



American Journal of
Medical Genetics
Part B: Neuropsychiatric Genetics

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Identified Through Convergent Functional Genomics**

Journal:	<i>American Journal of Medical Genetics Part B: Neuropsychiatric Genetics</i>
Manuscript ID:	NPG-10-0022.R1
Wiley - Manuscript type:	Rapid Publication
Date Submitted by the Author:	19-Feb-2010
Complete List of Authors:	Patel, Sagar; IU School of Medicine, Psychiatry Le-Niculescu, Helen; IU School of Medicine, Psychiatry Koller, Daniel L.; IU School of Medicine, Medical and Molecular Genetics Green, Steven; IU School of Medicine, Psychiatry Lahiri, Debomoy; Indiana University School of Medicine, Psychiatry and Medical and Molecular Genetics McMahon, Francis J. Nurnberger, John; Indiana University School of Medicine, Department of Psychiatry Niculescu, Alexander; IU School of Medicine, Psychiatry
Keywords:	convergent functional genomics, pathways, epistasis, genetic risk prediction, bipolar



Coming to Grips with Complex Disorders: Genetic Risk Prediction in Bipolar Disorder Using Panels of Genes Identified Through Convergent Functional Genomics

S.D. Patel^{1,3}, H. Le-Niculescu^{1,2,3}, D. L. Koller⁴, S. D. Green^{1,3}, D. K. Lahiri³,
F. McMahon⁵, J. I. Nurnberger Jr³ and A. B. Niculescu^{1,2,3,6}¶

¹Laboratory of Neurophenomics, ²INBRAIN, ³Institute of Psychiatric Research, Department of Psychiatry, Indiana University School of Medicine, Indianapolis, IN 46202; ⁴Department of Medical and Molecular Genetics, Indiana University School of Medicine, Indianapolis, IN 46202; ⁵Mood and Anxiety Disorders Branch, NIMH, Bethesda, MD; ⁶Indianapolis VA Medical Center, Indianapolis, IN 46202.

¶ Corresponding author, E-mail: anicules@iupui.edu

Running title: Genetic Risk Prediction in Bipolar Disorder

Keywords: convergent functional genomics; pathways; epistasis; genetic risk; prediction; bipolar disorder

Correspondence:

Alexander B. Niculescu III, MD, PhD
Assistant Professor of Psychiatry and Medical Neuroscience
Indiana University School of Medicine
Staff Psychiatrist, Indianapolis VA Medical Center
Director, INBRAIN and Laboratory of Neurophenomics
Institute of Psychiatric Research
791 Union Drive, Indianapolis,
IN 46202-4887
tel. 317 274-6544;
fax. 317 274-1365;
e-mail: anicules@iupui.edu

Abstract

We previously proposed and provided proof of principle for the use of a complementary approach, Convergent Functional Genomics (CFG), combining gene expression and genetic data, from human and animal model studies, as a way of mining the existing GWAS datasets for signals that are there already, but did not reach significance using a genetics-only approach (Le-Niculescu et al. 2009). CFG provides a fit-to-disease prioritization of genes that leads to generalizability in independent cohorts, and counterbalances the fit-to-cohort prioritization inherent in classic genetic-only approaches, which have been plagued by poor reproducibility across cohorts. We have now extended our previous work to include more datasets of GWAS, and more recent evidence from other lines of work. In essence our analysis is the most comprehensive integration of genetics and functional genomics to date in the field of bipolar disorder. Biological pathway analyses identified top canonical pathways, and epistatic interaction testing inside these pathways has identified genes that merit future follow-up as direct interactors (intra-pathway epistasis, INPEP). Moreover, we have put together a panel of best p-value Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs), based on the top candidate genes we identified. We have developed a Genetic Risk Prediction Score (GRPS) based on our panel, and demonstrate how in two independent test cohorts the GRPS differentiates between subjects with bipolar disorder and normal controls, in both European-American and African-American subjects. Lastly, we describe a prototype of how such testing could be used to categorize disease risk in individuals and aid personalized medicine approaches, in psychiatry and beyond.

Introduction

As part of a Convergent Functional Genomics (CFG) strategy, expanding upon our earlier work (Le-Niculescu and others 2009b), we set out to comprehensively identify candidate genes for bipolar disorder, integrating available evidence in the field to date. We have used data from four publicly available genome-wide association studies (GWAS) datasets for bipolar disorder (2007) (Baum and others 2008), (Sklar and others 2008). We integrated those data with gene expression data - human postmortem brain gene expression data and human blood gene expression data published by others or us, as well as with relevant animal model brain and blood gene expression data generated by our group (Le-Niculescu and others 2007a; Le-Niculescu and others 2007b; Le-Niculescu and others 2008b; Niculescu and others 2000a; Ogden and others 2004). In addition, we have integrated as part of this comprehensive approach other genetic data- published human genetic (linkage or association) data for bipolar and related disorders to date, and relevant mouse genetic (QTL or transgenic) data (Figure 1).

Once the genes involved in a disorder are identified, and prioritized for likelihood of involvement, then an obvious next step is developing a way of applying that knowledge to genetic testing of individuals to determine risk for the disorder. Based on our comprehensive identification of top candidate genes described in this paper, we have chosen the best SNPs in those genes by their p-values in the GWAS datasets used, and assembled a Genetic Risk Prediction (GRP) panel out of those SNPs. We then developed a Genetic Risk Prediction Score (GRPS) for bipolar disorder based on the presence or absence of the alleles of the SNPs associated with the illness, and tested the GRPS in an independent study (GAIN-BP) (Smith and others 2009) for which we had both genotypic and clinical data available, comparing the bipolar subjects to demographically matched normal controls. Our results show that a relatively small size panel of genes identified by CFG analysis can differentiate very well between bipolar disorder subjects and controls at a population level, although at an individual level the margin is razor thin. The latter point suggests that the cumulative combinatorics of common variants plays a major role in risk for illness. Overall, our work sheds light on the genetic architecture and pathophysiology of bipolar disorder. In particular, it has implications for genetic testing to assess risk for illness before the illness manifests itself clinically.

Methods

Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS) data for bipolar disorder

Four bipolar GWAS were used for the expanded CFG discovery analysis. The GWAS data for the bipolar study from the Wellcome Trust Consortium (WTCC) (2007) is available at http://www.wtccc.org.uk/info/access_to_data_samples.shtml. The GWAS data from NIMH and German studies (Baum and others 2008) are available at http://mapgenetics.nimh.nih.gov/bp_pooling. The GWAS data from the STEP-BD study is available at <http://pngu.mgh.harvard.edu/~purcell/bpwwgas> (Sklar and others 2008).

One independent study, GAIN-BP (Smith and others 2009), was used for testing the results of the discovery analyses. The GWAS data for GAIN-BP used for analyses described in this manuscript was obtained from the database of Genotype and Phenotype (dbGaP) found at www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov through PHS project number 000017, data request numbers 2575-2, 2574-2, and 2573-2 provided to John I. Nurnberger, Jr.

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5 The software package PLINK (<http://pngu.mgh.harvard.edu/~purcell>) was used to extract
6 individual genotype information for each subject from the GAIN-BP GWAS data files. We used
7 European Americans (EA), and separately, African American (AA), bipolar subjects and
8 controls. Out of 1001 EA bipolar subjects in GAIN-BP, we used for our GRPS testing analyses
9 only 407, from wave 5 of the NIMH Bipolar Genetics Consortium collection, to avoid any
10 individual overlap (16%) or even pedigree overlap (57%) with probands from waves 1-4 that
11 were also used in the NIMH(Baum and others 2008) study mentioned above. We also used 317
12 AA bipolar subjects from wave 5 of the NIMH Bipolar Genetics Consortium collection. Controls
13 numbered 1034 for EA, and 671 for AA.

14 As a caveat, there was overlap in the control subjects within two of four discovery
15 datasets (NIMH and STEP-BD), and between these two datasets and one of the datasets
16 (GAIN-BP EA) used to test our results. However, as described below, multiple other studies and
17 lines of evidence, human and animal model, are integrated in the CFG prioritization approach
18 (Figure 1), which minimizes the relative contribution and impact of individual studies and the
19 controls overlap in the discovery dataset. More importantly, there is no overlap at the bipolar
20 subject level within discovery datasets, and between discovery datasets and the test dataset.
21 This ensures that there is at least a degree of independence within discovery cohorts, and
22 between discovery and test cohorts. Finally, the fact that the GRPS differentiates as well or
23 better in the completely independent GAIN-BP AA cohort provides strong reassurance and
24 confirmatory evidence for the method.
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28 SNPs with a nominal genotypic p-value < 0.05 were selected for our analysis. No
29 Bonferroni correction was performed.
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32 **Gene identification**

33 To identify the genes that correspond to the selected SNPs, the lists of SNPs from the
34 GWAS was uploaded to the CHIP Bioinformatics Tools website (<http://snpper.chip.org>). In the
35 cases where a SNP mapped to a region close to multiple genes, we selected all the genes that
36 were provided by SNPper. SNPs for which no gene was identified were not included in our
37 subsequent analysis.
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41 **Human postmortem brain gene expression**

42 Information about our candidate genes was obtained using GeneCards
43 (<http://www.genecards.org>), the Online Mendelian Inheritance of Man database
44 (<http://ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?db=OMIM>), as well as database searches using
45 PubMed (<http://ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/PubMed>) and various combinations of keywords (gene name,
46 bipolar, depression, human, postmortem, brain).
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49 **Human Genetic (Linkage, Association) Convergence**

50 To designate convergence for a particular gene, the gene had to map within 10cM (see
51 (Niculescu and others 2000b) for detailed discussion) of a microsatellite marker for which at
52 least one published study showed evidence for linkage for bipolar disorder or depression, or a
53 positive association study for the gene itself was reported in the literature. The University of
54 Southampton's sequence-based integrated map of the human genome (The Genetic
55 Epidemiological Group, Human Genetics Division, University of Southampton:
56 [http://cedar.genetics.soton.ac.uk/ public html/](http://cedar.genetics.soton.ac.uk/public_html/)) was used to obtain cM locations for both
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5 genes and markers. The sex-averaged cM value was calculated and used to determine
6 convergence to a particular marker. For markers that were not present in the Southampton
7 database, the Marshfield database (Center for Medical Genetics, Marshfield, WI, USA:
8 <http://research.marshfieldclinic.org/genetics>) was used with the NCBI Map Viewer web-site
9 to evaluate linkage convergence.
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11 We have established in the lab manually curated databases of all the published human
12 postmortem brain and human genetic literature to date on bipolar and related
13 disorders(Niculescu and Le-Niculescu). These large databases have been used in our CFG
14 cross-validation analyses.
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16 17 18 19 ***Human blood gene expression data***

20 For human blood gene expression evidence, we have used previously generated data from
21 our group(Le-Niculescu and others 2009a) , as well as published data from the literature.
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23 ***Animal model brain and blood gene expression data***

24 For animal model brain and blood gene expression evidence, we have used previously
25 generated data from two different animal models for bipolar disorder developed by our group,
26 one pharmacogenomic and one transgenic (Le-Niculescu and others 2007b; Le-Niculescu and
27 others 2008c; Niculescu and others 2000a).
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29 ***Mouse Genetic (QTL, transgenic) Convergence***

30 To search for mouse genetic evidence- QTL (Quantitative Trait Loci) or transgenic -for our
31 candidate genes, we utilized the [MGI 3.54 - Mouse Genome Informatics](#) (Jackson
32 Laboratory) and used the search menu for mouse phenotypes and mouse models of
33 human disease / abnormal behaviors, using the following sub-categories: abnormal
34 emotion/affect behavior and abnormal sleep pattern/circadian rhythm. To designate
35 convergence for a particular gene, the gene had to map within 10cM of a QTL marker for the
36 abnormal behavior, or a transgenic mouse of the gene itself displayed that behavior.
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39 **Convergent Functional Genomics (CFG) Analysis Scoring**

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41 We used two nominal p-value thresholds for scoring genes in the CFG analysis (see below)
42 a lower stringency threshold ($p < 0.05$), and a higher stringency threshold ($p < 0.001$). Genes
43 from each GWAS data that had at least one SNP with p-value of < 0.05 received 1 point; those
44 that had at least one SNP with p-value of < 0.001 received 1.5 points. All other cross-validating
45 lines of evidence (other human data, animal model data) received a maximum of 1 point each
46 (for human genetic data: 0.5 points if it is linkage, 1 point if it is association; for mouse genetic
47 data, 0.5 points if it is QTL, 1 point if it is transgenic; for human and mouse gene expression
48 data, 1 point each for fresh brain or blood data, 0.5 points if it is from cells in culture/cell lines).
49 Thus the maximum possible CFG score for each gene is 12 (6 =4 x 1.5 points from the four
50 GWAS, and 6 points from the other lines of evidence). As we are interested in discovering
51 signal in GWAS, we weighted data from GWAS more heavily, bringing the data from this one
52 methodological approach on par with the data from all the other methodological approaches
53 combined. It has not escaped our attention that other ways of weighing the scores of line of
54 evidence may give slightly different results in terms of prioritization, if not in terms of the list of
55 genes per se. Nevertheless, we feel this simple scoring system provides a good separation of
56 genes based on our focus on identifying signal in the GWAS.
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Pathway Analysis

Ingenuity 8.0 (Ingenuity Systems, Redwood City, CA) was employed to analyze the molecular networks, biological functions and canonical pathways of the top candidate genes resulting from our CFG analysis. The Ingenuity program generated the p-values assigned to the different pathways (Table 2).

