

Genome-wide haplotype-based association analysis of major depressive disorder in Generation Scotland and UK Biobank

David M. Howard Ph.D.*¹, Lynsey S. Hall Ph.D.¹, Jonathan D. Hafferty M.D.¹, Yanni Zeng Ph.D.^{1,2},
Mark J. Adams Ph.D.¹, Toni-Kim Clarke Ph.D.¹, David J. Porteous Ph.D.³, Reka Nagy BSc²,
Caroline Hayward Ph.D.^{2,8}, Blair H. Smith Ph.D.^{4,8}, Alison D. Murray Ph.D.^{5,8}, Niamh M. Ryan
Ph.D.³, Kathryn L. Evans Ph.D.^{3,7}, Chris S. Haley Ph.D.², Ian J. Deary Ph.D.^{6,7,8}, Pippa A. Thomson
Ph.D.^{3,7} and Andrew M. McIntosh M.D.^{1,7,8}

Running Title: Haplotype-based association analysis of depression

Affiliations:

¹Division of Psychiatry, University of Edinburgh, Royal Edinburgh Hospital, Edinburgh, UK

²Medical Research Council Human Genetics Unit, Institute of Genetics and Molecular Medicine,
University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK

³Centre for Genomic and Experimental Medicine, Institute of Genetics and Molecular Medicine,
University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK

⁴Division of Population Health Sciences, University of Dundee, Dundee, UK

⁵Aberdeen Biomedical Imaging Centre, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, UK

⁶Department of Psychology, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK

⁷Centre for Cognitive Ageing and Cognitive Epidemiology, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh,
UK

⁸Generation Scotland, Institute of Genetics and Molecular Medicine, University of Edinburgh,
Edinburgh, UK

*Corresponding author: David M. Howard

Division of Psychiatry, University of Edinburgh, Royal Edinburgh Hospital, Edinburgh, UK

+44 131 537 6268

(e-mail: D.Howard@ed.ac.uk)

Keywords: Haplotype association analysis; Major Depressive Disorder; 6q21; Depression; Generation
Scotland; UK Biobank

38 ABSTRACT

39 Genome-wide association studies using genotype data have had limited success in the identification of
40 variants associated with major depressive disorder (MDD). Haplotype data provide an alternative
41 method for detecting associations between variants in weak linkage disequilibrium with genotyped
42 variants and a given trait of interest. A genome-wide haplotype association study for MDD was
43 undertaken utilising a family-based population cohort, Generation Scotland: Scottish Family Health
44 Study ($n = 18\,773$), as a discovery cohort with UK Biobank used as a population-based cohort
45 replication cohort ($n = 25\,035$). Fine mapping of haplotype boundaries was used to account for
46 overlapping haplotypes potentially tagging the same causal variant. Within the discovery cohort, two
47 haplotypes exceeded genome-wide significance ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) for an association with MDD. One of
48 these haplotypes was nominally significant in the replication cohort ($P < 0.05$) and was located in
49 6q21, a region which has been previously associated with bipolar disorder, a psychiatric disorder that
50 is phenotypically and genetically correlated with MDD. Several haplotypes with $P < 10^{-7}$ in the
51 discovery cohort were located within gene coding regions associated with diseases that are comorbid
52 with MDD. Using such haplotypes to highlight regions for sequencing may lead to the identification
53 of the underlying causal variants.

54 INTRODUCTION

55 Major depressive disorder (MDD) is a complex and clinically heterogeneous condition with core
56 symptoms of low mood and/or anhedonia over a period of at least two weeks. MDD is frequently
57 comorbid with other clinical conditions, such as cardiovascular disease,¹ cancer² and inflammatory
58 diseases.³ This complexity and comorbidity suggests heterogeneity of aetiology and may explain why
59 there has been limited success in identifying causal genetic variants,⁴⁻⁷ despite heritability estimates
60 ranging from 28% to 37%.^{8, 9} Single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)-based analyses are unlikely to
61 fully capture the variation in regions surrounding the genotyped markers, including untyped lower-
62 frequency variants and those that are in weak linkage disequilibrium (LD) with the common SNPs on
63 many genotyping arrays.

Haplotype-based analysis may help improve the detection of causal genetic variants as, unlike single SNP-based analysis, it is possible to assign the strand of sequence variants and combine information from multiple SNPs to identify rarer causal variants. A number of studies¹⁰⁻¹² have identified haplotypes associated with MDD, albeit by focussing on particular regions of interest. In the current study, a family and population-based cohort Generation Scotland: Scottish Family Health Study (GS:SFHS) was utilised to ascertain genome-wide haplotypes in closely and distantly related individuals.¹³ A haplotype-based association analysis was conducted using MDD as a phenotype, followed by additional fine-mapping of haplotype boundaries with a replication and meta-analysis performed using the UK Biobank cohort.¹⁴

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Discovery cohort

The discovery phase of the study used the family and population-based Generation Scotland: Scottish Family Health Study (GS:SFHS) cohort,¹³ consisting of 23 960 individuals of whom 20 195 were genotyped with the Illumina OmniExpress BeadChip (706 786 SNPs). Individuals with a genotype call rate < 98% were removed, as well as those SNPs with a call rate < 98%, a minor allele frequency (MAF) < 0.01 or those deviating from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium ($P < 10^{-6}$). Individuals who were identified as population outliers through principal component analyses of their genotypic information were also removed.¹⁵

Following quality control there were 19 904 GS:SFHS individuals (11 731 females and 8 173 males) that had genotypic information for 561 125 autosomal SNPs. These individuals ranged from 18-99 years of age with an average age of 47.4 years and a standard deviation of 15.0 years. There were 4 933 families that had at least two related individuals, this included 1 799 families with two members, 1 216 families with three members and 829 families with four members. The largest family group consisted of 31 related individuals and there were 1 789 individuals that had no other family members within GS:SFHS.

