

Title: Analysis of Shared Heritability in Common Disorders of the Brain

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59 **One Sentence Summary: Comprehensive heritability analysis of brain phenotypes demonstrates a**
60 **clear role for common genetic variation across neurological and psychiatric disorders and**
61 **behavioral-cognitive traits, with substantial overlaps in genetic risk.**

62 **Abstract:** Disorders of the brain exhibit considerable epidemiological comorbidity and frequently share
63 symptoms, provoking debate about the extent of their etiologic overlap. We quantified the genetic sharing
64 of 24 brain disorders and 16 phenotypes based on summary statistics from genome-wide association
65 studies. Psychiatric disorders show substantial sharing of common variant risk, while neurological
66 disorders appear more distinct from one another. We observe limited evidence of sharing between
67 neurological and psychiatric disorders, but do identify sharing between several quantitative measures and
68 brain disorders. We also performed extensive simulations to explore power and the impact of diagnostic
69 misclassification and phenotypic heterogeneity. These results highlight the importance of common
70 genetic variation as a source of risk for brain phenotypes and the value of heritability-based methods in
71 understanding their etiology.

72 **Main Text:**

73 The classification of brain disorders has evolved over the past century, reflecting the
74 medical and scientific communities' best assessments of the presumed root causes of clinical
75 phenomena such as behavioral change, loss of motor function, spontaneous movements or
76 alterations of consciousness. A division between neurology and psychiatry developed, with the
77 more directly observable phenomena (such as the presence of emboli, protein tangles, or unusual
78 electrical activity patterns) generally defining the neurological disorders(1). Applying modern
79 methods to understand the genetic underpinnings and categorical distinctions between brain
80 disorders may be helpful in informing next steps in the search for the biological pathways that
81 underlie their pathophysiology(2, 3).

82 In general, brain disorders (here excepting those caused by trauma, infection or cancer)
83 show substantial heritability from twin and family studies (4). Epidemiological and twin studies
84 have explored patterns of phenotypic overlaps(5-7), and substantial comorbidity has been
85 reported for many pairs of disorders, including bipolar disorder-migraine(8), stroke-major
86 depressive disorder(MDD)(9), epilepsy-autism spectrum disorders (ASD) and epilepsy-attention
87 deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)(10). Furthermore, neurological and psychiatric research
88 has shown that mutations in the same ion channel genes confer pleiotropic risk for multiple
89 distinct brain phenotypes(11-13). Recently, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have
90 demonstrated that individual common risk variants show overlap across traditional diagnostic

91 boundaries (14, 15), and that disorders like schizophrenia, MDD and bipolar disorder can have
92 strong genetic correlations(16).

93 GWAS have also demonstrated that common genetic variation substantially contributes
94 to the heritability of brain disorders. In most cases, this occurs via many common variants with
95 small risk effects, as has been the case with Alzheimer’s disease(17), bipolar disorder(18),
96 migraine(19), Parkinson’s disease(20), and schizophrenia(21). In addition to locus discovery,
97 larger sample sizes enable analyses of shared genetic influences, to improve our understanding of
98 the degree of distinctiveness of brain disorders(22). Using recently developed heritability-based
99 methods(23) we can now extend our evaluation of the nature of these diagnostic boundaries and
100 explore the extent of shared common variant genetic influences across a wide set of neurological
101 and psychiatric phenotypes.

102

103 *Study design*

104 We formed the Brainstorm consortium, a collaboration among GWAS meta-analysis
105 consortia of 24 disorders (see Data sources), to perform the first comprehensive heritability and
106 correlation analysis of brain disorders. The study sample consists of 212,367 brain disorder cases
107 and 647,979 controls (Table 1), including every common brain disorder for which we could
108 identify a meta-analysis consortium and reflecting the respective current diagnostic gold
109 standards. This includes at least the most common representative in each ICD-10 block in F20-
110 59 (mental and behavioral disorders) and G20-G47 (diseases of the central nervous system). Also
111 included are 1,113,280 samples for 12 “behavioral-cognitive” phenotypes (n=666,178) chosen
112 for being traditionally viewed as brain-related, and four “additional” phenotypes (n=447,102),
113 selected to represent known, well-delineated etiological processes (e.g. immune disorders
114 [Crohn’s disease] and vascular disease [coronary artery disease]; Table 2).

115 GWAS summary statistics for the 40 disorders and phenotypes were centralized and
116 underwent uniform quality control and processing(24). We generated European-only meta-
117 analyses for each disorder to avoid potential biases arising from ancestry differences, as many of
118 the brain disorder datasets included sample sets from diverse ancestries. We have recently
119 developed a novel heritability estimation method, linkage disequilibrium score regression
120 (LDSC)(23), which was used to calculate heritability estimates and correlations, as well as to
121 estimate their statistical significance from block jack-knife-based standard errors. Heritability for
122 binary disorders and phenotypes was transformed to liability-scale. We further performed a
123 weighted-least squares regression analysis to evaluate whether differences relating to study
124 makeup (such as sample size) were correlated with the magnitude of the correlation estimates.
125 We also performed a heritability partitioning analysis using stratified LD score regression to
126 examine whether the observed heritability was enriched in any tissue-specific regulatory
127 partitions of the genome, using the ten top-level tissue-type and 53 functional partitions from

128 Finucane et al. (25). Finally, simulated phenotype data was generated under several different
129 scenarios by permuting the 120,267 genotyped individuals from the UK Biobank (24) to both
130 evaluate power and aid in interpreting the results (see Supplementary Text).

131

132 *Heritability and correlations among brain disorders*

133 We observed a similar range of heritability estimates among the disorders and the
134 behavioral-cognitive phenotypes (Fig. S1A-B and Table S1, S2), roughly in line with previously
135 reported estimates in smaller datasets (see Table S3 and Supplementary Text). Three ischemic
136 stroke subtypes (cardioembolic, large-vessel disease and small-vessel disease) as well as the
137 “agreeableness” personality measure from NEO Five-Factor Inventory(26) had insufficient
138 evidence for additive heritability for robust analysis and were excluded from further
139 analysis(24). We did not observe a correlation between heritability estimates and factors relating
140 to study makeup (Table S4; Fig S1C-F).

