

Title

Sharing of genes and pathways across complex phenotypes: a multilevel genome-wide analysis

Hongsheng Gui^{1, 2#}, Johnny S. Kwan^{3#}, Pak C. Sham^{1, 3, 4}, Stacey S. Cherny^{1, 3, 4*},
Miaoxin Li^{1, 3, 5*}

¹Center for Genomic Sciences, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, SAR, China; ²Center for Health Policy and Health Services Research, Henry Ford Health System, Detroit, Michigan, United States of America; ³Department of Psychiatry, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, SAR, China; ⁴The State Key Laboratory of Brain and Cognitive Sciences, University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, SAR, China; ⁵Department of Medical Genetics, Center for Genome Research, Zhongshan School of Medicine, Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou, China.

#These authors contribute equally to the paper. *Corresponding authors

Contact information for corresponding authors:

SSC: cherny@hku.hk; +852 2831 5079

ML: limx54@yahoo.com; +852 2831 5105; Room 1-05H, 1/F, The Hong Kong Jockey Club Building for Interdisciplinary Research, 5 Sassoon Road, Pokfulam, Hong Kong

Abstract

Evidence from genome-wide association studies (GWAS) suggest that pleiotropic effects on human complex phenotypes are very common. Recently an atlas of genetic correlations among complex phenotypes has broadened our understanding of human diseases and traits. Here we examine genetic overlap, from a gene-centric perspective, among the same 24 phenotypes previously investigated for genetic correlations. After adopting the multilevel pipeline (freely available at <http://grass.cgs.hku.hk/limx/kgg/>) that includes intragenic single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), genes and gene-sets to estimate genetic similarities across phenotypes, large amount of sharing for several biologically related phenotypes is confirmed. In addition, significant genetic overlaps are also found among phenotype pairs that are previously unidentified by SNP-level approaches. All these pairs with new genetic links are supported by earlier epidemiological evidence, though only a few of them have pleiotropic genes in GWAS Catalog. Hence our gene and gene-set analyses are able to provide new insight into cross-phenotype connections. The investigation on genetic sharing at three different levels presents a complementary picture of how common DNA sequence variations contribute to disease comorbidities and trait manifestations.

Key words: GWAS; gene-based; complex diseases; genetic sharing; pleiotropy

Introduction

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have fallen short of explaining most of the phenotype heritability, and their reported intergenic hits usually cannot link clearly to biological function (MANOLIO *et al.* 2009; SO *et al.* 2011). Nevertheless, the ever-increasing numbers of GWAS datasets actually provide a rich resource for conducting secondary analyses like meta-analysis, epistasis analysis, and gene/gene-set analysis (CANTOR *et al.* 2010; CALIFANO *et al.* 2012). These analyses are capable of uncovering small to moderate genetic effects hidden in previous GWAS by increasing sample size or leveraging external knowledge, for instance, genes or biological pathways, protein-protein interaction networks (LI *et al.* 2012a), as well as DNA regulatory machinery elements (BARABASI *et al.* 2011). Since common associated SNPs with moderate effect on complex phenotypes tend to cluster in the same gene or set of genes that exert the same key biological function, gene and gene-set analyses tend to increase power (RAMANAN *et al.* 2012). Such analyses have been applied successfully to several complex phenotypes and have led to the discovery of additional disease-gene connections (ELEFTHEROHORINO *et al.* 2009; CHEN *et al.* 2010; O'DUSHLAINE *et al.* 2011; CHEN *et al.* 2014).

More recently, pleiotropic effects and cross-phenotype (CP) associations have been identified by joint analysis of GWAS findings or resources from multiple phenotypes (SOLOVIEFF *et al.* 2013). Pleiotropy occurs when a gene or genetic variant affects more than one phenotypic trait, and is gradually gaining recognition as a universal property of genetic variants contributing to human phenotypic variation (SOLOVIEFF *et al.* 2013; GRATTEN and VISSCHER 2016). In an even broader manner, pleiotropy could be explained by single variants or multiple variants in a gene, region,

or pathway, or multiple associations scattered through the genome. So far, 4.6% of SNPs and 16.9% of genes have been observed to be associated with more than one trait in the GWAS Catalog (WELTER *et al.* 2014). Risk score profiling and co-heritability estimation revealed non-negligible genome-wide sharing across neuropsychiatric diseases (INTERNATIONAL SCHIZOPHRENIA *et al.* 2009; CROSS-DISORDER GROUP OF THE PSYCHIATRIC GENOMICS *et al.* 2013). Recently an atlas of genetic correlation across human complex diseases and traits has been provided by Bulik-Sullivan *et al.*'s study, from which several correlated phenotype pairs have never been identified before (BULIK-SULLIVAN *et al.* 2015). However, relatively few individual SNPs or genes have been associated with those pairs of genetically correlated phenotypes (CROSS-DISORDER GROUP OF THE PSYCHIATRIC GENOMICS 2013; PARKES *et al.* 2013). GWAS gene/gene-set analyses may have the potential to identify more susceptibility genes or pathways that contribute to multiple genetically comorbid or correlated phenotypes (ZHERNAKOVA *et al.* 2009; SOLOVIEFF *et al.* 2013).