Replication cohort

90 The population-based UK Biobank¹⁶ (provided as part of project #4844) was used as a replication
 91 cohort to assess those haplotypes within GS:SFHS with $P < 10^{-6}$. The UK Biobank data consisted of
 92 152 249 individuals with genomic data for 72 355 667 imputed variants.¹⁷ The SNPs genotyped in
 93 GS:SFHS were extracted from the UK Biobank data and those variants with an imputation info score
 94 < 0.8 were removed, leaving 555 782 variants in common between the two cohorts. Those genotyped
 95 individuals listed as non-white British and those that had also participated in GS:SFHS were removed
 96 from within UK Biobank, leaving a total of 119 955 individuals.

97 **Genotype phasing and haplotype formation**

98 The genotype data for GS:SFHS and UK Biobank was phased using SHAPEIT v2.r837.¹⁸ Genome-
 99 wide phasing was conducted on the GS:SFHS cohort, whilst the phasing of UK Biobank was
 100 conducted on a 50Mb window centred on those haplotypes identified within GS:SFHS with $P < 10^{-6}$.
 101 The relatedness within GS:SFHS made it suitable for the application of the duoHMM method, which
 102 improves phasing accuracy by also incorporating family information.¹⁹ The default window size of
 103 2Mb was used for UK Biobank and a 5Mb window was used for GS:SFHS as larger window sizes
 104 have been demonstrated to be beneficial when there is increased identity by descent (IBD) in the
 105 population.¹⁸ The number of conditioning states per SNP was increased from the default of 100 states
 106 to 200 states to improve phasing accuracy, with the default effective population size of 15 000 used.
 107 To calculate the recombination rates between SNPs during phasing the HapMap phase II b37²⁰ was
 108 used. This build was also used to partition the phased data into haplotypes.

109 Three window sizes (1cM, 0.5cM and 0.25cM) were used to establish the SNPs that formed each
 110 haplotype.²¹ Each window was then moved along the genome by a quarter of the respective window
 111 size. There were a total of 97 333 windows with a mean number of SNPs per window of 157, 79 and
 112 34 for the 1cM, 0.5cM and 0.25cM windows, respectively. Windows that were less 5 SNPs in length
 113 were removed. Within each window, those haplotypes that had a minor allele frequency < 0.005 or
 114 that deviating from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium ($P < 10^{-6}$) were not tested for association. However,
 115 they were included within the alternative haplotype when assessing the remaining 2 618 094

haplotypes. The reported haplotype positions relate to the outermost SNPs within each haplotype are in base pair (bp) position according to GRCh37.

To approximate the number of independently segregating haplotypes the clump command within Plink v1.90²² was applied. This provides an estimation of the Bonferroni correction required for multiple testing. When applying an LD r^2 threshold of < 0.4 there were 1 070 216 independently segregating haplotypes within GS:SFHS, equating to a P -value $< 5 \times 10^{-8}$ for genome-wide significance. This threshold is also frequently applied to SNP-based and sequence-based association studies to account for multiple testing.²³

Phenotype ascertainment and patient linkage

Discovery cohort

Within GS:SFHS a diagnosis of MDD was made using initial screening questions and the Structured Clinical Interview for the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (SCID).²⁴ The SCID is an internationally validated approach to identifying episodes of depression and was conducted by clinical nurses trained in its administration. Further details regarding this diagnostic assessment have been described previously.²⁵ In this study, MDD was defined by at least one instance of a major depressive episode which initially identified 2 659 cases, 17 237 controls and 98 missing (phenotype unknown) individuals.

In addition, the psychiatric history of cases and controls was examined using record linkage to the Scottish Morbidity Record.²⁶ Within the control group, 1 072 participants were found to have attended at least one psychiatry outpatient clinic and were excluded from the study. In addition, 47 of the MDD cases were found to have additional diagnoses of either bipolar disorder or schizophrenia in psychiatric inpatient records and were also excluded from the study. These participants had given prior consent for anonymised record linkage to routine administrative clinical data.

In total there were 2 605 MDD cases and 16 168 controls following the removal of individuals based on patient records and population stratification, equating to a prevalence of 13.9% for MDD in this cohort.

Replication Cohort

Within the UK Biobank cohort, 25 035 participants completed a touchscreen assessment of depressive symptoms and previous treatment. On the basis of their responses, diagnostic status was defined as either ‘probable single lifetime episode of major depression’ or ‘probable recurrent major depression (moderate and severe)’ and with control status defined as ‘no mood disorder’. In total there were 8 508 cases and 16 527 controls, equating to a trait prevalence of 34.0% in this cohort, after the removal of individuals with insufficient information or ambiguous phenotypes.¹⁴

Statistical approach

Discovery cohort

A mixed linear model was used to conduct an association analysis using GCTA v1.25.0²⁷:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_1\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{Z}_2\mathbf{v} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

where \mathbf{y} was the vector of binary observations for MDD. $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ was the matrix of fixed effects, including haplotype, sex, age and age². \mathbf{u} was fitted as a random effect taking into account the genomic relationships (MVN $(0, \mathbf{G}\boldsymbol{\sigma}_u^2)$, where \mathbf{G} was a SNP-based genomic relationship matrix²⁸). \mathbf{v} was a random effect fitting a second genomic relationship matrix \mathbf{G}_t (MVN $(0, \mathbf{G}_t\boldsymbol{\sigma}_v^2)$ which modelled only the more closely related individuals.²⁹ \mathbf{G}_t was equal to \mathbf{G} except that off-diagonal elements < 0.05 were set to 0. \mathbf{X} , \mathbf{Z}_1 and \mathbf{Z}_2 were the corresponding incidence matrices. $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ was the vector of residual effects and was assumed to be normally distributed, MVN $(0, \mathbf{I}\boldsymbol{\sigma}_\varepsilon^2)$.