Epistasis testing

The GAIN-BP case and control data were employed to test for epistatic interactions among SNPs from the GRPS panel in genes having a role in one or more of the top canonical biological pathways from our pathway analysis. These pathways, and the genes comprising each that were considered, are listed in Table 3. Within each pathway, SNPxSNP allelic epistasis was tested for each distinct pair of SNPs using the PLINK software package.

Genetic Risk Prediction Panel and Scoring

Out of our analysis, a panel of top genes prioritized by CFG scoring (Figure 1) can be chosen. We developed a GRP (Genetic Risk Prediction) panel, based on a list of top genes from Table 1 ($n = 56$, all the genes that had a CFG score better than 6, i.e. $>$ than 50% of the maximum possible CFG score of 12). All the SNPs for these genes that had nominal p-values < 0.05 in one or several of the four GWAS datasets (Wellcome, German, NIMH, STEP-BD) we used were identified. The best p-values SNPs in each study were assembled in a GRP panel (Table 1), and tested in the GAIN-BP data. As a caveat, not all the SNPs in our GRP panel had been genotyped in the GAIN-BP. Overall, out of 216 SNPs in our panel (4 SNPs \times 56 genes = 224 SNPs theoretically, but some genes did not have a nominally significant SNPs in one or another of the 4 discovery GWAS), only 118 were tested in the GAIN-BP sample.

Each SNP has two alleles (represented by base letters at that position). One of them is associated with the illness (affected), the other not (non-affected). We assigned the affected allele a score of 1 and the non-affected allele a score of 0. A two-dimensional matrix of subjects by GRP panel alleles is generated, with the cells populated by 0 or 1 (Figure 3S). A SNP in a particular individual subject can have any permutation of 1 and 0 (1 and 1, 0 and 1, 1 and 0, 0 and 0). By adding these numbers, the minimum score for a SNP in an individual subject is 0, and the maximum score is 2. By adding the scores for all the alleles in the panel, averaging that, and multiplying by 100, we generate for each subject an average score corresponding to a genetic loading for disease, which we call Genetic Risk Predictive Score (GRPS). From lower to higher genetic risk, the GRPS has a minimum value of 0 and maximum value of 100. As a caveat, the assignments of 0 and 1 were made based on information for that allele in GAIN-BP for EA subjects, and separately for AA subjects, and rests on the assumption that the same alleles are associated with bipolar disorder in all subjects of the same ethnicity. However, the GAIN-BP test GWAS is not used to select the panel of genes and SNPs in the GRP panel, which is being derived completely independently from the CFG analysis of the four discovery GWAS.

The software package PLINK (<http://pngu.mgh.harvard.edu/~purcell>) was used to extract individual genotype information for each subject from the GAIN-BP GWAS data files. We analyzed separately EA (European-American) and African-American (AA) bipolar subjects and controls, to examine any potential ethnicity variability (Figure 3 a,b). To test for significance between bipolar and control subjects, a one-tailed t-test was performed between the bipolar subjects and the control subjects. We also analyzed males and females separately from each

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5 other, to look at any gender-induced variability (Figure 3 c,d). Finally, we tested for the ability of
6 the GRPS to distinguish between bipolar subjects based on an important clinical variable,
7 episode frequency, which is the sum of all episodes of illness (depression and mania), divided
8 by the number of years of illness. We compared the GRPS in subjects with the top 1/3 of
9 episode frequency scores vs. subjects with the bottom 1/3 of episode frequency scores (Figure
10 3 e, f).
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12 13 **GRPS Prediction Testing**

14 In a subsequent analysis, we used a split cohort design. We split the GAIN-BP samples for
15 each ethnicity into a 2/3 cohort used for setting GRPS thresholds for bipolar and controls, and a
16 1/3 cohort used for testing the predictive value of these settings. Inside each ethnicity, the
17 assignment to cohorts was matched for gender, but otherwise random (Table 1S).
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19 The average GRPS score for bipolar subjects in the 2/3 cohort is used as a cut-off for
20 bipolar in the test 1/3 cohort (i.e. being above that threshold), and the average GRPS score for
21 controls in the 2/3 cohort is used as a cut-off for controls in the test 1/3 cohort (i.e. being below
22 that threshold). The subjects who are in between these two thresholds are called undetermined.
23 Furthermore, to stratify risk, we categorized subjects in the 1/3 testing cohort into Category 1 if
24 they fall within one standard deviation above the bipolar threshold, and Category -1 if they fall
25 within one standard deviation below the control threshold. Category 2 are between one and two
26 standard deviations from the thresholds, Category 3 between two and three standard
27 deviations, and Category 4 are those who fall beyond three standard deviations of the threshold.
28 The positive predictive value (PPV) of the test was calculated for each of the categories (Figure
29 4).
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33 **Results:**

34 35 **Top candidate genes**

36 In order to minimize false negatives, we initially cast a wide net, using as a filter a minimal
37 requirement for a gene to have both some genetic and some functional genomic evidence.
38 We thus generated an initial list of 1657 unique genes with $p < 0.05$ in at least one of the four
39 primary GWAS analyzed, that also had some functional (gene expression) evidence (human or
40 animal model data), implicating them in bipolar disorder or depression. Of interest, a previous
41 similar analysis by us using just three GWAS (Le-Niculescu and others 2009b) yielded 1529
42 unique genes, suggesting that: 1) with our genetic-genomic filtering of the GWAS in the primary
43 analysis we are already capturing most of the genes that may be involved in bipolar disorder,
44 with additional studies providing an asymptotic contribution beyond this point; and 2) that, using
45 our thresholds and minimal requirements, the number of genes potentially involved, directly or
46 indirectly, in bipolar disorder may be indeed quite large, up to 10% of the genome (see also
47 Supplementary Information- Figure 1S).
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49 In order to minimize false positives, we then used a CFG analysis integrating multiple lines
50 of evidence to prioritize this initial list of 1657 genes, and focused our subsequent analyses on
51 only the top CFG scoring candidate genes. 56 genes had a CFG score of above 6 (> 50% of
52 maximum possible score) (Table 1 and Figure 2).
53

54 As a way of testing the validity of our approach, we have examined whether our top findings
55 were over-represented in an independent GWAS of bipolar disorder, the GAIN-BP study. 46 of
56 the top 56 genes identified by our approach had a p -value of < 0.05 in that independent study,
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5 an estimated almost three-fold enrichment over what would be expected by chance alone in that
6 study (see Table 1).
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10 ***Candidate blood biomarkers***

11 Of the top candidate genes from Table 1 (see also Figure 2), 22 out of 56 have prior blood
12 gene expression evidence implicating them as potential blood biomarkers. The additional
13 evidence provided by GWAS data suggests a genetic rather than purely environmental
14 (medications, stress) basis for their alteration in disease, and their potential utility as trait rather
15 than purely state markers.
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17 ***Biological Pathways***

18 Ingenuity pathway analysis was carried out on the top 56 genes, revealing results similar to
19 our previous work (Le-Niculescu and others 2009b). Notably, G-protein coupled receptor
20 signaling, cAMP related signaling and synaptic long-term depression were the top canonical
21 pathways over-represented in bipolar disorder, which is informative (and reassuring, as these
22 pathways are highly druggable) for new drug discovery efforts by pharmaceutical companies.
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25 ***Intra-pathway testing for epistasis (INPEP)***

26 Epistatic interactions testing inside each of these pathways, using the independent GAIN-BP
27 data, revealed some nominally significant pair-wise p-values (Table 3). For example, the
28 possible interactions between CREBBP and GNAI1, and between NOS1 and GRM3 are non-
29 obvious.
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31 These prioritized pairs of genes inside each pathway may merit future hypothesis driven
32 confirmatory genetic studies in independent cohorts, as well as testing for mechanistic
33 interactions relevant to bipolar disorder pathophysiology in follow-up biological studies, such as
34 transgenic mice studies.
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38 **Discussion:**

39 Our CFG approach helped prioritize, as in our previous work (Le-Niculescu and others
40 2009b) and as expected, genes for which there was consistent evidence among the four
41 discovery GWAS datasets, or stronger evidence in one or another of the datasets. However, it
42 also prioritized genes with weaker evidence in the GWAS data, but with strong independent
43 evidence in terms of gene expression studies and other prior human or animal genetic work.
44

45 At the very top of our list of candidate genes for bipolar disorder we have five genes:
46 ARNTL, MBP, BDNF, NRG1 and RORB.

47 ARNTL (aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear translocator-like), a transcription factor, is a
48 circadian clock gene. Another circadian top candidate genes identified by our analysis is RORB
49 (Figure 2 and Table 1). RORB was also recently reported by us to be associated with bipolar
50 disorder in an independent pediatric bipolar sample (McGrath and others 2009). Circadian
51 rhythm and sleep abnormalities have long been described in bipolar disorder- excessive sleep
52 in the depressive phase, reduced need for sleep in the manic phase (Bauer and others 2006).
53 Sleep deprivation is one of the more powerful and rapid acting treatment modalities for severe
54 depression, and can lead to precipitation of manic episodes in bipolar patients (Wirz-Justice
55 and others 2004). We had previously described the identification of clock gene D-box binding protein
56 (DBP) as a potential candidate gene for bipolar disorder (Niculescu and others 2000b), using a
57 CFG approach. DBP was changed in expression by acute methamphetamine treatment in rat
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5 pre-frontal cortex (PFC)(Niculescu and others 2000b), and mapped near a human genetic
6 linkage locus for bipolar disorder(Morissette and others 1999) and for depression(Zubenko and
7 others 2002) on chromosome 19q13. Subsequently, DBP was also reported changed in
8 expression by acute and chronic amphetamine treatments in mice (Sokolov and others 2003).
9 Moreover, DBP knock-out mice have abnormal circadian and homeostatic aspects of sleep
10 regulation (Franken and others 2000). More recently, we have conducted extensive behavioral
11 and gene expression studies in DBP KO mice. These mice display a bipolar-like phenotype(Le-
12 Niculescu and others 2008c), which is modulated by stress. Decreases in DBP expression have
13 also been recently reported in fibroblasts from bipolar subjects(Yang and others 2008). In
14 parallel, work carried out by us using an expanded CFG approach in a mouse
15 pharmacogenomic model for bipolar disorder identified ARNTL and a series of other clock
16 genes (CRY2, CSNK1Ds, and CCR4/nocturnin), as potential bipolar candidate genes(Ogden
17 and others 2004). Following that, three independent reports have shown some suggestive
18 association for ARNTL in human bipolar samples (Mansour and others 2006; Nievergelt and
19 others 2006; Shi and others 2008). ARNTL is upstream of DBP in the circadian clock
20 intracellular molecular machinery, driving the transcription of DBP (Ripperger and Schibler
21 2006; van der Veen and others 2006). An increase in ARNTL gene expression was reported in
22 postmortem brains from bipolar subjects(Nakatani and others 2006). Seasonal affective disorder
23 (SAD), a variant of bipolar disorder (Magnusson and Partonen 2005), is tied to the amount of
24 daylight, which is a primary regulator of circadian rhythms and clock gene expression;
25 associations between polymorphisms in the clock genes ARNTL, PER2, and NPAS2 and SAD
26 have previously been reported(Johansson and others 2003; Partonen and others 2007)..
27 Overall, ARNTL, RORB, DBP and related circadian clock genes are compelling candidates for
28 involvement in bipolar disorders, acting as rheostats as well as underlying the core clinical
29 phenomenology of cycling and switching from depression to mania (Le-Niculescu and others
30 2008c; Niculescu and others 2000b),(Bunney and Bunney 2000),(Wager-Smith and Kay
31 2000),(Niculescu and Kelsoe 2001),(Kelsoe and Niculescu 2002),(Lenox and others
32 2002),(Hasler and others 2006),(McClung 2007; Wirz-Justice 2006).