Hence in this study, we utilized our previously developed gene-based approach, GATES (LI *et al.* 2011), and its extension on pathway level, to identify genetic associations shared among complex phenotypes. In addition, we compared the genetic sharing revealed at gene or gene-set levels to that inferred from individual SNP association and overall genetic correlations so to determine what additional knowledge could be gained by the gene-centric approaches.

Materials and Methods

Real data resources

We included the same 24 phenotypes (full names and abbreviations listed in Table 1; detailed information given in Supplementary Material, Table S1) as used in Bulik-Sullivan et al. (BULIK-SULLIVAN *et al.* 2015). These phenotypes are all complex traits or diseases for which large-scale GWAS meta-analyses have been done on Caucasian populations.

Raw data (GWAS summary statistics) were downloaded and then filtered by the script ‘munge_sumstats.py’ provided by linkage disequilibrium score (LDSC) online resource (<https://github.com/bulik/ldsc/wiki>). In brief, variants not covered by the HapMap3 panel, with the estimated imputation ‘info’ score <0.9 if imputed, with mislabeled reference/alternative alleles, with extreme p -values (>1 , or ≤ 0), or with small effective sample size (<0.67 times the 90th percentile of sample size) were excluded in following analyses. After this filtering, all 24 datasets contain similar amount of SNPs (around 1 million per phenotype; Table S1 in Supplementary Material) as inputs for the following gene-wise analyses.

Gene and Gene-set mapping

SNPs passing above filtering were mapped to genes (defined by UCSC human RefGene database) when located within a gene or within a region of 10kb up- or downstream of the gene, according to their coordinates from human genome build 19 (hg19). In addition, to prevent our gene/gene-set results from being mainly driven by genetic variations in the extended major histocompatibility complex (MHC) region (Chr6: 27.5Mb~33.5Mb), we only considered non-MHC genic SNPs in all our

subsequent analyses. After this mapping, on average 581619 genic SNPs were retained and mapped to 23616 human genes (Supplementary Material, Table S1).

Various of gene-sets were collected from Molecular Signatures Database version 5.0 (MsigDB; <http://software.broadinstitute.org/gsea/msigdb/index.jsp>), which included 1330 canonical pathways and 1454 Gene Ontology gene-sets. After restricting gene-set size at 5~300 genes, a total of 2660 sets that cover 10483 unique human reference genes were retained. To estimate crosstalk effects between different gene-sets, Jaccard distance (JD) was calculated for each pair of gene-sets by formula $A \cap B / A \cup B$, while A and B are the sizes of gene-sets in terms of gene counts. Gene-sets with Jaccard distance < 0.2 are treated as independent sets (JIA *et al.* 2011; DONATO *et al.* 2013) which includes in total 979 different gene-sets.

Linkage Disequilibrium attenuated Rank-sum Test (LDRT)

We developed a new gene-set-based association test, LDRT, to combine gene-level p -value statistics calculated from our previous gene-based association test, GATES (Li *et al.* 2011), into gene-sets. Under a competitive null hypothesis for a given gene-set (Gui *et al.* 2011), we assume GATES's p -values for genes in this gene-set follow the same distribution as p -values for all other genes in the genome. A non-parametric Wilcoxon rank-sum test was then used to examine whether the given set of genes was more highly ranked in an ordered list of all genes than would be expected by chance. When multiple genes within a gene set were on the same chromosome, we sorted these genes according to their gene-based p -values and checked the LD between the GATES key SNPs of the genes. If two key SNPs from two different genes were in high LD ($r^2 > 0.5$ as default setting), the key SNP in the gene with larger p -value were removed. After removing all redundant key SNPs, the

gene-based p -values were re-calculated by GATES. Hence the new gene-based p -values were nearly independent of each other and can be used in a Wilcoxon rank-sum test for gene-set association analysis.

A recent powerful approach ‘MAGMA’ that also handles polygenic traits was chosen for comparison (de Leeuw et al. 2015) with LDRT (File S1 and Figure S1, Supplementary Material), using the same SNP-level summary statistics and gene-set database as input.

Intra-phenotype genetic association

We identified 3 levels of genetic associations with biological interest: genic SNPs, genes, and gene-sets. The complete multilevel pipeline was illustrated as shown in Figure 1.

- **Genic SNP level:** Using 1000 Genome Caucasian (CEU) population as LD reference, Genetic type I error calculator (GEC) was used to estimate the effective number (N_1) of genic SNPs across genome (Li *et al.* 2012b), and then to determine the significance cut-off at family wise error rate 0.05 (Bonferroni correction). Genic SNPs with p -values smaller than the cut-off ($0.05/N_1$; $N_1=272852$) were selected for each phenotype.
- **Gene level:** For a given gene, its SNP-level summary statistics were combined to generate gene-based p -value using GATES (Li *et al.* 2011), which adjusts correlations among neighboring markers by considering the LD structure in 1000 Genomes CEU population. Genes with GATES p -values significant after Bonferroni correction ($0.05/N_2$; N_2 =number of genes with ≥ 1 SNPs, with mean at 23616) were retained for each phenotype.