The inclusion of the second genomic relationship matrix, \mathbf{G}_t , was deemed desirable as the fitting of the single matrix \mathbf{G} alone resulted in significant population stratification (intercept = 1.029 ± 0.003 , $\lambda_{GC} = 1.026$) following examination with LD score regression.³⁰ The fitting of both genomic relationship matrices simultaneously produced no evidence of bias due to population stratification (intercept = 1.002 ± 0.003 , $\lambda_{GC} = 1.005$).

Replication cohort

A mixed linear model was used to assess the haplotypes in UK Biobank which were identified in the discovery cohort with $P < 10^{-6}$ using GCTA v1.25.0²⁷:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}_1\mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$

where \mathbf{y} was the vector of binary observations for MDD. $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ was the matrix of fixed effects, including haplotype, sex, age, age², genotyping batch and recruitment centre. \mathbf{u} was fitted as a random effect taking into account the SNP-based genomic relationships (MVN $(0, \mathbf{G}\boldsymbol{\sigma}_u^2)$). \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Z}_1 were the corresponding incidence matrices and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ was the vector of residual effects and was assumed to be normally distributed, MVN $(0, \mathbf{I}\boldsymbol{\sigma}_\varepsilon^2)$. Replication success was judged on the statistical significance of each haplotype using an inverse variance-weighted meta-analysis across both cohorts conducted using Metal.³¹

Fine mapping

The method described above examines the effect of each haplotype against all other haplotypes in that window. Therefore, a haplotype could be assessed against similar haplotypes containing the same causal variant, limiting any observed phenotypic association. To investigate whether there were causal variants located within directly overlapping haplotypes of the same window size, fine mapping of haplotype boundaries was used. Where there were directly overlapping haplotypes, each with $P < 10^{-3}$ and with an effect in the same direction, i.e. both causal or both preventative, then any shared consecutive regions formed a new haplotype that was assessed using the mixed model described

previously. This new haplotype was assessed using all individuals and was required to be at least 5 SNPs in length. A total of 47 new haplotypes were assessed from within 26 pairs of directly overlapping haplotypes.

RESULTS

An association analysis for MDD was conducted using 2 618 094 haplotypes and 47 fine mapped haplotypes within the discovery cohort, GS:SFHS. A genome-wide Manhattan plot of $-\log_{10} P$ -values for these haplotypes is provided in Figure 1 with a q-q plot provided in Supplementary Figure S1. Within the discovery cohort, two haplotypes exceeded genome-wide significance ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) for an association with MDD, one located on chromosome 6 and the other located on chromosome 10. There were 12 haplotypes with $P < 10^{-6}$ in the discovery cohort with replication sought for these haplotypes using UK Biobank. Summary statistics from both cohorts and the meta-analysis for these 12 haplotypes are provided in Table 1. The protein coding genes which overlap these 12 haplotypes along with the observed haplotype frequencies within the two cohorts are provided in Table 2. The SNPs and alleles that constitute these 12 haplotypes are provided in Supplementary Table S1.

The two haplotypes on chromosome 6 ($LD\ r^2 = 0.74$) with $P < 10^{-6}$ in the discovery cohort both achieved nominal significance ($P < 0.05$) in the replication cohort, with one reaching genome-wide significance ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) in the meta-analysis. A regional association plot of the region surrounding these haplotypes within GS:SFHS is provided in Figure 2. Fine mapping was used to form the most significant haplotype within the discovery cohort. Two directly overlapping 0.5cM haplotypes consisting of 28 SNPs were identified between 108 335 345 and 108 454 437 bp (rs7749081 - rs212829). These two haplotypes had P -values of 3.24×10^{-5} and 5.57×10^{-5} , respectively and differed at a single SNP (rs7749081). Exclusion of this single SNP defined a new 27 SNP haplotype that had a genome-wide significant association with MDD ($P = 7.06 \times 10^{-9}$). Calculating the effect size at the population level,³² the estimates of the contribution of the two haplotypes to the total genetic variance was 2.09×10^{-4} and 2.38×10^{-4} , respectively, within GS:SFHS. None of the individual SNPs located within either haplotype were associated with MDD in either cohort ($P \geq 0.05$).

A genome-wide significant haplotype ($P = 8.50 \times 10^{-9}$) was identified on chromosome 10 within GS:SFHS using a 0.5cM window. A regional association plot of the region surrounding this haplotype is provided in Figure 3. This haplotype had an odds ratio (OR) of 2.33 (95% CI: 1.83 – 2.91) in the discovery cohort and an OR of 1.15 (95% CI: 0.80 - 1.59) in the replication cohort. These were the highest ORs observed in the respective cohorts. The estimate of the contribution of this haplotype to the total genetic variance was 2.29×10^{-4} in the discovery cohort. Association analysis of the 92 SNPs on this haplotype revealed that one SNP in GS:SFHS (rs17133585) and two SNPs in UK Biobank (rs12413638 and rs10904290) were nominally significant ($P < 0.05$), although none had P -values < 0.001 .

All 12 of the haplotypes with a P -value for association $< 10^{-6}$ in the GS:SFHS discovery cohort were risk factors for MDD (OR > 1) and within the replication cohort, 7 out of these 12 haplotypes had OR > 1 . None of the 95% confidence intervals for the replication ORs overlapped the 95% confidence intervals of the discovery GS:SFHS cohort.