141 In expanding on the number of pairwise comparisons in brain disorders, we observed
142 widespread sharing across psychiatric disorders (Fig. 1 and S3) beyond those previously reported
143 (16), but not among neurological disorders. Among the psychiatric disorders, schizophrenia in
144 particular showed significant genetic correlation with most of the psychiatric disorders. Further,
145 schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, anxiety disorders, MDD and ADHD each showed a high degree
146 of correlation to the four others (average $r_g=0.40$; Table S5). Anorexia nervosa, OCD and
147 schizophrenia also demonstrated significant sharing amongst themselves. Tourette’s syndrome
148 (TS) was only significantly correlated with OCD and migraine and not with any of the other
149 disorders. From this analysis, the common variant risk of both ASD and TS appear to be
150 somewhat distinct from other psychiatric disorders, although with some evidence of correlation
151 between TS and OCD and between ASD and schizophrenia. The modest power of the ASD and
152 TS meta-analyses, however, limits the strength of this conclusion.

153 Neurological disorders revealed greater specificity, and a more limited extent of genetic
154 correlation than the psychiatric disorders (Fig. 2 and S4, Table S5). Parkinson’s disease,
155 Alzheimer’s disease, generalized epilepsy and multiple sclerosis showed little to no correlation
156 with any other brain disorders. Focal epilepsy showed the highest degree of genetic correlation
157 among the neurological disorders (average $r_g=0.46$, excluding other epilepsy datasets), though
158 none were significant, reflecting the relatively modest power of the current focal epilepsy meta-
159 analysis. However, the modest heritability and the broad pattern of sharing observed for focal
160 epilepsy may be consistent with considerable heterogeneity and potentially even diagnostic
161 misclassification across a range of neurological conditions.

162 In the cross-category correlation analysis, the overall pattern is consistent with limited
163 sharing across the included neurological and psychiatric disorders (Fig. 3; average $r_g=0.03$). The
164 only significant cross-category correlations were with migraine, suggesting it may share some of

165 its genetic architecture with psychiatric disorders; migraine-ADHD ($r_g=0.26$, $p=8.81 \times 10^{-8}$),
166 migraine-TS ($r_g=0.19$, $p=1.80 \times 10^{-5}$), and migraine-MDD ($r_g=0.32$, $p=1.42 \times 10^{-22}$ for all
167 migraine, $r_g=0.23$, $p=5.23 \times 10^{-5}$ for migraine without aura, $r_g=0.28$, $p=1.00 \times 10^{-4}$ for migraine
168 with aura).

169 We observed several significant genetic correlations between the behavioral-cognitive or
170 additional phenotypes and brain disorders (Fig. 4 and S5, Table S6). Years of education showed
171 a significant correlation to each psychiatric disorder (negative for ADHD, anxiety disorders,
172 MDD and TS; positive for the others), while five neurological phenotypes (Alzheimer's disease
173 and the four "vascular" phenotypes, intracerebral hemorrhage, all and early-onset stroke and
174 migraine) showed a significant negative correlation (Fig. S6; correlations with bipolar
175 disorder(23), Alzheimer's disease and schizophrenia have been previously reported(27)). Among
176 the personality measures, significant positive correlations were observed for neuroticism (anxiety
177 disorders, migraine, migraine without aura and OCD; Fig. S7), depressive symptoms (ADHD,
178 anxiety disorder, bipolar disorder, MDD, and schizophrenia) and subjective well-being (anxiety
179 disorder, bipolar disorder, MDD, as well as replicating the previously reported correlation
180 between neuroticism with both MDD and schizophrenia(28)). For smoking-related measures, the
181 only significant genetic correlations were to never/ever smoked (MDD: $r_g=0.33$, $p=3.10 \times 10^{-11}$
182 and ADHD: $r_g=0.37$, $p=3.15 \times 10^{-6}$).

183 Among the additional phenotypes, the two diseases chosen as examples of disorders with
184 well-defined etiologies had different results: Crohn's disease, representing immunological
185 pathophysiology, showed no correlation with any of the study phenotypes, while the phenotype
186 representing vascular pathophysiology (coronary artery disease) showed significant correlation
187 to MDD ($r_g=0.19$, $p=8.71 \times 10^{-5}$) as well as the two stroke-related phenotypes ($r_g=0.69$, $p=2.47 \times$
188 10^{-6} to ischemic stroke and $r_g=0.86$, $p=2.26 \times 10^{-5}$ for early-onset stroke), suggesting shared
189 genetic effects across these phenotype. Significant correlations were also observed for BMI,
190 which was positively correlated with ADHD and MDD, and negative correlated with anorexia
191 nervosa (as previously reported with a different dataset(23)) and schizophrenia.

192 Functional enrichment analysis (Table S7 and S8) replicated the previously reported
193 central nervous system (CNS) enrichment for schizophrenia and bipolar disorder (here in a larger
194 dataset compared to the original report (25), but with considerable sample overlap). We also
195 demonstrated novel significant heritability enrichments to CNS (for generalized epilepsy, MDD,
196 TS, college attainment, neuroticism, never/ever smoked) and to immune system cells and tissues
197 (multiple sclerosis).

198

199 *Discussion*

200 By integrating and analyzing the current genome-wide association summary statistic data
201 from consortia of 24 brain disorders, we find that psychiatric disorders broadly share a

202 considerable portion of their common variant genetic risk, especially across schizophrenia,
203 MDD, bipolar disorder, anxiety disorder and ADHD, while neurological disorders are more
204 genetically distinct. Across categories, psychiatric and neurologic disorders share relatively little
205 of their common genetic risk, suggesting that multiple different and largely independently
206 regulated etiological pathways may give rise to similar clinical manifestations (e.g., psychosis,
207 which manifests in both schizophrenia(29) and Alzheimer’s disease(30)). Except for migraine,
208 which appears to share genetic architecture with psychiatric disorders, the existing clinical
209 delineation between neurology and psychiatry is recapitulated at the level of common variant
210 risk for the studied disorders.

