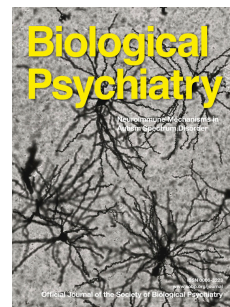


Accepted Manuscript



Does childhood trauma moderate polygenic risk for depression? A meta-analysis of 5,765 subjects from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium

Wouter J. Peyrot, MD, PhD, Sandra Van der Auwera, Yuri Milaneschi, PhD, Conor V. Dolan, PhD, Pamela AF. Madden, PhD, Patrick F. Sullivan, PhD, Jana Strohmaier, Stephan Ripke, PhD, Marcella Rietschel, PhD, Michel G. Nivard, PhD, Niamh Mullins, MSc, Grant W. Montgomery, PhD, Anjali K. Henders, PhD, Andrew C. Heath, PhD, Helen L. Fisher, PhD, Erin C. Dunn, ScD, Enda M. Byrne, PhD, Tracy A. Air, BA, Bernhard T. Baune, PhD, Gerome Breen, PhD, Douglas F. Levinson, PhD, Cathryn M. Lewis, PhD, Nick G. Martin, PhD, Elliot N. Nelson, MD, Dorret I. Boomsma, PhD, Hans J. Grabe, MD, Naomi R. Wray, PhD, Brenda WJH. Penninx, PhD

PII: S0006-3223(17)31993-5

DOI: [10.1016/j.biopsych.2017.09.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsych.2017.09.009)

Reference: BPS 13322

To appear in: *Biological Psychiatry*

Received Date: 21 May 2017

Revised Date: 1 September 2017

Accepted Date: 1 September 2017

Please cite this article as: Peyrot W.J, Van der Auwera S., Milaneschi Y., Dolan C.V, Madden P.A., Sullivan P.F, Strohmaier J., Ripke S., Rietschel M., Nivard M.G, Mullins N., Montgomery G.W, Henders A.K, Heath A.C, Fisher H.L, Dunn E.C, Byrne E.M, Air T.A, Major Depressive Disorder Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium, Baune B.T, Breen G., Levinson D.F, Lewis C.M, Martin N.G, Nelson E.N, Boomsma D.I, Grabe H.J, Wray N.R & Penninx B.W., Does childhood trauma moderate polygenic risk for depression? A meta-analysis of 5,765 subjects from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium, *Biological Psychiatry* (2017), doi: 10.1016/j.biopsych.2017.09.009.

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

1 **Does childhood trauma moderate polygenic risk for depression? A meta-analysis of 5,765 subjects**
2 **from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium**

3 Running title: Childhood trauma and polygenic risk for depression

4

5 Wouter J Peyrot, MD, PhD¹, Sandra Van der Auwera², Yuri Milaneschi, PhD¹, Conor V Dolan, PhD³, Pamela AF Madden,
6 PhD⁴, Patrick F Sullivan, PhD⁵, Jana Strohmaier J⁶, Stephan Ripke, PhD^{7,8}, Marcella Rietschel, PhD⁶, Michel G Nivard, PhD³,
7 Niamh Mullins, MSc⁹, Grant W Montgomery, PhD^{10,11}, Anjali K Henders, PhD^{10,11}, Andrew C Heat, PhD⁴, Helen L Fisher,
8 PhD⁹, Erin C Dunn, ScD¹¹, Enda M Byrne, PhD^{10,11}, Tracy A Air, BA¹³, Major Depressive Disorder Working Group of the
9 Psychiatric Genomics Consortium, Bernhard T Baune, PhD¹³, Gerome Breen, PhD⁹, Douglas F Levinson, PhD¹⁴, Cathryn M
10 Lewis, PhD⁹, Nick G Martin, PhD¹⁵, Elliot N Nelson, MD⁴, Dorret I Boomsma, PhD³, Hans J Grabe, MD^{2*}, Naomi R Wray,
11 PhD^{10,11*}, Brenda WJH Penninx, PhD^{1*}

12

13 ¹Department of Psychiatry, VU University Medical Center & GGZ inGeest, Amsterdam, the Netherlands

14 ²Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, Germany

15 ³Department of Biological Psychology, Vrije Universiteit, Amsterdam, the Netherlands

16 ⁴Department of Psychiatry, Washington University Medical School, St Louis, US

17 ⁵Psychiatry, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, US

18 ⁶Department of Genetic Epidemiology in Psychiatry, Central Institute of Mental Health, Medical Faculty Mannheim,
19 University of Heidelberg, Germany

20 ⁷Analytic and Translational Genetics Unit, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston MA 02114, USA

21 ⁸Dept. of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Charité - Universitätsmedizin, Berlin 10117, Germany

22 ⁹Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, UK

23 ¹⁰Queensland Brain Institute, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia

24 ¹¹Institute for Molecular Bioscience, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia

25 ¹²Department of Psychiatry, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts

26 ¹³Discipline of Psychiatry, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia

27 ¹⁴Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA

28 ¹⁵QIMR Berghofer Medical Research Institute, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia

29 *authors contributed equally

30

31 **Corresponding Author**

32 Wouter J. Peyrot, MD

33 Department of Psychiatry, VU University Medical Center & GGZ inGeest, Amsterdam

34 AJ Ernststraat 1187, 1081 HL Amsterdam, The Netherlands

35 e-mail: peyrot.w@gmail.com

36

37 **Key words:** Depression, polygenic risk, childhood trauma, interaction, meta-analysis, genetics

38 **Word count abstract:** 249

39 **Word count main text:** 4,000

40 **Number of Tables:** 3

41 **Number of Figures:** 1

42 **Supplemental Materials:** yes

43

44 **ABSTRACT**

45 **Background:** The heterogeneity of genetic effects on Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) may be
46 partly attributable to moderation of genetic effects by environment, such as exposure to childhood
47 trauma (CT). Indeed, previous findings in two independent cohorts showed evidence for interaction
48 between polygenic risk scores (PRS) and CT, albeit in opposing directions. This study aims to meta-
49 analyze MDD-PRSxCT interaction results across these two and other cohorts, while applying more
50 accurate PRS based on a larger discovery sample.

51 **Methods and Materials:** Data were combined from 3,024 MDD cases and 2,741 controls from nine
52 cohorts contributing to the MDD Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium. MDD-PRS
53 were based on a discovery sample of approximately 110,000 independent individuals. CT was
54 assessed as exposure to sexual or physical abuse during childhood. In a subset of 1957 cases and
55 2002 controls, a more detailed 5-domain measure additionally included emotional abuse, physical
56 neglect and emotional neglect.

57 **Results:** MDD was associated with the MDD-PRS (OR=1.24, $p=3.6e-5$, $R^2=1.18\%$) and with CT
58 (OR=2.63, $p=3.5e-18$ and OR=2.62, $p=1.4e-5$ for the 2- and 5-domain measures respectively). No
59 interaction was found between MDD-PRS and the 2-domain and 5-domain CT measure (OR=1.00,
60 $p=0.89$ and OR=1.05, $p=0.66$).

61 **Conclusions:** No meta-analytic evidence for interaction between MDD-PRS and CT was found. This
62 suggests that the previously reported interaction effects, although both statistically significant, can
63 best be interpreted as chance findings. Further research is required, but this study suggests that the
64 genetic heterogeneity of MDD is not attributable to genome-wide moderation of genetic effects by
65 CT.

