

Biological insights from 108 schizophrenia-associated genetic loci

Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium*

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

Schizophrenia has a lifetime risk of around 1%, and is associated with substantial morbidity and mortality as well as personal and societal costs^{1–3}. Although pharmacological treatments are available for schizophrenia, their efficacy is poor for many patients⁴. All available antipsychotic drugs are thought to exert their main therapeutic effects through blockade of the type 2 dopaminergic receptor^{5,6} but, since the discovery of this mechanism over 60 years ago, no new antipsychotic drug of proven efficacy has been developed based on other target molecules. Therapeutic stasis is in large part a consequence of the fact that the pathophysiology of schizophrenia is unknown. Identifying the causes of schizophrenia is therefore a critical step towards improving treatments and outcomes for those with the disorder.

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

To date, around 30 schizophrenia-associated loci^{10–23} have been identified through GWAS. Postulating that sample size is one of the most important limiting factors in applying GWAS to schizophrenia, we created the Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC). Our primary aim was to combine all available schizophrenia samples with published or unpublished GWAS genotypes into a single, systematic analysis²⁴. Here we report the results of that analysis, including at least 108 independent genomic loci that exceed genome-wide significance. Some of the findings support leading pathophysiological hypotheses of schizophrenia or targets of therapeutic relevance, but most of the findings provide new insights.

108 independent associated loci

We obtained genome-wide genotype data from which we constructed 49 ancestry matched, non-overlapping case-control samples (46 of European and three of east Asian ancestry, 34,241 cases and 45,604 controls) and 3 family-based samples of European ancestry (1,235 parent affected-offspring trios) (Supplementary Table 1 and Supplementary Methods).

These comprise the primary PGC GWAS data set. We processed the genotypes from all studies using unified quality control procedures followed by imputation of SNPs and insertion-deletions using the 1000 Genomes Project reference panel²⁵. In each sample, association testing was conducted using imputed marker dosages and principal components (PCs) to control for population stratification. The results were combined using an inverse-variance weighted fixed effects model²⁶. After quality control (imputation INFO score ≥ 0.6 , MAF ≥ 0.01 , and successfully imputed in ≥ 20 samples), we considered around 9.5 million variants. The results are summarized in Fig. 1. To enable acquisition of large samples, some groups ascertained cases via clinician diagnosis rather than a research-based assessment and provided evidence of the validity of this approach (Supplementary Information)^{11,13}. Post hoc analyses revealed the pattern of effect sizes for associated loci was similar across different assessment methods and modes of ascertainment (Extended Data Fig. 1), supporting our *a priori* decision to include samples of this nature.

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

As in meta-analyses of other complex traits which identified large numbers of common risk variants^{27,28}, the test statistic distribution from our GWAS deviates from the null (Extended Data Fig. 2). This is consistent with the previously documented polygenic contribution to schizophrenia^{10,11}. The deviation in the test statistics from the null ($\lambda_{GC} = 1.47$, $\lambda_{1000} = 1.01$) is only slightly less than expected ($\lambda_{GC} = 1.56$) under a polygenic model given fully informative genotypes, the current sample size, and the lifetime risk and heritability of schizophrenia²⁹.

*A list of authors and affiliations appears at the end of the paper.

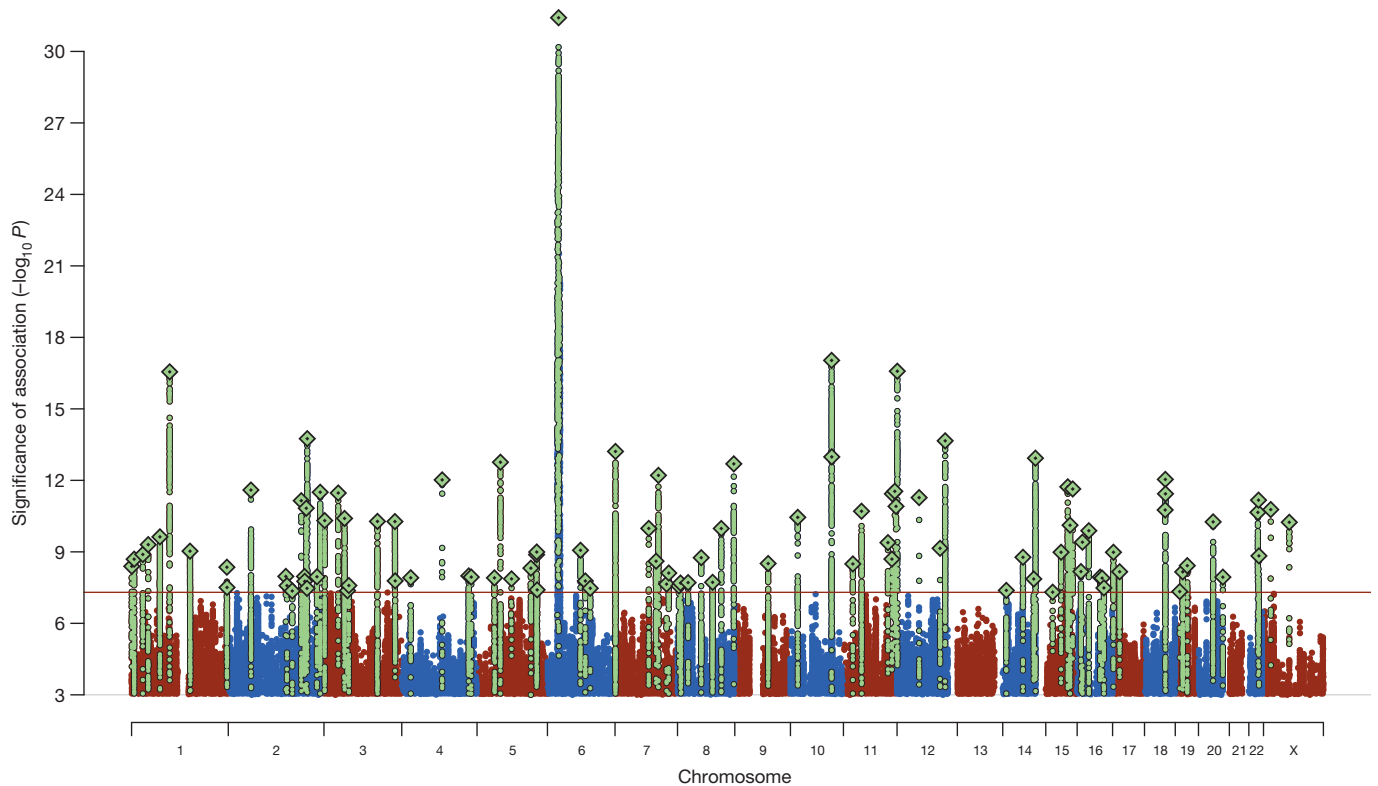


Figure 1 | Manhattan plot showing schizophrenia associations. Manhattan plot of the discovery genome-wide association meta-analysis of 49 case control samples (34,241 cases and 45,604 controls) and 3 family based association studies (1,235 parent affected-offspring trios). The x axis is chromosomal

Additional lines of evidence allow us to conclude the deviation between the observed and null distributions in our primary GWAS indicates a true polygenic contribution to schizophrenia. First, applying a novel method³⁰ that uses linkage disequilibrium information to distinguish between the major potential sources of test statistic inflation, we found our results are consistent with polygenic architecture but not population stratification (Extended Data Fig. 3). Second, the schizophrenia-associated alleles at 78% of 234 linkage-disequilibrium-independent SNPs exceeding $P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ in the case-control GWAS were again overrepresented in cases in the independent samples from deCODE. This degree of consistency between the case-control GWAS and the replication data is highly unlikely to occur by chance ($P = 6 \times 10^{-19}$). The tested alleles surpassed the $P < 10^{-6}$ threshold in our GWAS before we added either the trios or deCODE data to the meta-analysis. This trend test is therefore independent of the primary case-control GWAS. Third, analysing the 1,235 parent-proband trios, we again found excess transmission of the schizophrenia-associated allele at 69% of the 263 linkage-disequilibrium-independent SNPs with $P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ in the case-control GWAS. This is again unlikely to occur by chance ($P = 1 \times 10^{-9}$) and additionally excludes population stratification as fully explaining the associations reaching our threshold for seeking replication. Fourth, we used the trios trend data to estimate the expected proportion of true associations at $P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ in the discovery GWAS, allowing for the fact that half of the index SNPs are expected to show the same allelic trend in the trios by chance, and that some true associations will show opposite trends given the limited number of trio samples (Supplementary Methods). Given the observed trend test results, around 67% (95% confidence interval: 64–73%) or $n = 176$ of the associations in the scan at $P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ are expected to be true, and therefore the number of associations that will ultimately be validated from this set of SNPs will be considerably more than those that now meet genome-wide significance. Taken together, these analyses indicate that the observed deviation

position and the y axis is the significance ($-\log_{10} P$; 2-tailed) of association derived by logistic regression. The red line shows the genome-wide significance level (5×10^{-8}). SNPs in green are in linkage disequilibrium with the index SNPs (diamonds) which represent independent genome-wide significant associations.

of test statistics from the null primarily represents polygenic association signal and the considerable excess of associations at the tail of extreme significance largely correspond to true associations.

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

Characterization of associated loci

Of the 108 loci, 75% include protein-coding genes (40%, a single gene) and a further 8% are within 20 kb of a gene (Supplementary Table 3). Notable associations relevant to major hypotheses of the aetiology and treatment of schizophrenia include *DRD2* (the target of all effective anti-psychotic drugs) and many genes (for example, *GRM3*, *GRIN2A*, *SRR*, *GRIA1*) involved in glutamatergic neurotransmission and synaptic plasticity. In addition, associations at *CACNA1C*, *CACNB2* and *CACNA1I*, which encode voltage-gated calcium channel subunits, extend previous findings implicating members of this family of proteins in schizophrenia and other psychiatric disorders^{11,13,31,32}. Genes encoding calcium channels, and proteins involved in glutamatergic neurotransmission and synaptic plasticity have been independently implicated in schizophrenia by studies of rare genetic variation^{33–35}, suggesting convergence at a broad functional level between studies of common and rare genetic variation. We highlight in the Supplementary Discussion genes of particular interest within associated loci with respect to current hypotheses of schizophrenia

aetiology or treatment (although we do not imply that these genes are necessarily the causal elements).