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35 MBP (myelin basic protein) is involved in white matter build-up and connectivity
36 processes(Harauz and others 2009). Based on human postmortem and blood biomarker work,
37 as well as animal models (see Table 1), it may be decreased in expression in the depressive
38 phase of bipolar disorder, leading to a slowing of action potential transmission, potential
39 disconnection between brain regions, and outward psychomotor retardation. The additional
40 evidence provided by GWAS data indicates a genetic rather than purely environmental
41 (medications , stress) basis for its alteration in disease, and its potential utility as trait marker for
42 increased vulnerability. MBP alterations have also been reported in other neuropsychiatric
43 disorders such as schizophrenia(Parlapani and others 2009), alcoholism(Lewohl and others
44 2005), multiple sclerosis(Zamvil and others 1985), as well as an animal models of stress
45 reactivity(Le-Niculescu and others 2008c). Myelin-related genes may be a common if non-
46 specific denominator of vulnerability to mental illness in response to stress(Le-Niculescu and
47 others 2008c).

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49 BDNF is a growth factor involved in neurotrophicity and synaptic transmission. Other growth
50 factor top candidate genes identified by our analysis include NRG1 and PTN (Figure 2, and
51 Table 1). BDNF has been previously implicated in a variety of neuropsychiatric disorders, by
52 both animal model and human studies: depression(Pezawas and others 2008; Sen and others
53 2008), bipolar disorder(Ogden and others 2004), anxiety, alcoholism(Rodd and others 2007),
54 and schizophrenia(Chao and others 2008; Le-Niculescu and others 2007a). Notably, there are
55 several candidate gene association studies to date implicating BDNF in bipolar disorder(Fan
56 and Sklar 2008),(Liu and others 2008).
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5 APP (amyloid beta precursor protein), an Alzheimer Disease (AD) candidate gene, is among
6 the top candidate gene for bipolar disorder (Table 1). Another key gene involved in AD, GSK3b,
7 is also present on our list of top candidate genes. Previous epidemiological literature has
8 pointed to increased AD in bipolar patients, and the prophylactic effect of the mood stabilizer
9 lithium on the incidence of AD in bipolar patients(Nunes and others 2007). Notably, GSK3b is a
10 target of lithium treatment(Beaulieu and others 2008a), as well as of serotonergic anti-
11 depressants(Beaulieu and others 2008b). APP has recently been shown to have a neurotrophic
12 role(Oh and others 2008), similar to growth factors such as BDNF. APP has also been reported
13 to be increased in expression in bipolar postmortem brains compared to normal controls(Jurata
14 and others 2004). It remains to be seen if APP's role in AD is pathogenic or is in fact a
15 defense/compensatory mechanism to try to maintain neuronal survival(Rohn and others 2008).
16 The possibility that drugs that regulate APP levels may have an impact on mood (i.e.
17 downregulation of APP may be depressogenic) needs to be explored, given the prevalence of
18 depression in the elderly in general(Alexopoulos and others 2005), and in AD patients in
19 particular (Sun and others 2008). In any case, this is an intriguing example of potential genetic
20 co-morbidity, overlap and interdependence between mood and cognition.
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26 **Genetic Risk Prediction**

27 Once the genes involved in a disorder are identified, and prioritized for likelihood of
28 involvement, then an obvious next step is developing a way of applying that knowledge to
29 genetic testing of individuals to determine risk for the disorder. Based on our comprehensive
30 identification of top candidate genes described above, we pursued a polygenic panel approach,
31 with digitized binary digitization scoring for presence or absence, similar to the one we have
32 devised and employed in the past for biomarkers(Le-Niculescu and others 2009a). Somewhat
33 similar approaches, looking however at larger panels of markers without CFG prioritization,
34 were subsequently also described by other groups(Purcell and others 2009).
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36 We have chosen the best SNPs in our CFG prioritized genes by their p-values in the GWAS
37 datasets used, and assembled a Genetic Risk Prediction (GRP) panel out of those SNPs (Table
38 1). We then developed a Genetic Risk Prediction Score (GRPS) for bipolar disorder based on
39 the presence or absence of the alleles of the SNPs associated with the illness, and tested the
40 GRPS in an independent study (GAIN-BP) for which we had both genotypic and clinical data
41 available, comparing the bipolar subjects to demographically matched normal controls (Figure
42 3).

43 We demonstrate that in independent test cohorts, the GRPS differentiates between subjects
44 with bipolar disorder and normal controls, in both European-American (EA) and African-
45 American (AA) subjects (Figure 3 a, b). The GRPS also differentiates between high episode
46 frequency and low episode frequency bipolar subjects in EA, but not AA subjects (Figure 3 e,f).
47 Gender analyses exhibited slight trends towards higher GRPS in males than females in both
48 ethnicities, that did not reach statistical significance (Figure 3 c, d). Lastly, we also describe a
49 prototype of how such testing could be used at an individual rather than population level, to
50 categorize individuals by risk and aid diagnostic and personalized medicine approaches (Figure
51 4).
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53 Our results show that a relatively small size panel identified by CFG analysis can
54 differentiate very well between bipolar disorder subjects and controls at a population level,
55 although at an individual level the margin is razor thin (Figures 3 and 4). On average, a bipolar
56 subject differs from a control subject by about 2 alleles out of 236 tested. The latter point
57 suggests that the cumulative combinatorics of common gene variants plays a major role in
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5 genetic risk for illness. Overall, our work sheds light on the genetic architecture and
6 pathophysiology of bipolar disorder. In particular, it has implications for genetic testing to assess
7 risk for illness. Our evaluation of the predictive value of the GRPS suggests some utility by itself
8 at identifying risk for illness (Figure 4). More likely, such genetic information will have to be
9 combined with family history and other clinical information (phenomics)(Niculescu and others
10 2006), as well as with blood biomarker testing(Le-Niculescu and others 2009a), to provide a
11 comprehensive picture of risk of illness(Niculescu 2006; Niculescu and others 2009).
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13 **Limitations and confounds:**

14 No correction of best p-values for number of SNPs tested/ gene size effect was performed.
15 While this is arguably a valid statistical issue for genetic studies by themselves, some of the
16 multiple SNPs tested per gene could be in linkage disequilibrium, and the Bonferroni correction
17 might be too conservative(Rice and others 2008). One would expect some noise due to gene
18 size, as larger genes have more SNPs tested per gene. However, we did not observe a
19 significant correlation between gene size and our top candidate gene prioritization using CFG
20 (Supplementary Information- Figure 2S). That may be due to the fact that we are using this
21 evidence for integration across platforms and modalities, along with a series of other lines of
22 evidence that have their own attendant noise, as part of a Bayesian-like approach to pull signal
23 from noise and prioritize findings. The convergence of lines of evidence arguably factors out the
24 noise of the different individual approaches, and makes our network-like CFG approach
25 relatively resilient to error even when one or another of the nodes (lines of evidence) is weak
26 (Figure 1).
27

28 Our approach relies on a list of genes from the GWAS datasets generated by SNPPER
29 identifying SNPs in genes. We may thus be missing genes where the assignment is not made
30 by the software, and discarding SNPs that fall into intergenic or regulatory regions, such as
31 promoter or enhancer regions. Moreover, genes where the illness associated SNPs do not lead
32 to a change in expression levels are not included in our CFG-GWA cross-validation. Similarly,
33 genes that have changes in expression levels but no intragenic SNP in the GWAS datasets are
34 not included. Interestingly, some of these latter genes may be changed in expression as a
35 consequence of distal regulatory SNPs or other genes in a network, an exciting area for future
36 systems biology studies awaiting better bioinformatic tools and data analysis now on the
37 horizon(Stumpf and others 2008). Our panel of genes prioritized by CFG is certainly not
38 exhaustive, it is just an example of one approach. Some of the genes with strong published
39 evidence of association, such as ANK3(Schulze and others 2009) (Ferreira and others 2008a)
40 and CACNA1C(Ferreira and others 2008a), are not prioritized by our approach, (although
41 related genes, ANK2 and CACNA1A, are) (Table 1). It may be that genes prioritized by p-values
42 in genetic studies alone are the result of a *fit-to-cohort* phenomenon, resulting in poor
43 reproducibility and predictive value in independent cohorts(Paynter and others) (Niculescu and
44 Le-Niculescu 2010, in press). The few of them that are reproduced across studies may be more
45 of a common denominator in bipolar patients (which tend to be heterogeneous), somewhat like
46 housekeeping genes, but not necessarily more biologically relevant or important. CFG arguably
47 identifies and prioritizes genes that have functional evidence and hence are more likely to be
48 biologically relevant(Niculescu and Le-Niculescu). By being in essence a *fit-to-disease*
49 approach, CFG also generates findings that are more reproducible and have predictive value in
50 independent studies and cohorts, as we have demonstrated in our previous work on blood
51 biomarkers(Kurian and others 2009; Le-Niculescu and others 2009a), and as we demonstrate in
52 this current genetic work. That is the key litmus test, in our view.
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54 Other animal models data could potentially be used for CFG cross-validation, in addition to
55 the data from the pharmacogenomic (methamphetamine/valproate)(Ogden and others 2004)
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and the genetic (DBP knock-out mouse)(Le-Niculescu and others 2008c) models that we generated and used. However, these are some of the best animal models with corresponding comprehensive brain and blood gene expression datasets published to date. Moreover, we relied, as an additional line of evidence, on an extensive public mouse QTL/transgenic database.

As new human blood, postmortem brain, and human genetic studies are published, new evidence will be available for some of the genes we have identified. However, any new evidence will likely not remove genes from our results, but rather move them up higher in the prioritization list/pyramid (Figure 2).

Different ways of weighing the lines of evidence included in the CFG analysis rather than the equal weight approach we have used may become available in the future, based on more empirical and quantitative methods. Other ways of weighing the scores of line of evidence may give slightly different results in terms of prioritization, if not in terms of the list of top genes per se.

Pathways identified by Ingenuity may be based on some of the same body of knowledge and published literature used in our direct CFG scoring. However, it is reassuring to see that different independent systematization and curation efforts lead to a consistent picture of genes involved in behavior, neurological disease, psychological disorders, and nervous system development coming up at the top of the over-represented pathways from our top candidate genes for bipolar disorder identified by our genetic-genomic combined approach.

Conclusions and future directions:

First, in spite of these limitations, our analysis is arguably the most comprehensive integration of genetics and functional genomics to date in the field of bipolar disorder, yielding a series of candidate genes, blood biomarkers, pathways and mechanisms, that are prime targets for follow-up hypothesis driven studies. Such studies may include individual candidate gene association studies with more SNPs tested per gene, deep re-sequencing, and/or biological validation such as cell culture (Pletnikov and others 2007) and transgenic animal work(Hikida and others 2007) (Le-Niculescu and others 2008c).

Second, our work provides additional integrated evidence focusing attention and prioritizing a number of genes as candidate blood biomarkers for bipolar disorder, with an inherited genetic basis (Table 1). While prior evidence existed as to alterations in gene expression levels of those genes in whole-blood samples or lymphoblastoid cell lines (LCLs) from mood disorders patients, it was unclear prior to our analysis whether those alterations were truly related to the disorder or were instead related to medication effects and environmental factors.