66

67

68 INTRODUCTION

69 Recent studies have found the first associated genetic variants for Major Depressive Disorder (MDD)
70 and depressive complaints (1–3), but research on MDD still hasn't met the success of research on
71 schizophrenia, for which 108 genetic variants were found in 2014 (4). This discrepancy is attributable
72 to several factors, including the higher population prevalence of MDD (so that the difference in
73 liability between cases and controls is smaller than in schizophrenia) (5, 6), the lower heritability of
74 MDD (assuming the same degree of polygenicity in terms of number of risk loci) (5), and the greater
75 genetic and phenotypic heterogeneity of MDD (7). To illustrate the possible consequence of
76 heterogeneity, Wray and Maier showed that the power to detect a causal SNP decreases
77 dramatically when a disorder is caused by two distinct pathways (8), while Milaneschi et al found
78 that genetic effects in those with typical MDD might partially differ from genetic effects in those
79 with atypical MDD (9, 10).

80 Another source of genetic heterogeneity may arise from gene-by-environment (GxE)
81 interaction: the moderation of genetic effects on MDD by specific environmental factors. Much
82 research concerning GxE-interaction has been conducted with candidate genes, in particular the
83 interaction between the serotonin transporter gene (5-HTTLPR) and childhood trauma (11), but this
84 research has produced contradictory findings (12–15) that have been attributed, at least in part, to
85 publication bias (16). Recently, Culverhouse et al published results from a collaborative meta-
86 analysis showing no evidence for interaction between 5-HTTLPR and childhood trauma (17) based on
87 a previously published protocol for analyses (18). Nevertheless, in the last couple of years, methods
88 have been developed to assess the combined impact of all genotyped SNPs, such as polygenic risk
89 score (PRS) analyses (19). Kendler proposed that a confirmed main effect is a desirable condition for
90 GxE-interaction testing (20). This suggests that PRS may be preferable over candidate genes to test
91 for GxE-interaction, because PRS have a confirmed significant effect on MDD (21, 22) contrasting the
92 non-replicated and non-consistent effects of candidate genes (23, 24).

93 In GxE interaction research numerous environmental factors can be tested, which may have
94 catalyzed publication bias in the candidate gene literature (16) and may also present as a challenge
95 for GxE interaction tests with PRS. Nevertheless, a plausible environmental factor to test in the
96 context of GxE-interaction is childhood trauma, which is one of the strongest risk factors with a
97 lifelong impact on MDD risk (25), and may perhaps be more uniformly defined than stress later in
98 life. Moreover, exposure to childhood trauma has been hypothesized to distinguish a clinically and
99 neurobiologically distinct subtype of MDD, because MDD patients exposed to childhood trauma
100 have an earlier onset, more chronic course, higher severity with more neurovegetative and psychotic

101 symptoms, more comorbidities, more suicide attempts and poorer treatment outcome than MDD
102 patients that did not experience childhood trauma (26).

103 Following this reasoning, Peyrot et al. tested for GxE interaction between PRS and CT in the
104 Netherlands Study of Depression and Anxiety (NESDA) and found a significantly stronger impact of
105 PRS on MDD risk in individuals exposed to childhood trauma compared to individuals not exposed to
106 childhood trauma (27). In a replication study, Mullins et al found a significant but opposing
107 interaction effect in the RADIANT UK sample with a stronger impact of PRS on MDD risk in those
108 unexposed to childhood trauma (28). These opposing findings, that were both significant, are not
109 well understood, and it remains unclear whether these reflect actual differences between cultures,
110 between recruitment of participants into cohorts, or chance-findings. The aim of the current study is
111 (i) to re-analyze NESDA and RADIANT UK with more accurate PRS based on discovery results from
112 approximately 110,000 individuals (compared to ~15,000 applied previously), and (ii) to place the
113 NESDA and RADIANT UK findings in a broader perspective by meta-analyzing their results with seven
114 additional cohorts from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) MDD wave 2 (29). Secondary
115 analyses used PRS calculated from discovery GWAS results for schizophrenia and bipolar disorder, as
116 these are genetically related to MDD (7, 30).

117

118 **METHODS**

119 **Subjects**

120 Subjects were recruited from the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) wave 2, which combines
121 genotype and phenotype data of individuals of European ancestry in 29 different cohorts (29). The
122 combined samples include data of 16,823 MDD cases and 25,632 controls. Of these 29 cohorts, nine
123 cohorts included a measure of childhood trauma: Cognition and Function in Mood Disorders Study
124 (COFAMS) from Australia (31), Depression Gene Network (DGN) from the USA (32), the Netherlands
125 Study of Depression and Anxiety (NESDA) (33), the Queensland Institute of Medical Research (QIMR
126 in three different cohorts defined by genotyping platform) from Australia (23), RADIANT UK (34), and
127 Study of Health in Pomerania (SHIP-0, and SHIP-TREND) from Germany (see Table S1 for more
128 detailed information) (35). Briefly, SHIP-O, SHIP-T and QIMR are community studies with MDD cases
129 and screened controls defined from responses to self-report questionnaires, whilst the other studies
130 recruit MDD cases from in- or out-patient clinics and recruit screened controls with both cases and
131 controls completing the same childhood trauma questionnaires. The definition of MDD in all studies
132 was based on structured psychiatric interviews following DSM-criteria.

133

134 **Childhood Trauma Questionnaire**

135 The Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ) was applied to assess childhood trauma, defined as
136 trauma before the age of 16, in five of the nine cohorts (COFAMS, NESDA/NTR, RADIANT UK, SHIP-0,
137 and SHIP-TREND). The CTQ covers the five domains of sexual abuse (SA), physical abuse (PA),
138 emotional abuse (EA), emotional neglect (EN), and physical neglect (PN). Each domain is assessed by
139 five questions (scored 1 to 5) resulting in a domain score ranging from 5 to 25, and an overall CTQ
140 continuous score ranging from 25 to 125 (36). Per domain, cutoffs were applied to define a narrow
141 definition of childhood trauma separating no or mild trauma from moderate or severe trauma
142 (Supplemental Methods). From this, an overall dichotomous CTQ indicator was constructed to
143 separate trauma in any of the five domains (indicator=1) from trauma in none of the domains
144 (indicator=0). The analyses were based on the continuous and dichotomous 5-domain CT scores. The
145 five domains were highly correlated: all pairwise correlation coefficients were larger than 0.4 except
146 for sexual abuse which was slightly less connected (Table S2) as has previously also been reported by
147 Spinhoven et al (37).

148

149 **Other childhood trauma instruments**

150 In addition to the five cohorts that assessed childhood trauma with the CTQ instrument, four
151 additional PGC cohorts (DGN and the three sub-cohorts of QIMR) assessed childhood trauma with
152 other instruments (before the age of 18 in QIMR). To obtain the largest possible dataset, childhood
153 trauma information was matched across all nine cohorts for sexual abuse and physical abuse
154 (Supplemental Methods). A broad definition (no abuse versus mild, moderate or severe abuse) was
155 applied to create a childhood trauma indicator separating those with trauma (exposed to sexual
156 and/or physical abuse) from those not exposed to childhood trauma (neither exposed to sexual nor
157 physical abuse). The correlation (Spearman's rho) between the 2-domain dichotomous CT indicator
158 and the 5-domain continuous CT score equaled 0.50 ($p < 2 \cdot 10^{-16}$).