211 Given that the broad and continuous nature of psychiatric disorder spectra in particular
212 has been clinically recognized for a long time(31-33), we evaluated whether diagnostic
213 misclassification (given that genetic correlations are always a function of the underlying
214 ascertained phenotypes) could cause the observed correlations. For example, substantial numbers
215 of cases progressing through multiple diagnoses over lifetime or some the diagnostic boundaries
216 between some phenotype pairs being particularly porous to misclassification, congruent with the
217 clinical controversies in classification, could give rise to the appearance of correlation. Previous
218 work(34) suggests that even substantial misclassification is likely insufficient to introduce high
219 levels of genetic correlation. We expanded on this work by performing a series of simulations
220 across a variety of scenarios. These simulations demonstrate that reasonable levels of
221 misclassification or changes in the exact level of heritability appear unlikely to induce substantial
222 changes in the estimated genetic correlation (Fig. S8, S9, Table S9 and Supplementary Text),
223 though the lower resulting heritability (Fig. S8A) would decrease the power to estimate the
224 genetic overlap (Fig S10). Further, such evidence of genetic overlap is unlikely to appear in the
225 absence of underlying genetic correlation (Table S10), as it is apparent that very high (up to
226 79%) degree of misclassification would be required to produce the observed correlations in the
227 absence of any true genetic correlation. Therefore, the observed correlations suggest true sharing
228 of a substantial fraction of the common variant genetic architecture among psychiatric disorders
229 as well as between behavioral-cognitive measures and brain disorders.

230 The high degree of genetic correlation among the psychiatric disorders adds further
231 evidence that current clinical diagnostics do not reflect the underlying genetic etiology of these
232 disorders, and that genetic risk factors for psychiatric disorders do not respect clinical diagnostic
233 boundaries. This suggests an interconnected nature for their genetic etiology, in contrast to
234 neurological disorders, and underscores the need to refine psychiatric diagnostics. This study
235 may provide important ‘scaffolding’ to support a new research framework for investigating
236 mental disorders, incorporating many levels of information to understand basic dimensions of
237 brain function, such as through the National Institute of Mental Health’s RDoC initiative.

238 The observed positive genetic correlations are consistent with a few different scenarios.
239 For example, r_g may reflect the existence of some portion of common genetic risk factors
240 conferring equal risks to multiple disorders where other distinct additional factors contribute to

241 the eventual clinical presentation. The presence of significant genetic correlation may also reflect
242 the phenotypic overlap between any two disorders; for example, the sharing between
243 schizophrenia and ADHD might reflect underlying difficulties in executive functioning, which
244 are well-established in both disorders(35). Similarly, the sharing between anorexia nervosa, OCD
245 and schizophrenia may reflect a shared mechanism underlying cognitive biases that extend from
246 overvalued ideas to delusions. Another scenario is that a heritable intermediate trait confers risk
247 to multiple outcomes, thereby giving rise to the genetic correlation, as the genetic influences on
248 this trait will be shared for both outcomes (e.g., obesity as a risk factor for both type 2 diabetes
249 and coronary artery disease), or even that the majority common genetic effects are shared
250 between a pair of traits, but each individual effect may confer different degrees of risk and lead
251 to different aggregate genetic risk profiles. While a combination of these is likely, it will become
252 increasingly feasible to evaluate these overlaps at the locus level in the future as more genome-
253 wide significant loci are identified.

254 The low correlations observed across neurological disorders suggest that the current
255 classification reflects relatively specific genetic etiologies, although the limited sample size for
256 some of these disorders and lack of inclusion of disorders conceived as “circuit-based” in the
257 literature, such as restless legs syndrome, sleep disorders and possibly essential tremor,
258 constrains the generalizability of this conclusion. Generally, this analysis recapitulates the
259 current understanding of the relatively distinct primary etiology underlying these disorders;
260 degenerative disorders (such as Alzheimer’s and Parkinson’s diseases) would not be expected *a*
261 *priori* to share their polygenic risk profiles with a neuro-immunological disorder (like multiple
262 sclerosis) or neurovascular disorder (like ischemic stroke). Similarly, we see limited evidence for
263 the reported co-morbidity between migraine with aura and ischemic stroke(36) ($r_g=0.29$,
264 $p=0.099$); however, the standard errors of this comparison are too high to draw strong
265 conclusions. At the disorder subtype level, migraine with and without aura ($r_g=0.48$, $p=1.79 \times 10^{-5}$)
266 show substantial genetic correlation, while focal and generalized epilepsy ($r_g=0.16$, $p=0.388$)
267 show much less.

268 The few significant correlations across neurology and psychiatry, namely between
269 migraine and ADHD, MDD and TS, suggest modest shared etiological overlap across the
270 neurology/psychiatry distinction. The co-morbidity of migraine with MDD and ADHD has been
271 previously reported in epidemiological studies (37-39), while in contrast, the previously reported
272 co-morbidity between migraine and bipolar disorder seen in epidemiological studies (40) was not
273 reflected in our estimate of genetic correlation ($r_g=-0.03$, $p=0.406$).