Third, our work provides a proof how a combined approach, integrating functional and genotypic data, can be used for other complex disorders-psychiatric and non-psychiatric. What we are seeing across GWAS of complex disorders are not necessarily the same genes showing the strongest signal, but rather consistency at the level of gene families or biological pathways. The distance from genotype to phenotype may be a bridge too far for genetic-only approaches, given the intervening complex layers of epigenetics, gene expression regulation and endophenotypes(Tan and others 2008). Using GWAS data in conjunction with gene expression data as part of CFG or integrative genomics(Degnan and others 2008) approaches, followed by pathway –level analysis of the prioritized candidate genes, can lead to the unraveling of the genetic code of complex disorders such as bipolar disorder.

Fourth, we have focused attention on key biological pathways in bipolar disorder, and used genetic epistatic testing to identify and prioritize molecular interactions inside those pathways. We believe that this intra-pathway epistasis testing approach (INPEP) may help with future work aimed at dissecting the molecular architecture of complex disorders.

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Fifth, we have put together a panel of best p-value Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs), based on the top candidate genes we identified. Such a panel could be used for genetic testing for bipolar disorder. To that end, we have developed a Genetic Risk Prediction Score (GRPS) based on our panel, and demonstrate how in independent cohorts, the GRPS differentiates between patients with bipolar disorder and normal controls. Based on the GRPS, we demonstrate a prototype of individual subject categorization for risk of illness. We anticipate that the GRPS approach will have utility for other complex disorders, psychiatric and non-psychiatric.

Lastly, while we cannot exclude that rare genetic variants with major effects may exist in some individuals and families, we propose a *cumulative combinatorics of common variants* genetic model for bipolar disorder based on our findings (Figure 5), to account for the razor thin genetic load margin between clinically ill subjects and normal controls, which leaves a major role to be played by the environment (Lahiri and others 2009; Niculescu and others 2009). A stressful/hostile environment may lead to sub-threshold illness even in normal genetic load individuals, whereas a favorable environment may lead to supra normative functioning in certain life areas for individuals who carry a higher genetic risk. From a speculative standpoint, this proposed flexible interplay between genetic load, environment and phenotype may permit evolution to engender diversity, select and conserve alleles, ultimately shaping population groups.

From a pragmatic utility standpoint, we would like to suggest that genetic testing with highly prioritized panels of best markers will have, by itself, a rather modest role in informing clinical decisions regarding early intervention and prevention efforts, for example before the illness fully manifests itself clinically, in young offspring from high-risk families. After the illness manifests itself, biomarker and phenomic testing approaches, including clinical data, may have higher yield than genetic testing, and a multi-modal integration of testing modalities may be optimal, as individual markers are likely to not be specific for a single disorder. The continuing re-evaluation in psychiatric nosology (Niculescu and others 2009) (O'Donovan and others 2009) brought about by recent advances will have to be taken into account as well for final interpretation of any such testing. Our emerging appreciation of the complexity, heterogeneity, overlap and interdependence of major psychiatric disorders as currently defined, and their building blocks/Lego-like nature (Le-Niculescu and others 2007a), may make the development of tests for specific modular disease manifestations (mood, psychosis, anxiety) (Niculescu and others 2009) more useful and precise than those for broad diagnostic categories like bipolar disorder, schizophrenia or post-traumatic stress disorder.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by funds from INGEN (Indiana Genomics Initiative of Indiana University), INBRAIN (Indiana Center for Biomarker Research In Neuropsychiatry), NARSAD Young Investigator Award and VA Merit Award to ABN, as well as NIMH R01 MH071912-01 to Ming Tsuang and ABN. ABN would like to thank Nicholas Schork for extensive discussions on genetic data analyses, Daniel Salomon, Sunil Kurian and Howard Edenberg for help and advice with microarray data analyses, Ming Tsuang and Steven Faraone for help and advice with translational studies, as well as Mariano Erpe, Joyti Gupta and Jesse Townes for their precise work with database maintenance and data analyses. Most importantly, we would like to thank our colleagues in the field whose painstaking work we have cited and integrated in our analyses, particularly the BiGS consortium (see Supplementary Information), as well as the subjects who participated in these studies, their families and their caregivers. Without their contribution, such work to advance the understanding of mental illness would not be possible. This work is, in essence, a field-wide collaboration.

Conflict of interest

ABN is a scientific co-founder of Mindscape Diagnostics.

Supplementary Information for this paper is available from the journal website. Additional information is available at www.neurophenomics.info

For Peer Review

Table 1. Top candidate genes for bipolar disorder identified by Convergent Functional Genomics (CFG) of Genome-Wide Association studies (GWAS) data and replication of findings in an independent study. Top genes with a CFG score of 6.5 and above (n= 56) are shown. The complete list of genes (n= 1529) is available as Supplementary Information online. I - increased; D – decreased in expression. For human blood data: I –increased in high mood (mania); D – decreased in high mood (mania)/ increased in low mood (depression). (For human blood data, where references other than Le-Niculescu et al. 2009 are cited, the studies are in lymphoblastoid cell lines without correlation with mood state, I- increased; D- decreased). METH–methamphetamine, VPA–valproate. PFC - prefrontal cortex; AMY - amygdala; CP - caudate putamen; NAC - nucleus accumbens; VT - ventral tegmentum; DBP- DBP knock-out mice; NST-Non stressed; ST-Stressed; BP - bipolar disorder; BAD-Bipolar Affective Disorder; MDD-Major Depressive Disorder. TG- transgenic. QTL-quantitative trait locus. For additional human genetic evidence, Assoc- association evidence; where that is not mentioned, the evidence is linkage only. **Gene symbols underlined are blood biomarker candidate genes. P-values in bold are <0.001.** The column on the right of the bolded line depicts replication of findings in an independent bipolar GWAS (GAIN-BP). 46 of our top 56 genes had a p<0.05 in the GAIN-BP study. The p-value cited is the lowest for any SNP designated by SNPPer to be within the gene or flanking regions. As there were 6,041 genes at p<0.05 in that study, and the number of genes in the human genome is estimated at 20,500(Clamp and others 2007), the enrichment factor provided by our approach is (46/56)/(6041/20500)=2.8 fold. As a caveat, the GAIN-BP p-values are calculated for the whole cohort in that study, which contains some overlap with the cohort in the NIMH study (see Materials and Methods). In other words, the positive predictive value (PPV) of a CFG score greater than 6 (i.e. >50% maximum CFG score) for predicting possible involvement in bipolar disorder for a gene (p<0.05) is 46/56=82.1%. The negative predictive value (NPV) is (20500-6041-10)/ (20500-56) =70.7%. Such numbers compare favorably with detection modalities used in science in general, and medicine in particular.

Entrez ID	Gene Symbol/ Name	GWAS WTCC(2007) p-value	GWAS NIMH(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS German(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS Step-BD(Sklar and others 2008) p-value	Mouse Genetic Evidence (QTL, TG)	Mouse Models Brain Evidence (Ogden and others 2004),(Le-Niculescu and others 2008c)	Mouse Models Blood Evidence (Le-Niculescu and others 2008b)	Human Genetic Evidence (Linkage or Association)	Human Postmortem Brain Evidence	Human Blood/ Other Peripheral Tissue Evidence	CFG Score	GAIN-BP p-value
36	ARNTL aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear translocator-like	7.71E-04 rs4757141	3.84E-02 rs4757138	3.72E-02 rs3816360	2.56E-02 rs11022781	Abnormal Sleep Pattern/ Circadian Rhythm(TG)	PFC (D) Cat IV- METH		11p15.2 BP (Mansour and others 2006; Nievergelt and others 2006; Partonen and others 2007) (Assoc) 18q23	I (BP)(Nakatani and others 2006)		8.5	4.87E-02
41	MBP myelin basic protein	8.30E-03 rs470549	8.19E-04 rs470821	1.17E-03 rs12967023		NST PFC (D) ST PFC (D) ST AMY (I)		BP Blood (I) Cat IV- Meth	BP (Potash and others 2008) (Assoc) BP (Schulze and others 2003), (Maziade and others 2005), (Freimer and others 1996)	D(BP) (Tkachev and others 2003) I (male BP) D (female BP) (Chambers and Perrone-Bizzozero 2004)	Mood (I) (Le-Niculescu and others 2008a)	8.5	3.14E-03

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Entrez ID	Gene Symbol/ Name	GWAS WTCC(2007) p-value	GWAS NIMH(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS German(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS Step-BD(Sklar and others 2008) p-value	Mouse Genetic Evidence (QTL, TG)	Mouse Models Brain Evidence (Ogden and others 2004),(Le-Niculescu and others 2008c)	Mouse Models Blood Evidence (Le-Niculescu and others 2008b)	Human Genetic Evidence (Linkage or Association)	Human Postmortem Brain Evidence	Human Blood/ Other Peripheral Tissue Evidence	CFG Score	GAIN-BP p-value
16 ⁶²⁷	BDNF brain derived neurotrophic factor	1.05E-02 rs16917234	3.76E-02 rs925946	1.91E-03 rs12291063		Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (TG)	PFC (D) Cat IV-METH		11p14.1 BP (Neves-Pereira and others 2002), (Liu and others 2008; Sklar and others 2002) (Assoc) BP (Detera-Wadleigh and others 1999), (McInnes and others 1996) Depression (Aguilera and others 2009) (Assoc) MDD (Licinio and others 2009) (Assoc)	D(BP) (Torrey and others 2005), (Pillai 2008), (Knable and others 2004) D (Depression)(Duman and Monteggia 2006)	BP (D) (Karega and others 2004)	8.0	4.19E-02
26 ⁹⁰⁸⁴	NRG1 Neuregulin 1	1.07E-05 rs7821190	2.19E-03 rs327380	4.51E-03 rs6468095	8.81E-04 rs2466085				8p12 BP (Georgieva and others 2008; Green and others 2005; Thomson and others 2007; Wals-Bass and others 2006) (Assoc) BP (Park and others 2004),(Cichon and others 2001)	I (BP) (Tkachev and others 2003) D (Unipolar depression)(Bertram and others 2007)	BP(I) (Begemann and others 2008)	8.0	1.16E-02
32 ⁶⁰⁹⁶	RORB RAR-related orphan receptor beta	1.29E-02 rs10869435	5.88E-04 rs1327837	1.95E-02 rs1359073	8.99E-04 rs10869435	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (TG)	ST AMY (I) ST PFC (D)		9q21.13 BP (Macgregor and others 2004) BP (McGrath and others 2009) (Assoc)			8.0	9.38E-03
37 ⁵⁴⁷¹⁵	A2BP1 ataxin-2-binding protein 1	3.42E-05 rs8046170	4.23E-04 rs1818290	1.59E-04 rs11077135	4.18E-03 rs7187986		VT (D) Cat III-VPA		16p13.2 BP (Baum and others 2008; Johnson and others 2009) (Assoc) BP (Ewald and others 2002)			7.5	1.11E-02
41 ²¹⁶	ALDH1A1 aldehyde dehydrogenase family 1, subfamily A1	1.29E-02 rs348478	1.58E-04 rs348458	3.34E-02 rs7873724		Abnormal sleep pattern/circadian rhythm (QTL)	NST PFC (D) ST AMY (I)	BP Blood (D) Cat IV-Meth	9q21.13 BP (Macgregor and others 2004)	I (BP) (Pennington and others 2007)		7.5	3.08E-02
47 ⁷¹⁸⁵	DISC1 disrupted in schizophrenia 1	1.31E-02 rs6671423	2.99E-03 rs9431714	6.08E-03 rs7534681	8.61E-03 rs821577	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (TG)			1q42.2 BP (Hodgkinson and others 2004; Maeda and others 2006; Thomson and others 2005),(Perlis and others 2008) (Assoc) MDD (Schosser and others 2009) (Assoc)	MDD (Sawamura and others 2005)	BP(D) (Maeda and others 2006)	7.5	2.73E-02
53 ²⁸⁹⁰	GRIA1 glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA 1	1.47E-02 rs17096210	6.55E-03 rs4958667	9.19E-03 rs7719292	6.84E-03 rs1461232	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (QTL)	VT (D) Cat IV-METH		5q33.2 BP (Kerner and others 2008) (Assoc) BP (Sklar and others 2004), (Morissette and others 1999)	I (BP),(MDD) ^(Choudhary and others 2005)		7.5	2.48E-04