159

160 **Genotyping, quality control and imputation**

161 The cohorts were genotyped following their local protocols, after which quality control and
162 imputation against the 1000 genomes reference panel (38) were performed centrally in the PGC per
163 cohort (29). The SNP probabilities were converted to best guess data with a genotype call probability
164 cut-off of 0.8, after which individuals were removed with missing-rate $> 2\%$. A total of 1,171,526
165 HapMap 3 SNPs passed post-imputation QC in at least 2 of 9 batches (missing-rate $< 2\%$, minor allele
166 frequency > 0.01 , and imputation INFO-score > 0.6). These 1,171,526 SNPs were used to calculate the
167 genetic relatedness matrix (GRM) with PLINK2 (39), which was thus based on a different set of SNPs
168 for individuals from each cohort and between each pair of cohorts (Table S3), in this way providing

169 genome-wide coverage of well described HapMap 3 SNPs. From the GRM, unrelated individuals
170 were selected with relatedness <0.05 , and ancestry informative principal components were
171 calculated with GCTA (40).

172

173 **Polygenic risk scores**

174 Polygenic risk scores for MDD (MDD-PRS) were based on meta-analysis of the GWAS results from the
175 twenty PGC MDD wave 2 cohorts with no childhood trauma information available (10,409 cases,
176 18,640 controls) (29), deCODE (1,980 cases, 9,536 controls) (29), GenScotland (997 cases, 6,358
177 controls) (41, 42), GERA (7,162 cases, 38,307 controls) (43), iPsych (16,242 cases, 15,847 controls)
178 (29) and UK Biobank (8,248 cases, 16,089 controls) (44, 45). This discovery sample comprised 45,038
179 cases and 104,777 controls yielding a power similar to a sample of 56,134 cases and 56,134 controls
180 ($N_{\text{effective}} = 56,134 + 56,134 = 112,268$). Additional PRS were based on GWAS results from
181 schizophrenia (SCZ-PRS) (4) and bipolar disorder (BIP-PRS) (46), because these disorders are
182 genetically related to MDD (7, 30). PRS were calculated using 463,215 SNPs shared between the
183 discovery sample results and passing QC in all cohorts (missing-rate $<2\%$, minor allele frequency
184 >0.01 , and imputation INFO-score >0.6). Thus, PRS were based on the same set of SNPs in all
185 analyses to increase comparability of results across cohorts. These SNPs were clumped with PLINK (--
186 clump-p1 1 --clump-p2 1 --clump-r2 0.25 --clump-kb 500), and provided 73,576 lowly correlated
187 SNPs for MDD, 73,559 for SCZ, and 73,656 for BIP. The MDD-PRS were based on five different
188 thresholds of GWAS significance for SNP inclusion (p-value smaller than 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.5 and 1
189 respectively). The SCZ-PRS was based on a threshold of $p < 0.05$, which provided optimal predictive
190 power on SCZ (4). The BIP-PRS was based on a threshold of $p < 0.5$ with best predictive performance
191 on BIP (46). The PRS were calculated by summing the number of risk alleles weighted by their effect
192 size (--score command in PLINK) (39).

193

194 **Statistical analyses**

195 The prevalences at the population level of the 5-domain and 2-domain dichotomous CT indicators
196 were approximated from this study assuming a population lifetime risk of MDD of 15%, with a
197 lifetime risk of 20% in women and 10% in men (5, 47). The impact of the PRS, CT and PRSxCT was
198 first estimated in the individual cohorts, and the effects in the total sample were subsequently
199 assessed with random-effect meta-analysis. Within each cohort, the impact of CT on MDD was
200 assessed with logistic regression including sex as covariate. The tests for the main effects of the PRS
201 on MDD included sex and the first three ancestry informative principal components as covariates.
202 Interaction analyses were conducted with the 5-domain continuous CT measure and with the 2-

203 domain dichotomous CT indicator. Interaction analyses of PRSxCT were corrected for sex, three
204 principal components, PRS, CT, and the interaction-terms of PRS and CT with sex and the principal
205 components in line with Keller's recommendation (48). With logistic regression, interaction is tested
206 as departure from multiplicativity (combined impact different from the *product* of the individual
207 effects), but it has been argued that interaction as departure from additivity (combined impact
208 different from the *sum* of the individual effects) is more meaningful biologically (49). For testing
209 interaction as departure from additivity, the relative excess risks due to interaction (RERI) were
210 estimated with the coefficients from logistic regression as $e^{\widehat{\beta}_{PRS} + \widehat{\beta}_{CT} + \widehat{\beta}_{PRS \times CT}} - e^{\widehat{\beta}_{PRS}} - e^{\widehat{\beta}_{CT}} + 1$,
211 and their 95% confidence intervals by means of bootstrapping with 10,000 iterations. The impact of
212 the PRS on MDD was further expressed as variation explained on the liability scale, R^2 (50). The PRS
213 and continuous 5-domain CT measure were standardized (i.e. mean of 0 and variance of 1), and the
214 presented ORs can thus be interpreted as increased MDD risk per standard deviation increase in PRS
215 or CT. The analyses were conducted in R (51).

216

217 Genetic Relationship Matrix (GRM)-based analyses

218 The variance in MDD liability and CT explained by genotyped SNPs (SNP heritability) was assessed
219 with cross product Haseman-Elston regression (52). These analyses were corrected for covariates by
220 calculating the residuals of linear regression of MDD and CT on sex, genotyping batch and 20
221 ancestry informative principal components (PCs). We included 20 PCs, because GRM-based analyses
222 are more sensitive to population stratification than PRS analyses (7). To test for interaction between
223 CT and genome-wide genetic effects in MDD, the genetic correlation between MDD in unexposed
224 individuals and MDD in exposed individuals can give information about differences in genetic effects
225 (53). Unfortunately, the current data did not allow for the latter analyses because of limited sample
226 size (e.g. only 389 exposed controls) while analyses had to be corrected for 9 cohorts.

227

228 RESULTS

229 Phenotypic association between MDD and CT

230 The 5-domain continuous and dichotomous CT measures were available for 1957 cases and 2002
231 controls, and the 2-domain dichotomous indicator was available for 3024 cases and 2741 controls.
232 The prevalence of CT was estimated at 0.25 based on the 5-domain indicator (Table 1), and at 0.17
233 for the 2-domain indicator (Table 3). As expected, the prevalence was considerably larger in cases
234 than controls (0.50 vs 0.21 for the 5-domain measure and 0.35 vs 0.14 for the 2-domain measure).
235 This was reflected in an OR for MDD of 3.80 ($p=3.0e-6$) for the 5-domain dichotomous measure, and
236 an OR of 2.63 ($p=3.5e-18$) for the 2-domain measure. For the 5-domain continuous CT measure, an

237 OR for MDD of 2.62 ($p=1.4e-5$) per standard deviation increase in CT was found (Table 1 & Figure 1).
238 The impact of CT on MDD was comparable in men and women, with ORs of 2.18 (males, $p=1.1e-4$)
239 and 2.74 (females, $p=3.6e-5$) per standard deviation increase in the continuous 5-domain CT
240 measures (Table 1). CT had an impact on MDD risk in all cohorts (Table 1), and the five CTQ domains
241 all had an impact on MDD risk (Table S4).