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

To try to identify eQTLs that could explain associations with schizophrenia, we merged the credible causal set of SNPs defined above with eQTLs from a meta-analysis of human brain cortex eQTL studies ($n = 550$) and an eQTL study of peripheral venous blood ($n = 3,754$)⁴⁰ (Supplementary Methods). Multiple schizophrenia loci contained at least one eQTL for a gene within 1 Mb of the locus (Supplementary Table 4). However, in only 12 instances was the eQTL plausibly causal (two in brain, and nine in peripheral blood, one in both). This low proportion suggests that if most risk variants are regulatory, available eQTL catalogues do not yet provide clear mechanistic hypotheses for follow-up experiments.

The brain and immunity

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

Schizophrenia associations were also strongly enriched at enhancers that are active in tissues with important immune functions, particularly B-lymphocyte lineages involved in acquired immunity (CD19 and CD20 lines, Fig. 2). These enrichments remain significant even after excluding the extended MHC region and regions containing brain enhancers (enrichment P for CD20 $< 10^{-6}$), demonstrating that this finding is not an artefact of correlation between enhancer elements in different tissues and not driven by the strong and diffuse association at the extended MHC. Epidemiological studies have long hinted at a role for immune dysregulation in schizophrenia, the present findings provide genetic support for this hypothesis⁴³.

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

Overlap with rare mutations

CNVs associated with schizophrenia overlap with those associated with autism spectrum disorder (ASD) and intellectual disability⁹, as do genes

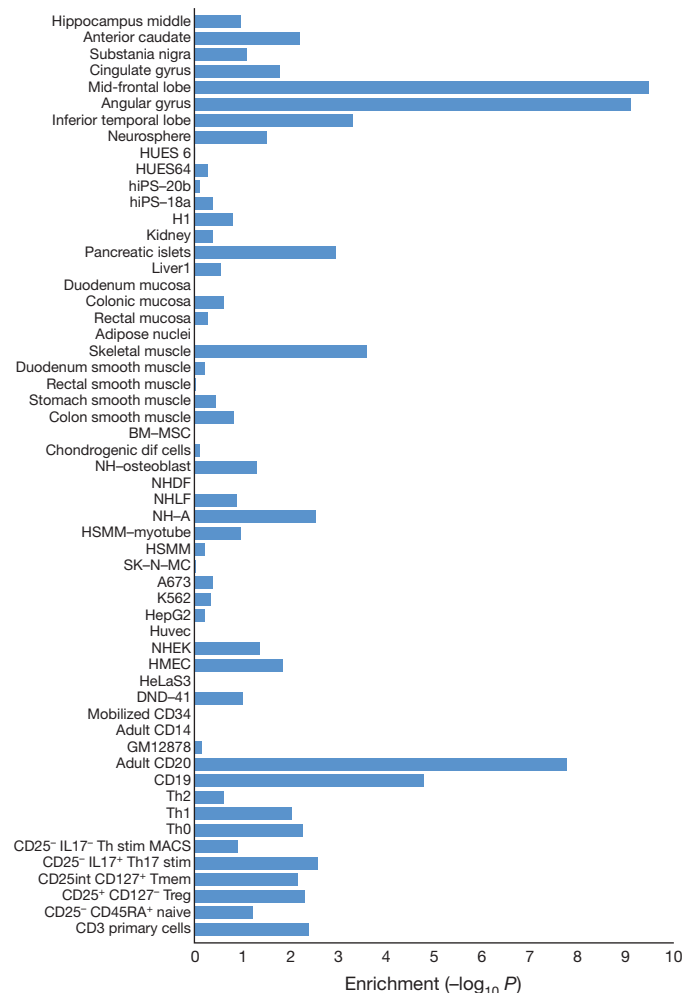


Figure 2 | Enrichment in enhancers of credible SNPs. Cell and tissue type specific enhancers were identified using ChIP-seq data sets (H3K27ac signal) from 56 cell line and tissue samples (y axis). We defined cell and tissue type enhancers as the top 10% of enhancers with the highest ratio of reads in that cell or tissue type divided by the total number of reads. Enrichment of credible causal associated SNPs from the schizophrenia GWAS was compared with frequency matched sets of 1000 Genomes SNPs (Supplementary Methods). The x axis is the $-\log_{10} P$ for enrichment. P values are uncorrected for the number of tissues or cells tested. A $-\log_{10} P$ of roughly 3 can be considered significant after Bonferroni correction. Descriptions of cell and tissue types at the Roadmap Epigenome website (<http://www.roadmapepigenomics.org>).

with deleterious *de novo* mutations³⁴. Here we find significant overlap between genes in the schizophrenia GWAS associated intervals and those with *de novo* non-synonymous mutations in schizophrenia ($P = 0.0061$) (Extended Data Table 2), suggesting that mechanistic studies of rare genetic variation in schizophrenia will be informative for schizophrenia more widely. We also find evidence for overlap between genes in schizophrenia GWAS regions and those with *de novo* non-synonymous mutations in intellectual disability ($P = 0.00024$) and ASD ($P = 0.035$), providing further support for the hypothesis that these disorders have partly overlapping pathophysiology^{9,34}.

Polygenic risk score profiling

Previous studies have shown that risk profile scores (RPS) constructed from alleles showing modest association with schizophrenia in a discovery GWAS can predict case-control status in independent samples, albeit with low sensitivity and specificity^{10,11,16}. This finding was robustly confirmed in the present study. The estimate of Nagelkerke R^2 (a measure of variance in case-control status explained) depends on the specific target data set and threshold (P_T) for selecting risk alleles for RPS

analysis (Extended Data Fig. 5 and 6a). However, using the same target sample as earlier studies and $P_T = 0.05$, R^2 is now increased from 0.03 (ref. 10) to 0.184 (Extended Data Fig. 5). Assuming a liability-threshold model, a lifetime risk of 1%, independent SNP effects, and adjusting for case-control ascertainment, RPS now explains about 7% of variation on the liability scale⁴⁶ to schizophrenia across the samples (Extended Data Fig. 6b), about half of which (3.4%) is explained by genome-wide significant loci.

We also evaluated the capacity of RPS to predict case-control status using a standard epidemiological approach to a continuous risk factor. We illustrate this in three samples, each with different ascertainment schemes (Fig. 3). The Danish sample is population-based (that is, inpatient and outpatient facilities), the Swedish sample is based on all cases hospitalized for schizophrenia in Sweden, and the Molecular Genetics of Schizophrenia (MGS) sample was ascertained specially for genetic studies from clinical sources in the US and Australia. We grouped individuals into RPS deciles and estimated the odds ratios for affected status for each decile with reference to the lowest risk decile. The odds ratios increased with greater number of schizophrenia risk alleles in each sample, maximizing for the tenth decile in all samples: Denmark 7.8 (95% confidence interval (CI): 4.4–13.9), Sweden 15.0 (95% CI: 12.1–18.7) and MGS 20.3 (95% CI: 14.7–28.2). Given the need for measures that index liability to schizophrenia^{47,48}, the ability to stratify individuals by RPS offers new opportunities for clinical and epidemiological research. Nevertheless, we stress that the sensitivity and specificity of RPS do not

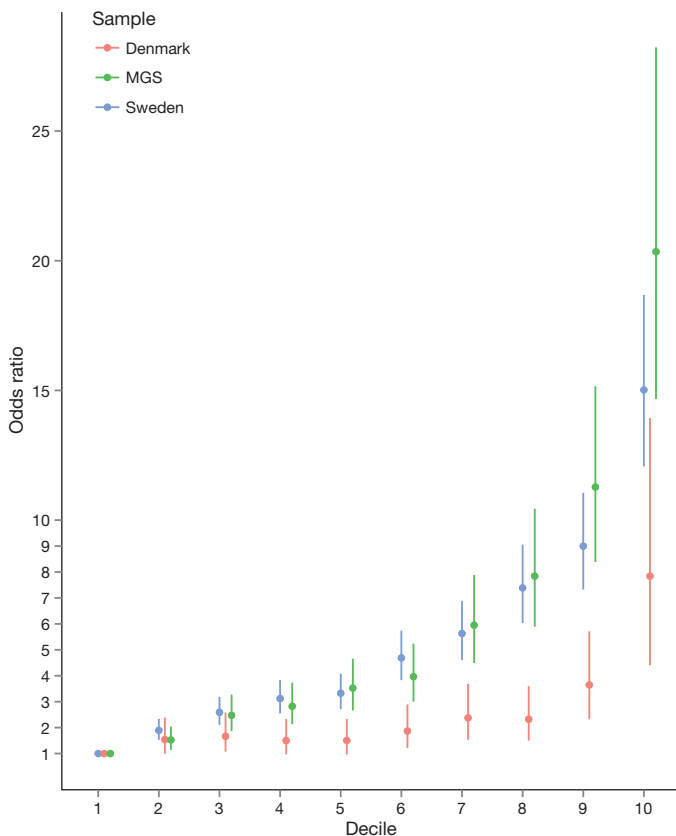


Figure 3 | Odds ratio by risk score profile. Odds ratio for schizophrenia by risk score profile (RPS) decile in the Sweden (Sw1-6), Denmark (Aarhus), and Molecular Genetics of Schizophrenia studies (Supplementary Methods). Risk alleles and weights were derived from 'leave one out' analyses in which those samples were excluded from the GWAS meta-analysis (Supplementary Methods). The threshold for selecting risk alleles was $P_T < 0.05$. The RPS were converted to deciles (1 = lowest, 10 = highest RPS), and nine dummy variables created to contrast deciles 2–10 to decile 1 as the reference. Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals (bars) were estimated using logistic regression with PCs to control for population stratification.

support its use as a predictive test. For example, in the Danish epidemiological sample, the area under the receiver operating curve is only 0.62 (Extended Data Fig. 6c, Supplementary Table 6).