274 Several phenotypes show only very low-level correlations with any of the other studied
275 disorders and phenotypes, despite large sample size and robust evidence for heritability,
276 suggesting their common variant genetic risk may largely be unique. Alzheimer’s disease,
277 Parkinson’s disease, and multiple sclerosis show extremely limited sharing with the other
278 phenotypes and with each other. Neuroinflammation has been implicated in the pathophysiology
279 of each of these conditions(41-43), as it has for migraine(44) and schizophrenia(45), but no

280 considerable shared heritability was observed with either of those conditions nor with Crohn's
281 disease. While this observation does not preclude shared neuroinflammatory mechanisms in
282 these disorders, it does suggest that on a large scale, common variant genetic influences on these
283 inflammatory mechanisms are not shared between the disorders. Further, we only observed
284 significant enrichment of heritability to immunological cells and tissues in multiple sclerosis,
285 showing that inflammation-specific regulatory marks in the genome do not show overall
286 enrichment for common variant risk for either Alzheimer's or Parkinson's diseases (though this
287 does not preclude the effects of specific, non-polygenic neuroinflammatory mechanisms(46)).
288 Among psychiatric disorders, ASD and TS showed a similar absence of correlation with other
289 disorders, although this could reflect small sample sizes.

290 Analysis of the Big Five personality measures suggests that the current sample sizes for
291 personality data are now starting to be sufficiently large for correlation testing; neuroticism,
292 which has by far the largest sample size, shows a number of significant correlations. Most
293 significant of these was to MDD ($r_g=0.737$, $p=5.04 \times 10^{-96}$), providing further evidence for the
294 link between these phenotypes, reported previously with polygenic risk scores(47) and twin
295 studies(48, 49); others included schizophrenia, anxiety disorders, migraine, migraine without
296 aura, and OCD (Table S6). Further, the observation of strong correlation between MDD and
297 anxiety disorders together with their remarkably strong and similar patterns of correlation
298 between each of these disorders and the dimensional measures of depressive symptoms,
299 subjective well-being, and neuroticism suggests that they all tag a fundamentally similar
300 underlying etiology. The novel significant correlation between coronary artery disease and MDD
301 supports the long-standing epidemiological observation of a link between MDD and CAD(50),
302 while the observed correlation between ADHD and smoking initiation ($r_g=0.374$, $p=3.15 \times 10^{-6}$)
303 is consistent with the epidemiological evidence of overlap(51) and findings from twin
304 studies(52), supporting the existing hypothesis that impulsivity inherent in ADHD may drive
305 smoking initiation and potentially dependence (though other explanations, such as reward system
306 dysfunction would fit as well).

307 For the neurological disorders, five (Alzheimer's disease, intracerebral hemorrhage,
308 ischemic and early-onset stroke, and migraine) showed significant negative genetic correlation to
309 the cognitive measures, while a further two (epilepsy and focal epilepsy) showed moderate
310 negative genetic correlation (Fig. S6). For Alzheimer's disease, poor cognitive performance in
311 early life has been linked with increased risk for developing the disorder in later life(53), but to
312 our knowledge no such connection has been reported for the other phenotypes. ADHD, anxiety
313 disorders and MDD show a significant negative correlation to cognitive and education attainment
314 measures, while the remaining five of the eight psychiatric disorders (anorexia nervosa, ASD,
315 bipolar disorder, OCD, and schizophrenia) showed significant positive genetic correlation with
316 one or more cognitive measures. These results strongly suggest the existence of a link between
317 cognitive performance already in early life and the genetic risk for both psychiatric and
318 neurological brain disorders. The basis of the genetic correlations between education, cognition

319 and brain disorders may have a variety of root causes including, indexing performance
320 differences based on behavioral dysregulation (e.g., ADHD relating to attentional problems
321 during cognitive tests) or may reflect ascertainment biases in certain disorders conditional on
322 impaired cognition (e.g., individuals with lower cognitive reserve being more rapidly identified
323 for Alzheimer's disease).

324 BMI shows significant positive genetic correlation to ADHD, consistent with a meta-
325 analysis linking ADHD to obesity(54), and negative genetic correlation with anorexia nervosa,
326 OCD and schizophrenia. These results connect well with the evidence for enrichment of BMI
327 heritability in CNS tissues(25) and that many reported signals suggest neuronal involvement(55);
328 this may also provide a partial genetic explanation for lower BMI in anorexia nervosa patients
329 even after recovery(56). Given that no strong correlations were observed between BMI and any
330 of the neurological phenotypes, it is possible to hypothesize that BMI's brain-specific genetic
331 architecture is more closely related to behavioral phenotypes. Ischemic stroke and BMI show
332 surprisingly little genetic correlation in this analysis ($r_g=0.07$, $p=0.26$), suggesting that although
333 BMI is a strong risk factor for stroke(57), there is little evidence for shared common genetic
334 effects. These analyses also suggest that the reported reduced rates of cardiovascular disease in
335 individuals with histories of anorexia nervosa (58, 59) are due to BMI-related effects; with the
336 limited evidence of genetic correlation of anorexia nervosa with intracerebral hemorrhage,
337 ischemic stroke, early-onset stroke and coronary artery disease, these results suggest that any
338 lower cardiovascular mortality is more likely due to direct BMI-related effects rather than
339 shared common genetic risk variants.

340 Broadly it is apparent that the current clinical boundaries for the studied psychiatric
341 phenotypes do not appear to reflect distinct underlying pathogenic processes based on the genetic
342 evidence, while in contrast, the studied neurological disorders show much greater genetic
343 specificity. Although it is important to emphasize that while some disorders are under-
344 represented here (e.g. personality disorders in psychiatry and circuit-based disorders such as
345 restless leg syndrome in neurology), these results clearly demonstrate the limited evidence for
346 widespread common genetic risk sharing between psychiatric and neurological disorders, while
347 on the other hand providing strong evidence for links between them and behavioral-cognitive
348 measures. We highlight the need for some degree of restructuring of psychiatric nosology and
349 that genetically informed analyses may provide a good basis for such activities, consistent with
350 the historical knowledge from twin- and family-based results. Further elucidation of individual
351 disorders and their genetic overlap, especially as distinct loci map onto a subset of disorders and
352 etiological processes, may form the basis for either defining new clinical phenotypes or support a
353 move to a more continuous view of psychiatric phenotypes. Ultimately, such developments give
354 hope for reducing diagnostic heterogeneity and eventually improving the diagnosis and treatment
355 of psychiatric disorders.