242

243 **Polygenic risk score analyses**

244 The MDD-PRS based on all SNPs (inclusion threshold of $p<1$) had the greatest predictive power, with
245 an OR of 1.34 ($p=5.1e-11$, $R^2=1.71\%$) in the 1957 cases and 2002 controls with availability of the 5-
246 domain CT measures (Table 2). The SCZ-PRS and BIP-PRS also predicted MDD but to a lesser extent
247 than the MDD-PRS (Table 2), reflecting the well-described genetic correlation between MDD, BIP
248 and SCZ (7). Because GE-correlation can lead to spurious GxE-results (54), we tested for an
249 association between the MDD-PRS and CT. The MDD-PRS did predict the 5-domain continuous CT
250 measure ($\beta=0.76$, $p=0.004$ in linear regression), but this was approximated to only reflect a small
251 correlation in terms of the full population of ~ 0.04 (Table S5). No interaction between the PRS and
252 the 5-domain continuous CTQ measure was found, with an impact of MDD-PRS \times CT on MDD of
253 OR=1.05 ($p=0.52$; Table 2). In addition, no evidence was found for interaction as departure from
254 additivity ($RERI=0.83$, 95%CI= -0.62 to 18.03). The BIP-PRS and SCZ-PRS showed no evidence for
255 interaction with the 5-domain CT measure.

256 Applying the 2-domain dichotomous CT indicator of sexual or physical abuse allowed
257 inclusion of four additional cohorts in the analyses (Table 3): DGN and 3 QIMR cohorts (one of the
258 QIMR cohorts was split in two to acknowledge different instruments applied to assess childhood
259 trauma). The total sample size thus increased to 3024 cases and 2741 controls, in which the MDD-
260 PRS had an impact on MDD with an OR of 1.24 ($p=3.6e-5$, $R^2=1.18\%$). The polygenic risk scores did
261 predict MDD in DGN, but not in all QIMR cohorts, which is attributable to the relatively small
262 number of QIMR subjects with CT information available compared to the full QIMR sample (in which
263 PRS predict MDD as expected). No interaction was found between the PRS and 2-domain
264 dichotomous CT indicator (Table 3).

265 An alternative method sometimes applied to test for interaction as departure from additivity
266 is linear regression with the disease trait as outcome (28). We suggest for caution in interpreting
267 findings from this approach, because this method has, to the best of our knowledge, not been
268 formally described. Nevertheless, for reasons of completeness, this approach was applied and also
269 showed no evidence for interaction with the 5-domain CT measure ($\beta=-0.004$, $p=0.67$) and the 2-
270 domain CT measure ($\beta=-0.005$, $p=0.45$).

271

272 **GRM based analyses**

273 The SNP heritability of MDD was estimated at 0.14 (SE=0.03; $p=3.7e-8$) based on the 6,348 cases and
274 6,751 controls across the nine cohorts (Table S1; these analyses included additional individuals with
275 no CT information available). The SNP heritability of CT was estimated at 0.00 (SE=0.07; $p=1$;
276 $N=3,959$) for the 5-domain continuous measure, and at 0.09 (SE=0.08; $p=0.27$; $N=5,765$) for the 2-
277 domain dichotomous indicator.

278

279 **DISCUSSION**

280 This study was conducted to test for interaction between polygenic risk for MDD and childhood
281 trauma (CT) in 5,765 individuals from nine cohorts contributing to the Psychiatric Genomics
282 Consortium that had a childhood trauma assessment available. CT occurred in 25% of individuals
283 based on an indicator of 5-domains (sexual abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse, emotional
284 neglect, and physical neglect), and in 17% based on broad definition of 2-domains (sexual and/or
285 physical abuse). As expected, the prevalence was considerably higher in cases than controls (0.50 vs
286 0.21 for the 5-domain measure and 0.35 vs 0.14 for the 2-domain measure). The 5-domain measure
287 was more detailed and uniformly assessed in 1957 cases and 2002 controls; the 2-domain indicator
288 was assessed heterogeneous across cohorts, but available for a larger sample comprising of 3024
289 cases and 2741 controls. The polygenic risk scores (PRS) explained 1.18% to 1.71% of variation in
290 MDD risk. No evidence for interaction between PRS and childhood trauma was found with 5-domain
291 CT measure (Table 2) and the 2-domain CT indicator (Table 3). Secondary analyses also showed no
292 evidence for interaction in analyses with PRS based on discovery results from schizophrenia and
293 bipolar disorders, in tests for interaction as departure from additivity, in analyses in males and
294 females separately (Table S6), and in analysis in the five separate domains of CT (Table S7;
295 significance threshold $0.01=0.05/5$). Analyses excluding NESDA and RADIANT UK showed no
296 evidence for interaction between the MDD-PRS (p -value threshold 1) and 5-domain CT measure
297 (OR=1.06, $p=0.67$) and 2-domain CT measure (OR=0.98, $p=0.61$) in the remainder of the cohorts.

298 Remarkably, no interaction-effects were found in NESDA (OR=1.08, 95%CI=0.83-1.39,
299 $p=0.56$) and RADIANT UK (OR=0.93, 95%CI=0.66-1.31, $p=0.67$) with the 5-domain CT measure (Table
300 2), which contrasts previous findings in these respective cohorts by Peyrot et al (OR=1.12, $p=0.018$,
301 discovery sample $N_{\text{effective}}=15,295$) (27) and Mullins et al (OR=0.96 based on differently scaled PRS
302 and CT, $p=0.002$, discovery sample $N_{\text{effective}}=15,540$) (28). Aiming to clarify these discrepancies, we
303 analyzed PRS based on discovery results from PGC MDD wave 2 with an effective sample size of
304 approximately 37,000 (Table S8) and confirmed the previously reported interaction-effects in NESDA

305 (OR=1.38, 95%CI=1.07-1.76, $p=0.011$) and RADIANT UK (OR=0.67, 95%CI=0.51-0.90, $p=0.006$).
306 Therefore, it appears that the OR of the interaction-effects are reduced by adding deCODE (29),
307 GenScotland (41, 42), GERA (43), iPsych (29) and UK Biobank (44, 45) to the PRS discovery sample.
308 These discrepancies in interaction results may reflect different study designs in the discovery
309 datasets with application of self-reported depression status in UKB and clinical records in iPsych and
310 GERA, contrasting the semi-structured interviews (such as the SCID, CIDI and MINI) applied in most
311 PGC cohorts (29). However, these discrepancies may also reflect random variation in effects with
312 discovery sample size increasing from ~37,000 to ~110,000. The latter possibility seems more likely
313 since: (1) we observe an increase in the variance explained by the PRS from 0.66% ($p=2.8e-5$) to
314 1.71% ($p=5.1e-11$) (Table S8), which corresponds with the increase predicted from theory given the
315 increased sample size (55); (2) a genetic correlation of 0.91-0.96 between the PGC wave 2 discovery
316 results and the extended discovery results as estimated with LD-score regression (30); and (3) an
317 overlap of the 95% CI of the interaction-effects based on the PGC discovery sample and the larger
318 discovery sample applied in this paper (Table S8). In other words, our results suggest that the
319 additional discovery cohorts (deCODE, GenScotland, GERA, iPsych, and UK Biobank) capture the
320 same genetic information as the PGC cohorts. Therefore, we hypothesize that the previously
321 reported interaction results in NESDA (27) and RADIANT UK (28) were both chance findings. The fact
322 that these findings were both significant in an opposite direction may reflect the statistical
323 vulnerability of interaction testing (48, 54, 56).

324 A source of spurious interaction effects can be found in gene-environment (GE) correlation
325 as explained for twin analyses by Purcell (54). Notably, the PRS based on the PGC wave 2 discovery
326 results were slightly more correlated with childhood trauma in the full population (with
327 approximately -0.09 in NESDA and 0.13 in RADIANT UK) than the PRS based on the extended sample
328 (~0.02 and ~0.06 respectively). A simulation study suggested that the type I error rate can indeed be
329 inflated in the context of GE-correlation, but to a modest extent of 0.075 (with alpha set at 0.05) for
330 a strong correlation of 0.3 between G and E (Supplemental Methods). It is, therefore, unlikely that
331 the GxE-interactions previously found would be attributable to GE-correlation.