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Entrez ID	Gene Symbol/ Name	GWAS WTCC(2007) p-value	GWAS NIMH(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS German(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS Step-BD(Sklar and others 2008) p-value	Mouse Genetic Evidence (QTL, TG)	Mouse Models Brain Evidence (Ogden and others 2004),(Le-Niculescu and others 2008c)	Mouse Models Blood Evidence (Le-Niculescu and others 2008b)	Human Genetic Evidence (Linkage or Association)	Human Postmortem Brain Evidence	Human Blood/ Other Peripheral Tissue Evidence	CFG Score	GAIN-BP p-value
11 12 13 ⁸⁴² 14 15 16	NOS1 nitric oxide synthase 1, neuronal	1.72E-02 rs1607817	3.73E-02 rs2271987	4.56E-02 rs12811583	2.12E-02 rs10850803	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior Abnormal sleep pattern/circadian rhythm (QTL)	NST AMY (D)		12q24.22 BP (Fallin and others 2005) (Assoc) BP (Chagnon and others 2004), (Morissette and others 1999)	I/D (BP) (Benes and others 2006)		7.5	1.13E-02
17 18 19 ⁷³ 20 21 22	CACNA1A calcium channel, voltage-dependent, P/Q type, alpha 1A subunit	2.99E-02 rs17777941	2.12E-02 rs10421810	7.04E-04 rs10421810	2.70E-03 rs16016	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (QTL)			19p13.13 BP (Ferreira and others 2008b) (Assoc) MDD (Zubenko and others 2003)	D (BP) (Iwamoto and others 2004)		7.0	5.67E-03
23 ⁶⁵⁹ 24	CUGBP2 CUG triplet repeat, RNA binding protein 2	2.84E-05 rs682970	3.38E-03 rs932918	2.66E-02 rs2378991	9.51E-03 rs1990		ST PFC (I)		10p14 MDD (Zubenko and others 2003)		BP (I) (Maltagliu and others 2007)	7.0	1.59E-02
25 26 ⁸²⁶ 27	DSCAM Down syndrome cell adhesion molecule like 1	1.39E-03 rs455304	2.72E-04 rs8129283	8.11E-04 rs7278073	1.51E-02 rs2837504			21q22.2 BP (Amano and others 2008) (Assoc)	I (BP) (Amano and others 2008)			7.0	1.66E-03
28 29 ⁹¹³ 30 31	GRM3 glutamate receptor, metabotropic 3	3.43E-02 rs6955917	3.18E-03 rs10226401	7.36E-03 rs2237552	2.22E-04 rs2237554		ST AMY (I)		7q21.12 BP (Lambert and others 2005), (Etain and others 2006)	D (MDD/Suicide) (Klempan and others 2007) I (BP) (Choudary and others 2005)		7.0	5.69E-03
32 33 34 35 ²⁹³² 36 37 38	GSK3B glycogen synthase kinase 3 beta	9.82E-03 rs17811013	1.62E-02 rs17810235	6.72E-03 rs6438552		Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (TG)	CP (D) Cat IV-VPA ST PFC (D) ST AMY (I) PFC (D) Cat IV-METH		3q13.33 BP (Lachman and others 2007; Szczepankiewicz and others 2006) (Assoc) BP (Bailer and others 2002; Benedetti and others 2004; Maziade and others 2005)	D (BP) (Nakatani and others 2006), (Vawter and others 2006) I (MDD) (Vawter and others 2006)		7.0	
39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 ³⁵⁶ 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60	HTR2A 5-hydroxytryptamine (serotonin) receptor 2A	1.86E-02 rs2025296	4.52E-02 rs972979	1.65E-03 rs17288723	5.60E-03 rs977003	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior Abnormal sleep pattern/circadian rhythm (TG)			13q14.2 BP (Arranz and others 1997; Lin and others 2003; McAuley and others 2009) (Assoc) BP (Chee and others 2001; Ranade and others 2003) (Assoc) BP (Badenhop and others 2002) Major Affective Disorders (Bonnier and others 2002) (Assoc) Mood Disorders (Brezo and others 2009) (Assoc) Response to Antidepressants (SSRI) (Uher and others 2009) (Assoc)	D (BP) (Torrey and others 2005), (Knable and others 2004) I (Suicide) (Klempan and others 2007)		7.0	3.19E-03

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Entrez ID	Gene Symbol/ Name	GWAS WTCC(2007) p-value	GWAS NIMH(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS German(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS Step-BD(Sklar and others 2008) p-value	Mouse Genetic Evidence (QTL, TG)	Mouse Models Brain Evidence (Ogden and others 2004),(Le-Niculescu and others 2008c)	Mouse Models Blood Evidence (Le-Niculescu and others 2008b)	Human Genetic Evidence (Linkage or Association)	Human Postmortem Brain Evidence	Human Blood/ Other Peripheral Tissue Evidence	CFG Score	GAIN-BP p-value
11 12775	KCNK1 potassium channel, subfamily K, member 1	1.89E-02 rs3843250	7.60E-03 rs4649240	3.47E-04 rs701209	4.38E-02 rs4649343				1q42.2 BP (Curtis and others 2003; Macgregor and others 2004)	D (BP) (Jurata and others 2004)	BP (I) (Matigah and others 2007)	7.0	
14 15 16278	KLF12 Kruppel-like factor 12	2.76E-03 rs4885151	6.77E-04 rs9600160	1.68E-04 rs9543443		Abnormal emotion/affect behavior Abnormal sleep pattern/circadian rhythm (QTL)	ST AMY (I) ST PFC (D)		13q22.1 BP (Potash and others 2003)		Mood (D) (Le-Niculescu and others 2008a)	7.0	4.93E-04
19 20 10150	MBNL2 muscleblind-like 2	2.94E-03 rs6491345	4.64E-02 rs7318623	4.02E-04 rs9584552	1.61E-02 rs16953952		AMY (D) Cat III-VPA	DBP NST Blood (D)	13q32.1 BP (Kelsoe and others 2001)			7.0	4.08E-02
21 22 23 89797	NAV2 Neuron navigator 2	4.16E-03 rs2119981	5.77E-04 rs1372797	2.04E-03 rs2218329	1.87E-03 rs10500860	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (TG)			11p15.1 BP (Detera-Wadleigh and others 1999)	D, Bipolar Suicide (Kim and others 2007)		7.0	1.73E-03
25 26 27 684	NCAM1 neural cell adhesion molecule 1	2.77E-02 rs11214501	2.61E-02 rs586903	8.62E-03 rs12279261	1.75E-02 rs4366519				11q23.1 BP (Atz and others 2007) BP (Arai and others 2004) (Assoc)	D (BP) (Atz and others 2007) MDD (D) (Tchigi and others 2008)	BP (D) peripheral blood cells (Wakabayashi and others 2008)	7.0	
31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 908	NR3C1 nuclear receptor subfamily 3, group C, member 1 (glucocorticoid receptor)	4.03E-03 rs17209251	3.71E-02 rs10482672	2.96E-02 rs10482672	2.69E-02 rs2918417	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (TG)			5q31.3 BP (Etain and others 2006) MDD (van West and others 2006) MDD (Wong and others 2008) (Assoc) Response to Antidepressants (SSRI) (Uher and others 2009) (Assoc)	D (BP) (Torrey and others 2005),(Knable and others 2004) I, MDD Suicide (Sequeira and others 2007)		7.0	7.54E-03
39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60	OPRM1 opioid receptor, mu 1	7.82E-04 rs2010884	7.31E-03 rs650825	1.90E-03 rs7745499	2.11E-02 rs2141289	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (TG)			6q25.2 BP (Cheng and others 2006)	I (BP) (Ryan and others 2006)		7.0	7.57E-03
41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60	PCDH9 protocadherin 9	9.77E-03 rs17082149	1.19E-03 rs9317626	4.80E-04 rs7986387		Abnormal emotion/affect behavior Abnormal sleep pattern/circadian rhythm (QTL)	NST AMY (I)		13q21.32 BP (Potash and others 2003) MDD (Wong and others 2006) Assoc	D (MDD/Suicide) (Klempner and others 2007)		7.0	4.92E-03
45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60	PDE4B phosphodiesterase 4B, cAMP-specific (phosphodiesterase E4 dunce homolog, Drosophila)	6.02E-03 rs6588190	1.60E-03 rs539322	1.41E-02 rs12021574	4.42E-02 rs17417507				1p31.2 BP (Millar and others 2007) (Assoc)	D (BP) (Fatemi and others 2008)	BP (I) (Padmos and others 2008) MDD (I), Leukocyte (Numata and others 2009)	7.0	1.54E-03
50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60	PRKCE protein kinase C, epsilon	4.59E-03 rs2711293	2.37E-04 rs2595221	1.20E-02 rs6748375	2.48E-02 rs4557033	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (TG)			2p21 BP (Etain and others 2006)	D (BP) (Torrey and others 2005)		7.0	1.46E-03
53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60	PTN pleiotrophin (heparin binding growth factor 8, neurite growth-promoting factor 1)	2.85E-02 rs6977819	1.90E-02 rs6977749	4.56E-03 rs320682	8.78E-04 rs17169022		CP (I) Cat IV-METH		7q33 BP (Segurado and others 2003)	I (MDD) (Tchigi and others 2008)		7.0	1.03E-03

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Entrez ID	Gene Symbol/ Name	GWAS WTCC(20 07) p-value	GWAS NIMH(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS German(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS Step-BD(Sklar and others 2008) p-value	Mouse Genetic Evidence (QTL, TG)	Mouse Models Brain Evidence (Ogden and others 2004),(Le-Niculescu and others 2008c)	Mouse Models Blood Evidence (Le-Niculescu and others 2008b)	Human Genetic Evidence (Linkage or Association)	Human Postmortem Brain Evidence	Human Blood/ Other Peripheral Tissue Evidence	CFG Score	GAIN-BP p-value
11 5797	PTPM protein tyrosine phosphatase, receptor type, M	1.74E-02 rs727951	1.10E-02 rs3786367	2.41E-04 rs16952620	1.01E-02 rs4121619				18p11.23 BP (Segurado and others 2003)	I (BP) (Nakatani and others 2006)	Mood (D) (Le-Niculescu and others 2008a)	7.0	1.14E-03
13 14263	RYR3 ryanodine receptor 3	1.21E-03 rs16957945	2.89E-04 rs2596205	6.09E-03 rs2670955	8.07E-03 rs744776	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (TG)	CP (I) Cat IV-VPA		15q13.3 Depression (Levinson and others 2007)			7.0	1.11E-03
16 9522	SCAMP1 secretory carrier membrane protein 1	1.71E-02 rs1019803	1.31E-02 rs1968382	2.46E-03 rs16875382	2.25E-02 rs16875428		ST PFC (D)	DBP NST (D)	5q14.1		Mood (D) (Le-Niculescu and others 2008a)	7.0	4.14E-02
18 19287	ANK2 ankyrin 2, neuronal	4.77E-04 rs17445459	1.34E-02 rs17590593	8.90E-03 rs10516593	5.18E-03 rs1351998	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (QTL)	ST PFC (I)		4q25 BP (Lambert and others 2005)			6.5	9.42E-05
22 23351	APP amyloid beta (A4) precursor protein	3.37E-02 rs3991	9.86E-03 rs2829984	7.81E-03 rs3787620	1.04E-02 rs2830048	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior Abnormal sleep pattern/circadian rhythm (TG)			21q21.3 BP (Morissette and others 1999)	I (BP) (Jurata and others 2004)		6.5	
26 310	ATXN1 ataxin 1	1.11E-03 rs9370893	5.55E-03 rs2237198	6.58E-03 rs12198838	3.96E-04 rs909786		ST PFC (D)		6p22.3		Mood (I)	6.5	1.12E-03
28 2915	CAMK2A calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II alpha		1.76E-02 rs10515639	3.62E-02 rs3797617	2.30E-02 rs4958469	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior Abnormal sleep pattern/circadian rhythm (TG)	NST AMY (I)		5q32 BP (Sklar and others 2004), (Etain and others 2006)	D (BP) (Xing and others 2002) I (MDD) (Tochigi and others 2008), (Novak and others 2006)		6.5	
32 33360	CD44 CD44 antigen	3.48E-02 rs16927100	3.94E-03 rs353615	1.06E-02 rs7115768			CP (I) Cat IV-METH	BP Blood (D) Cat IV-Meth	11p13 BP (McInnes and others 1996)		BP (I) (Middleton and others 2005)	6.5	4.01E-04
35 012	CDH13 cadherin 13	5.89E-03 rs1862682	2.50E-03 rs7198252	9.08E-04 rs931408	8.01E-03 rs7197423	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (QTL)	NST AMY (D)		16q23.3 BP (Etain and others 2006)			6.5	2.90E-03
37 1387	CREBBP CREB binding protein	5.02E-03 rs130036	1.39E-03 rs13332076	3.64E-03 rs129963	1.91E-02 rs11644593	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (TG)	ST PFC (D)		16p13.3 BP (Ewald and others 2002)			6.5	1.37E-03
39 40612	DAPK1 death-associated protein kinase 1	4.02E-02 rs11141909	5.97E-05 rs10868644	4.04E-02 rs3124236	1.56E-03 rs3124236	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (QTL)	AMY (D) Cat III-VPA		9q21.33 BP (Segurado and others 2003)			6.5	5.20E-03
42 201	DCLK1 doublecortin-like kinase 1	1.20E-02	2.36E-03	5.27E-03	2.59E-02		BP (D) Cat IV-VPA	DBP NST (D)	13q13.3 BP SZ (Maziade and others 2005)			6.5	
44 729	DIAPH1 diaphanous (Drosophila, homolog) 1	2.62E-02 rs740474	4.70E-02 rs11954658	3.38E-03 rs397327	7.63E-03 rs3792896		CP (I) Cat III-VPA		5q31.3 BP (Etain and others 2006)		BP (I) (Matigian and others 2007)	6.5	
47 7086	FOXP1 forkhead box P1	4.80E-03 rs950443	9.66E-04 rs7640237	5.33E-03 rs3846031	1.58E-04 rs17718783		NST AMY (D) ST PFC (D)		3p13 BP (McInnes and others 1996), (Etain and others 2006)			6.5	2.97E-03
49 770	GNAI1 guanine nucleotide binding protein, alpha inhibiting 1	4.98E-03 rs10429156	7.55E-03 rs6973616	1.55E-02 rs916905	3.71E-02 rs2523189		ST PFC (D)		7q21.11 BP (Lambert and others 2005)	D (BP) (Jurata and others 2004)		6.5	4.32E-02
53 542897	GRIK1 glutamate receptor, ionotropic, kainate 1	5.39E-04 rs2154490	2.79E-03 rs2832476	3.36E-02 rs464982	4.47E-02 rs467155	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (QTL)			21q21.3 BP (Morissette and others 1999), (Detera-Wadleigh and others 1999)	D (BP) (Nakatani and others 2006), (Choudhary and others 2005), (Iwamoto and others 2004) I (MDD) (Choudhary and others 2005)		6.5	5.91E-03