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

Discussion

In the largest (to our knowledge) molecular genetic study of schizophrenia, or indeed of any neuropsychiatric disorder, ever conducted, we demonstrate the power of GWAS to identify large numbers of risk loci. We show that the use of alternative ascertainment and diagnostic schemes designed to rapidly increase sample size does not inevitably introduce a crippling degree of heterogeneity. That this is true for a phenotype like schizophrenia, in which there are no biomarkers or supportive diagnostic tests, provides grounds to be optimistic that this approach can be successfully applied to GWAS of other clinically defined disorders.

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

Online Content Methods, along with any additional Extended Data display items and Source Data, are available in the online version of the paper; references unique to these sections appear only in the online paper.

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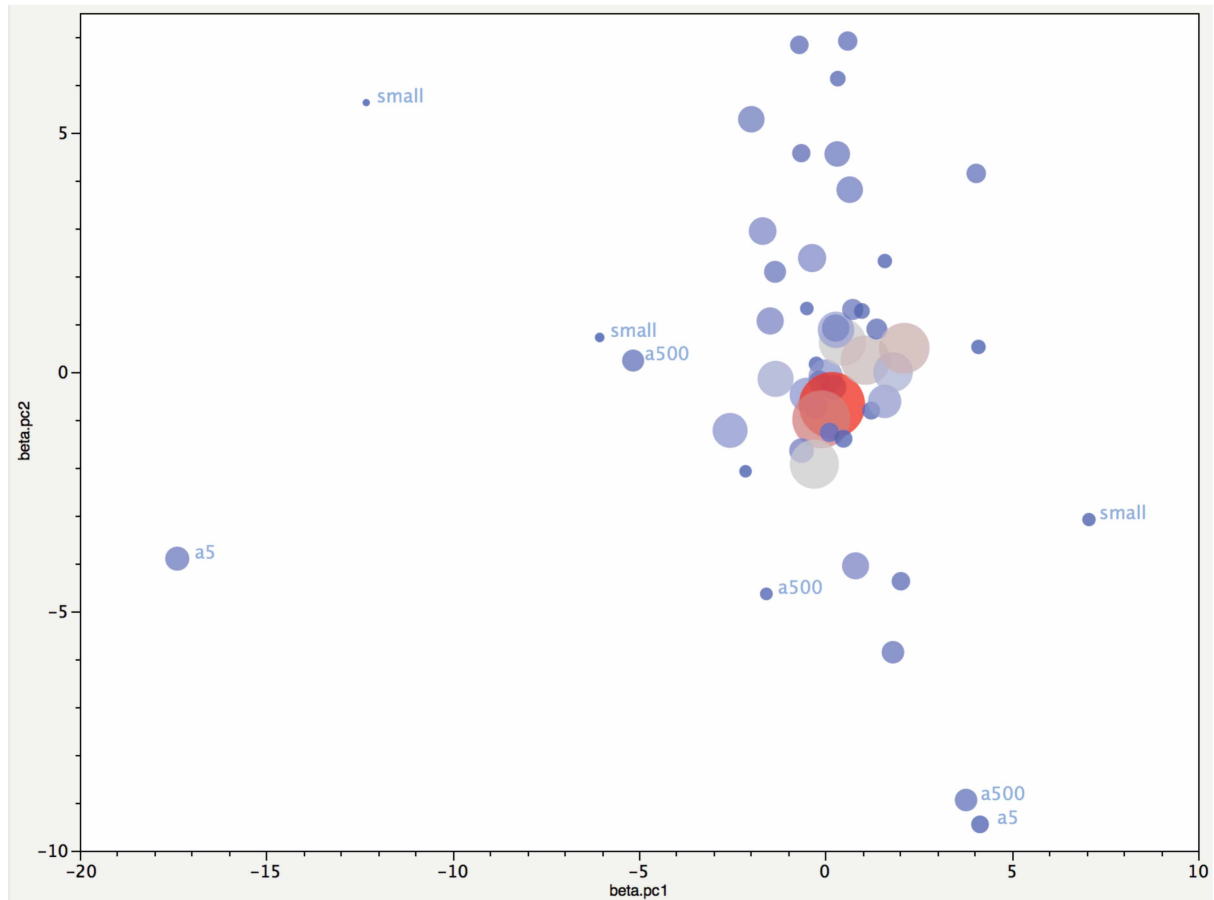
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George N. Papadimitriou⁶⁰, Sergi Papiol²³, Elena Parkhomenko³⁶, Michele T. Pato¹¹⁰, Tiina Paunio^{157,158}, Milica Pejovic-Milovancevic¹⁵⁹, Diana O. Perkins¹⁶⁰, Olli Pietiläinen^{158,161}, Jonathan Pimm⁵³, Andrew J. Pocklington⁶, John Powell¹⁴⁰, Alkes Price^{3,162}, Ann E. Pulver¹⁴⁷, Shaun M. Purcell⁸², Digby Quested¹⁶³, Henrik B. Rasmussen^{17,90}, Abraham Reichenberg³⁶, Mark A. Reimers¹⁶⁴, Alexander L. Richards⁶, Joshua L. Roffman^{30,32}, Panos Roussos^{82,165}, Douglas M. Ruderfer^{6,82}, Veikko Salomaa⁷¹, Alan R. Sanders^{64,65}, Ulrich Schall^{39,120}, Christian R. Schubert¹⁶⁶, Thomas G. Schulze^{77,167}, Sibylle G. Schwab¹⁶⁸, Edward M. Scolnick², Rodney J. Scott^{39,169,170}, Larry J. Seidman^{128,134}, Jianxin Shi¹⁷¹, Engilbert Sigurdsson¹⁷², Teimuraz Silagadze¹⁷³, Jeremy M. Silverman^{36,174}, Kang Sim⁴⁷, Petr Slominsky¹⁰⁸, Jordan W. Smoller^{2,4}, Hon-Cheong So⁴³, Chris C. A. Spencer¹⁷⁵, Eli A. Stahl^{3,82}, Hreinn Stefansson¹⁷⁶, Stacy Steinberg¹⁷⁶, Elisabeth Stogmann¹⁷⁷, Richard E. Straub¹⁷⁸, Eric Strengman^{179,34}, Jana Strohmaier⁷⁷, T. Scott Stroup¹¹⁹, Mythily Subramaniam⁴⁷, Jaana Suvisaari¹²², Dragan M. Svrakic⁴⁸, Jin P. Szatkiewicz²¹, Erik Süderman¹², Srinivas Thirumalai¹⁸⁰, Draga Toncheva¹⁰³, Sarah Tosato¹⁸¹, Juha Veijola^{182,183}, John Waddington¹⁸⁴, Dermot Walsh¹⁸⁵, Dai Wang⁸⁰, Qiang Wang¹¹⁷, Bradley T. Webb²², Mark Weiser⁵⁴, Dieter B. Wildenauer¹⁸⁶, Nigel M. Williams⁶, Stephanie Williams⁵¹, Stephanie H. Witt⁷⁷, Aaron R. Wolen¹⁶⁴, Emily H. M. Wong⁴³, Brandon K. Wormley²², Hualin Simon Xi¹⁸⁷, Clement C. Zai^{105,106}, Xuebin Zheng¹⁸⁸, Fritz Zimprich¹⁷⁷, Naomi R. Wray⁸⁷, Kari Stefansson¹⁷⁶, Peter M. Visscher⁸⁷, Wellcome Trust Case-Control Consortium 2¹⁸⁹, Rolf Adolfsson¹⁵⁰, Ole A. Andreassen^{14,133}, Douglas H. R. Blackwood¹³², Elvira Bramon¹⁹⁰, Joseph D. Buxbaum^{35,36,91,191}, Anders D. Borglum^{17,58,59,138}, Sven Cichon^{55,56,95,192}, Ariel Darvasi¹⁹³, Enrico Domenici¹⁹⁴, Hannelore Ehrenreich²³, Tõnu Esko^{3,11,96,135}, Pablo V. Gejman^{6,45}, Michael Gill⁵, Hugh Gurling⁵³, Christina M. Hultman²⁶, Nakao Iwata⁹⁸, Assen V. Jablensky^{39,102,186,195}, Erik G. Jönsson^{12,14}, Kenneth S. Kendler¹⁹⁶, George Kirov⁶, Jo Knight^{105,106,107}, Todd Lencz^{197,198,199}, Douglas F. Levinson¹⁹, Qingqin S. Li⁸⁶, Jianjun Liu^{188,200}, Anil K. Malhotra^{197,198,199}, Steven A. McCarrroll^{2,96}, Andrew McQuillin⁵³, Jennifer L. Moran², Preben B. Mortensen^{15,16,17}, Bryan J. Mowry^{87,201}, Markus M. Nöthen^{55,56}, Roel A. Ophoff^{88,80,34}, Michael J. Owen^{6,7}, Aarno Palotie^{24,161}, Carlos N. Pato¹¹⁰, Tracey L. Petryshen^{2,128,202}, Danielle Posthuma^{203,204,205}, Marcella Rietschel⁷⁷, Brien P. Riley¹⁹⁶, Dan Rujescu^{81,83}, Pak C. Sham^{43,44,116}, Pamela Sklar^{82,91,165}, David St Clair²⁰⁶, Daniel R. Weinberger^{178,207}, Jens R. Wendland¹⁶⁶, Thomas Werge^{17,90,208}, Mark J. Daly^{1,2,3}, Patrick F. Sullivan^{26,51,160} & Michael C. O'Donovan^{6,7}