- **Gene-set level:** For each gene-set containing ≥ 5 genes with non-missing GATES p -values, LDRT was adopted to conduct gene-set-based association for each phenotype, with the same 1000 Genome CEU population to correct for LD between genes in the same gene set. Gene-sets with LDRT p -values below $0.05/N_3$ ($N_3=979$ number of independent gene-sets with $JD < 0.2$) were declared significant, which controlled the same family-wise error rate as that for genic SNPs or genes.

The protocol of running KGG software for above gene/gene-set association is provided in Supplementary Material File S2.

Inter-phenotype genetic sharing

The genetic similarity between a pair of phenotypes was then estimated by counting the number of overlapping genic SNPs, genes or gene-sets that were significantly associated with each member of the pair in the abovementioned genetic association analysis. We performed hypergeometric tests to calculate p -values of the overlap at each level using R function ‘1-phyper($k-1$, K , $N-K$, n)’ when $k \geq 1$ or ‘dhyper(k , K , $N-K$, n)’ when $k=0$, with 4 parameters N , K , n , k corresponding to total count (N , referring to N_1 , N_2 or N_3 in above section), count of significant items in phenotype 1 (K), count of significant items in phenotype 2 (n), and count of overlapping items (k) respectively. False discovery rate (FDR) was set at 5% to define significance so as to correct for multiple testing in 276 pairs of phenotypes. Specifically, a two-step approach was adopted to evaluate gene-level sharing given the existence of LD dependency between genes (DE LEEUW *et al.* 2015). Firstly, the overlapping genes between any pair of phenotypes were tested against hypergeometric distribution with observed gene counts for each phenotype and their overlap. For phenotype pairs with

significant gene-overlap at first step, their gene counts were re-calculated after merging those with genetic distance smaller than 1 centimorgan (cM); accordingly, hypergeometric test and FDR was used to examine the significance of the new counts. Only phenotype pairs with significant overlapping (FDR < 0.05) at both steps were considered with gene-level sharing.

To compare cross-phenotype patterns from above genetic sharing with that from previous genetic correlation on the same 24 phenotypes, we retrieved the pairwise genetic correlation coefficients (denoted as r) and corresponding p -values computed by LDSC from Bulik-Sullivan et al. (BULIK-SULLIVAN *et al.* 2015). The same FDR threshold (5%) was used to define non-zero genetic correlation for each pair of phenotypes. In addition, we performed an average linkage hierarchical cluster analysis of those 24 phenotypes using $1 - r^2$ as the distance measure. Cross-phenotype genetic sharing at gene/gene-set levels was projected on these clusters to examine how they distributed within or across different phenotype clusters.

GWAS Catalog replication

To provide biological interpretations for overall cross-phenotype patterns we observed, the shared SNPs, genes, or gene-sets underlying phenotypes with significant genetic sharing were scrutinized for representative functional genes. To that end, genes carrying significant shared intragenic SNPs, significant shared genes, and genes with GATES p -value <0.05 in significant shared gene-sets, were extracted and crosschecked for replication evidence in GWAS Catalog. GWAS findings (in terms of genes) for 24 studied phenotypes were collected from GWAS Catalog in November 2015 (WELTER *et al.* 2014). Susceptibility genes for each phenotype were recorded only if the gene (+/-10 kb) contains ≥ 1 SNP reported with p -value < 5×10^{-8}

in at least one Caucasian population. The intersections of reported gene lists for the corresponding 24 phenotypes were assessed to look up genes with pleiotropic effects, and their overlapping was also evaluated by the same hypergeometric tests as previously stated.

Data Availability

GWAS *P*-values analyzed here can be accessed at the URLs given in Table S1. KGG software that implemented GATES and LDRT is available online at the following URL: <http://grass.cgs.hku.hk/limx/kgg/>. GEC software is available online at URL: <http://grass.cgs.hku.hk/gec/>.

Results

Multilevel survey per phenotype

Total numbers of identified significant genic SNPs, genes, and gene-sets for each phenotype are shown in Table 1. Only ASD and SMO have no genetic risk factors found at all three levels. Human height (HH) is associated with 10120 SNPs, 2035 genes, and 19 gene-sets, having more associations than any of the other 23 phenotypes. With respect to gene-set association, the results of our LDRT approach overlap significantly with the results of the MAGMA (Table S2 and Table S3, Supplementary Material). Numbers of identified SNPs, genes, and gene-sets are significantly correlated across phenotypes (Spearman correlation coefficients for SNP/gene, gene/gene-set and SNP/gene-set at 0.96, 0.51 and 0.5 respectively; Bonferroni corrected *p*-values <0.05). Apparently far fewer gene-sets are identified than SNPs or genes, even for those phenotypes with relatively large number of significant SNPs or genes (e.g., SCZ, CHD, ALZ, and FG). As expected, when

considering genetic associations (SNP, gene, or gene-set) that are unique to any of the 24 phenotypes, we find a smaller proportion of associated genes than the proportion of associated SNPs (one-sided paired Wilcoxon rank-sum test p -value <0.05 ; Table 1).