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Entrez ID	Gene Symbol/ Name	GWAS WTCC(2007) p-value	GWAS NIMH(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS German(Baum and others 2008) p-value	GWAS Step-BD(Sklar and others 2008) p-value	Mouse Genetic Evidence (QTL, TG)	Mouse Models Brain Evidence (Ogden and others 2004),(Le-Niculescu and others 2008c)	Mouse Models Blood Evidence (Le-Niculescu and others 2008b)	Human Genetic Evidence (Linkage or Association)	Human Postmortem Brain Evidence	Human Blood/ Other Peripheral Tissue Evidence	CFG Score	GAIN-BP p-value
11 2939	GSTA2 glutathione S-transferase, alpha 2 (Yc2)	1.14E-03 rs2207950	1.93E-03 rs2608632	1.89E-03 rs2224198	1.52E-02 rs2749010			BP (D) Cat III-Meth	6p12.2 BP (Lambert and others 2005)	I (BP) (Benes and others 2006)		6.5	
13	KCND2 potassium voltage-gated channel, Shal-related family, member 2	5.78E-03 rs10156125	4.08E-03 rs12538990	5.24E-05 rs10268591	3.86E-02 rs2191736	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior(QTL)	ST PFC (D)		7q31.31 BP (Etain and others 2006)			6.5	
17	LMO7 LIM domain only 7	6.62E-05 rs9530460	1.11E-02 rs9593132	8.17E-03 rs1570554	6.59E-03 rs9530460	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior Abnormal sleep pattern/circadian rhythm(QTL)			13q22.2 BP (Potash and others 2003)		Anti-depressant (D) Lymphocytes (Kalman and others 2005)	6.5	2.26E-02
22	MYT1L myelin transcription factor 1-like	2.25E-04 rs1991773	1.31E-02 rs1421614	1.25E-02 rs10519486	1.65E-02 rs17039396	Abnormal sleep pattern/circadian rhythm (QTL)	ST PFC (D)		2p25.3 BP (Detera-Wadleigh and others 1999)			6.5	5.83E-03
26	NDUFS2 NADH dehydrogenase (ubiquinone) Fe-S protein 2, 49kDa (NADH-coenzyme Q reductase)	4.27E-02 rs5085	1.08E-02 rs11421	4.67E-02 rs11421	3.61E-02 rs5085			BP (I) Cat III-VPA	1q23 BP (Fallin and others 2004)		BP(D) (Middleton and others 2005)	6.5	
30	NRCAM neuronal cell adhesion molecule	1.63E-03 rs13227836	5.94E-04 rs3763461	8.60E-04 rs1548949	4.35E-02 rs11974528	Abnormal Sleep pattern/circadian rhythm (QTL)	NST AMY (I)		7q31.1 BP (Cheng and others 2006)			6.5	1.16E-03
32	PDE10A phosphodiesterase 10A	1.50E-02 rs2983506	9.64E-03 rs12525763	1.50E-03 rs454165	3.40E-03 rs2983521	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (TG)	NST AMY (D) ST PFC (D)		6q27 BP (Cheng and others 2006)			6.5	2.16E-02
35	PTPR protein tyrosine phosphatase, receptor type, T	6.27E-03 rs6030385	3.45E-03 rs2425478	1.12E-02 rs1016071	4.67E-03 rs1883842		ST AMY (I)		20q12 BP (Radhakrishna and others 2001)	I (MDD/Suicid) (Sequeira and others 2007) D (MDD) (Aston and others 2005)		6.5	1.20E-03
39	SLC8A1 solute carrier family 8 (sodium/calcium exchanger), member 1	4.57E-03 rs10490049	2.77E-04 rs17025372	2.28E-02 rs381797	7.44E-03 rs12052585	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (QTL)	ST AMY (I) ST PFC (D)		2p22.1 BP (Etain and others 2006)			6.5	1.30E-02
44	SYN3 synapsin III	1.67E-04 rs11089599	4.94E-03 rs130301	4.17E-03 rs3788467	2.03E-02 rs933255				22q12.3 BP (Lachman and others 2006) (Assoc)	D(BP) (Vawter and others 2002)		6.5	7.97E-03
49	TIAM1 T-cell lymphoma invasion and metastasis 1	7.39E-05 rs13340018	1.82E-03 rs12482796	2.65E-03 rs2257062	2.49E-03 rs845945	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior (QTL)			21q22.11 BP (Morissette and others 1999)	D(MDD) (Aston and others 2005)		6.5	3.31E-02
51	TSHZ2 Teashirt family zinc finger 2	1.98E-02 rs7263115	8.22E-03 rs2741356	3.58E-04 rs169270	1.73E-02 rs6068531	Abnormal emotion/affect behavior(QTL)			20q13.2 BP (Radhakrishna and others 2001)		Mood (D) (Le-Niculescu and others 2008a)	6.5	8.16E-03
53	ZDHHC14 zinc finger, DHHC domain containing 14	4.09E-03 rs1885452	4.59E-03 rs596183	3.56E-02 rs16900254	4.89E-03 rs17297221		ST AMY (I)		6q25.3 BP (Cheng and others 2006)		Mood (D) (Le-Niculescu and others 2008a)	6.5	2.40E-02

Table 2: Biological Pathways. Ingenuity Pathway Analysis of the Top Candidate Genes from Table 1.

Top Networks		
Associated Network Functions	Score	
1. Nervous System Development and Function, Neurological Disease, Genetic Disorder	38	
2. Cellular Compromise, Neurological Disease, Drug metabolism	38	
3. Cellular Assembly and Organization, Cardiovascular System Development and Function, Cellular Growth and Proliferation	24	
4. Amino Acid Metabolism, Cancer, Cell Morphology	19	
Top Bio Functions		
Diseases and Disorders	p-value	# Molecules
Genetic Disorder	1.52E-19 – 3.47E-03	53
Neurological Disease	1.52E-19 – 3.67E-03	47
Psychological Disorders	1.52E-19 – 1.95E-03	35
Endocrine System Disorders	4.63E-15 – 3.67E-03	38
Metabolic Disease	2.44E-14 – 1.05E-07	38
Molecular and Cellular Functions	p-value	# Molecules
Cellular Assembly and Organization	4.21E-08 – 3.67E-03	23
Cell-To-Cell Signaling and Interaction	8.46E-08 – 3.67E-03	26
Cellular Movement	2.87E-07 – 3.67E-03	15
Amino Acid Metabolism	1.68E-06 – 2.81E-03	15
Molecular Transport	1.68E-06 – 3.67E-03	18
Physiological System Development and Function	p-value	# Molecules
Behavior	4.22E-13 – 2.94E-03	19
Nervous System Development and Function	2.83E-11 – 3.67E-03	33
Organismal Functions	1.97E-10 – 1.45E-09	10
Tissue Morphology	2.27E-05 – 3.67E-03	17
Hematological System Development and Function	7.44E-05 – 3.67E-03	14
Top Canonical Pathways		
	p-value	Ratio
1. G-Protein Coupled Receptor Signaling	8.50E-07	8/218 (0.037)
2. CREB Signaling in Neurons	3.00E-06	7/194 (0.036)
3. Synaptic Long Term Depression	1.46E-05	6/164 (0.037)
4. cAMP-mediated Signaling	2.47E-05	6/164 (0.037)
5. Neuropathic Pain Signaling In Dorsal Horn Neurons	3.54E-05	5/104(0.048)

Table 3: Intra- Pathway Epistasis (INPEP) Testing Identifies Genes That May Work Together. Inside each of the top canonical pathways depicted in Table 2, we tested for epistatic interactions between genes in the pathway, in an independent dataset, the GAIN-BP, as a way of identifying and prioritizing interactions. The top epistatic interactions in each pathway are depicted in bold. These genes merit future follow-up work to elucidate the biological and pathophysiological relevance of their interactions. As a caveat, the p-value was not corrected for multiple comparisons.

Ingenuity Top Canonical Pathways	Genes									Nominal Epistatic p-values
G-Protein Coupled Receptor Signaling	CAMK2A	GRM3	PDE10A *	OPRM1	GNAI1	PRKCE	PDE4B*	HTR2A		*0.0133
CREB Signaling in Neurons	CAMK2A	GRM3	GRIA1	CREBBP*	GNAI1*	PRKCE	GRIK1			*0.0138
Synaptic Long Term Depression	NOS1*	GRM3*	GRIA1	RYR3	GNAI1	PRKCE				*0.0173
cAMP-mediated Signaling	CAMK2A	GRM3	PDE10A *	OPRM1	GNAI1	PDE4B*				*0.0133
Neuropathic Pain Signaling In Dorsal Horn Neurons	CAMK2A	BDNF	GRM3*	GRIA1	PRKCE*					*0.0298

Figure legends:

Figure 1. Convergent Functional Genomics. Integration of multiple independent lines of evidence. The maximal possible score from GWAS data (6pt.) is equally weighed with the maximal possible score from other lines of evidence (other human and animal model gene expression and genetic data) (6 pt.).

Figure 2: Top Bipolar Candidate Genes. The lines of evidence (CFG scoring) is depicted on the right side of the pyramid.