¹Analytic and Translational Genetics Unit, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts 02114, USA. ²Stanley Center for Psychiatric Research, Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02142, USA. ³Medical and Population Genetics Program, Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02142, USA. ⁴Psychiatric and Neurodevelopmental Genetics Unit, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts 02114, USA. ⁵Neuropsychiatric Genetics Research Group, Department of Psychiatry, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin 8, Ireland. ⁶MRC Centre for Neuropsychiatric Genetics and Genomics, Institute of Psychological Medicine and Clinical Neurosciences, School of Medicine, Cardiff University, Cardiff CF24 4HQ, UK. ⁷National Centre for Mental Health, Cardiff University, Cardiff CF24 4HQ, UK. ⁸Eli Lilly and Company Limited, Erl Wood Manor, Sunninghill Road, Windlesham, Surrey GU20 6PH, UK. ⁹Social, Genetic and Developmental Psychiatry Centre, Institute of Psychiatry, King's College London, London SE5 8AF, UK. ¹⁰Center for Biological Sequence Analysis, Department of Systems Biology, Technical University of Denmark, DK-2800, Denmark. ¹¹Division of Endocrinology and Center for Basic and Translational Obesity Research, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts 02115, USA. ¹²Department of Clinical Neuroscience, Psychiatry Section, Karolinska Institutet, SE-17176 Stockholm, Sweden. ¹³Department of Psychiatry, Diakonhjemmet Hospital, 0319 Oslo, Norway. ¹⁴NORMENT, KG Jebsen Centre for Psychosis Research, Institute of Clinical Medicine, University of Oslo, 0424 Oslo, Norway. ¹⁵Centre for Integrative Register-based Research, CIRRAU, Aarhus University, DK-8210 Aarhus, Denmark. ¹⁶National Centre for Register-based Research, Aarhus University, DK-8210 Aarhus, Denmark. ¹⁷The Lundbeck Foundation Initiative for Integrative Psychiatric Research, iPSYCH, Denmark. ¹⁸State Mental Hospital, 85540 Haar, Germany. ¹⁹Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Stanford University, Stanford, California 94305, USA. ²⁰Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Atlanta Veterans Affairs Medical Center, Atlanta, Georgia 30033, USA. ²¹Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia 30322, USA. ²²Virginia Institute for Psychiatric and Behavioral Genetics, Department of Psychiatry, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia 23298, USA. ²³Clinical Neuroscience, Max Planck Institute of Experimental Medicine, Göttingen 37075, Germany. ²⁴Department of Medical Genetics, University of Pécs, Pécs H-7624, Hungary. ²⁵Szentgotthai Research Center, University of Pécs, Pécs H-7624, Hungary. ²⁶Department of Medical Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm SE-17177, Sweden. ²⁷Department of Psychiatry, University of Iowa Carver College of Medicine, Iowa City, Iowa 52242, USA. ²⁸University Medical Center Groningen, Department of Psychiatry, University of Groningen NL-9700 RB, The Netherlands. ²⁹School of Nursing, Louisiana State University Health Sciences Center, New Orleans, Louisiana 70112, USA. ³⁰Athinoula A. Martinos Center, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts 02129, USA. ³¹Center for Brain Science, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138, USA. ³²Department of Psychiatry, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts 02114, USA. ³³Department of Psychiatry, University of California at San Francisco, San Francisco, California 94143, USA. ³⁴University Medical Center Utrecht, Department of Psychiatry, Rudolf Magnus Institute of Neuroscience, 3584 Utrecht, The Netherlands. ³⁵Department of Human Genetics, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, New York 10029, USA. ³⁶Department of Psychiatry, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, New York 10029, USA. ³⁷Centre Hospitalier du Rouvray and INSERM U1079 Faculty of Medicine, 76301 Rouen, France. ³⁸Department of Human Genetics, David Geffen School of Medicine, University of California, Los Angeles, California 90095, USA. ³⁹Schizophrenia Research Institute, Sydney NSW 2010, Australia. ⁴⁰School of Psychiatry, University of New

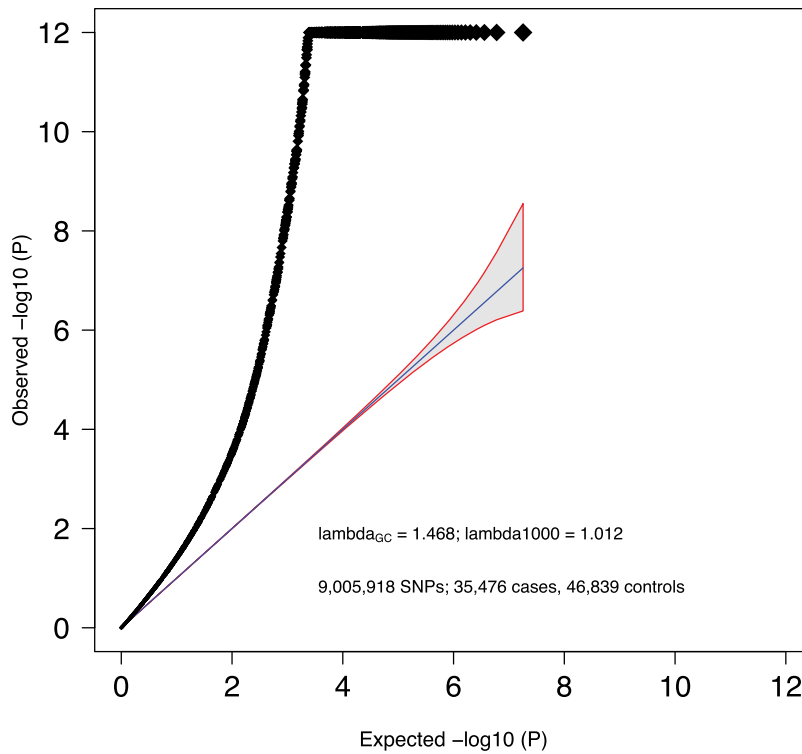
South Wales, Sydney NSW 2031, Australia. ⁴¹Royal Brisbane and Women's Hospital, University of Queensland, Brisbane, St Lucia QLD 4072, Australia. ⁴²Institute of Psychology, Chinese Academy of Science, Beijing 100101, China. ⁴³Department of Psychiatry, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China. ⁴⁴State Key Laboratory for Brain and Cognitive Sciences, Li Ka Shing Faculty of Medicine, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China. ⁴⁵Department of Computer Science, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27514, USA. ⁴⁶Castle Peak Hospital, Hong Kong, China. ⁴⁷Institute of Mental Health, Singapore 539747, Singapore. ⁴⁸Department of Psychiatry, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri 63110, USA. ⁴⁹Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Assistance Publique Hôpitaux de Paris, Pierre and Marie Curie Faculty of Medicine and Institute for Intelligent Systems and Robotics, Paris 75013, France. ⁵⁰Blue Note Biosciences, Princeton, New Jersey 08540, USA. ⁵¹Department of Genetics, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27599-7264, USA. ⁵²Department of Psychological Medicine, Queen Mary University of London, London E1 1BB, UK. ⁵³Molecular Psychiatry Laboratory, Division of Psychiatry, University College London, London WC1E 6JJ, UK. ⁵⁴Sheba Medical Center, Tel Hashomer 52621, Israel. ⁵⁵Department of Genomics, Life and Brain Center, D-53127 Bonn, Germany. ⁵⁶Institute of Human Genetics, University of Bonn, D-53127 Bonn, Germany. ⁵⁷Applied Molecular Genomics Unit, VIB Department of Molecular Genetics, University of Antwerp, B-2610 Antwerp, Belgium. ⁵⁸Centre for Integrative Sequencing, iSEQ, Aarhus University, DK-8000 Aarhus C, Denmark. ⁵⁹Department of Biomedicine, Aarhus University, DK-8000 Aarhus C, Denmark. ⁶⁰First Department of Psychiatry, University of Athens Medical School, Athens 11528, Greece. ⁶¹Department of Psychiatry, University College Cork, Co. Cork, Ireland. ⁶²Department of Medical Genetics, Oslo University Hospital, 0424 Oslo, Norway. ⁶³Cognitive Genetics and Therapy Group, School of Psychology and Discipline of Biochemistry, National University of Ireland Galway, Co. Galway, Ireland. ⁶⁴Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Neuroscience, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60637, USA. ⁶⁵Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, NorthShore University HealthSystem, Evanston, Illinois 60201, USA. ⁶⁶Department of Non-Communicable Disease Epidemiology, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London WC1E 7HT, UK. ⁶⁷Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, University Clinic of Psychiatry, Skopje 1000, Republic of Macedonia. ⁶⁸Department of Psychiatry, University of Regensburg, 93053 Regensburg, Germany. ⁶⁹Department of General Practice, Helsinki University Central Hospital, University of Helsinki P.O. Box 20, Tukholmankatu 8 B, FI-00014, Helsinki, Finland. ⁷⁰Folkhälsan Research Center, Helsinki, Finland, Biomedicum Helsinki 1, Haartmaninkatu 8, FI-00290, Helsinki, Finland. ⁷¹National Institute for Health and Welfare, P.O. Box 30, FI-00271 Helsinki, Finland. ⁷²Translational Technologies and Bioinformatics, Pharma Research and Early Development, F. Hoffman-La Roche, CH-4070 Basel, Switzerland. ⁷³Department of Psychiatry, Georgetown University School of Medicine, Washington DC 20057, USA. ⁷⁴Department of Psychiatry, Keck School of Medicine of the University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California 90033, USA. ⁷⁵Department of Psychiatry, Virginia Commonwealth University School of Medicine, Richmond, Virginia 23298, USA. ⁷⁶Mental Health Service Line, Washington VA Medical Center, Washington DC 20422, USA. ⁷⁷Department of Genetic Epidemiology in Psychiatry, Central Institute of Mental Health, Medical Faculty Mannheim, University of Heidelberg, Heidelberg, D-68159 Mannheim, Germany. ⁷⁸Department of Genetics, University of Groningen, University Medical Centre Groningen, 9700 RB Groningen, The Netherlands. ⁷⁹Department of Psychiatry, University of Colorado Denver, Aurora, Colorado 80045, USA. ⁸⁰Center for Neurobehavioral Genetics, Semel Institute for Neuroscience and Human Behavior, University of California, Los Angeles, California 90095, USA. ⁸¹Department of Psychiatry, University of Halle, 06112 Halle, Germany. ⁸²Division of Psychiatric Genomics, Department of Psychiatry, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, New York, New York 10029, USA. ⁸³Department of Psychiatry, University of Munich, 80336, Munich, Germany. ⁸⁴Departments of Psychiatry and Human and Molecular Genetics, INSERM, Institut de Myologie, Hôpital de la Pitié-Salpêtrière, Paris 75013, France. ⁸⁵Mental Health Research Center, Russian Academy of Medical Sciences, 115522 Moscow, Russia. ⁸⁶Neuroscience Therapeutic Area, Janssen Research and Development, Raritan, New Jersey 08869, USA. ⁸⁷Queensland Brain Institute, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Queensland, QLD 4072, Australia. ⁸⁸Academic Medical Centre University of Amsterdam, Department of Psychiatry, 1105 AZ Amsterdam, The Netherlands. ⁸⁹Illuminia, La Jolla, California, California 92122, USA. ⁹⁰Institute of Biological Psychiatry, Mental Health Centre Sct. Hans, Mental Health Services Copenhagen, DK-4000, Denmark. ⁹¹Friedman Brain Institute, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, New York 10029, USA. ⁹²J. J. Peters VA Medical Center, Bronx, New York, New York 10468, USA. ⁹³Priority Research Centre for Health Behaviour, University of Newcastle, Newcastle NSW 2308, Australia. ⁹⁴School of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, University of Newcastle, Newcastle NSW 2308, Australia. ⁹⁵Division of Medical Genetics, Department of Biomedicine, University of Basel, Basel CH-4058, Switzerland. ⁹⁶Department of Genetics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts, Massachusetts 02115, USA. ⁹⁷Section of Neonatal Screening and Hormones, Department of Clinical Biochemistry, Immunology and Genetics, Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen DK-2300, Denmark. ⁹⁸Department of Psychiatry, Fujita Health University School of Medicine, Toyoake, Aichi, 470-1192, Japan. ⁹⁹Regional Centre for Clinical Research in Psychosis, Department of Psychiatry, Stavanger University Hospital, 4011 Stavanger, Norway. ¹⁰⁰Rheumatology Research Group, Vall d'Hebron Research Institute, Barcelona 08035, Spain. ¹⁰¹Centre for Medical Research, The University of Western Australia, Perth WA6009, Australia. ¹⁰²The Perkins Institute for Medical Research, The University of Western Australia, Perth WA6009, Australia. ¹⁰³Department of Medical Genetics, Medical University, Sofia 1431, Bulgaria. ¹⁰⁴Department of Psychology, University of Colorado Boulder, Boulder, Colorado 80309, USA. ¹⁰⁵Campbell Family Mental Health Research Institute, Centre for Addiction and Mental Health, Toronto, Ontario M5T 1R8, Canada. ¹⁰⁶Department of Psychiatry, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario M5T 1R8, Canada. ¹⁰⁷Institute of Medical Science, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario M5S 1A8, Canada. ¹⁰⁸Institute of Molecular Genetics, Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow 123182, Russia. ¹⁰⁹Latvian Biomedical Research and Study Centre, Riga, LV-1067, Latvia. ¹¹⁰Department of Psychiatry and Zilkha Neurogenetics Institute, Keck School of Medicine at University of