356

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518 available either directly from, or via application submitted in, the web addresses listed below. Data on coronary
519 artery disease has been contributed by CARDIoGRAMplusC4D investigators and have been downloaded from
520 www.CARDIOGRAMPLUSC4D.ORG. matSpD is available at neurogenetics.qimrberghofer.edu.au/matSpD/. This
521 research has been conducted using the UK Biobank Resource (application #18597).

522
523

524 **Data sources**

525 **Disorder or phenotype – Consortium or dataset identifier – web address:**

526 *Psychiatric disorders*

527 ADHD – PGC-ADD2 - <http://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/results-and-downloads>
528 Anorexia nervosa – PGC-ED - <http://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/results-and-downloads>
529 Anxiety disorder – ANGST - <http://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/results-and-downloads>
530 Autism spectrum disorders(16) – PGC-AUT - <http://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/results-and-downloads>
531 Bipolar disorder – PGC-BIP2 - <http://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/results-and-downloads> (soon)
532 Major depressive disorder – PGC-MDD2 - <http://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/results-and-downloads> (soon)
533 OCD – IOCDFGC - <https://iocdf.org/>
534 Schizophrenia(21) – PGC-SCZ2 - <http://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/results-and-downloads>
535 Tourette Syndrome – TSAIGC – <http://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/results-and-downloads>

536

537 *Neurological disorders*

538 Alzheimer's disease(17) – IGAP - <http://www.pasteur-lille.fr/en/recherche/u744/igap>
539 Epilepsy and subtypes, focal and generalized(60) – ILAE – http://www.epigad.org/page/show/gwas_index
540 Intracerebral hemorrhage(61) – ISGC - <http://www.strokegenetics.com/>
541 Ischemic stroke and subtypes (cardioembolic, early-onset, small-vessel and large-vessel)(62) – METASTROKE
542 dataset of the ISGC – <http://www.strokegenetics.com/>
543 Migraine and subtypes, migraine with and without aura – IHGC – www.headachegenetics.org
544 Multiple sclerosis(63) – IMSGC - http://eaglep.case.edu/imsgc_web
545 Parkinson's disease(20) – IPDGC – www.pdgene.org

546

547 *Behavioral-cognitive phenotypes*

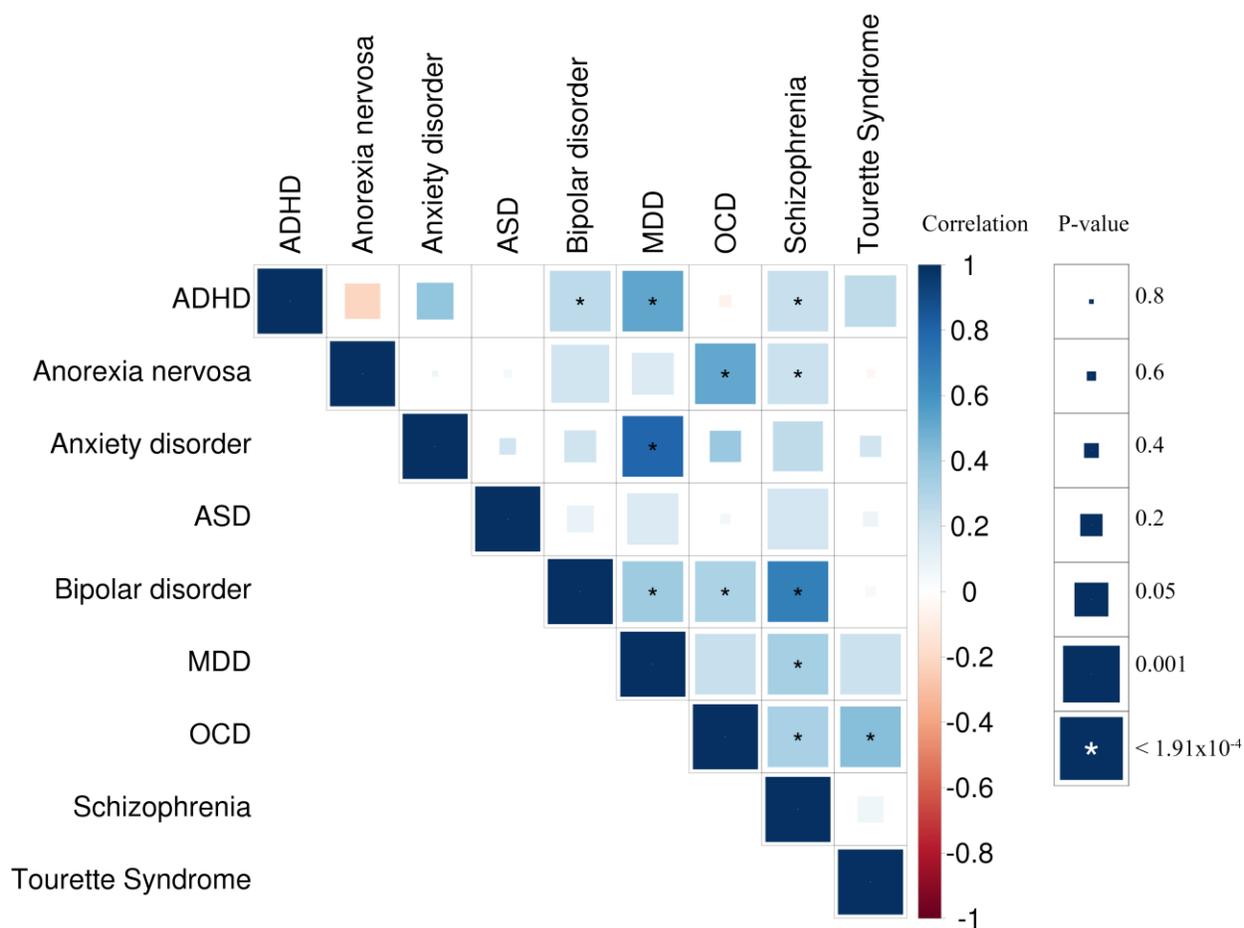
548 College attainment, years of education(64) – SSGAC – <http://www.thessgac.org/data>
549 Childhood cognitive performance(65) – SSGAC – <http://www.thessgac.org/data>
550 Extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness (26) – GPC – <http://www.tweelingenregister.org/GPC/>
551 Neuroticism, depressive symptoms and subjective well-being (66) – SSGAC - <http://www.thessgac.org/data>
552 Never/ever smoked, cigarettes per day(67) - TAG - <http://www.med.unc.edu/pgc/results-and-downloads>