Genetic sharing across phenotypes

Numbers of overlapping genes and gene-sets for each of the 276 pairs of phenotypes among the 24 examined are shown in Table 2, while the overlapping genic SNPs and pairwise genetic correlations are given in Table S4 (Supplementary Material). At FDR 0.05 level, we identify 41 and 7 phenotype-pairs sharing significantly more than the expected counts of genes or gene-sets by chance (highlighted in Table 2), while 6 of those pairs share both more than expected genes and gene-sets. In total, 42 different phenotype pairs, comprising 18 different phenotypes, are found to have significant higher amount of overlapping genes or gene-sets. In order to compare these findings to SNP-based evidence, the patterns of cross-phenotype sharing are tabulated, as shown in Table 3. Accordingly, four cross-phenotype patterns (Y-Y-Y, Y-Y-N, N-Y-N and N-N-Y; ‘Y’ or ‘N’ for share or not share at the genic SNP, gene, or gene-set level, respectively) are observed when considering all three levels of sharing. Gene/gene-set analyses provide significant genetic sharing for 12 out of 42 pairs that are not detected by genic SNP analysis (Table 3). When comparing with pairwise genetic correlation from Bulik-Sullivan et al. (BULIK-SULLIVAN *et al.* 2015), our cross-phenotype analyses identify fewer pairs with close genetic relationship (42 versus 74; one-sided Fisher exact test p -value <0.01); however, it is more likely to identify significant gene or gene-set sharing among those phenotypes with non-zero

genetic correlation than those with near-zero genetic correlation (21/74 versus 21/202, one-sided Fisher exact test p -value <0.001).

On the basis of reported genetic correlations in Bulik-Sullivan et al.'s study, three big phenotype clusters were formed (Figure. 2-a). The clusters are largely consistent with EBI ontology classification included in Table S1 (Supplementary Material): with cluster 1 containing anthropometric traits, cluster 2 containing cardiometabolic traits or diseases, and cluster 3 containing autoimmune or psychiatric diseases. To further demonstrate how multiple phenotypes (≥ 3) related to each other through genetic sharing, a network was constructed to connect those phenotypes from the same or different clusters, with edges representing significant molecular sharing at different levels (Figure. 2-b). Overall, genetic sharing for phenotypes within the same cluster is significantly higher than sharing across clusters (Fisher exact test p -value <0.001). Interestingly, traits or diseases within the same cluster (e.g., CD-UC and HDL-LDL-TG) tend to share genetic hits at all three levels; however, those from different clusters (e.g., CD-TG and HH-SCZ) are more prone to have sharing at advanced level only (genes or gene-sets). Moreover, phenotype pairs prioritized by both our pipeline and LDSC genetic correlation are mainly from within-category phenotypes (15 out of 21 pairs), while those pairs found only by our pipeline are more likely from cross-category phenotypes (17 out of 21 pairs). Noticeably, among all 42 phenotype connections, 25 of them are comprised by those 7 cardiometabolic traits (HDL, LDL, TG, FG, T2D, CO and CHD) and/or 5 anthropometrical measurements (BMI, HH, IHC, BL and BW) that have apparent epidemiological correlation (SORENSEN *et al.* 1999) or clinical comorbidity. Their closer relationships have also been detected by cross-phenotype genetic correlations, GWAS Catalog overlapping

analyses, and several previous evidences showing their genetic interconnections (GLOBAL LIPIDS GENETICS *et al.* 2013; LOCKE *et al.* 2015).

Annotation for cross-phenotype patterns

All 12 phenotype pairs with significantly shared genes or gene-sets but not genic SNPs were further annotated by epidemiology literature, LDSC genetic correlation, and GWAS Catalog (Table 4). All these novel pairs we found have epidemiological evidence supporting their relationship (BREGENZER *et al.* 2006; ZAMMIT *et al.* 2007; LOCKE *et al.* 2015). Among them, 3 pairs had significant genetic correlations in Bulik-Sullivan *et al.* and 2 other pairs had enriched overlapping genes in GWAS Catalog database. When zooming into the genes underlying these 12 phenotype pairs, a list of 62 different genes was generated (Table S5, Supplementary Material). Among them, 33 genes contribute to 2 pairs of phenotypes, showing they are involved in 3 or 4 unique phenotypes. However, most of those implicated (51 out of 62) have yet been reported as pleiotropic genes to the studied 24 phenotypes in GWAS Catalog. Except two well-known genes from ALZ-HDL (*TOMM40/APOC1* in Table 4), the remaining 9 genes were reported as pleiotropic but for different phenotype pairs (Table S5, Supplementary Material). Further larger-scale cross-phenotype GWAS studies are needed to confirm their importance in our reported pairs.

Discussion

Our study follows up the recent report (BULIK-SULLIVAN *et al.* 2015) on genetic correlations among complex phenotypes by focusing on genic variants of those phenotypes. We demonstrate gene and gene-set analysis may provide new insights on cross-phenotype connections through integration of three complementary analyses

that involved SNPs, genes, and gene-sets on the same dataset. The complete investigation on genetic sharing enables us to form a better picture of how common biological elements contribute to disease comorbidities and trait manifestations.