Figure 3. The Genetic Risk Prediction Score (GRPS) for bipolar disorder differentiates between bipolar subjects and normal controls in an independent study, in two different ethnic groups. The GRPS is based on a panel of the best p-value SNPs (n=216) from the best top genes (n=56) for bipolar disorder identified by CFG of 4 GWAS for bipolar disorder (see Table 1). The GRPS shows statistically significant differences between subjects with bipolar disorder and normal controls, in European American (EA) (a) as well as in African Americans (AA) (b), in an independent GWAS study (GAIN-BP, Smith et. al. 2009). Out of 216 SNPs in our panel, 118 SNPs were genotyped in the GAIN-BP study. **Gender analyses** exhibited slight trends towards higher GRPS in males than females in both ethnicities, that did not reach statistical significance (c,d). **Episode frequency:** of note, the GRPS is able to differentiate between high episode frequency and low episode frequency bipolar subjects in EA (e), but not AA subjects (f). Episode frequency is a measure of clinical severity, tied to recurrence and to cycling between euthymia, depression and mania.

Figure 4. Prototype of how GRPS testing could be used at an individual rather than population level, to aid diagnostic and personalized medicine approaches. We split the GAIN-BP samples from each ethnicity into a 2/3 cohort used for setting GRPS thresholds for bipolar and controls (a, c), and a 1/3 cohort used for testing the predictive value of these settings (b, d). The average GRPS score for bipolar subjects in the 2/3 cohort is used as a cut-off for bipolar in the test 1/3 cohort (i.e. being above that threshold), and the average GRPS score for controls in the 2/3 cohort is used as a cut-off for controls in the test 1/3 cohort (i.e. being below that threshold). The subjects who are in between these two thresholds are called undetermined. Furthermore, to stratify risk, we categorized subjects in the 1/3 testing cohort into Category 1 if they fall within one standard deviation above the bipolar threshold, and Category -1 if they fall within one standard deviation below the control threshold. Category 2 subjects are between one and two standard deviations from the thresholds, Category 3 between two and three standard deviations, and Category 4 are those who fall beyond three standard deviations of the threshold. The positive predictive value (PPV) of the tests increases in the higher categories, and the test is somewhat better at distinguishing controls (i.e., in a practical application, individuals that are lower risk of developing the illness) than bipolars (i.e., in a practical application, individuals that are higher risk of developing the illness).

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5 **Figure 5. The genetic architecture of bipolar disorders: Cummulative Combinatorics of**
6 **Common Gene variants and Environment (CC xCGV xE) model.** We proposed in our
7 previous work(Le-Niculescu and others 2009b) that the repertoire of genes that may be involved
8 directly or indirectly in bipolar disorders/mood regulation is large, up to 10% of the genes in the
9 genome (*complexity*). Our current work suggests that different combinations of genes/alleles are
10 found in different individuals (*heterogeneity*), and many alleles in these genes are shared
11 between bipolars and controls (*overlap*). The environment may play a key interactive role in the
12 trajectory from genetic risk to ultimate phenotype (*interdependence*), by modulating gene
13 expression. For example, with the right environment a higher genetic load (GRPS score)
14 individual may become normal or even a high performer. This shuffling of the genetic deck of
15 cards and the interaction with the environment provide a basis for Darwinian adaptation and
16 evolution of mood, a key bodily function synchronizing energy metabolism, trophicity and activity
17 to external and internal milieu conditions(Le-Niculescu and others 2009a; Le-Niculescu and
18 others 2009b) . Circadian clock molecular mechanisms, involving ARNTL, RORB, DBP and
19 other molecules, may be essential mediators (Le-Niculescu and others 2008c; Niculescu and
20 others 2000b; Ogden and others 2004; Takahashi and others 2008) (Zhang and others 2009).
21 Geometric symbols in the figure depict different genes/alleles.
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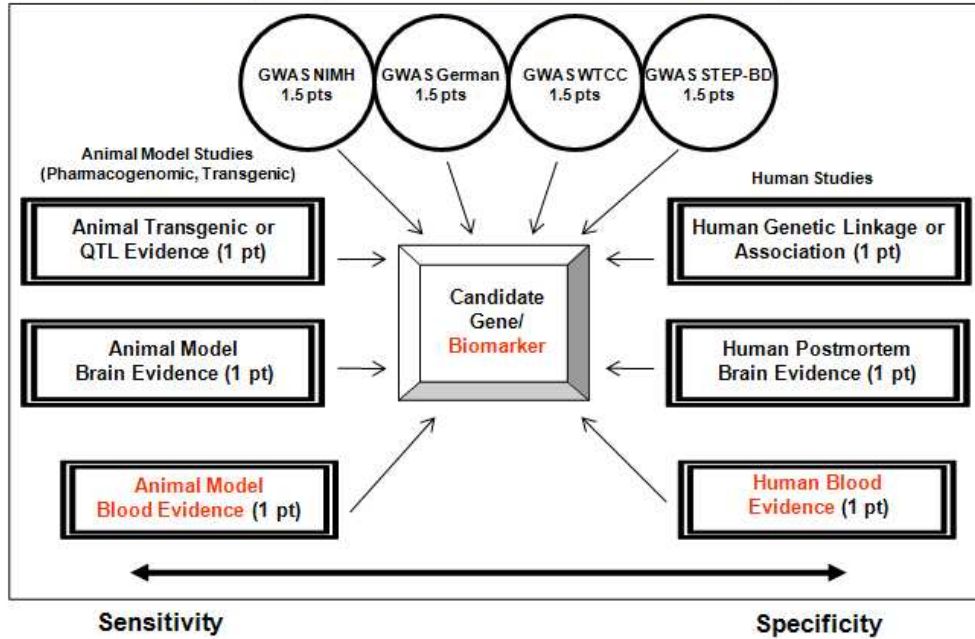
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**Convergent Functional Genomics
Multiple Independent Lines of Evidence
For Bayesian Cross-Validation of GWAS Data**



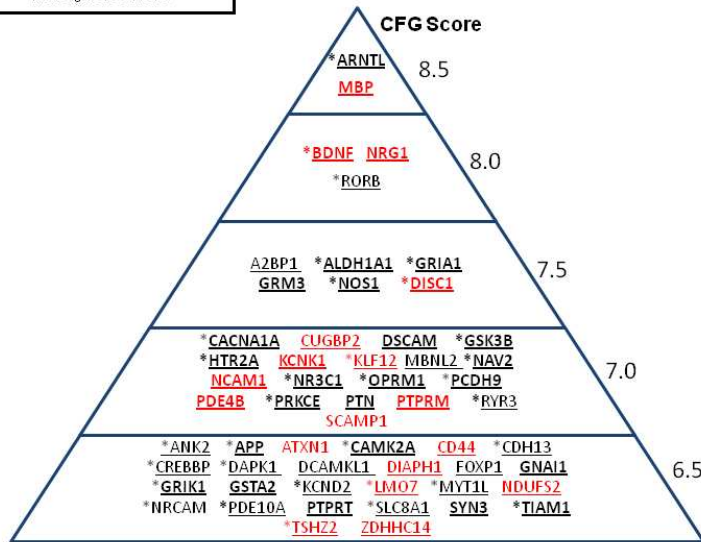
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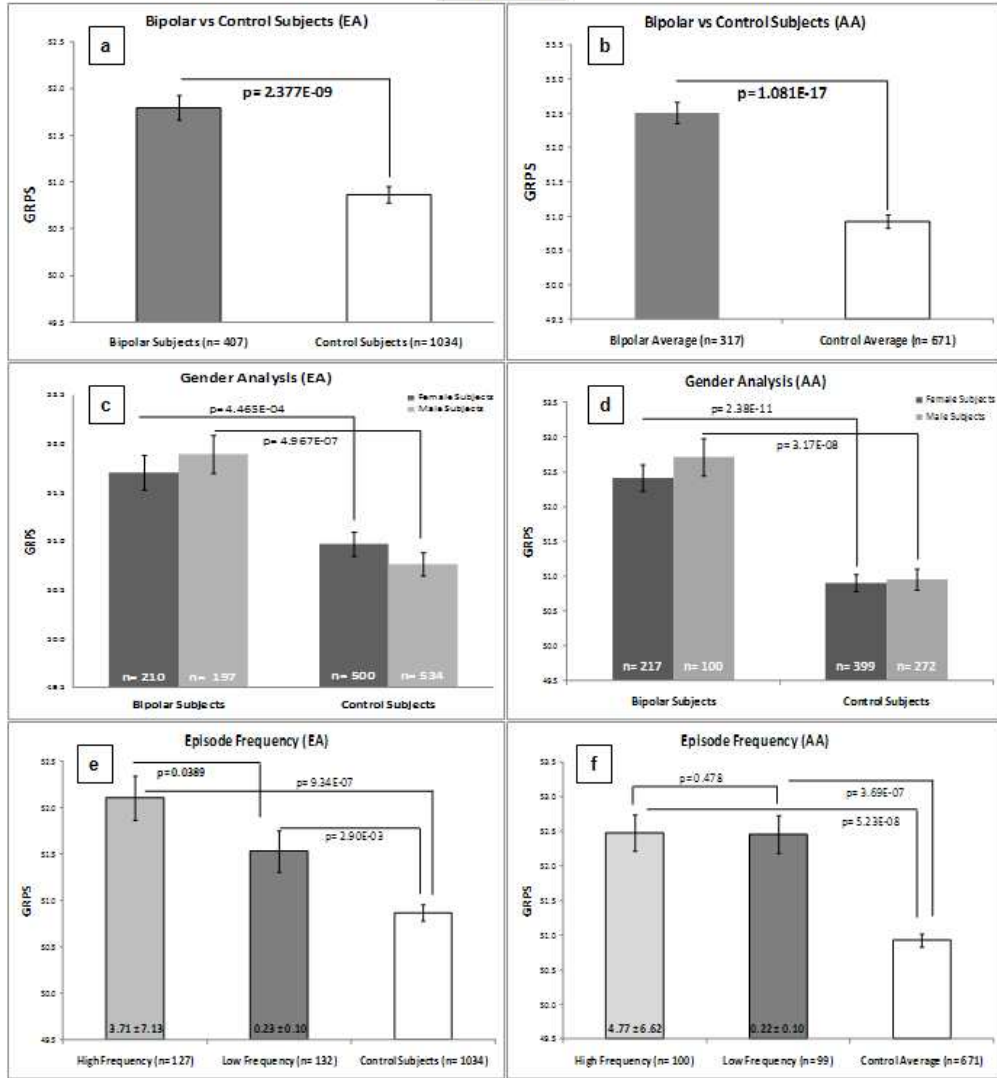
Human Postmortem Brain Evidence
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 * Mouse genetic evidence



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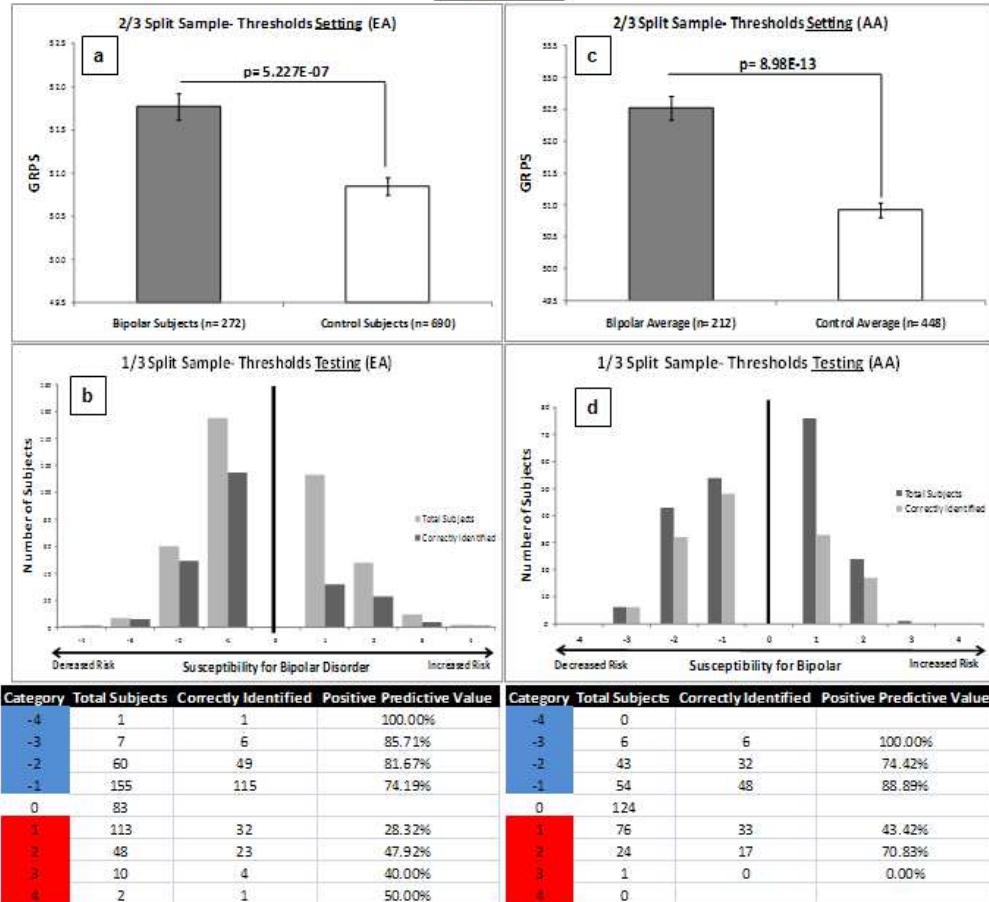
Review

Figure 3.