DISCUSSION

Twelve haplotypes were identified in the discovery cohort with $P < 10^{-6}$ of which two were significant at the genome-wide level ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) in the discovery cohort and one which was genome-wide significant ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) in the meta-analysis. A power analysis³³ was conducted using the genotype relative risks observed in the discovery cohort, the sample sizes and haplotype frequencies in the replication cohort and the prevalence of MDD reported for a structured clinical diagnosis of MDD in other high income countries (14.6%).³⁴ There was sufficient power (> 0.99) to detect the twelve haplotypes with $P < 10^{-6}$ identified in the discovery cohort within the replication cohort at a significance threshold of 0.05%.

A complementary approach to replication is to identify the gene coding regions within haplotypes that potentially provide a biologically informative explanation for an association with MDD. Those haplotypes with $P < 10^{-7}$ in the discovery cohort and the gene coding regions that they overlap are discussed below.

The two haplotypes on chromosome 6 overlapped with the Osteopetrosis Associated Transmembrane Protein 1 (*OSTMI*) coding gene. *OSTMI* is associated with neurodegeneration^{35, 36} and melanocyte function,³⁷ and alpha-melanocyte stimulating hormone has been shown to have an effect on depression-like symptoms.³⁸⁻⁴⁰ This haplotype lies within the 6q21 region that has been associated with bipolar disorder,⁴¹⁻⁴⁵ a disease that shares symptoms with MDD and has a correlated phenotypic liability of 0.64.⁴⁶ This may indicate either a pleiotropic effect or clinical heterogeneity, whereby patients may be misdiagnosed, i.e. patients may have MDD and transition to bipolar disorder in the future or are sub-threshold for bipolar disorder and instead given a diagnosis of MDD.

The haplotype identified on chromosome 8 overlapped with the Interleukin 7 (*IL7*) protein coding region. *IL7* is involved in maintaining T cell homeostasis⁴⁷ and proliferation,⁴⁸ which in turn contributes to the immune response to pathogens. It has been proposed that impaired T cell function may be a factor in the development of MDD,⁴⁹ with depressed subjects found to have elevated⁵⁰ or depressed levels⁵¹ of *IL7* serum. There is conjecture as to whether MDD causes inflammation or represents a reaction to an increased inflammatory response,^{52, 53} but it is most likely to be a bidirectional relationship.⁵¹

The haplotype on chromosome 10 overlapped with two RNA genes: long intergenic non-protein coding RNA 704 (*LINC00704*) and long intergenic non-protein coding RNA 705 (*LINC00705*). The function of these non-protein coding genes is unreported. However, a study of cardiac neonatal lupus which is a rare autoimmune disease demonstrated an association for a SNP (rs1391511) which is 15kb from *LINC00705*.

Two Dutch studies^{54, 55} have identified a variant (rs8023445) on chromosome 15 located within the SRC (Src homology 2 domain containing) family, member 4 (*SHC4*) gene coding region that has a moderate degree of association with MDD ($P = 1.64 \times 10^{-5}$ and $P = 9 \times 10^{-6}$, respectively). A variant (rs10519201) within the *SHC4* coding region was also found to have an association ($P = 6.16 \times 10^{-6}$) with Obsessive-Compulsive Personality Disorder in a UK-based study.⁵⁶ *SHC4* is expressed in neurons⁵⁷ and regulates BDNF-induced MAPK activation,⁵⁸ which has been shown to be a key factor

in MDD pathophysiology.⁵⁹ The *SHC4* region overlaps with the haplotype on chromosome 15 identified in the discovery cohort (located at 49 206 902 – 49 260 601 bp) and therefore further research to examine the association between the *SHC4* region and psychiatric disorders could be warranted.

Haplotype-based analyses are capable of tagging variants due to the LD between the untyped variants and the multiple flanking genotyped variants which make up the inherited haplotype. This approach should provide greater power when there is comparatively higher IBD sharing, such as in GS:SFHS, where there is a greater likelihood that a single haplotype is tagging the same causal variant across that population. The UK Biobank was selected as replication cohort as it is a large population-based sample that was expected to be genetically similar to the GS:SFHS discovery cohort. This was confirmed by the similarity of the observed haplotype frequencies (Table 2) between the two cohorts. The prevalence of MDD observed in the discovery cohort (13.7%) was comparable to that reported (14.6%) within similar populations.³⁴ However, in the replication cohort, the trait prevalence was notably higher (34.0%), most likely due to the differing methods of phenotypic ascertainment. Additional work could seek to replicate the findings in further cohorts, as well as full meta-analysis of all haplotypes within those cohorts. An additive model was used to analyse the haplotypes and alternative approaches could implement a dominant model or an analysis of diplotypes (haplotype pairs) for association with MDD.

Conclusions

This study identified two haplotypes within the discovery cohort that exceeded genome-wide significance for association with a clinically diagnosed MDD phenotype. One of these haplotypes was nominally significant in the replication cohort and was in LD with a haplotype that was genome-wide significant in the meta-analysis. The genome-wide significant haplotype on chromosome 6 was located on 6q21, which has been shown previously to be related to psychiatric disorders. There were a number of haplotypes approaching genome-wide significance located within genic regions associated with diseases that are comorbid with MDD and therefore these regions warrant further investigation.

The total genetic variance explained by the haplotypes identified was small, however these haplotypes potentially represent biologically informative aetiological subtypes for MDD and merit further analysis.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Generation Scotland received core funding from the Chief Scientist Office of the Scottish Government Health Directorate CZD/16/6 and the Scottish Funding Council HR03006. Genotyping of GS:SFHS was carried out by the Genetics Core Laboratory at the Wellcome Trust Clinical Research Facility, Edinburgh, Scotland and was funded by the UK's Medical Research Council and the Wellcome Trust (Wellcome Trust Strategic Award "Stratifying Resilience and Depression Longitudinally" (STRADL) (Reference 104036/Z/14/Z).