Genetic correlations that reflect genetic relationship between different phenotypes can be estimated by earlier family-based study design in behavior genetics, whole genome-wide SNP genotypes and most recently GWAS summary statistics (GRATTEN and VISSCHER 2016). The potential causes can be ascribed to real biological pleiotropy, mediated phenotype pathways, genetic heterogeneity and spurious bias from study designs (shared controls or ascertainment bias) (SOLOVIEFF *et al.* 2013). Our estimation of the genetic overlaps at three different levels, using GWAS summary statistics only, reflects a portion of overall biological pleiotropy among multiple phenotypes, hence only provides partial explanation to the genetic correlation observed in Bulik-Sullivan *et al.* (BULIK-SULLIVAN *et al.* 2015). In contrast to previous cross-phenotype genetic evidence from overall co-heritability or genetic correlation estimations (INTERNATIONAL SCHIZOPHRENIA *et al.* 2009; CROSS-DISORDER GROUP OF THE PSYCHIATRIC GENOMICS 2013; PARKES *et al.* 2013), our study gives more specific biological clues (in terms of genes and pathways) to shared disease etiologies. Though joint GWAS analyses across multiple phenotypes have enabled finding susceptibility loci, genes, and gene-sets that affect different related phenotypes (RAMANAN and SAYKIN 2013; NETWORK and PATHWAY ANALYSIS SUBGROUP OF PSYCHIATRIC GENOMICS 2015), all of these studies employed close-related phenotypes in the same disease category, for instance, psychiatric disorders and autoimmune disorders. Inspired by Bulik-Sullivan *et al.*'s finding that there exists widespread and unexpected genetic correlation across 24 phenotypes with

different pathogenicity mechanism (BULIK-SULLIVAN *et al.* 2015), our multilevel gene-centric pipeline has confirmed significant genetic sharing for those well-connected phenotypes pairs (lipid traits, inflammatory bowel diseases) (LEES *et al.* 2011; GLOBAL LIPIDS GENETICS *et al.* 2013); more importantly, our analyses gave new insights on how these phenotypes link to each other through genetics. This new knowledge gained from our systematic adoption of gene/gene-set approaches provides new perspective to explain complex disease etiologies (ELBERS *et al.* 2009; MANOLIO *et al.* 2009; SOLOVIEFF *et al.* 2013). Usually for polygenic traits that involve many genetic hits with small effect size, disease connections could be mainly due to contribution of multiple different SNPs in one gene or multiple genes in a gene-set. Under this scenario, the advantage of our GWAS gene or gene-set analyses, which combine original SNPs with marginal statistical evidence in the same biological unit, are expected to be fully expressed (WANG *et al.* 2010; RAMANAN *et al.* 2012). In addition, our new gene-set association approach “LDRT”, adopting a cut-off free competitive test (DE LEEUW *et al.* 2016), can analyse all genic SNPs together and hence provide additional information that may lose in traditional gene-set enrichment analyses as implemented in DEPICT (PERS *et al.* 2015), from which we observed unbalanced numbers (ranging from 0 to 927) of significant gene-sets within each phenotype and only significant sharing between HDL and TG, or CD and RA across those 24 phenotypes (Table S6, Supplementary Material).

On the other hand, our pipeline has generated a few unexpected results. We miss those well-known genetically correlated phenotypes in psychiatric diseases (such as SCZ-BPD and AN-SCZ) (INTERNATIONAL SCHIZOPHRENIA *et al.* 2009; BULIK-SULLIVAN *et al.* 2015). This could be due to information loss when retrieving

only genic SNPs (see Table S2 for detail) from overall genome-wide association studies, which contained more non-coding variants important at regulation or epigenetic level to both phenotypes (TSANKOVA *et al.* 2007; MAURANO *et al.* 2012). The missing of other correlated phenotypes can be ascribed to false negative factors in our pipeline, including too stringent cut-off for selecting significant genes or gene-sets, limited numbers of pathways used and incomplete coverage of human genes in the gene-set collection. In addition, we report a few phenotype pairs that have inconsistent evidence from LDSC genetic correlation analyses or GWAS Catalog record. Though they are subjected to possible false positives arisen from our methodology (not enough correction of gene-level dependence), there are other explanations of this inconsistency. Some phenotype pair (for instance HDL-LDL) originated from the difference on how to handle effect direction at SNP level—LDSC correlation considered both positive and negative effects (BULIK-SULLIVAN *et al.* 2015), but we treat them equally with no signs. For the newly found seven pairs of phenotype: the link between AM and inflammatory bowel diseases (CD and UC) have been established previously through epidemiological survey (BALLINGER *et al.* 2003), hormone change (KHALILI *et al.* 2012) or candidate gene study (YANG *et al.* 2007). CD-LDL and CD-TG have also been reported with significant genetic sharing by another study using a different approach (ANDREASSEN *et al.* 2015), while CD-FG may also reflect the connection between inflammation and metabolic traits; AN-CHD and AN-LDL sharing were driven by the same ABO gene, which was recently reported as an important element to multiple phenotypes (PICKRELL *et al.* 2015). These connections may have not been captured by genetic correlation analyses, and wait confirmation by future cross-phenotype findings in GWAS Catalog.