Southern California, Los Angeles, California 90089, USA. ¹¹¹Faculty of Medicine, Vilnius University, LT-01513 Vilnius, Lithuania. ¹¹²Department of Biology and Medical Genetics, 2nd Faculty of Medicine and University Hospital Motol, 150 06 Prague, Czech Republic. ¹¹³Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Pierre and Marie Curie Faculty of Medicine, Paris 75013, France. ¹¹⁴Duke-NUS Graduate Medical School, Singapore 169857. ¹¹⁵Department of Psychiatry, Hadassah-Hebrew University Medical Center, Jerusalem 91120, Israel. ¹¹⁶Centre for Genomic Sciences, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China. ¹¹⁷Mental Health Centre and Psychiatric Laboratory, West China Hospital, Sichuan University, Chengdu, 610041 Sichuan, China. ¹¹⁸Department of Biostatistics, Johns Hopkins University Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, Maryland 21205, USA. ¹¹⁹Department of Psychiatry, Columbia University, New York, New York 10032, USA. ¹²⁰Priority Centre for Translational Neuroscience and Mental Health, University of Newcastle, Newcastle NSW 2300, Australia. ¹²¹Department of Genetics and Pathology, International Hereditary Cancer Center, Pomeranian Medical University in Szczecin, 70-453 Szczecin, Poland. ¹²²Department of Mental Health and Substance Abuse Services; National Institute for Health and Welfare, P.O. BOX 30, FI-00271 Helsinki, Finland. ¹²³Department of Mental Health, Bloomberg School of Public Health, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland 21205, USA. ¹²⁴Department of Psychiatry, University of Bonn, D-53127 Bonn, Germany. ¹²⁵Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, Laboratoire de Génétique Moléculaire de la Neurotransmission et des Processus Neurodégénératifs, Hôpital de la Pitié Salpêtrière, 75013 Paris, France. ¹²⁶Department of Genomics Mathematics, University of Bonn, D-53127 Bonn, Germany. ¹²⁷Research Unit, Sørlandet Hospital, 4604 Kristiansand, Norway. ¹²⁸Department of Psychiatry, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts 02115, USA. ¹²⁹VA Boston Health Care System, Brockton, Massachusetts 02301, USA. ¹³⁰Department of Psychiatry, National University of Ireland Galway, Co. Galway, Ireland. ¹³¹Centre for Cognitive Ageing and Cognitive Epidemiology, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh EH16 4SB, UK. ¹³²Division of Psychiatry, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh EH16 4SB, UK. ¹³³Division of Mental Health and Addiction, Oslo University Hospital, 0424 Oslo, Norway. ¹³⁴Massachusetts Mental Health Center Public Psychiatry Division of the Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center, Boston, Massachusetts 02114, USA. ¹³⁵Estonian Genome Center, University of Tartu, Tartu 50090, Estonia. ¹³⁶School of Psychology, University of Newcastle, Newcastle NSW 2308, Australia. ¹³⁷First Psychiatric Clinic, Medical University, Sofia 1431, Bulgaria. ¹³⁸Department P, Aarhus University Hospital, DK-8240 Risskov, Denmark. ¹³⁹Department of Psychiatry, Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, Dublin 2, Ireland. ¹⁴⁰King's College London, London SE5 8AF, UK. ¹⁴¹Maastricht University Medical Centre, South Limburg Mental Health Research and Teaching Network, EURON, 6229 HX Maastricht, The Netherlands. ¹⁴²Institute of Translational Medicine, University of Liverpool, Liverpool L69 3BX, UK. ¹⁴³Max Planck Institute of Psychiatry, 80336 Munich, Germany. ¹⁴⁴Munich Cluster for Systems Neurology (SyNergy), 80336 Munich, Germany. ¹⁴⁵Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Jena University Hospital, 07743 Jena, Germany. ¹⁴⁶Department of Psychiatry, Queensland Brain Institute and Queensland Centre for Mental Health Research, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Queensland, St Lucia QLD 4072, Australia. ¹⁴⁷Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland 21205, USA. ¹⁴⁸Department of Psychiatry, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin 2, Ireland. ¹⁴⁹Eli Lilly and Company, Lilly Corporate Center, Indianapolis, 46285 Indiana, USA. ¹⁵⁰Department of Clinical Sciences, Psychiatry, Umeå University, SE-901 87 Umeå, Sweden. ¹⁵¹DETECT Early Intervention Service for Psychosis, Blackrock, Co. Dublin, Ireland. ¹⁵²Centre for Public Health, Institute of Clinical Sciences, Queen's University Belfast, Belfast BT12 6AB, UK. ¹⁵³Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, University of California at Berkeley, Berkeley, California 94720, USA. ¹⁵⁴Institute of Psychiatry, King's College London, London SE5 8AF, UK. ¹⁵⁵A list of authors and affiliations appear in the Supplementary Information. ¹⁵⁶Melbourne Neuropsychiatry Centre, University of Melbourne & Melbourne Health, Melbourne, Vic 3053, Australia. ¹⁵⁷Department of Psychiatry, University of Helsinki, P.O. Box 590, FI-00029 HUS, Helsinki, Finland. ¹⁵⁸Public Health Genomics Unit, National Institute for Health and Welfare, P.O. BOX 30, FI-00271 Helsinki, Finland. ¹⁵⁹Medical Faculty, University of Belgrade, 11000 Belgrade, Serbia. ¹⁶⁰Department of Psychiatry, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina 27599-7160, USA. ¹⁶¹Institute for Molecular Medicine Finland, FIMM, University of Helsinki, P.O. Box 20FI-00014, Helsinki, Finland. ¹⁶²Department of Epidemiology, Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, Massachusetts 02115, USA. ¹⁶³Department of Psychiatry, University of Oxford, Oxford, OX3 7JX, UK. ¹⁶⁴Virginia Institute for Psychiatric and Behavioral Genetics, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia 23298, USA. ¹⁶⁵Institute for Multiscale Biology, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, New York 10029, USA. ¹⁶⁶PharmaTherapeutics Clinical Research, Pfizer Worldwide Research and Development, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139, USA. ¹⁶⁷Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University of Göttingen, 37073 Göttingen, Germany. ¹⁶⁸Psychiatry and Psychotherapy Clinic, University of Erlangen, 91054 Erlangen, Germany. ¹⁶⁹Hunter New England Health Service, Newcastle NSW 2308, Australia. ¹⁷⁰School of Biomedical Sciences, University of Newcastle, Newcastle NSW 2308, Australia. ¹⁷¹Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, Maryland 20892, USA. ¹⁷²University of Iceland, Landspítali, National University Hospital, 101 Reykjavik, Iceland. ¹⁷³Department of Psychiatry and Drug Addiction, Tbilisi State Medical University (TSMU), N33, 0177 Tbilisi, Georgia. ¹⁷⁴Research and Development, Bronx Veterans Affairs Medical Center, New York, New York 10468, USA. ¹⁷⁵Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, Oxford OX3 7BN, UK. ¹⁷⁶deCODE Genetics, 101 Reykjavik, Iceland. ¹⁷⁷Department of Clinical Neurology, Medical University of Vienna, 1090 Wien, Austria. ¹⁷⁸Lieber Institute for Brain Development, Baltimore, Maryland 21205, USA. ¹⁷⁹Department of Medical Genetics, University Medical Centre Utrecht, Universiteitsweg 100, 3584 CG, Utrecht, The Netherlands. ¹⁸⁰Berkshire Healthcare NHS Foundation Trust, Bracknell RG12 1BQ, UK. ¹⁸¹Section of Psychiatry, University of Verona, 37134 Verona, Italy. ¹⁸²Department of Psychiatry, University of Oulu, P.O. Box 5000, 90014, Finland. ¹⁸³University Hospital of Oulu, P.O. Box 20, 90029 OYS, Finland. ¹⁸⁴Molecular and Cellular Therapeutics, Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland, Dublin 2, Ireland. ¹⁸⁵Health Research Board, Dublin 2, Ireland. ¹⁸⁶School of Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences, The University of Western Australia, Perth WA6009, Australia. ¹⁸⁷Computational Sciences CoE, Pfizer Worldwide Research and Development, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139, USA. ¹⁸⁸Human Genetics, Genome Institute of Singapore, A*STAR, Singapore 138672. ¹⁸⁹A list of authors and affiliations appear in the Supplementary Information. ¹⁹⁰University College London, London WC1E 6BT, UK. ¹⁹¹Department of Neuroscience, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, New York 10029, USA. ¹⁹²Institute of Neuroscience and Medicine (INM-1), Research Center Juelich, 52428 Juelich, Germany. ¹⁹³Department of Genetics, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, 91905 Jerusalem, Israel. ¹⁹⁴Neuroscience Discovery and Translational Area, Pharma Research and Early Development, F. Hoffmann-La Roche, CH-4070 Basel, Switzerland. ¹⁹⁵Centre for Clinical Research in Neuropsychiatry, School of Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences, The University of Western Australia, Medical Research Foundation Building, Perth WA6000, Australia. ¹⁹⁶Virginia Institute for Psychiatric and Behavioral Genetics, Departments of Psychiatry and Human and Molecular Genetics, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia 23298, USA. ¹⁹⁷The Feinstein Institute for Medical Research, Manhasset, New York 11030, USA. ¹⁹⁸The Hofstra NS-LIJ School of Medicine, Hempstead, New York 11549, USA. ¹⁹⁹The Zucker Hillside Hospital, Glen Oaks, New York 11004, USA. ²⁰⁰Saw Swee Hock School of Public Health, National University of Singapore, Singapore 117597, Singapore. ²⁰¹Queensland Centre for Mental Health Research, University of Queensland, Brisbane 4076, Queensland, Australia. ²⁰²Center for Human Genetic Research and Department of Psychiatry, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts 02114, USA. ²⁰³Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Erasmus University Medical Centre, Rotterdam 3000, The Netherlands. ²⁰⁴Department of Complex Trait Genetics, Neuroscience Campus Amsterdam, VU University Medical Center Amsterdam, Amsterdam 1081, The Netherlands. ²⁰⁵Department of Functional Genomics, Center for Neurogenomics and Cognitive Research, Neuroscience Campus Amsterdam, VU University, Amsterdam 1081, The Netherlands. ²⁰⁶University of Aberdeen, Institute of Medical Sciences, Aberdeen AB25 2ZD, UK. ²⁰⁷Departments of Psychiatry, Neurology, Neuroscience and Institute of Genetic Medicine, Johns Hopkins School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland 21205, USA. ²⁰⁸Department of Clinical Medicine, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen 2200, Denmark.