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554 *Additional phenotypes*

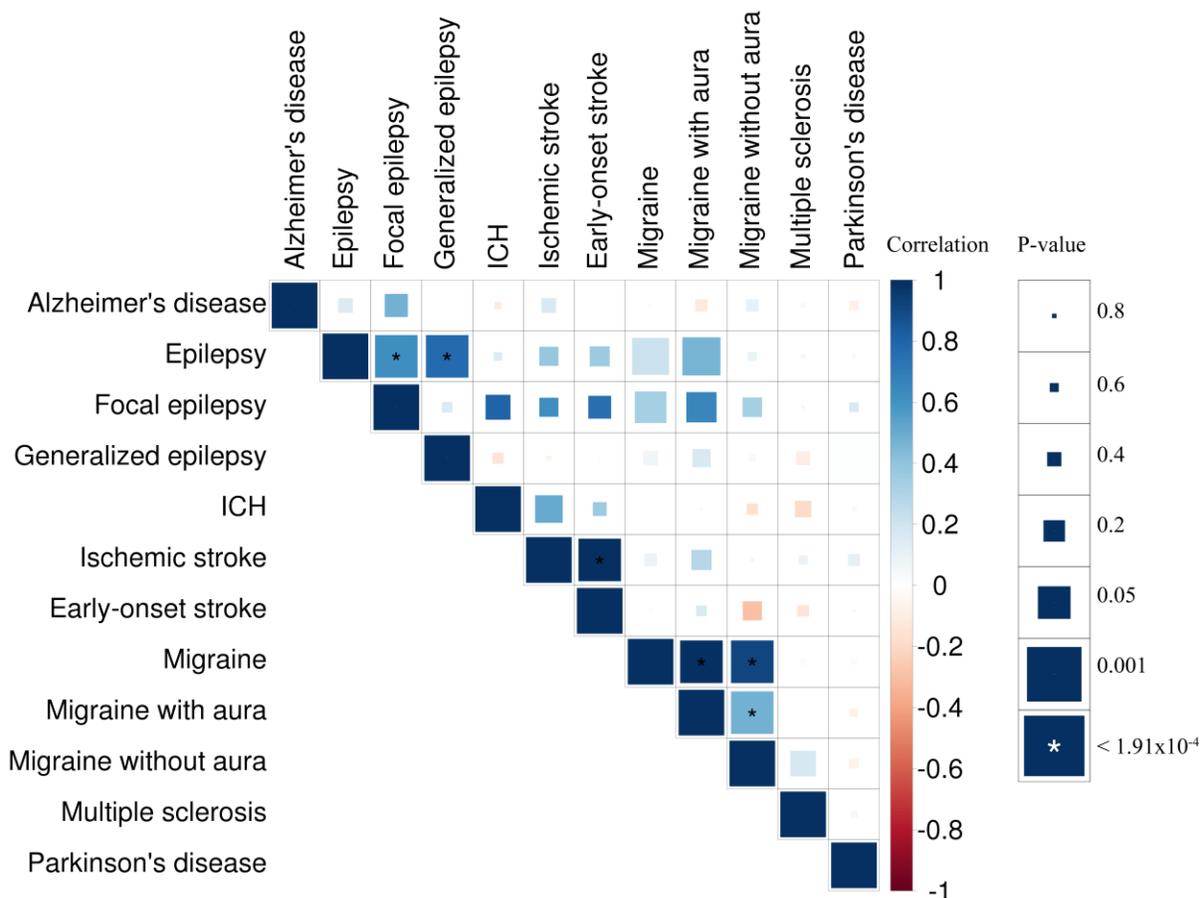
555 BMI(55) – GIANT – <https://www.broadinstitute.org/collaboration/giant>
556 Height(68) – GIANT – <https://www.broadinstitute.org/collaboration/giant>
557
558 Crohn's disease(69) – IBDGC - <http://www.ibdgenetics.org/downloads.html>
559 Coronary artery disease(70) – Cardiogram – <http://www.cardiogramplusc4d.org/downloads/>

560 **Figure 1.** Genetic correlation matrix across psychiatric phenotypes.



561
 562 *Color of each box indicates the magnitude of the correlation, while size of the boxes indicates its significance, with*
 563 *significant correlations filling each box completely. Asterisks indicate genetic correlations which are significant*
 564 *after Bonferroni correction. ADHD – attention deficit hyperactivity disorder; ASD – autism spectrum disorder;*
 565 *MDD – major depressive disorder; OCD – obsessive-compulsive disorder.*