The effectiveness and new perspective provided from our GWAS gene or gene-set investigation can serve as proof-of-principle purpose for future cross phenotype studies. Genetic sharing among those 24 phenotypes provided new glue that combination of gene-wise p -values of two related disorders or even distinct two types of diseases or traits could greatly increase power for susceptibility gene identification (BARABASI *et al.* 2011; RAMANAN and SAYKIN 2013). Since only summary statistics are needed, our gene or gene-set analyses can easily extend to rare variants from next generation sequencing (CIRULLI and GOLDSTEIN 2010; GUDBJARTSSON *et al.* 2015), which would generate another set of gene-level summary statistics that can be combined with those from common variants targeted by GWAS (CURTIS 2012; LUO *et al.* 2012). Without doubt, more genetic knowledge on complex disorders will be gained when adopting this strategy on larger-scale datasets in the future. Ultimately, advanced gene/gene-set analyses based on complete variant-level information will play a key role in precision medicine by providing biological guidance on drug development and clinical diagnosis for one disease or one category of diseases (BARABASI *et al.* 2011; RAMANAN and SAYKIN 2013; SOLOVIEFF *et al.* 2013).

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Figures

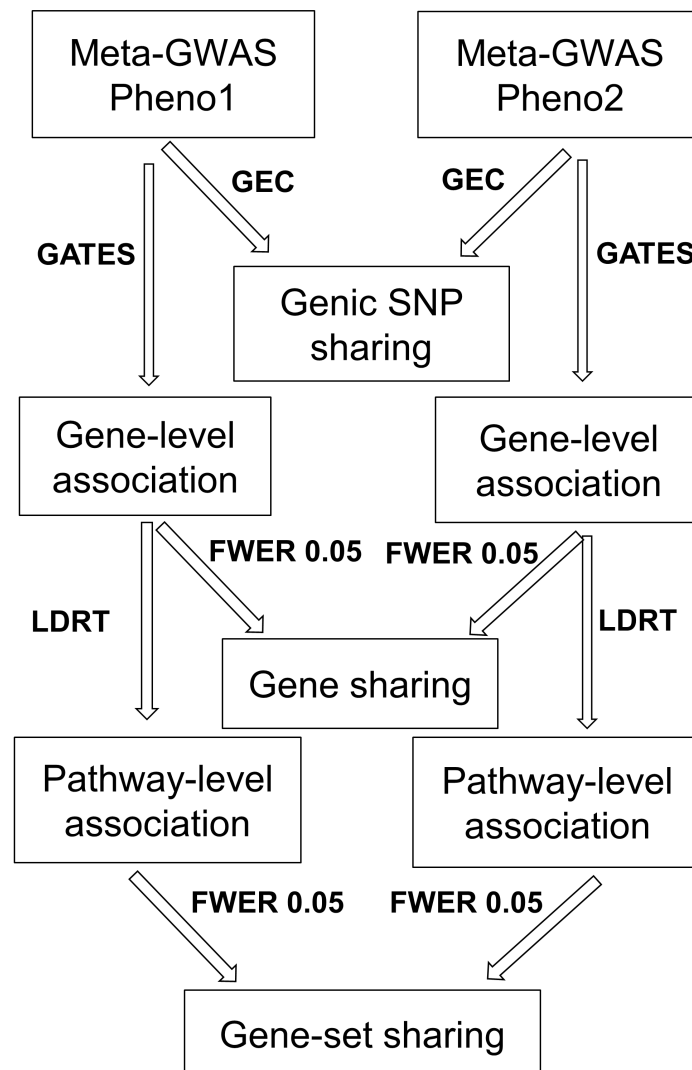


Figure 1 Multilevel pipeline for SNP, gene and gene-set association and sharing
Genome-wide SNP summary statistics were collected from large-scale GWAS meta-analysis. Step by step: 1) GEC was used to estimate effective number of associated SNPs at genic regions; 2) GATES was then used to perform gene-level association; 3) LDRT was finally used to perform gene-set association for each phenotype. Only genic SNPs, genes or gene-sets were prioritized if its association p -value was significant when family-wise error rate (FWER) was controlled at 0.05. The associated genic SNPs, genes and gene-sets were intersected for two phenotypes so as to search for genetic sharing.