Extended Data Figure 1 | Homogeneity of effects across studies. Plot of the first two principal components (PCs) from principal components analysis (PCA) of the logistic regression β coefficients for autosomal genome-wide significant associations. The input data were the β coefficients from 52 samples for 112 independent SNP associations (excluding 3 chrX SNPs and 13 SNPs with missing values in Asian samples). PCAs were weighted by the number of cases. Each circle shows the location of a study on PC1 and PC2. Circle size and

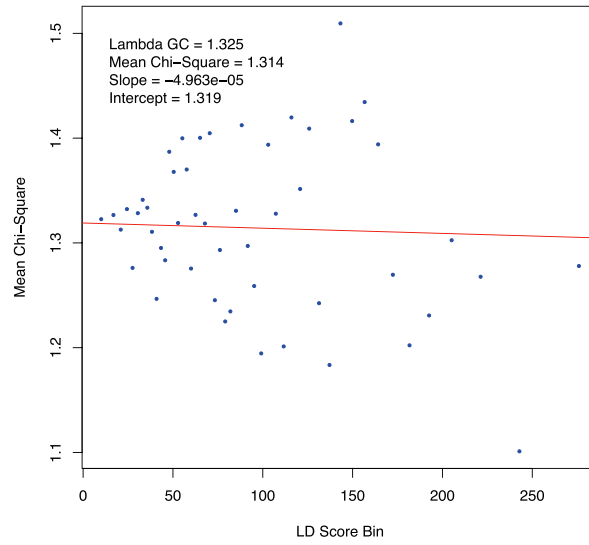
colour are proportional to the number of cases in each sample (larger and darker red circles correspond to more cases). Most samples cluster. Outliers had either small numbers of cases ('small') or were genotyped on older arrays. Abbreviations: a500 (Affymetrix 500K); a5 (Affymetrix 5.0). Studies that did not use conventional research interviews are in the central cluster (CLOZUK, Sweden, and Denmark-Aarhus studies, see Supplementary Methods for sample descriptions).



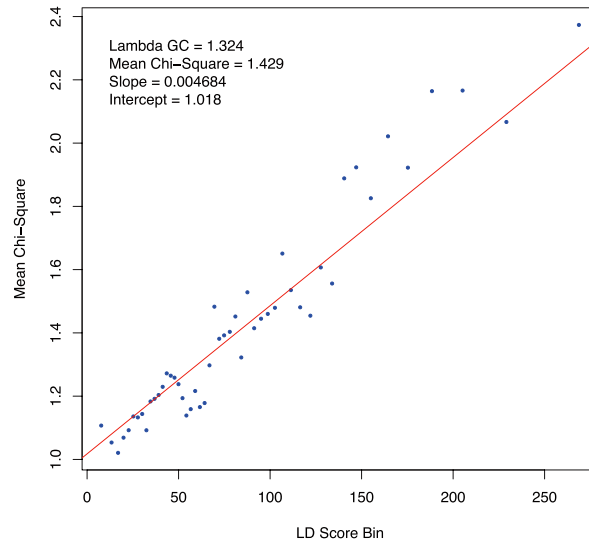
Extended Data Figure 2 | Quantile-quantile plot. Quantile-quantile plot of the discovery genome-wide association meta-analysis of 49 case control samples (34,241 cases and 45,604 controls) and 3 family based association studies (1,235 parent affected-offspring trios). Expected $-\log_{10} P$ values are those expected under the null hypothesis. Observed are the GWAS association

results derived by logistic regression (2-tailed) as in Fig. 1. For clarity, we avoided expansion of the y axis by setting the smallest association P values to 10^{-12} . The shaded area surrounded by a red line indicates the 95% confidence interval under the null. λ_{GC} is the observed median χ^2 test statistic divided by the median expected χ^2 test statistic under the null hypothesis.