We are grateful to all the families who took part, the general practitioners and the Scottish School of Primary Care for their help in recruiting them, and the whole Generation Scotland team, which includes interviewers, computer and laboratory technicians, clerical workers, research scientists, volunteers, managers, receptionists, healthcare assistants and nurses. Ethics approval for the study was given by the NHS Tayside committee on research ethics (reference 05/S1401/8)

This research has been conducted using the UK Biobank resource – application number 4844; we are grateful to UK Biobank participants. The UK Biobank study was conducted under generic approval from the NHS National Research Ethics Service (approval letter dated 17th June 2011, Ref 11/NW/0382).

YZ acknowledges support from China Scholarship Council. IJD is supported by the Centre for Cognitive Ageing and Cognitive Epidemiology which is funded by the Medical Research Council and the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (MR/K026992/1). AMMcI and T-KC acknowledges support from the Dr Mortimer and Theresa Sackler Foundation.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

DJP and IJP are participants in UK Biobank. The authors report that no other financial interests or potential conflicts of interest exist.

REFERENCES

1. Huffman JC, Celano CM, Beach SR, Motiwala SR, Januzzi JL. Depression and cardiac disease: epidemiology, mechanisms, and diagnosis. *Cardiovascular Psychiatry and Neurology* 2013; **2013**: 14.
2. Kang H-J, Kim S-Y, Bae K-Y, Kim S-W, Shin I-S, Yoon J-S, *et al.* Comorbidity of depression with physical disorders: research and clinical implications. *Chonnam Medical Journal* 2015; **51**(1): 8-18.
3. Raison CL, Capuron L, Miller AH. Cytokines sing the blues: inflammation and the pathogenesis of depression. *Trends in Immunology* 2006; **27**(1): 24-31.
4. Major Depressive Disorder Working Group of the Psychiatric Gwas Consortium. A mega-analysis of genome-wide association studies for major depressive disorder. *Molecular Psychiatry* 2013; **18**(4): 497-511.
5. Converge Consortium. Sparse whole-genome sequencing identifies two loci for major depressive disorder. *Nature* 2015; **523**(7562): 588-591.
6. Levinson DF, Mostafavi S, Milaneschi Y, Rivera M, Ripke S, Wray NR, *et al.* Genetic studies of major depressive disorder: why are there no genome-wide association study findings and what can we do about it? *Biological Psychiatry* 2014; **76**(7): 510-512.
7. Hyde CL, Nagle MW, Tian C, Chen X, Paciga SA, Wendland JR, *et al.* Identification of 15 genetic loci associated with risk of major depression in individuals of European descent. *Nature Genetics* 2016; **advance online publication**.
8. Lubke GH, Hottenga JJ, Walters R, Laurin C, de Geus EJC, Willemsen G, *et al.* Estimating the genetic variance of major depressive disorder due to all single nucleotide polymorphisms. *Biological Psychiatry* 2012; **72**(8): 707-709.
9. Sullivan PF, Neale MC, Kendler KS. Genetic epidemiology of major depression: review and meta-analysis. *American Journal of Psychiatry* 2000; **157**(10): 1552-1562.
10. Zhang Z, Ni J, Zhang J, Tang W, Li X, Wu Z, *et al.* A haplotype in the 5'-upstream region of the NDUFV2 gene is associated with major depressive disorder in Han Chinese. *Journal of Affective Disorders* 2016; **190**: 329-332.
11. Kim J-J, Mandelli L, Pae C-U, De Ronchi D, Jun T-Y, Lee C, *et al.* Is there protective haplotype of dysbindin gene (DTNBP1) 3 polymorphisms for major depressive disorder. *Progress in Neuro-Psychopharmacology and Biological Psychiatry* 2008; **32**(2): 375-379.

- 355
- 356 12. Klok MD, Giltay EJ, Van der Does AJW, Geleijnse JM, Antypa N, Penninx BWJH, *et al.* A
357 common and functional mineralocorticoid receptor haplotype enhances optimism and protects
358 against depression in females. *Translational Psychiatry* 2011; **1**: e62.
- 359
- 360 13. Smith BH, Campbell A, Linksted P, Fitzpatrick B, Jackson C, Kerr SM, *et al.* Cohort profile:
361 Generation Scotland: Scottish Family Health Study (GS:SFHS). The study, its participants
362 and their potential for genetic research on health and illness. *International Journal of*
363 *Epidemiology* 2013; **42**(3): 689-700.
- 364
- 365 14. Smith DJ, Nicholl BI, Cullen B, Martin D, Ul-Haq Z, Evans J, *et al.* Prevalence and
366 characteristics of probable major depression and bipolar disorder within UK Biobank: cross-
367 sectional study of 172,751 participants. *PLoS ONE* 2013; **8**(11): e75362.
- 368
- 369 15. Amador C, Huffman J, Trochet H, Campbell A, Porteous D, Wilson JF, *et al.* Recent genomic
370 heritage in Scotland. *BMC Genomics* 2015; **16**(1): 1-17.
- 371
- 372 16. Allen NE, Sudlow C, Peakman T, Collins R. UK biobank data: come and get it. *Science*
373 *Translational Medicine* 2014; **6**(224): 224ed224.
- 374
- 375 17. Marchini J (2015). UK Biobank phasing and imputation documentation. Version 1.2:
376 http://biobank.ctsu.ox.ac.uk/crystal/docs/impute_ukb_v1.pdf.
- 377
- 378 18. Delaneau O, Zagury J-F, Marchini J. Improved whole-chromosome phasing for disease and
379 population genetic studies. *Nature Methods* 2013; **10**(1): 5-6.
- 380
- 381 19. O'Connell J, Gurdasani D, Delaneau O, Pirastu N, Ulivi S, Cocca M, *et al.* A general
382 approach for haplotype phasing across the full spectrum of relatedness. *PLoS Genetics* 2014;
383 **10**(4): e1004234.
- 384
- 385 20. The International HapMap Consortium. A second generation human haplotype map of over
386 3.1 million SNPs. *Nature* 2007; **449**(7164): 851-861.
- 387
- 388 21. Browning BL, Browning SR. Improving the accuracy and efficiency of identity-by-descent
389 detection in population data. *Genetics* 2013; **194**(2): 459-471.
- 390
- 391 22. Purcell S, Neale B, Todd-Brown K, Thomas L, Ferreira Manuel A, Bender D, *et al.* PLINK: a
392 tool set for whole-genome association and population-based linkage analyses. *American*
393 *Journal of Human Genetics* 2007; **81**(3): 559-575.
- 394
- 395 23. Sham PC, Purcell SM. Statistical power and significance testing in large-scale genetic studies.
396 *Nat Rev Genet* 2014; **15**(5): 335-346.
- 397
- 398 24. First MB, Spitzer RL, Gibbon Miriam., Williams JBW (2002). Structured Clinical Interview
399 for DSM-IV-TR Axis I Disorders, Research Version, Patient Edition. (SCID-I/P)