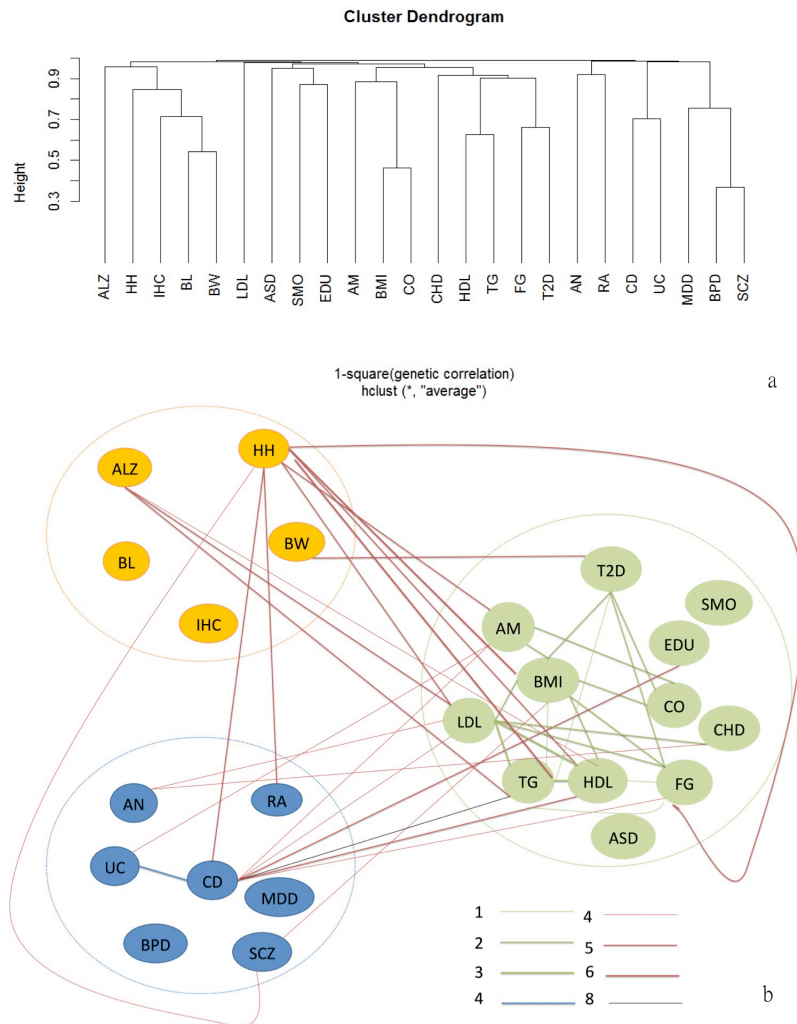


Figure 2 Cross-phenotype clustering and linking

Phenotypes were clustered and linked according to different levels of sharing: a, hierarchical clustering of phenotypes with genetic correlation (r) as distance measurement ($1-r^2$). b, phenotypes were connected to each other within or across different clusters. Edges with different colors and thickness are noted with different numbers: 1, internal linking at gene level in cluster 2; 2, internal linking at two levels (SNP and gene, or gene and gene-set) in cluster 2; 3, internal linking at three levels in cluster 2; 4, internal linking at three levels in cluster 3; 5, cross-cluster linking at gene level; 6, cross-cluster linking at two levels; 7, cross-cluster linking at all three levels; 8, cross-cluster linking at gene-set level only. Cluster 1: ALZ, HH, IHC, BL, and BW; Cluster 2: LDL, ASD, SMO, EDU, AM, BMI, CO, CHD, HDL, TG, FG, and T2D; Cluster 3: AN, RA, CD, UC, MDD, BPD and SCZ.

Tables

Table 1 Summary of associated genic SNPs, genes and gene-sets per phenotype

Phenotypes	Genic SNPs ¹ (% of unique ²)	Genes (% of unique)	Gene-sets (% of unique)
Age at Menarche (AM)	683 (75%)	155 (54%)	0 (NA)
Alzheimer's disease (ALZ)	123 (86%)	40 (50%)	0 (NA)
Anorexia Nervosa (AN)	0 (NA)	1 (0%)	1 (100%)
Autism spectrum disorder (ASD)	0 (NA)	0 (NA)	0 (NA)
Body mass index (BMI)	654 (65%)	171 (46%)	7 (71%)
Bipolar disorder (BPD)	40 (100%)	12 (83%)	0 (NA)
Birth Length (BL)	1 (0%)	6 (33%)	1 (100%)
Birth Weight (BW)	20 (40%)	7 (43%)	1 (0%)
Childhood Obesity (CO)	63 (0%)	9 (0%)	0 (NA)
Coronary heart Disease (CHD)	83 (88%)	24 (63%)	0 (NA)
Crohn's Disease (CD)	773 (64%)	231 (48%)	11 (55%)
Major depression disorder (MDD)	0 (NA)	0 (NA)	1 (0%)
Ever/Never Smoked (SMO)	0 (NA)	0 (NA)	0 (NA)
Fasting Glucose (FG)	262 (61%)	75 (33%)	0 (NA)
HDL cholesterol (HDL)	846 (67%)	225 (46%)	5 (60%)
Human height (HH)	10120 (95%)	2035 (88%)	19 (74%)
Infant Head Circumference (IHC)	0 (NA)	0 (NA)	2 (100%)
LDL cholesterol (LDL)	732 (68%)	187 (43%)	4 (50%)
Rheumatoid Arthritis (RA)	153 (72%)	26 (50%)	8 (88%)
Schizophrenia (SCZ)	148 (78%)	32 (75%)	0 (NA)
Type2 diabetes (T2D)	106 (70%)	18 (33%)	1 (100%)
Triglycerides (TG)	614 (50%)	150 (22%)	8 (13%)
Ulcerative Colitis (UC)	506 (63%)	251 (63%)	20 (70%)
Years of Education (EDU)	9 (89%)	20 (30%)	0 (NA)

¹Only SNPs, genes or gene-sets with *p*-value significant after Bonferroni correction were counted. Average numbers of genic SNPs, genes and gene-sets being tested are 583619, 23616 and 2653 respectively. ²Percent of unique is relative to 24 phenotypes. NA, not available.