332 The current study has both strengths and limitations. First, this study is the largest to date to
333 test for interaction between polygenic risk scores and CT in MDD risk. Second, polygenic risk scores
334 were based on a powerful discovery GWAS with approximately 110,000 individuals. Third, diagnoses
335 were DSM-based aiming to select clinically relevant cases of MDD. A limitation of our study is that CT
336 was not assessed uniformly across cohorts for the 2-domain measure, but analyses restricted to
337 cohorts assessed uniformly with the 5-domain CTQ-instrument showed similar results. Although this
338 study is the largest to date, power to detect an interaction-effect between PRS and CT was still

339 limited (power \geq 0.8 for interaction effects with OR \leq 0.83 or OR \geq 1.21 for analyses with the 2-domain
340 CT measure in 5,765 individuals based on power analyses with the QUANTO software) (57). Of note,
341 tests of interaction with PRS do not rule out interaction with individual SNPs; the PRS were based on
342 many SNPs, some, but not all of which may be involved in interaction. The current study tested for
343 interaction with childhood trauma, because childhood trauma has been hypothesized to define a
344 distinct type of MDD,(26) but other environmental factors could have also been tested.
345 Nevertheless, testing too many environmental conditions assessed with a variety of instruments
346 may increase risk of publication bias when significant findings would be published selectively (16,
347 58).

348 Lastly, we would like to emphasize the complex nature of interaction testing with PRS based
349 on genome-wide SNPs. For analyses with twin data, Purcell described the distinction between
350 qualitative interaction (different genes have an effect across different environments) and
351 quantitative interactions (the same genes have an effect but they explain a different proportion of
352 variance) (54). In an attempt to elucidate some of the characteristics of interaction testing with PRS,
353 we conducted a second simulation study constructing PRS from simulated SNP-level data for
354 different underlying genetic architectures (Supplemental Methods and Table S9). First, we note that
355 the discovery results are typically based on a discovery sample with an unknown mixture of
356 individuals unexposed (CT=0) and individuals exposed to childhood trauma (CT=1). When assuming
357 qualitative genome-wide interaction with different directions of SNP effects in exposed and
358 unexposed individuals (explaining the same proportion of variance in both groups), the discovery
359 GWAS would mainly tag the effects in unexposed individuals that form the majority of the discovery
360 sample. Consequently, negative interaction between PRS and CT would be detected under this
361 scenario. Second and contrary, for quantitative interaction a positive interaction effect may be
362 expected when SNPs would explain more variance in exposed individuals.

363 To conclude, no overall evidence was found for interaction between PRS and CT. Previously
364 found interaction effects (27, 28) were no longer significant when applying more powerful discovery
365 results. This study provides a cautionary tale for interaction analyses with PRS: it emphasizes the
366 need to meta-analyze results across different cohorts to obtain external validity. The quest
367 continues to clarify the nature of the heterogeneity of MDD, but the present study has shown that
368 the heterogeneity is unlikely to be attributable to moderation of genome-wide genetic effects by CT.
369 Future research may focus on interaction effects between CT and individual SNPs. We hereby call for
370 large GWAS cohorts to assess CT in a uniform manner to facilitate such research in the years the
371 come.

372

373 CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

374 All authors report no biomedical financial interests or potential conflicts of interest.

375

376 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

377 NRW was funded by the Australian National Health and Medical Research Council 1078901, 1087889
378 and EMB was supported by fellowship 1053639. The Netherlands Study of Depression and Anxiety
379 (NESDA) was funded by the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (MagW/ZonMW Grants
380 904-61-090, 985-10-002, 904-61-193, 480-04-004, 400-05-717, 912-100-20; Spinozapremie 56-464-
381 14192; Geestkracht program Grant 10-000-1002); the Center for Medical Systems Biology (NWO
382 Genomics), Biobanking and Biomolecular Resources Research Infrastructure, VU University's
383 Institutes for Health and Care Research and Neuroscience Campus Amsterdam, NBIC/BioAssist/RK
384 (2008.024); the European Science Foundation (EU/QLRT-2001-01254); the European Community's
385 Seventh Framework Program (FP7/2007-2013); ENGAGE (HEALTH-F4-2007-201413); and the
386 European Science Council (ERC, 230374). Genotyping was funded in part by the Genetic Association
387 Information Network (GAIN) of the Foundation for the US National Institutes of Health, and analysis
388 was supported by grants from GAIN and the NIMH (MH081802). CoFaMS was supported by a grant
389 from the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC APP 1060524 to BTB). SHIP is part
390 of the Community Medicine Research net of the University of Greifswald, Germany, which is funded
391 by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (grants no. 01ZZ9603, 01ZZ0103, and 01ZZ0403),
392 the Ministry of Cultural Affairs and the Social Ministry of the Federal State of Mecklenburg-West
393 Pomerania. Genome-wide data analyses in SHIP have been supported by a joint grant from Siemens
394 Healthineers, Erlangen, Germany and the Federal State of Mecklenburg-West Pomerania. Genome-
395 wide genotyping in SHIP-TREND-0 was supported by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research
396 (grant no. 03ZIK012). This work was also funded by the German Research Foundation (DFG: GR
397 1912/5-1). In addition, this work was supported by the German Federal Ministry of Education and
398 Research (BMBF) within the framework of the e:Med research and funding concept (Integrement;
399 grant no. 01ZX1314E). Royal Netherlands Academy of Science Professor Award (PAH/6635) to DIB.
400 MR received funding from the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) within
401 the context of the Integrated Network IntegraMent (Integrated Understanding of Causes and
402 Mechanisms in Mental Disorders; grant 01ZX1314G). MR and SHW received funding from the
403 German Research Foundation (DFG) within the context of FOR2107 (DFG-Forschergruppe 2107;
404 grant RI908/11-1 to M.R.; grant WI 3439/3-1 to SHW). This report represents independent research
405 part-funded by the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) Biomedical Research Centre at
406 South London and Maudsley NHS Foundation Trust and King's College London. The views expressed

407 are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the NHS, the NIHR, or the Department of
408 Health. The RADIANT studies were funded by a joint grant from the UK Medical Research Council
409 (G0701420), GlaxoSmithKline and by the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR) Biomedical
410 Research Centre for Mental Health at South London and Maudsley NHS Foundation Trust and
411 Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London. N.M. and C.M.L. have
412 received funding from the European Community's Seventh Framework Programme under the Marie
413 Curie Industry-Academia Partnership and Pathways (grant 286213). E.C.D. is supported by the
414 National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH; 1K01MH102403). H.L.F. is supported by an MQ Fellows
415 Award (MQ14F40). We thank all individuals who participated in the RADIANT study and all involved
416 with data collection and management.