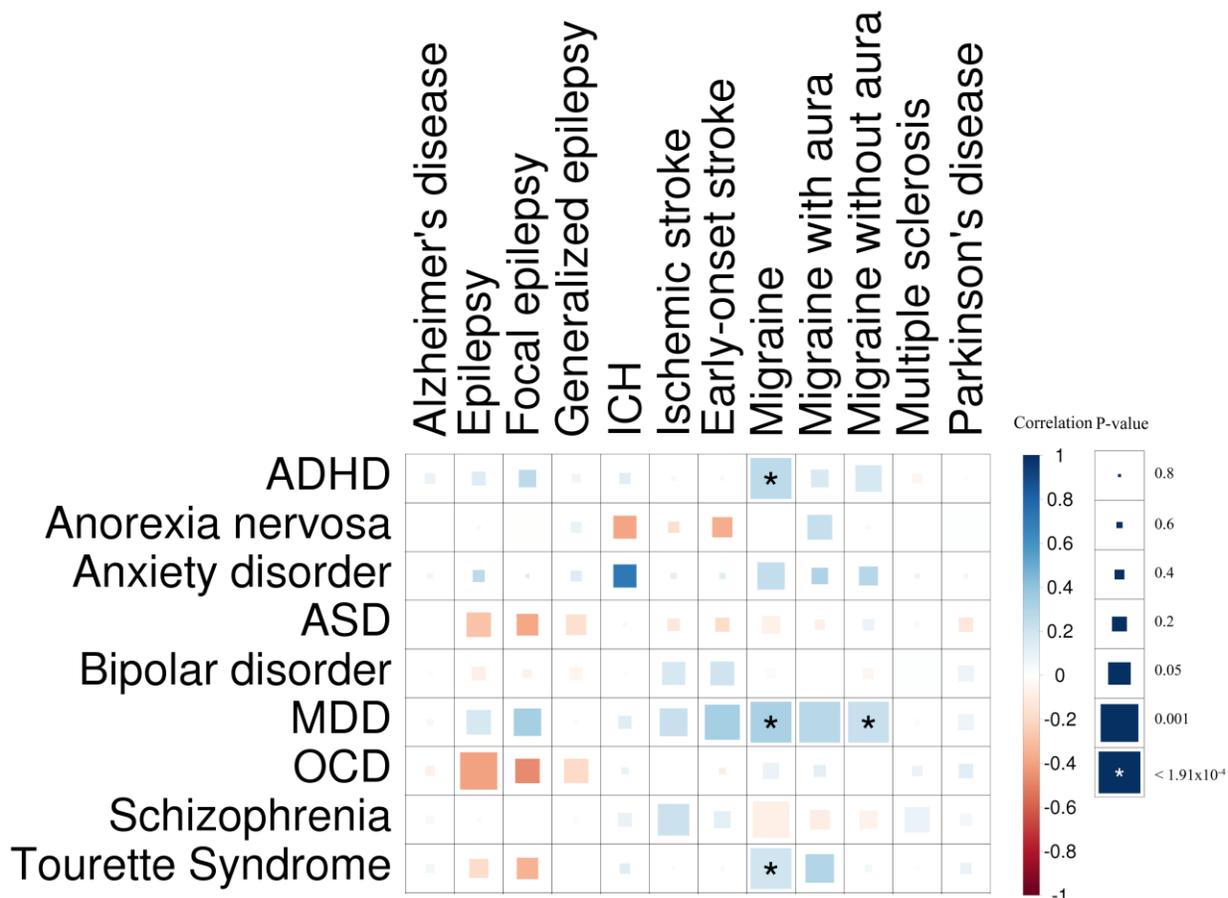
566 **Figure 2.** Genetic correlation matrix across neurological phenotypes.



567
 568 *Color of each box indicates the magnitude of the correlation, while size of the boxes indicates its significance, with*
 569 *significant correlations filling each box completely. Asterisks indicate genetic correlations which are significant*
 570 *after Bonferroni correction. Some phenotypes have substantial overlaps (see Table 1), e.g. all cases of generalized*
 571 *epilepsy are also cases of epilepsy. Asterisks indicate significant genetic correlation after multiple testing*
 572 *correction. ICH – intracerebral hemorrhage.*

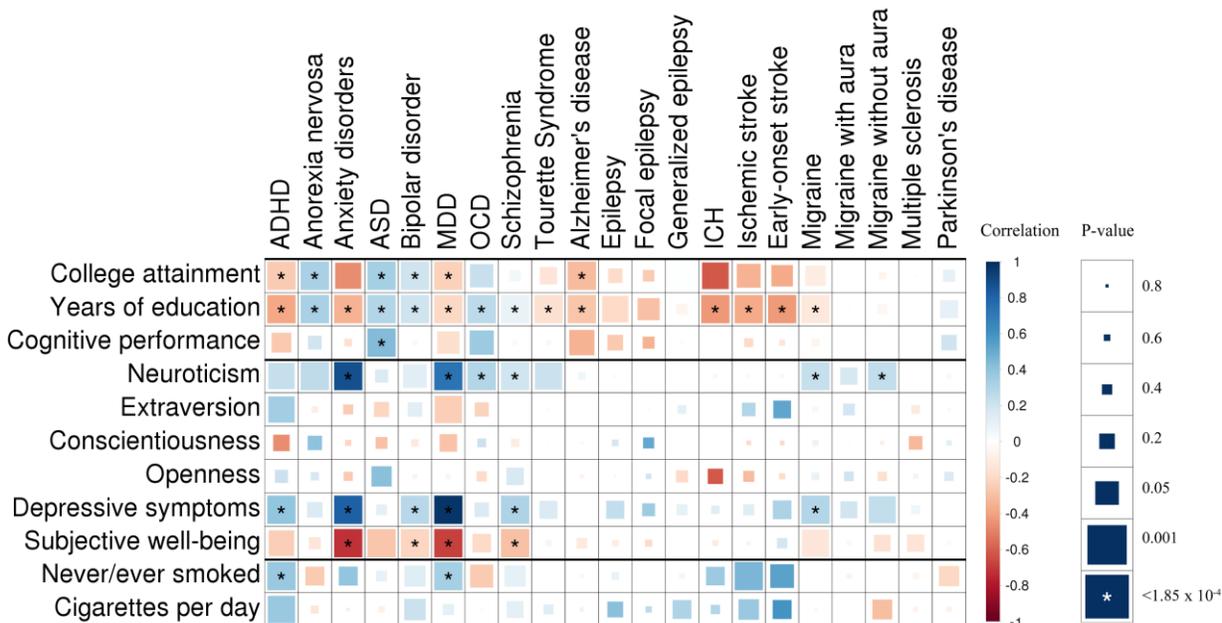
573

574 **Figure 3.** Genetic correlation matrix across neurological and psychiatric phenotypes.