Table 2 Cross-phenotype gene and gene-set sharing

Phenotype	L																							
	A M	A LZ	A N	AS D	B MI	BP D	B L	B W	C O	CH D	C D	M DD	SM O	F G	H DL	H H	IH C	D L	R A	SC Z	T2 D	T G	U C	ED U
AM	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
ALZ	0	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
AN	0	0	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
ASD	0	0	0	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
BMI	15	1	0	0	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
BPD	0	0	0	0	0	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
BL	0	0	0	0	0	0	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
BW	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
CO	3	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CHD	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CD	5	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	5
MDD	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	NA	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
SMO	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	NA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FG	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	N	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
HDL	0	2	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	3	N	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	0
HH	29	5	0	0	28	2	2	1	1	3	2	0	0	6	22	N	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	0
IHC	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	A	0	0	0	0	0
LDL	0	3	1	0	5	0	0	0	0	4	4	0	0	3	11	0	0	0	N	0	0	0	2	0
RA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	A	0	1	1	2
SCZ	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	N	0	0	0	0
T2D	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	2	2	5	0	2	0	0	A	0	0	0
TG	0	2	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	16	4	0	10	0	0	2	A	2	0
UC	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	8	0	0	1	5	4	0	2	0	0	1	0	A	0
EDU	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	A

Upper triangular matrix: counts of gene-sets shared for each two phenotypes; lower triangular matrix: counts of genes shared for each two phenotypes after two-step approach. Cells with significant counts after FDR correction (0.05) were shaded in grey and highlighted in bold.

Table 3 Comparison of multilevel genetic sharing and correlation

Genic SNPs	Genes	Gene-sets	LDSC genetic correlation	Counts	Pairs
Y	Y	Y	Non-zero	5	BMI-HH, CD-UC, HDL-TG, LDL-TG, HH-TG
Y	Y	Y	Near-zero	1	HDL-LDL
Y	Y	N	Non-zero	13	AM-BMI, AM-CO, AM-HH, BMI-CO, BMI-FG, BMI-HDL, BMI-T2D,, BW-T2D, CO-T2D, CHD-LDL, FG-HDL, FG-T2D, HH-LDL
Y	Y	N	Near-zero	11	ALZ-LDL, ALZ-TG, BMI-LDL, CD-HDL, CD-HH, CD-EDU, FG-HH, FG-LDL, FG-TG, HDL-HH, HH-RA
N	Y	N	Non-zero	3	BMI-SCZ, BMI-TG, T2D-TG
N	Y	N	Near-zero	8	AM-CD, AM-UC, ALZ-HDL, AN-CHD, AN-LDL, CD-FG, CD-LDL, HH-SCZ
N	N	Y	Near-zero	1	CD-TG

Y for significant sharing, N for non-significant sharing.

Table 4 Annotation of 12 novel phenotype pairs

Phenotype pair	Total genes (levels) ¹	Epidemiological evidence	LDSC evidence ²	Catalog evidences ³
ALZ-HDL	3 (Gene)	Casserly et al.(CASSERLY and TOPOL 2004)	F; across clusters	6*; <i>TOMM40</i> , <i>APOC1</i> <i>APOC1</i>
AN-CHD	1 (Gene)	Casiero et al.(CASIERO and FRISHMAN 2006)	F; across clusters	0; NA
AN-LDL	1 (Gene)	Weinbrenner et al.(WEINBRENNER <i>et al.</i> 2004)	F; across clusters	0; NA
AM-CD	18 (Gene)	Ballinger et al.(BALLINGER <i>et al.</i> 2003)	F; across clusters	1; 0
AM-UC	24 (Gene)	Ballinger et al.(BALLINGER <i>et al.</i> 2003)	F; across clusters	2; 0
BMI-SCZ	6 (Gene)	Zammit et al.(ZAMMIT <i>et al.</i> 2007)	T; across clusters	2; 0
BMI-TG	11 (Gene)	Locke et al.(LOCKE <i>et al.</i> 2015)	T; within cluster	1; 0
CD-FGL	5 (Gene)	Bregenzler et al.(BREGENZLER <i>et al.</i> 2006)	F; across clusters	1; 0
CD-LDL	8 (Gene)	Agouridis et al.(AGOURIDIS <i>et al.</i> 2011)	F; across clusters	1; 0
CD-TG	8 (Gene-set)	Agouridis et al.(AGOURIDIS <i>et al.</i> 2011)	F; across clusters	2; 0
HH-SCZ	8 (Gene)	Zammit et al.(ZAMMIT <i>et al.</i> 2007)	F; across clusters	9*; 0
T2D-TG	2 (Gene)	Locke et al.(LOCKE <i>et al.</i> 2015)	T; within cluster	1; 0

¹gene-sets was considered by counting genes in gene-sets with GATES $p < 0.05$; cells with gene-set sharing were underscored. ²F for near-zero genetic correlation, T for non-zero genetic correlation; within clusters or cross clusters was given in Figure 2. ³Overlapping genes were counted from GWAS Catalog reported genes for each phenotype pair, with ‘*’ showing significance after multiple testing; only hits replicated at both phenotypes in Catalog were given. NA, not applicable