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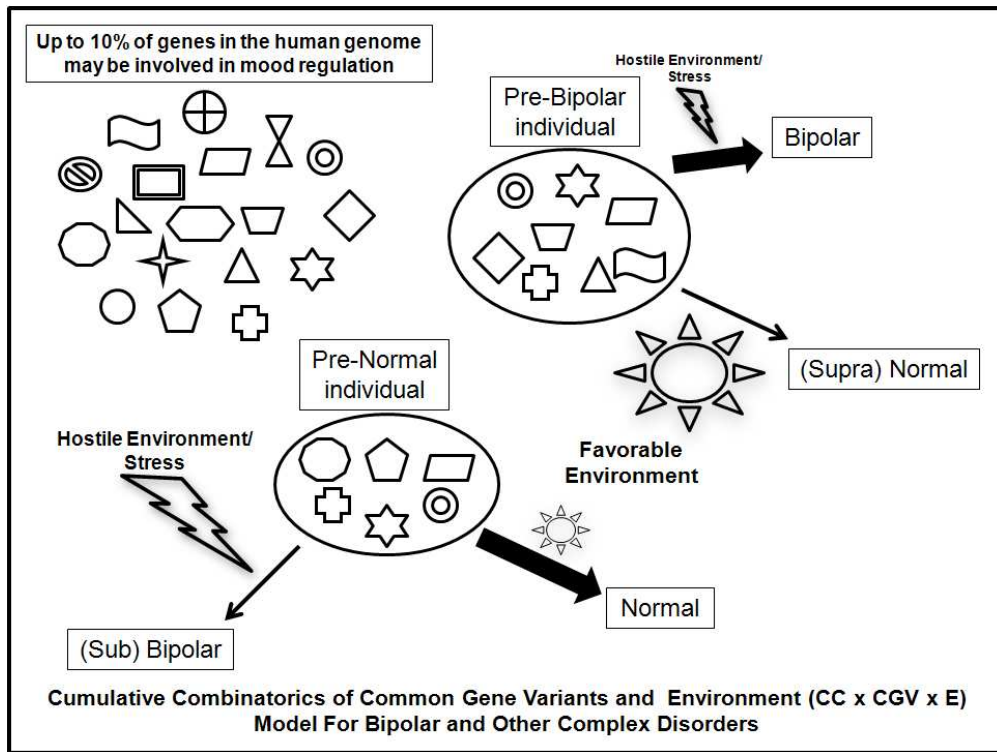
Figure 4.



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340x256mm (72 x 72 DPI)

Review

Supplementary Information

**Figure 1S. CFG of GWAS for Bipolar Disorder
-cross-matching genetic with gene expression data**

3 GWAS (WTCC, NIMH, German)	1565 genes
+ Step-BD	+92 genes
+ GAIN-BP	+169 genes
Total	1826 genes

Up to 10% of the genome may be involved
directly or indirectly in mood regulation

Figure 2S: Gene size vs. CFG score.

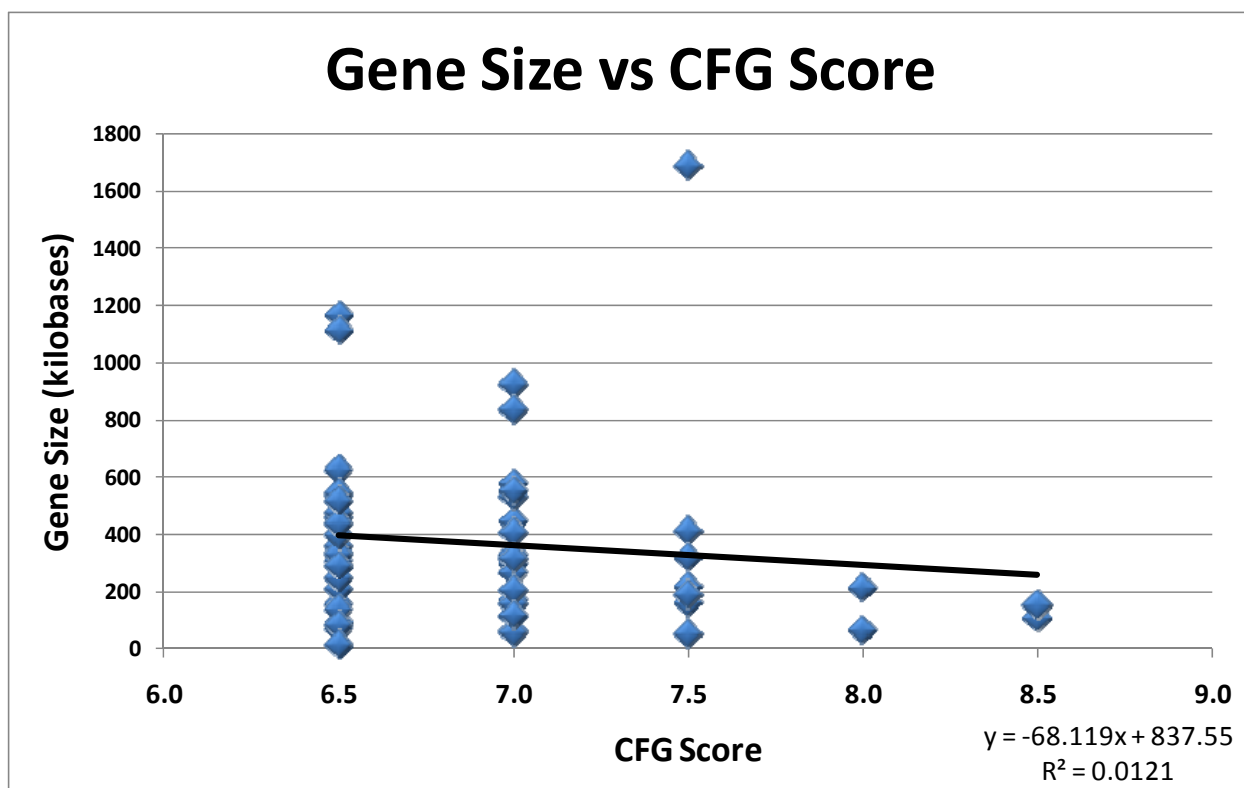


Figure 3S: Two-Dimensional Genetic Risk Prediction Matrix

Genetic Risk Prediction Panel																	
	Subject	Gene 1								--	--	--	Gene 56				Genetic Risk Prediction Score (0-100) (sum of allele scores/ number of alleles) x 100
		SNP1		SNP2		SNP3		SNP4		--	--	--	SNP1		SNP2		
		Allele 1	Allele 2	Allele 1	Allele 2	Allele 1	Allele 2	Allele 1	Allele 2	--	--	--	Allele 1	Allele 2	Allele 1	Allele 2	
Bipolar	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	--	--	--	0	1	1	0	51.709
	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	--	--	--	1	0	1	1	57.265
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	406	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	--	--	--	0	0	0	0	55.128
407	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	--	--	--	1	0	1	1	55.508	
Control	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	--	--	--	1	1	1	1	50.000
	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	--	--	--	1	0	1	0	47.863
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	1033	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	--	--	--	0	1	0	1	49.576
1034	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	--	--	--	1	1	1	1	46.186	

Table 1S. Demographics of the randomly split cohorts from GAIN-BP. NA- not available.

	European American (EA)				African American (AA)			
	2/3 Split Sample		1/3 Split Sample		2/3 Split Sample		1/3 Split Sample	
	Bipolar	Control	Bipolar	Control	Bipolar	Control	Bipolar	Control
Number of Subjects (males: females)	272 (133: 139)	690 (356: 334)	135 (64: 71)	344 (178: 166)	212 (67: 145)	448 (182: 266)	105 (33: 72)	223 (90: 133)
Age mean years (SD) range	43.32 (13.62) 20 to 82	51.41 (17.67) 18 to 90	43.19 (13.05) 21 to 77	53.94 (17.27) 18 to 84	42.92 (10.41) 17 to 70	NA	39.91 (10.83) 19 to 61	NA
Episode Frequency mean (SD) range	1.50 (5.04) 0.06 to 42.60	--	1.49 (2.20) 0.06 to 6.97	--	2.01 (4.94) 0.02 to 50.05	--	1.72 (2.65) 0.02 to 14.71	--

L. Suppl. Note. Members of the Bipolar Disorder Genetics (BiGS) Consortium

E N Smith^{1,2,24}, C S Bloss^{1,3,24}, J A Badner⁴, T Barrett⁵, P L Belmonte⁶, W Berrettini⁷, W Byerley⁸, W Coryell⁹, D Craig¹⁰, H J Edenberg^{11,12}, E Eskin¹³, T Foroud¹², E S Gershon⁴, T A Greenwood¹⁴, M Hipolito¹⁵, D L Koller¹⁶, W B Lawson¹⁵, C Liu⁴, F Lohoff⁷, M G McInnis¹⁷, F J McMahon¹⁸, D B Mirel¹⁹, S S Murray^{1,2,3}, C Nievergelt¹⁴, J Nurnberger¹⁶, E A Nwulia¹⁵, J Paschall²⁰, J B Potash⁶, J Rice²¹, T G Schulze¹⁸, W Scheftner²², C Panganiban¹⁰, N Zaitlen¹³, P P Zandi⁶, S Zöllner¹⁷, N J Schork^{1,2,3}, J R Kelsøe^{14,23}

¹Scripps Genomic Medicine, Scripps Translational Science Institute, La Jolla, CA, USA;

²Department of Molecular and Experimental Medicine, The Scripps Research Institute, La Jolla, CA, USA; ³Scripps Health, La Jolla, CA, USA; ⁴Department of Psychiatry, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA; ⁵Department of Psychiatry, Portland VA Medical Center, Portland, OR, USA; ⁶Department of Psychiatry, Johns Hopkins School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA; ⁷Department of Psychiatry, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA; ⁸Department of Psychiatry, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, CA, USA; ⁹Department of Psychiatry, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA, USA; ¹⁰Neurogenomics Division, The Translational Genomics Research Institute, Phoenix, AZ, USA; ¹¹Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Indiana University School of Medicine, Indianapolis, IN, USA;

¹²Department of Medical and Molecular Genetics, Indiana University School of Medicine, Indianapolis, IN, USA; ¹³Department of Computer Science, University of California, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA, USA; ¹⁴Department of Psychiatry, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, CA, USA; ¹⁵Department of Psychiatry, Howard University, Washington, DC, USA; ¹⁶Department of Psychiatry, Indiana University School of Medicine, Indianapolis, IN, USA; ¹⁷Department of Psychiatry, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, USA; ¹⁸Genetic Basis of Mood and Anxiety Disorders Unit, National Institute of Mental Health Intramural Research Program, National Institutes of Health, US Department of Health and Human Services, Bethesda, MD, USA; ¹⁹Broad Institute of Harvard University and Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, USA; ²⁰National Center for Biotechnology Information, National Library of Medicine, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA; ²¹Division of Biostatistics, Washington University, St Louis, MO, USA; ²²Department of Psychiatry, Rush University, Chicago, IL, USA; ²³Department of Psychiatry, VA San Diego Healthcare System, La Jolla, CA, USA