575
 576 *Color of each box indicates the magnitude of the correlation, while size of the boxes indicates its significance, with*
 577 *significant correlations filling each box completely. Asterisks indicate genetic correlations which are significant*
 578 *after Bonferroni correction. ADHD – attention deficit hyperactivity disorder; ASD – autism spectrum disorder; ICH*
 579 *– intracerebral hemorrhage; MDD – major depressive disorder; OCD – obsessive-compulsive disorder.*

580 **Figure 4.** Genetic correlation matrix across brain disorders and behavioral-cognitive phenotypes.



581
 582 Color of each box indicates the magnitude of the correlation, while size of the boxes indicates its significance, with
 583 significant correlations filling each box completely. Asterisks indicate genetic correlations which are significant
 584 after Bonferroni correction. ADHD – attention deficit hyperactivity disorder; ASD – autism spectrum disorder; ICH
 585 – intracerebral hemorrhage; MDD – major depressive disorder; OCD – obsessive-compulsive disorder; BMI –
 586 body-mass index.

587 **Table 1.** Brain disorder phenotypes used in the Brainstorm project. Indented phenotypes are part of a larger whole,
588 e.g. the epilepsy study consists of the joint analysis of focal epilepsy and generalized epilepsy. Numbers in gray
589 denote a sample set which is non-unique, e.g. cardioembolic stroke samples are a subset of ischemic stroke samples.
590 ADHD – attention deficit hyperactivity disorder; OCD – obsessive-compulsive disorder. ‘Anxiety disorders’ refers
591 to a meta-analysis of five subtypes (generalized anxiety disorder, panic disorder, social phobia, agoraphobia and
592 specific phobias). Source details are listed under Data Sources and the references in Table S1.

593

| Psychiatric disorders | | | | Neurological disorders | | | |
|---------------------------|----------|----------------|----------------|--------------------------|------------|----------------|----------------|
| Disorder | Source | Cases | Controls | Disorder | Source | Cases | Controls |
| ADHD | PGC-ADD2 | 12,645 | 84,435 | Alzheimer's disease | IGAP | 17,008 | 37,154 |
| Anorexia nervosa | PGC-ED | 3,495 | 11,105 | Epilepsy | ILAE | 7,779 | 20,439 |
| Anxiety disorders | ANGST | 5,761 | 11,765 | Focal epilepsy | " | 4,601 | 17,985 |
| Autism spectrum disorder | PGC-AUT | 5,305 | 5,305 | Generalized epilepsy | " | 2,525 | 16,244 |
| Bipolar disorder | PGC-BIP2 | 20,352 | 31,358 | Intracerebral hemorrhage | ISGC | 1,545 | 1,481 |
| Major depressive disorder | PGC-MDD2 | 16,823 | 25,632 | Ischemic stroke | METASTROKE | 10,307 | 19,326 |
| OCD | PGC-OCDS | 2,936 | 7,279 | Cardioembolic stroke | " | 1,859 | 17,708 |
| Schizophrenia | PGC-SCZ2 | 33,640 | 43,456 | Early-onset stroke | " | 3,274 | 11,012 |
| Tourette Syndrome | PGC-OCDS | 4,220 | 8,994 | Large-vessel disease | " | 1,817 | 17,708 |
| | | | | Small-vessel disease | " | 1,349 | 17,708 |
| | | | | Migraine | IHGC | 59,673 | 316,078 |
| | | | | Migraine with aura | " | 6,332 | 142,817 |
| | | | | Migraine without aura | " | 8,348 | 136,758 |
| | | | | Multiple sclerosis | IMSGC | 5,545 | 12,153 |
| | | | | Parkinson's disease | IPDGC | 5,333 | 12,019 |
| <i>Total psychiatric</i> | | <i>105,177</i> | <i>229,329</i> | <i>Total neurologic</i> | | <i>107,190</i> | <i>418,650</i> |

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595

596 **Table 2.** Behavioral-cognitive and additional phenotypes used in the study. Numbers in gray denote overlapping
 597 study sets, e.g. samples in the college attainment analysis are a subset of those in the analysis for years of education.
 598 (d) – dichotomous phenotype, (q) – quantitative phenotype. BMI – body-mass index. Source details are listed under
 599 Data Sources, while references are listed in Table S2.

| Phenotype | Source | Samples |
|------------------------------|------------|------------------|
| Cognitive | | |
| Years of education (q) | SSGAC | 293,723 |
| College attainment (d) | " | 120,917 |
| Cognitive performance (q) | " | 17,989 |
| Personality measures | | |
| Subjective well-being | SSGAC | 298,420 |
| Depressive symptoms | " | 161,460 |
| Neuroticism (q) | " | 170,911 |
| Extraversion (q) | GPC | 63,030 |
| Agreeableness (q) | " | 17,375 |
| Conscientiousness (q) | " | 17,375 |
| Openness (q) | " | 17,375 |
| Smoking-related | | |
| Never/ever smoked (d) | TAG | 74,035 |
| Cigarettes per day (q) | TAG | 38,617 |
| Additional phenotypes | | |
| BMI (q) | GIANT | 339,224 |
| Height (q) | " | 253,288 |
| Coronary artery disease (d) | Cardiogram | 86,995 |
| Crohn's disease (d) | IIBDGC | 20,883 |
| Total | | 1,124,048 |

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| | |
|-----|---|
| 603 | Supplementary Materials |
| 604 | Materials and methods |
| 605 | Supplementary Text |
| 606 | Comparison with previous heritability estimates |
| 607 | Effect of misclassification |
| 608 | Correlation by misclassification alone |
| 609 | Study-specific acknowledgements |
| 610 | Consortium memberships |
| 611 | Figures S1-10 |
| 612 | Tables S1-9 |