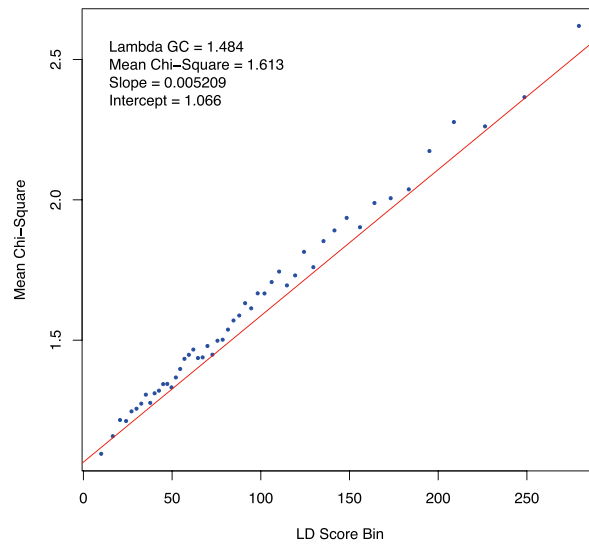
a



b

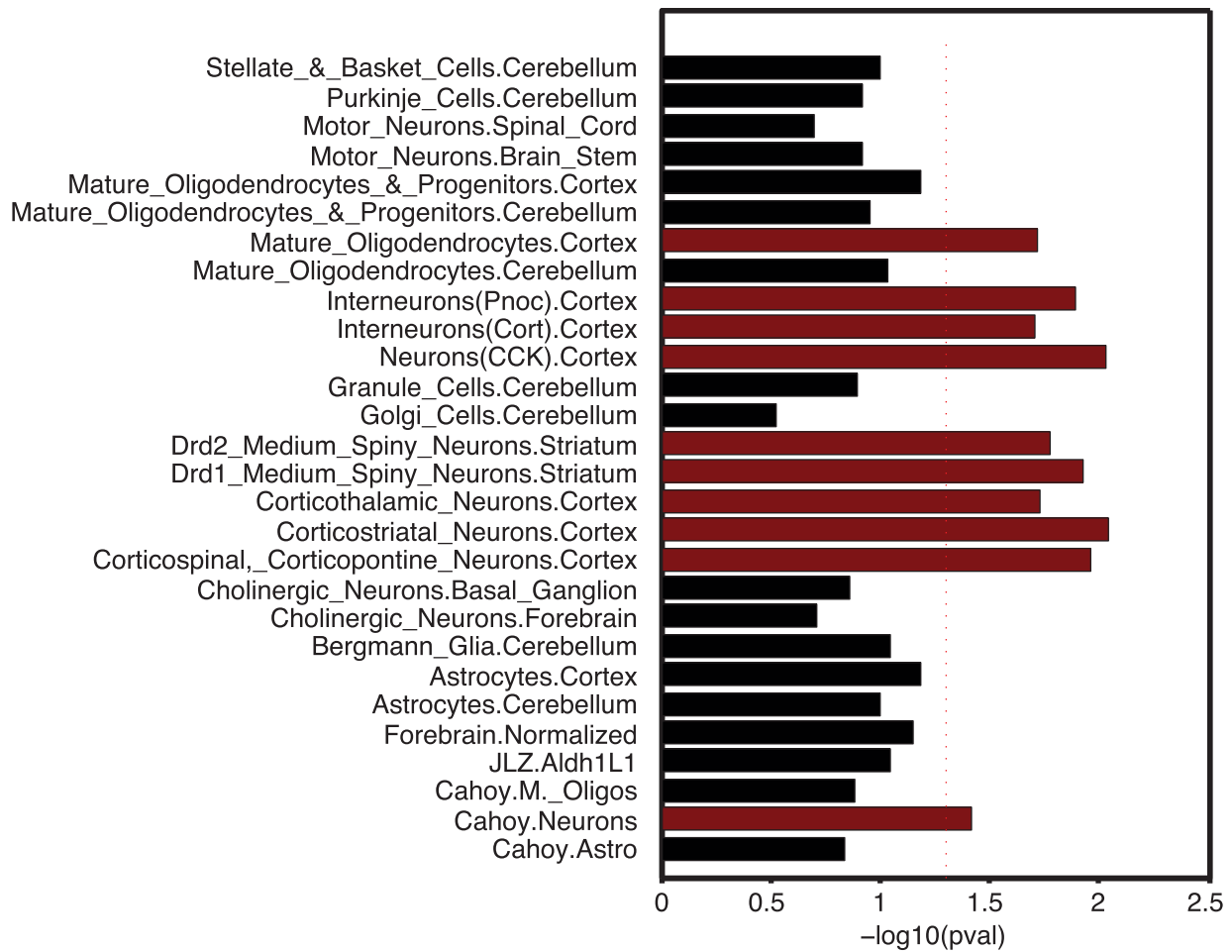


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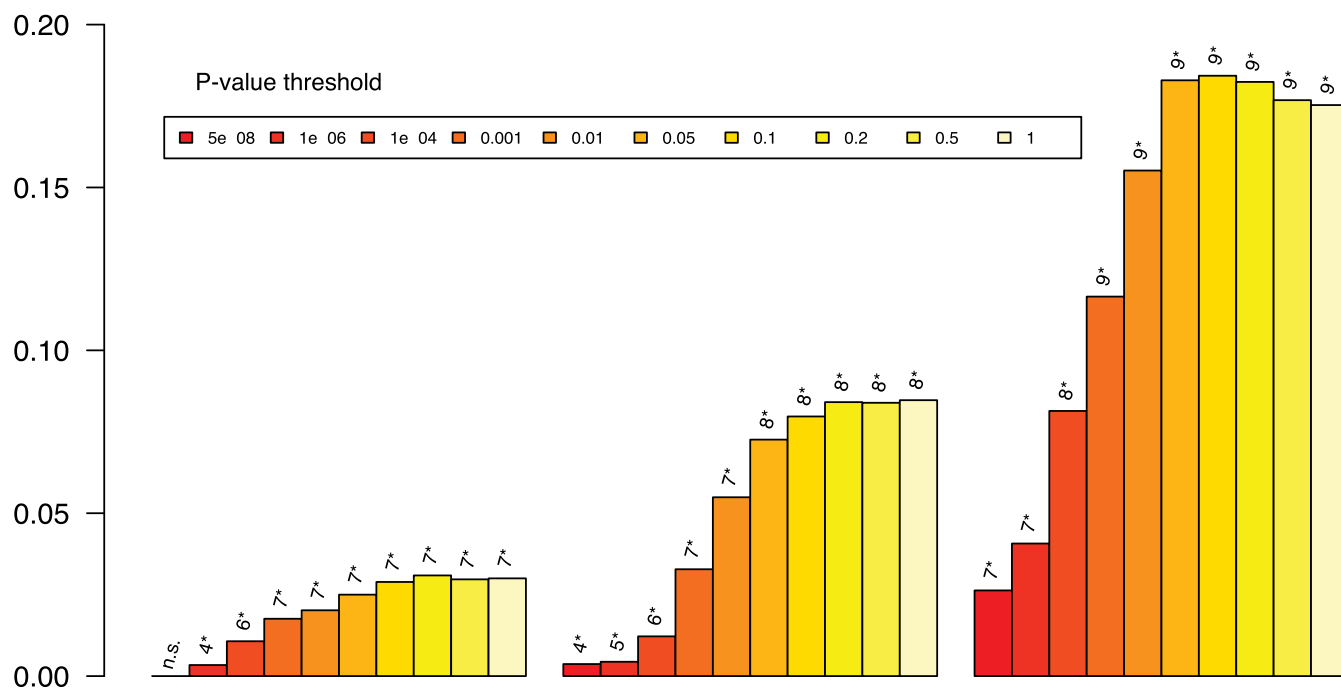
Extended Data Figure 3 | Linkage disequilibrium score regression consistent with polygenic inheritance. The relationship between marker χ^2 association statistics and linkage disequilibrium (LD) as measured by the linkage disequilibrium score. Linkage disequilibrium score is the sum of the r^2 values between a variant and all other known variants within a 1 cM window, and quantifies the amount of genetic variation tagged by that variant. Variants were grouped into 50 equal-sized bins based on linkage disequilibrium score rank. Linkage disequilibrium score bin and mean χ^2 denotes mean linkage disequilibrium score and test statistic for markers each bin. **a, b**, We simulated (Supplementary Methods) test statistics under two scenarios: **a**, no true association, inflation due to population stratification; and **b**, polygenic inheritance ($\lambda = 1.32$), in which we assigned independent and identically

distributed per-normalized-genotype effects to a randomly selected subset of variants. **c**, Results from the PGC schizophrenia GWAS ($\lambda = 1.48$). The real data are strikingly similar to the simulated data summarized in **b** but not **a**. The intercept estimates the inflation in the mean χ^2 that results from confounding biases, such as cryptic relatedness or population stratification. Thus, the intercept of 1.066 for the schizophrenia GWAS suggests that $\sim 90\%$ of the inflation in the mean χ^2 results from polygenic signal. The results of the simulations are also consistent with theoretical expectation (see Supplementary Methods). λ is the median χ^2 test statistic from the simulations (**a, b**) or the observed data (**c**) divided by the median expected χ^2 test statistic under the null hypothesis.



Extended Data Figure 4 | Enrichment of associations in tissues and cells. Genes whose transcriptional start is nearest to the most associated SNP at each schizophrenia-associated locus were tested for enriched expression in purified

brain cell subsets obtained from mouse ribotagged lines⁴¹ using enrichment analysis described in the Supplementary Methods. The red dotted line indicates $P = 0.05$.

Nagelkerke R^2 

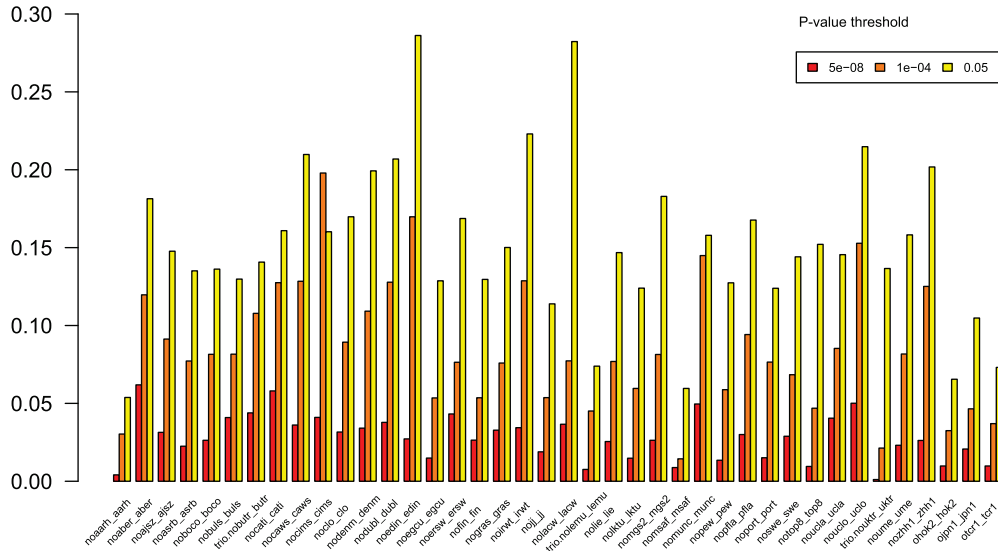
Significance of test: 4* < 0.001, 5* < 1.0×10^{-04} , 6* < 1.0×10^{-08} , 7* < 1.0×10^{-12} , 8* < 1.0×10^{-50} , 9* < 1.0×10^{-100}

Extended Data Figure 5 | MGS risk profile score analysis. Polygenic risk profile score (RPS) analyses using the MGS¹⁸ sample as target, and deriving risk alleles from three published schizophrenia data sets (x axis): ISC (2,615 cases and 3,338 controls)¹⁰, PGC1 (excluding MGS, 9,320 cases and 10,228 controls)¹⁶, and the current meta-analysis (excluding MGS) with 32,838 cases and 44,357 controls. Samples sizes differ slightly from the original publications due to different analytical procedures. This shows the increasing RPS prediction with increasing training data set size reflecting improved precision