417

418 The Major Depressive Disorder Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium is a
419 collaborative co-author on this paper. The individual authors are (affiliations are listed in the
420 Supplement): Naomi R Wray, Stephan Ripke, Manuel Mattheisen, Maciej Trzaskowski, Enda M
421 Byrne, Abdel Abdellaoui, Mark J Adams, Esben Agerbo, Tracy M Air, Till F M Andlauer, Silviu-Alin
422 Bacanu, Marie Bækvad-Hansen, Aartjan T F Beekman, Tim B Bigdeli, Elisabeth B Binder, Douglas H R
423 Blackwood, Julien Bryois, Henriette N Buttenschøn, Jonas Bybjerg-Grauholm, Na Cai, Enrique
424 Castelao, Jane Hvarregaard Christensen, Toni-Kim Clarke, Jonathan R I Coleman, Lucía Colodro-
425 Conde, Baptiste Couvy-Duchesne, Nick Craddock, Gregory E Crawford, Gail Davies, Ian J Deary,
426 Franziska Degenhardt, Eske M Derks, Nese Direk, Conor V Dolan, Erin C Dunn, Thalia C Eley,
427 Valentina Escott-Price, Farnush, Farhadi Hassan Kiadeh, Hilary K Finucane, Andreas J Forstner, Josef
428 Frank, Héléna A Gaspar, Michael Gill, Fernando S Goes, Scott D Gordon, Jakob Grove, Lynsey S Hall,
429 Christine Sørholm Hansen, Thomas F Hansen, Stefan Herms, Ian B Hicki, Per Hoffmann, Georg
430 Homuth, Carsten Horn, Jouke-Jan Hottenga, David M Hougaard, Marcus Ising, Rick Jansen, Eric
431 Jorgenson, James A Knowles, Isaac S Kohane, Julia Kraft, Warren W. Kretschmar, Jesper Krogh,
432 Zoltán Kutalik, Yihan Li, Penelope A Lind, Donald J MacIntyre, Dean F MacKinnon, Robert M Maier,
433 Wolfgang Maier, Jonathan Marchini, Hamdi Mbarek, Patrick McGrath, Peter McGuffin, Sarah E
434 Medland, Divya Mehta, Christel M Middeldorp, Evelin Mihailov, Yuri Milaneschi, Lili Milani, Francis
435 M Mondimore, Grant W Montgomery, Sara Mostafavi, Niamh Mullins, Matthias Nauck, Bernard Ng ,
436 Michel G Nivard, Dale R Nyholt, Paul F O'Reilly, Hogni Oskarsson, Michael J Owen, Jodie N Painter,
437 Carsten Bøcker Pedersen, Marianne Giørtz Pedersen, Roseann E. Peterson, Erik Pettersson, Wouter J
438 Peyrot, Giorgio Pistis, Danielle Posthuma, Jorge A Quiroz, Per Qvist, John P Rice, Brien P. Riley,
439 Margarita Rivera, Saira Saeed Mirza, Robert Schoevers, Eva C Schulte, Ling Shen, Jianxin Shi, Stanley I
440 Shyn, Engilbert Sigurdsson, Grant C B Sinnamon, Johannes H Smit, Daniel J Smith, Hreinn Stefansson,

441 Stacy Steinberg, Fabian Streit, Jana Strohmaier, Katherine E Tansey, Henning Teismann, Alexander
442 Teumer, Wesley Thompson, Pippa A Thomson, Thorgeir E Thorgeirsson, Matthew Traylor, Jens
443 Treutlein, Vassily Trubetskoy, André G Uitterlinden, Daniel Umbricht, Sandra Van der Auwera, Albert
444 M van Hemert, Alexander Viktorin, Peter M Visscher, Yunpeng Wang, Bradley T. Webb, Shantel
445 Marie Weinsheimer, Jürgen Wellmann, Gonneke Willemsen, Stephanie H Witt, Yang Wu, Hualin S Xi,
446 Jian Yang, Futao Zhang, Volker Arolt, Bernhard T Baune, Klaus Berger, Dorret I Boomsma, Sven
447 Cichon, Udo Dannlowski, EJC de Geus, J Raymond DePaulo, Enrico Domenici, Katharina Domschke,
448 Tõnu Esko, Hans J Grabe, Steven P Hamilton, Caroline Hayward, Andrew C Heath, Kenneth S Kendler,
449 Stefan Kloiber, Glyn Lewis, Qingqin S Li, Susanne Lucae, Pamela AF Madden, Patrik K Magnusson,
450 Nicholas G Martin, Andrew M McIntosh, Andres Metspalu, Ole Mors, Preben Bo Mortensen, Bertram
451 Müller-Myhsok, Merete Nordentoft, Markus M Nöthen, Michael C O'Donovan, Sara A Paciga, Nancy
452 L Pedersen, Brenda WJH Penninx, Roy H Perlis, David J Porteous, James B Potash, Martin Preisig,
453 Marcella Rietschel, Catherine Schaefer, Thomas G Schulze, Jordan W Smoller, Kari Stefansson,
454 Henning Tiemeier, Rudolf Uher, Henry Völzke, Myrna M Weissman, Thomas Werge, Cathryn M
455 Lewis, Douglas F Levinson, Gerome Breen, Anders D Børglum, Patrick F Sullivan

456

457

458

459 REFERENCES

- 460 1. Cai N, Bigdeli TB, Kretschmar W, Li Y, Liang J, Song L, *et al.* (2015): Sparse whole-genome
461 sequencing identifies two loci for major depressive disorder. *Nature*. 523: 588–91.
- 462 2. Okbay A, Baselmans BML, De Neve J-E, Turley P, Nivard MG, Fontana MA, *et al.* (2016): Genetic
463 variants associated with subjective well-being, depressive symptoms, and neuroticism
464 identified through genome-wide analyses. *Nat Genet.* . doi: 10.1038/ng.3552.
- 465 3. Hyde CL, Nagle MW, Tian C, Chen X, Paciga SA, Wendland JR, *et al.* (2016): Identification of 15
466 genetic loci associated with risk of major depression in individuals of European descent. *Nat*
467 *Genet.* . doi: 10.1038/ng.3623.
- 468 4. Ripke S, Neale BM, Corvin A, Walters JTR, Farh K-H, Holmans PA, *et al.* (2014): Biological insights
469 from 108 schizophrenia-associated genetic loci. *Nature*. 511: 421–7.
- 470 5. Sullivan PF, Daly MJ, O'Donovan M (2012): Genetic architectures of psychiatric disorders: the
471 emerging picture and its implications. *Nat Rev Genet.* 13: 537–51.
- 472 6. Peyrot WJ, Boomsma DI, Penninx BWJH, Wray NR (2016): Disease and Polygenic Architecture:
473 Avoid Trio Design and Appropriately Account for Unscreened Control Subjects for Common
474 Disease. *Am J Hum Genet.* 98: 382–391.
- 475 7. Lee SH, Ripke S, Neale BM, Faraone S V, Purcell SM, Perlis RH, *et al.* (2013): Genetic relationship
476 between five psychiatric disorders estimated from genome-wide SNPs. *Nat Genet.* 45: 984–94.
- 477 8. Wray NR, Maier R (2014): Genetic Basis of Complex Genetic Disease: The Contribution of Disease
478 Heterogeneity to Missing Heritability. *Curr Epidemiol Reports.* 1: 220–227.
- 479 9. Milaneschi Y, Lamers F, Mbarek H, Hottenga J-J, Boomsma DI, Penninx BWJH (2014): The effect of
480 FTO rs9939609 on major depression differs across MDD subtypes. *Mol Psychiatry.* 19: 960–2.
- 481 10. Milaneschi Y, Lamers F, Peyrot WJ, Abdellaoui A, Willemsen G, Hottenga J-J, *et al.* (2015):
482 Polygenic dissection of major depression clinical heterogeneity. *Mol Psychiatry.* 21: 516–22.
- 483 11. Caspi A, Sugden K, Moffitt TE, Taylor A, Craig IW, Harrington H, *et al.* (2003): Influence of life
484 stress on depression: moderation by a polymorphism in the 5-HTT gene. *Science.* 301: 386–9.
- 485 12. Fergusson DM, Horwood LJ, Miller AL, Kennedy M a (2011): Life stress, 5-HTTLPR and mental
486 disorder: findings from a 30-year longitudinal study. *Br J Psychiatry.* 198: 129–35.
- 487 13. Munafò MR, Durrant C, Lewis G, Flint J (2009): Gene X environment interactions at the serotonin
488 transporter locus. *Biol Psychiatry.* 65: 211–9.
- 489 14. Karg K, Burmeister M, Shedden K, Sen S (2011): The serotonin transporter promoter variant (5-
490 HTTLPR), stress, and depression meta-analysis revisited: evidence of genetic moderation. *Arch*
491 *Gen Psychiatry.* 68: 444–54.
- 492 15. Risch N, Herrell R, Lehner T, Liang K-Y, Eaves L, Hoh J, *et al.* (2009): Interaction between the