25. Fernandez-Pujals AM, Adams MJ, Thomson P, McKechnie AG, Blackwood DHR, Smith BH, *et al.* Epidemiology and heritability of major depressive disorder, stratified by age of onset, sex, and illness course in generation scotland: scottish family health study (GS:SFHS). *PLoS ONE* 2015; **10**(11): e0142197.
26. Information Services Division (2016). SMR Data Manual: <http://www.ndc.scot.nhs.uk/Data-Dictionary/SMR-Datasets>.
27. Yang J, Zaitlen NA, Goddard ME, Visscher PM, Price AL. Advantages and pitfalls in the application of mixed-model association methods. *Nature Genetics* 2014; **46**(2): 100-106.
28. Yang J, Benyamin B, McEvoy BP, Gordon S, Henders AK, Nyholt DR, *et al.* Common SNPs explain a large proportion of the heritability for human height. *Nature Genetics* 2010; **42**(7): 565-569.
29. Zaitlen N, Kraft P, Patterson N, Pasaniuc B, Bhatia G, Pollack S, *et al.* Using extended genealogy to estimate components of heritability for 23 quantitative and dichotomous traits. *PLoS Genetics* 2013; **9**(5): e1003520.
30. Bulik-Sullivan BK, Loh P-R, Finucane HK, Ripke S, Yang J, Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium, *et al.* LD score regression distinguishes confounding from polygenicity in genome-wide association studies. *Nature Genetics* 2015; **47**(3): 291-295.
31. Willer CJ, Li Y, Abecasis GR. METAL: fast and efficient meta-analysis of genomewide association scans. *Bioinformatics* 2010; **26**(17): 2190-2191.
32. Park J-H, Wacholder S, Gail MH, Peters U, Jacobs KB, Chanock SJ, *et al.* Estimation of effect size distribution from genome-wide association studies and implications for future discoveries. *Nature Genetics* 2010; **42**(7): 570-575.
33. Purcell S, Cherny SS, Sham PC. Genetic power calculator: design of linkage and association genetic mapping studies of complex traits. *Bioinformatics* 2003; **19**(1): 149-150.
34. Bromet E, Andrade LH, Hwang I, Sampson NA, Alonso J, de Girolamo G, *et al.* Cross-national epidemiology of DSM-IV major depressive episode. *BMC Medicine* 2011; **9**(1): 1-16.
35. Kasper D, Planells-Cases R, Fuhrmann JC, Scheel O, Zeitz O, Ruether K, *et al.* Loss of the chloride channel CIC-7 leads to lysosomal storage disease and neurodegeneration. *The EMBO Journal* 2005; **24**(5): 1079-1091.
36. Pandruvada SNM, Beauregard J, Benjannet S, Pata M, Lazure C, Seidah NG, *et al.* Role of ostm1 cytosolic complex with kinesin 5B in intracellular dispersion and trafficking. *Molecular and Cellular Biology* 2016; **36**(3): 507-521.

37. Hoek KS, Schlegel NC, Eichhoff OM, Widmer DS, Praetorius C, Einarsson SO, *et al.* Novel MITF targets identified using a two-step DNA microarray strategy. *Pigment Cell & Melanoma Research* 2008; **21**(6): 665-676.
38. Maes M, DeJonckheere C, Vandervorst C, Schotte C, Cosyns P, Raus J, *et al.* Abnormal pituitary function during melancholia: Reduced α -melanocyte-stimulating hormone secretion and increased intact ACTH non-suppression. *Journal of Affective Disorders* 1991; **22**(3): 149-157.
39. Goyal SN, Kokare DM, Chopde CT, Subhedar NK. Alpha-melanocyte stimulating hormone antagonizes antidepressant-like effect of neuropeptide Y in Porsolt's test in rats. *Pharmacology Biochemistry and Behavior* 2006; **85**(2): 369-377.
40. Kokare DM, Singru PS, Dandekar MP, Chopde CT, Subhedar NK. Involvement of alpha-melanocyte stimulating hormone (α -MSH) in differential ethanol exposure and withdrawal related depression in rat: Neuroanatomical-behavioral correlates. *Brain Research* 2008; **1216**: 53-67.
41. Knight J, Rochberg NS, Saccone SF, Nurnberger JI, Rice JP. An investigation of candidate regions for association with bipolar disorder. *American Journal of Medical Genetics Part B: Neuropsychiatric Genetics* 2010; **153B**(7): 1292-1297.
42. Dick DM, Foroud T, Flury L, Bowman ES, Miller MJ, Rau NL, *et al.* Genomewide linkage analyses of bipolar disorder: a new sample of 250 pedigrees from the national institute of mental health genetics initiative. *American Journal of Human Genetics* 2003; **73**(1): 107-114.
43. Park N, Juo SH, Cheng R, Liu J, Loth JE, Lilliston B, *et al.* Linkage analysis of psychosis in bipolar pedigrees suggests novel putative loci for bipolar disorder and shared susceptibility with schizophrenia. *Molecular Psychiatry* 2004; **9**(12): 1091-1099.
44. Pato CN, Pato MT, Kirby A, Petryshen TL, Medeiros H, Carvalho C, *et al.* Genome-wide scan in Portuguese Island families implicates multiple loci in bipolar disorder: Fine mapping adds support on chromosomes 6 and 11. *American Journal of Medical Genetics Part B: Neuropsychiatric Genetics* 2004; **127B**(1): 30-34.
45. Fabbri C, Serretti A. Genetics of long-term treatment outcome in bipolar disorder. *Progress in Neuro-Psychopharmacology and Biological Psychiatry* 2016; **65**: 17-24.
46. McGuffin P, Rijsdijk F, Andrew M, Sham P, Katz R, Cardno A. The heritability of bipolar affective disorder and the genetic relationship to unipolar depression. *Archives of General Psychiatry* 2003; **60**(5): 497-502.
47. Surh CD, Sprent J. Homeostasis of Naive and Memory T Cells. *Immunity* 2008; **29**(6): 848-862.