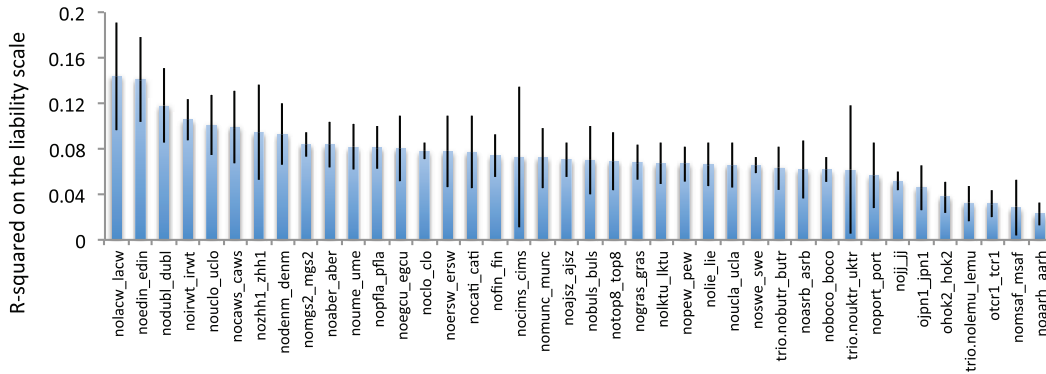
of estimates of the SNP effect sizes. The proportion of variance explained (y axis; Nagelkerke's R^2) was computed by comparison of a full model (covariates + RPS) score to a reduced model (covariates only). Ten different P value thresholds (P_T) for selecting risk alleles are denoted by the colour of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

a

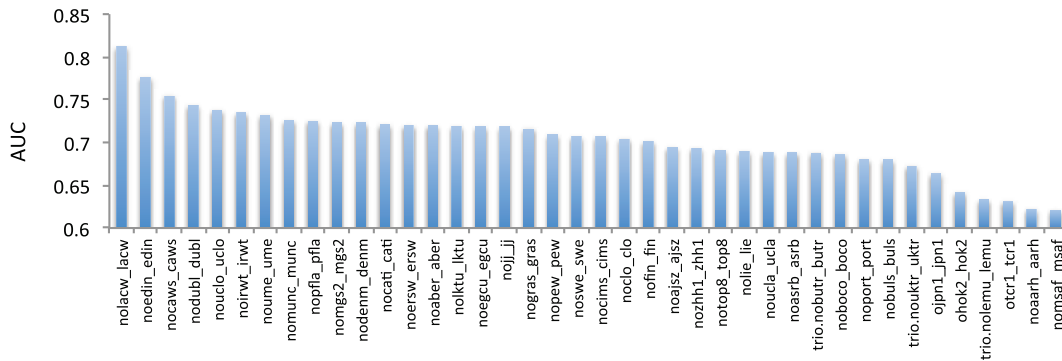
Nagelkerke R^2



b

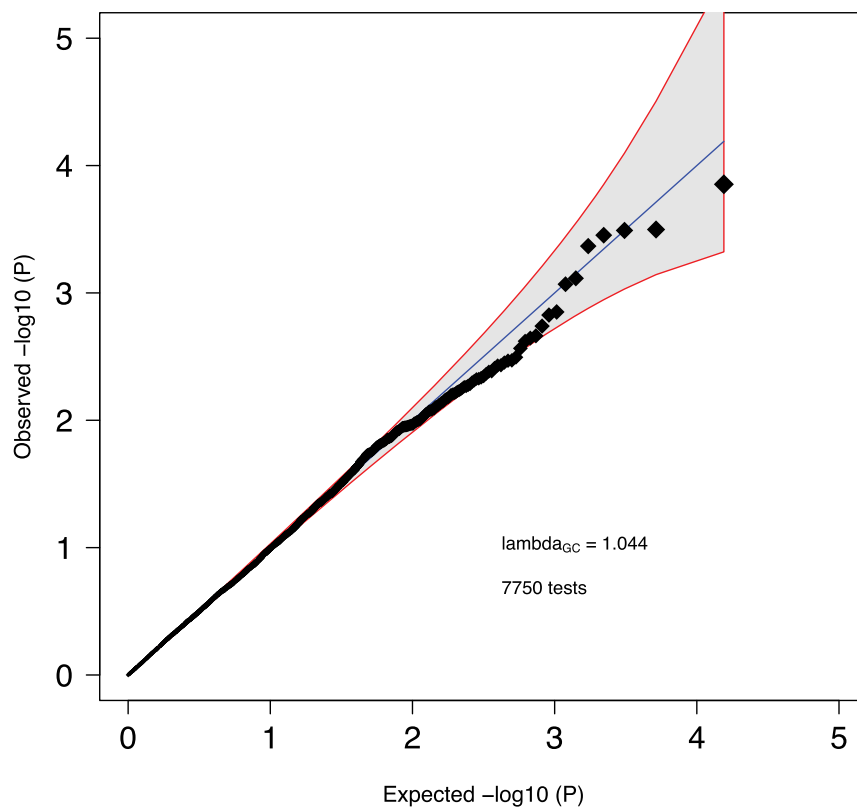


c



Extended Data Figure 6 | Risk profile score analysis. We defined 40 target subgroups of the primary GWAS data set and performed 40 leave-one-out GWAS analyses (see Supplementary Methods and Supplementary Table 7) from which we derived risk alleles for RPS analysis (x axis) for each target subgroup. **a**, The proportion of variance explained (y axis; Nagelkerke's R^2) was computed for each target by comparison of a full model (covariates + RPS) score to a reduced model (covariates only). For clarity, 3 different P value thresholds (P_T) are presented denoted by the colour of each bar (legend above

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



Extended Data Figure 7 | Pairwise epistasis analysis of significant SNPs. Quantile-quantile plot for all pair-wise ($n = 7,750$) combinations of the 125 independent autosomal genome-wide significant SNPs tested for non-additive effects on risk using case-control data sets of European ancestry (32,405 cases and 42,221 controls). We included as covariates the principal components from the main analysis as well as a study indicator. The interaction model is described by:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \hat{a}_1 X_1 + \hat{a}_2 X_2 + \hat{a}_3 * X_1^* X_2 + \hat{a}_4 X_4 + \hat{a}_5 X_5$$

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

Extended Data Table 1 | ALIGATOR and INRICH

SET	ALIGATOR	INRICH
<i>Postsynaptic sets</i>		
ARC	NA	1
NMDAR	NA	0.458
<i>Curated pre- and postsynaptic sets</i>		
Cell adhesion and trans-synaptic signalling	0.902	0.44
Structural plasticity	NA	NA
Excitability	NA	NA
<i>FMRP sets</i>		
FMRP	0.0066	5 X 10⁻⁵
<i>MIR137 sets</i>		
Targetscan v5 with PCT > 0.9	0.0371	0.0103
Targetscan v6.2	0.059	0.0024
<i>Calcium signalling sets</i>		
CACN* channel subunits	0.0338	0.022

Gene sets that have been reported to be enriched for schizophrenia associations and/or rare mutations were tested for enrichment for genome-wide significant associations using ALIGATOR⁴⁴ and INRICH⁴⁵. Specifically, we tested the glutamatergic postsynaptic proteins comprising activity-regulated cytoskeleton-associated protein (ARC) and *N*-methyl-D-aspartate receptor (NMDAR) complexes^{33–35}, other curated synaptic gene-sets^{14,49}, targets of fragile X mental retardation protein (FMRP)^{23–25}, calcium channels^{11,33}, and TargetScan predicted MIR137 sets^{11,16}. The MIR137 TargetScan sets contain computationally predicted conserved miRNA target sites in 3' UTRs of human genes⁵⁰. The current version is v6, but the version used in the prior PGC SCZ report¹⁶ was based on v5 (filtered for a probability of conserved targeting > 0.9). We report the results of both analyses for consistency with previous work. The association at the extended MHC complex was not included given the extensive linkage disequilibrium at this region spans large numbers of genes. NA means that the pathway in question contained fewer than 2 significant genes (for ALIGATOR) or regions (INRICH).

49. Lips, E. S. *et al.* Functional gene group analysis identifies synaptic gene groups as risk factor for schizophrenia. *Mol. Psychiatry* **17**, 996–1006 (2012).

50. Lewis, B. P., Burge, C. B. & Bartel, D. P. Conserved seed pairing, often flanked by adenosines, indicates that thousands of human genes are microRNA targets. *Cell* **120**, 15–20 (2005).

Extended Data Table 2 | *de novo* overlap

Disease group	NS (N)	<i>P</i>	# NS in PGC2 loci	Observed (stat)	Expected (stat)	Genes
SCZ	702	0.0061	25	10.97	5.27	CACNA1I(x2) <i>CCDC39</i> CD14(x2) CR1L CUL3 DPEP2 <i>DPYD</i> (x2) EP300 <i>ESAM</i> GRIN2A <i>LRP1</i> NCAN PDCD11 PTPRF RIMS1 SBNO1 SGSM2 SLC7A6 STAG1 TMEM219 <i>ZDHHC5</i> ZNF536
ID	141	0.00002	11	6.87	1.05	GRIA1 GRIN2A(x2) LRP1 NEK1 NGEF SATB2 SREBF2 STAG1 TCF4(x2)
ASD	789	0.035	19	9.99	5.93	<i>APH1A</i> CNOT1 CSMD1 <i>CUL3</i> CYP17A1 CYP26B1 EPHX2 LRP1 MAPK3 MEF2C MPP6 MYO15A NISCH PBRM1 PRKD1 <i>RIMS1</i> TSNARE1 WDR55 ZNF804A
Controls	434	0.15	16	4.88	3.28	ANKRD44 C11orf87 CCDC39 CDK2AP1 CHRM4 DPEP2 EP300 LRP1 LRRC48 MAN2A1 MYO1A OSBPL3 RAI1 SF3B1 SREBF2 TLE3

Test of overlap between genes mapping to schizophrenia-associated loci in the present study and genes affected by non-synonymous (NS) *de novo* mutations. Enrichment was calculated using the dnenrich permutation framework as described³⁴. Genes within the GWS loci (Supplementary Table 3) were weighted by $1/N$, where N is the number of coding genes within each associated locus. The observed test statistic (stat) is the sum of weights of genes impacted by *de novo* mutations. The expected test statistics are calculated by averaging over 50,000 permuted *de novo* mutation sets. Genes within schizophrenia-associated loci affected by *de novo* mutations are listed (multiple hits listed in parentheses). Cohorts: SCZ, schizophrenia; ID, intellectual disability; ASD, autism spectrum disorder. All mutations analysed annotated according to a unified system (see Supplementary Tables 1 and 2 of ref. 34). Genes with loss-of-function *de novo* mutations are underlined and in italics.