- 493 serotonin transporter gene (5-HTTLPR), stressful life events, and risk of depression: a meta-
494 analysis. *JAMA*. 301: 2462–71.
- 495 16. Duncan LE, Keller MC (2011): A critical review of the first 10 years of candidate gene-by-
496 environment interaction research in psychiatry. *Am J Psychiatry*. 168: 1041–9.
- 497 17. Culverhouse RC, Saccone NL, Horton AC, Ma Y, Anstey KJ, Banaschewski T, *et al.* (2017):
498 Collaborative meta-analysis finds no evidence of a strong interaction between stress and 5-
499 HTTLPR genotype contributing to the development of depression. *Mol Psychiatry*. . doi:
500 10.1038/mp.2017.44.
- 501 18. Culverhouse RC, Bowes L, Breslau N, Nurnberger JI, Burmeister M, Fergusson DM, *et al.* (2013):
502 Protocol for a collaborative meta-analysis of 5-HTTLPR, stress, and depression. *BMC Psychiatry*.
503 13: 304.
- 504 19. Purcell SM, Wray NR, Stone JL, Visscher PM, O'Donovan MC, Sullivan PF, Sklar P (2009): Common
505 polygenic variation contributes to risk of schizophrenia and bipolar disorder. *Nature*. 460: 748–
506 52.
- 507 20. Kendler KS, Gardner CO (2010): Interpretation of interactions: guide for the perplexed. *Br J*
508 *Psychiatry*. 197: 170–1.
- 509 21. Demirkan A, Penninx BWJH, Hek K, Wray NR, Amin N, Aulchenko YS, *et al.* (2011): Genetic risk
510 profiles for depression and anxiety in adult and elderly cohorts. *Mol Psychiatry*. 16: 773–83.
- 511 22. Peyrot WJ, Lee SH, Milaneschi Y, Abdellaoui A, Byrne EM, Esko T, *et al.* (2015): The association
512 between lower educational attainment and depression owing to shared genetic effects?
513 Results in ~25 000 subjects. *Mol Psychiatry*. . doi: 10.1038/mp.2015.50.
- 514 23. Wray NR, Pergadia ML, Blackwood DHR, Penninx BWJH, Gordon SD, Nyholt DR, *et al.* (2012):
515 Genome-wide association study of major depressive disorder: new results, meta-analysis, and
516 lessons learned. *Mol Psychiatry*. 17: 36–48.
- 517 24. Clarke H, Flint J, Attwood a S, Munafò MR (2010): Association of the 5- HTTLPR genotype and
518 unipolar depression: a meta-analysis. *Psychol Med*. 40: 1767–78.
- 519 25. Hovens JGFM, Wiersma JE, Giltay EJ, van Oppen P, Spinhoven P, Penninx BWJH, Zitman FG
520 (2010): Childhood life events and childhood trauma in adult patients with depressive, anxiety
521 and comorbid disorders vs. controls. *Acta Psychiatr Scand*. 122: 66–74.
- 522 26. Teicher MH, Samson J a (2013): Childhood maltreatment and psychopathology: A case for
523 ecophenotypic variants as clinically and neurobiologically distinct subtypes. *Am J Psychiatry*.
524 170: 1114–33.
- 525 27. Peyrot WJ, Milaneschi Y, Abdellaoui A, Sullivan PF, Hottenga JJ, Boomsma DI, Penninx BWJH
526 (2014): Effect of polygenic risk scores on depression in childhood trauma. *Br J Psychiatry*. 205:

- 527 113–119.
- 528 28. Mullins N, Power RA, Fisher HL, Hanscombe KB, Euesden J, Iniesta R, *et al.* (2015): Polygenic
529 interactions with environmental adversity in the aetiology of major depressive disorder.
530 *Psychol Med.* 1–12.
- 531 29. Major Depressive Disorder Working Group of the PGC (2017): Genome-wide association analyses
532 identify 44 risk variants and refine the genetic architecture of major depressive disorder.
533 *bioRxiv*. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/167577>.
- 534 30. Bulik-Sullivan B, Finucane HK, Anttila V, Gusev A, Day FR, Loh P-R, *et al.* (2015): An atlas of
535 genetic correlations across human diseases and traits. *Nat Genet.* . doi: 10.1038/ng.3406.
- 536 31. Baune BT, Air T (2016): Clinical, Functional, and Biological Correlates of Cognitive Dimensions in
537 Major Depressive Disorder - Rationale, Design, and Characteristics of the Cognitive Function
538 and Mood Study (CoFaM-Study). *Front psychiatry.* 7: 150.
- 539 32. Mostafavi S, Battle A, Zhu X, Potash JB, Weissman MM, Shi J, *et al.* (2014): Type I interferon
540 signaling genes in recurrent major depression: increased expression detected by whole-blood
541 RNA sequencing. *Mol Psychiatry.* 19: 1267–74.
- 542 33. Penninx BWJH, Beekman ATF, Smit JH, Zitman FG, Nolen WA, Spinhoven P, *et al.* (2008): The
543 Netherlands Study of Depression and Anxiety (NESDA): rationale, objectives and methods. *Int J*
544 *Methods Psychiatr Res.* 17: 121–40.
- 545 34. Lewis CM, Ng MY, Butler AW, Cohen-Woods S, Uher R, Pirlo K, *et al.* (2010): Genome-wide
546 association study of major recurrent depression in the U.K. population. *Am J Psychiatry.* 167:
547 949–57.
- 548 35. Völzke H, Alte D, Schmidt CO, Radke D, Lorbeer R, Friedrich N, *et al.* (2011): Cohort profile: the
549 study of health in Pomerania. *Int J Epidemiol.* 40: 294–307.
- 550 36. Bernstein DP, Stein J a, Newcomb MD, Walker E, Pogge D, Ahluvalia T, *et al.* (2003): Development
551 and validation of a brief screening version of the Childhood Trauma Questionnaire. *Child Abuse*
552 *Negl.* 27: 169–190.
- 553 37. Spinhoven P, Penninx BW, Hickendorff M, van Hemert AM, Bernstein DP, Elzinga BM (2014):
554 Childhood Trauma Questionnaire: factor structure, measurement invariance, and validity
555 across emotional disorders. *Psychol Assess.* 26: 717–29.
- 556 38. Abecasis GR, Altshuler D, Auton A, Brooks LD, Durbin RM, Gibbs RA, *et al.* (2010): A map of
557 human genome variation from population-scale sequencing. *Nature.* 467: 1061–73.
- 558 39. Chang CC, Chow CC, Tellier LC, Vattikuti S, Purcell SM, Lee JJ (2015): Second-generation PLINK:
559 rising to the challenge of larger and richer datasets. *Gigascience.* 4: 7.
- 560 40. Yang J, Lee SH, Goddard ME, Visscher PM (2011): GCTA: a tool for genome-wide complex trait