492 48. Kittipatarin C, Khaled AR. Interlinking interleukin-7. *Cytokine* 2007; **39**(1): 75-83.

493

494 49. Miller AH. Depression and immunity: A role for T cells? *Brain, Behavior, and Immunity*

495 2010; **24**(1): 1-8.

496

497 50. Simon NM, McNamara K, Chow CW, Maser RS, Papakostas GI, Pollack MH, *et al.* A

498 detailed examination of cytokine abnormalities in major depressive disorder. *European*

499 *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2008; **18**(3): 230-233.

500

501 51. Lehto SM, Huotari A, Niskanen L, Herzig K-H, Tolmunen T, Viinamäki H, *et al.* Serum IL-7

502 and G-CSF in major depressive disorder. *Progress in Neuro-Psychopharmacology and*

503 *Biological Psychiatry* 2010; **34**(6): 846-851.

504

505 52. Stewart JC, Rand KL, Muldoon MF, Kamarck TW. A prospective evaluation of the

506 directionality of the depression-inflammation relationship. *Brain, Behavior, and Immunity*

507 2009; **23**(7): 936-944.

508

509 53. Irwin MR, Miller AH. Depressive disorders and immunity: 20 years of progress and

510 discovery. *Brain, Behavior, and Immunity* 2007; **21**(4): 374-383.

511

512 54. Aragam N, Wang K-S, Pan Y. Genome-wide association analysis of gender differences in

513 major depressive disorder in the Netherlands NESDA and NTR population-based samples.

514 *Journal of Affective Disorders* 2011; **133**(3): 516-521.

515

516 55. Sullivan PF, de Geus EJC, Willemsen G, James MR, Smit JH, Zandbelt T, *et al.* Genome-

517 wide association for major depressive disorder: a possible role for the presynaptic protein

518 piccolo. *Molecular Psychiatry* 2008; **14**(4): 359-375.

519

520 56. Boraska V, Davis OSP, Cherkas LF, Helder SG, Harris J, Krug I, *et al.* Genome-wide

521 association analysis of eating disorder-related symptoms, behaviors, and personality traits.

522 *American Journal of Medical Genetics* 2012; **159B**(7): 803-811.

523

524 57. Hawley SP, Wills MKB, Rabalski AJ, Bendall AJ, Jones N. Expression patterns of ShcD and

525 Shc family adaptor proteins during mouse embryonic development. *Developmental Dynamics*

526 2011; **240**(1): 221-231.

527

528 58. You Y, Li W, Gong Y, Yin B, Qiang B, Yuan J, *et al.* ShcD interacts with TrkB via its PTB

529 and SH2 domains and regulates BDNF-induced MAPK activation. *BMB Rep* 2010; **43**(7):

530 485-490.

531

532 59. Duric V, Banasr M, Licznarski P, Schmidt HD, Stockmeier CA, Simen AA, *et al.* A negative

533 regulator of MAP kinase causes depressive behavior. *Nature Medicine* 2010; **16**(11): 1328-

534 1332.

535

Figure 1. Manhattan plot representing the $-\log_{10} P$ -values for an association between each assessed haplotype in the Generation Scotland: Scottish Family Health Study cohort and Major Depressive Disorder

Figure 2. Regional association plot representing the $-\log_{10} P$ -values for an association between haplotypes in the Generation Scotland: Scottish Family Health Study cohort and Major Depressive Disorder within the 107.4 – 107.6 Mb region on chromosome 6. The start and end position (using build GRCh37) of haplotypes represent the outermost SNP positions within the windows examined. The warmth of colour represents the r^2 with the genome-wide significant haplotype located between 108 338 267 and 108 454 437 bp.

Figure 3. Region association plot representing the $-\log_{10} P$ -values for an association between haplotypes in the Generation Scotland: Scottish Family Health Study cohort and Major Depressive Disorder within the 3.6 – 5.8 Mb region on chromosome 10. The start and end position (using build GRCh37) of haplotypes represent the outermost SNP positions within the windows examined. The warmth of colour represents the r^2 with the genome-wide significant haplotype located between 4 588 261 and 4 822 210 bp.

Table 1. The genetic association between Major Depressive Disorder and 12 haplotypes in the Generation Scotland: Scottish Family Health Study (GS:SFHS) discovery cohort (where $P < 10^{-6}$), the replication cohort (UK Biobank) and a meta-analysis.

