontal direction. In the resulting network, all SNPs are randomly connected to nodes in the next layer (formerly known as the gene layer, now uninterpretable). All SNPs are thus connected to a random node and these nodes are connected to the output. Aside from this, the networks are equal in all aspects, they have the same number of trainable parameters (see supplementary 8.1 Gene network) and all networks are trained with GenNet's default hyperparameters (Adam with learning rate of 0.01 and L1 penalty of 0.01). We trained ten differently randomly connected networks and compared those to an equal number of GenNet gene networks for the Rotterdam Study and Sweden Schizophrenia. Due to limitations in resources, number of phenotypes and time constraints we decided to train six network per phenotype in the UK biobank (three shuffled and three regular). In total 112 networks were trained for this experiment.

Inspecting Supplementary Table 7 shows that embedding prior knowledge in the neural network architecture does not lead to significantly better performance for all phenotypes. The results are inconclusive. For example, for red hair color we observe a non-significant improvement but this is not maintained for predicting black or blond hair color. The randomly connected network performs significantly better than a network with prior knowledge for schizophrenia but we find the opposite for predicting blue eye color in the Rotterdam color, GenNet significantly outperforms a randomly connected network. Thus, in general we cannot conclude that prior knowledge neither improves or deteriorates the performance.





*Supplementary Table 7. Overview of the experiments to determine if prior knowledge, aside from making the network interpretable, also improves performance. Per phenotype, the mean and standard deviations of the AUC over three runs for the UK biobank and ten runs for the other two datasets are shown. Significant better performance in a two-sided student's t-test is emphasized.*

# <span id="page-35-0"></span>**Supplementary Note 9. GenNet architectures**

## <span id="page-35-1"></span>**9.1 All architectures: summary table**





Supplementary Table 8. Overview of the architectures used in this study. With the number of nodes in each layer and the number of weights/connections between brackets. The last column contains the number of trainable parameters for the architecture. The networks are phenotype independent, but do differ per dataset since each dataset contains different input variants.

#### <span id="page-36-0"></span>**9.2 Prior knowledge**

Gene Layer: all SNPs are annotated using Annovar (see 9.3 and bibliography). <sup>3</sup> Using regular expression, all genes are filtered and SNPs without gene annotations are dropped. The complete pipeline can be found in:

[https://github.com/ArnovanHilten/GenNet/blob/master/jupyter\\_notebooks/2\\_Define\\_con](https://github.com/ArnovanHilten/GenNet/blob/master/jupyter_notebooks/2_Define_connection_masks.ipynb) [nection\\_masks.ipynb](https://github.com/ArnovanHilten/GenNet/blob/master/jupyter_notebooks/2_Define_connection_masks.ipynb)

**Pathway layer:** All genes used in the gene layer are annotated using GeneSCF<sup>26</sup> and connected to their subsequent pathways using the KEGG website [\(https://www.genome.jp/kegg/pathway.html\)](https://www.genome.jp/kegg/pathway.html).

**ImmGen and GTEx:** First we obtained the t-statistic matrices from Finucane et al. (2018)<sup>5</sup>. In their work Finucane et al computed for each gene a t-statistic for specific expression in the focal tissue. The 10% of genes with the highest t-statistic were assigned to the gene set corresponding to the focal tissue. The 10% threshold was chosen because it gave the most significant p-values in two of their datasets. In their evaluation of this parameter, they showed that their choice was valid, results did not change when using a 5% or 20% threshold (their supplementary figures 2ac). Following their approach, we connected for each tissue the genes in the top 10% t-statistic tot that tissue.

#### <span id="page-36-1"></span>**9.3 URLS**

Trained GenNet architectures deposit:

[https://github.com/ArnovanHilten/GenNet\\_ModelZoo](https://github.com/ArnovanHilten/GenNet_ModelZoo)

#### **Software**

*Annovar*

<https://annovar.openbioinformatics.org/en/latest/> (free to use, sign-up required)

*GeneSCF:*

<https://github.com/genescf>

**Data**

*ImmGen layer:*

[https://alkesgroup.broadinstitute.org/LDSCORE/LDSC\\_SEG\\_ldscores/tstats/ImmGen.tst](https://alkesgroup.broadinstitute.org/LDSCORE/LDSC_SEG_ldscores/tstats/ImmGen.tstat.tsv)

[at.tsv](https://alkesgroup.broadinstitute.org/LDSCORE/LDSC_SEG_ldscores/tstats/ImmGen.tstat.tsv)

*GTEx expression layer:*

[https://alkesgroup.broadinstitute.org/LDSCORE/LDSC\\_SEG\\_ldscores/tstats/GTEx.tstat.t](https://alkesgroup.broadinstitute.org/LDSCORE/LDSC_SEG_ldscores/tstats/GTEx.tstat.tsv)

[sv](https://alkesgroup.broadinstitute.org/LDSCORE/LDSC_SEG_ldscores/tstats/GTEx.tstat.tsv)

*Brain cell expression layer:*

[https://alkesgroup.broadinstitute.org/LDSCORE/LDSC\\_SEG\\_ldscores/tstats/GTEx\\_brain](https://alkesgroup.broadinstitute.org/LDSCORE/LDSC_SEG_ldscores/tstats/GTEx_brain.tstat.tsv)

[.tstat.tsv](https://alkesgroup.broadinstitute.org/LDSCORE/LDSC_SEG_ldscores/tstats/GTEx_brain.tstat.tsv)

*scRNA-seq data (FUMA) layer:* 

[https://github.com/Kyoko-wtnb/FUMA\\_scRNA\\_data](https://github.com/Kyoko-wtnb/FUMA_scRNA_data)

#### <span id="page-38-0"></span>**Supplementary Method 10. Regression**

For regression tasks, mean squared error is used as a loss function in combination with ReLu activations. Using the UK biobank WES data, the explained variance for height was 31% using linear regression, whereas the network achieved 9% explained variance. We only tested the technical implementation, without any optimization. We expect the network to outperform or at least match linear regression with optimization, since the network has more modelling capabilities than linear regression. In the framework the type of task (regression or classification) is automatically determined using the phenotype labels.

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