Haplotype			GS:SFHS		UK Biobank		Meta-analysis	
Chr.	Position (bp)	Window Size (cM)	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	P-value	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	P-value	Odds Ratio (95% CI)	P-value
{ 6 *	108338267 - 108454437	0.34	1.83 (1.53 - 2.16)	7.06 x 10⁻⁹	1.11 (1.01 - 1.22)	3.62 x 10⁻²	1.26 (1.16 - 1.37)	3.14 x 10 ⁻⁷
	108407662 - 108454437	0.25	1.68 (1.42 - 1.96)	8.17 x 10 ⁻⁸	1.14 (1.04 - 1.24)	4.47 x 10⁻³	1.25 (1.16 - 1.35)	4.38 x 10⁻⁸
	139682412 - 139708901	0.25	2.17 (1.67 - 2.73)	4.37 x 10 ⁻⁷	0.87 (0.68 - 1.08)	2.20 x 10 ⁻¹	1.28 (1.08 - 1.49)	4.67 x 10 ⁻³
{ 8	79700362 - 80387861	0.5	1.98 (1.56 - 2.46)	9.02 x 10 ⁻⁷	1.06 (0.86 - 1.28)	5.93 x 10 ⁻¹	1.36 (1.18 - 1.56)	6.29 x 10 ⁻⁵
	79759499 - 80156474	0.25	1.77 (1.47 - 2.10)	7.90 x 10 ⁻⁸	1.05 (0.91 - 1.21)	5.06 x 10 ⁻¹	1.28 (1.15 - 1.42)	1.14 x 10 ⁻⁵
10	4588261 - 4822210	0.5	2.33 (1.83 - 2.91)	8.50 x 10⁻⁹	1.15 (0.80 - 1.59)	4.39 x 10 ⁻¹	1.67 (1.40 - 1.98)	7.92 x 10 ⁻⁸
11 *	2260854 - 2437425	0.41	1.64 (1.38 - 1.91)	2.86 x 10 ⁻⁷	1.00 (0.87 - 1.34)	9.91 x 10 ⁻¹	1.26 (1.10 - 1.34)	1.32 x 10 ⁻⁴
12	48159721 - 48263828	0.25	2.00 (1.58 - 2.47)	4.78 x 10 ⁻⁷	0.97 (0.79 - 1.17)	7.36 x 10 ⁻¹	1.29 (1.12 - 1.48)	6.51 x 10 ⁻⁴
12	116904503 - 117062860	0.25	2.13 (1.64 - 2.69)	9.90 x 10 ⁻⁷	1.04 (0.79 - 1.34)	7.79 x 10 ⁻¹	1.45 (1.22 - 1.71)	5.37 x 10 ⁻⁵
15	49206902 - 49260601	0.25	2.03 (1.62 - 2.48)	9.21 x 10 ⁻⁸	1.09 (0.88 - 1.32)	4.04 x 10 ⁻¹	1.41 (1.22 - 1.61)	4.39 x 10 ⁻⁶
{ 15	93806447 - 93851224	0.5	1.58 (1.34 - 1.83)	4.47 x 10 ⁻⁷	0.93 (0.81 - 1.05)	2.38 x 10 ⁻¹	1.16 (1.05 - 1.27)	2.50 x 10 ⁻³
	93821340 - 93845622	0.25	1.52 (1.31 - 1.75)	8.67 x 10 ⁻⁷	0.91 (0.81 - 1.03)	1.37 x 10 ⁻¹	1.13 (1.03 - 1.23)	6.97 x 10 ⁻³

Bold values indicate genome-wide statistical significance ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) was achieved in the GS:SFHS cohort or the meta-analysis, or that nominal statistical significance ($P < 0.05$) was achieved in the UK Biobank. Base pair (bp) positions are based on build GRCh37. * indicates haplotype boundaries defined by the fine mapping approach. { indicates linkage disequilibrium (r^2) > 0.5 between haplotypes in the GS:SFHS cohort.

Table 2. Protein coding genes located overlapping with the 12 haplotypes with $P < 10^{-6}$ in the Generation Scotland: Scottish Family Health Study (GS:SFHS) discovery cohort and the frequencies of those haplotypes in GS:SFHS and UK Biobank.

Chr.	Position (bp)	Protein coding genes	Haplotype frequency	
			GS:SFHS	UK Biobank
{	6 108338267 - 108454437	OSTM1	0.0152	0.0197
	6 108407662 - 108454437	OSTM1	0.0193	0.0241
	7 139682412 - 139708901	TBXAS1	0.0066	0.0069
{	8 79700362 - 80387861	IL7	0.0076	0.0081
	8 79759499 - 80156474	IL7	0.0147	0.0157
	10 4588261 - 4822210		0.0064	0.0027
	11 2260854 - 2437425	ASCL2, CLorf21, TSPAN32, CD81, TSSC4, TRPM5	0.0196	0.0187
	12 48159721 - 48263828	SLC48A1, RAPGEF3, HDAC7, VDR	0.0078	0.0090
	12 116904503 - 117062860	MAP1LC3B2	0.0057	0.0045
	15 49206902 - 49260601	SHC4	0.0082	0.0080
{	15 93806447 - 93851224		0.0224	0.0206
	15 93821340 - 93845622		0.0265	0.0243

Base pair (bp) positions are based on build GRCh37 with protein coding regions obtained from Ensembl, GRCh37.p13. Haplotype frequencies were calculated using unrelated individuals and excluding UK Biobank participants recruited in Glasgow or Edinburgh. { indicates a linkage disequilibrium (r^2) > 0.5 between haplotypes in the GS:SFHS cohort.