- 561 analysis. *Am J Hum Genet.* 88: 76–82.
- 562 41. Fernandez-Pujals AM, Adams MJ, Thomson P, McKeachie AG, Blackwood DHR, Smith BH, *et al.*
563 (2015): Epidemiology and Heritability of Major Depressive Disorder, Stratified by Age of Onset,
564 Sex, and Illness Course in Generation Scotland: Scottish Family Health Study (GS:SFHS). (K.
565 Ebmeier, editor) *PLoS One.* 10: e0142197.
- 566 42. Smith BH, Campbell A, Linksted P, Fitzpatrick B, Jackson C, Kerr SM, *et al.* (2013): Cohort Profile:
567 Generation Scotland: Scottish Family Health Study (GS:SFHS). The study, its participants and
568 their potential for genetic research on health and illness. *Int J Epidemiol.* 42: 689–700.
- 569 43. Banda Y, Kvale MN, Hoffmann TJ, Hesselson SE, Ranatunga D, Tang H, *et al.* (2015):
570 Characterizing Race/Ethnicity and Genetic Ancestry for 100,000 Subjects in the Genetic
571 Epidemiology Research on Adult Health and Aging (GERA) Cohort. *Genetics.* 200: 1285–95.
- 572 44. Smith DJ, Nicholl BI, Cullen B, Martin D, Ul-Haq Z, Evans J, *et al.* (2013): Prevalence and
573 characteristics of probable major depression and bipolar disorder within UK biobank: cross-
574 sectional study of 172,751 participants. (J. B. Potash, editor) *PLoS One.* 8: e75362.
- 575 45. Sudlow C, Gallacher J, Allen N, Beral V, Burton P, Danesh J, *et al.* (2015): UK biobank: an open
576 access resource for identifying the causes of a wide range of complex diseases of middle and
577 old age. *PLoS Med.* 12: e1001779.
- 578 46. Sklar P, Ripke S, Scott LJ, Andreassen OA, Cichon S, Craddock N, Edenberg HJ Jr, Nurnberger JI,
579 Rietschel M, Blackwood D, Corvin A, Flickinger M, Guan W, Mattingsdal M, McQuillen A, Kwan
580 P, Wienker TF, Daly M, Dudbridge F, Holmans PA, Lin D, Burmeister M, PS (2011): Large-scale
581 genome-wide association analysis of bipolar disorder identifies a new susceptibility locus near
582 ODZ4. *Nat Genet.* 43: 977–83.
- 583 47. Graaf R de, Have M ten, Gool C van, Dorsselaer S van (2012): Prevalence of mental disorders and
584 trends from 1996 to 2009. Results from the Netherlands Mental Health Survey and Incidence
585 Study-2. *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol.* 47: 203–13.
- 586 48. Keller MC (2014): Gene \times environment interaction studies have not properly controlled for
587 potential confounders: the problem and the (simple) solution. *Biol Psychiatry.* 75: 18–24.
- 588 49. Knol MJ, van der Tweel I, Grobbee DE, Numans ME, Geerlings MI (2007): Estimating interaction
589 on an additive scale between continuous determinants in a logistic regression model. *Int J*
590 *Epidemiol.* 36: 1111–8.
- 591 50. Lee SH, Goddard ME, Wray NR, Visscher PM (2012): A Better Coefficient of Determination for
592 Genetic Profile Analysis. *Genet Epidemiol.* 36: 214–224.
- 593 51. R Core Team (2015): R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. . Retrieved from
594 <http://www.r-project.org>.

- 595 52. Golan D, Lander ES, Rosset S (2014): Measuring missing heritability: Inferring the contribution of
596 common variants. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 111: E5272–81.
- 597 53. Falconer D (1952): The problem of environment and selection. *Am Nat*. . Retrieved April 18,
598 2016, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2457811>.
- 599 54. Purcell S (2002): Variance components models for gene-environment interaction in twin analysis.
600 *Twin Res*. 5: 554–71.
- 601 55. Palla L, Dudbridge F (2015): A Fast Method that Uses Polygenic Scores to Estimate the Variance
602 Explained by Genome-wide Marker Panels and the Proportion of Variants Affecting a Trait. *Am*
603 *J Hum Genet*. 97: 250–9.
- 604 56. Eaves LJ (2006): Genotype x Environment interaction in psychopathology: fact or artifact? *Twin*
605 *Res Hum Genet*. 9: 1–8.
- 606 57. Kraft P, Yen Y, Stram O, Morrison J (2007): Exploiting Gene-Environment Interaction. 02115: 111–
607 119.
- 608 58. Sullivan PF (2007): Spurious genetic associations. *Biol Psychiatry*. 61: 1121–6.
- 609
- 610
- 611

612 Legend to Table 1

613 Information is displayed for the cohorts that assessed childhood trauma with the Childhood Trauma
614 Questionnaire (CTQ) covering the 5 domains of sexual abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse, physical neglect
615 and emotional neglect in a dichotomous 5-domain indicator (exposed versus unexposed) and continuous
616 measure (ranging from 25-125). For the dichotomous CT measure, the proportion of exposed individuals is
617 presented in cases, controls, and in terms of the full population (Pop) assuming a population prevalence of
618 MDD of 15% with twice the prevalence in females (20%) as in males (10%), as well as the odds ratio (OR) of
619 exposed versus unexposed to develop MDD. For the continuous CT measure, the means are displayed in the
620 original scale, and the odds ratio for MDD was assessed for the CTQ measure scaled to variance 1, and can
621 thus be interpreted as increased odds per standard deviation (SD) increase in childhood trauma. The ORs were
622 estimated with logistic regression including sex as covariate. The ORs in the Total sample were estimated with
623 random effect meta-analysis.

624

625 Legend to Figure 1.

626 Forest plot of impact on major depressive disorder of the continuous childhood trauma (CT) score
627 covering the 5 domains of sexual abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse, emotional neglect, and
628 physical neglect. The odds ratio (OR) represents one standard deviation increased in CT. SHIP-O,
629 SHIP-T and QIMR are community studies with MDD cases and screened controls defined from
630 responses to self-report questionnaires, whilst the other studies recruit MDD cases from in- or out-
631 patient clinics and recruit screened controls with both cases and controls completing the same
632 childhood trauma questionnaires.

633

634 Legend to Table 2

635 The impact on major depressive disorder (MDD) is displayed for polygenic risk scores (PRS) and their
636 interaction with the 5-domain continuous childhood trauma (CT) measure including sexual abuse, physical
637 abuse, emotional abuse, physical neglect and emotional neglect. The impact of the PRS is presented as the
638 odds ratio (OR) from logistic regression corrected for sex and three principal components, as well as with the
639 variance explained by the PRS on the liability scale. Interaction of PRS with CT (PRSxCT) was assessed as
640 departure from multiplicativity with logistic regression while additionally correcting for the main effects of PRS
641 and CT. Interaction as departure from additivity was expressed as the relative excess risks due to interaction
642 (RERI) estimated as described in the main text, and their 95% confidence intervals (CI) were estimated with
643 bootstrapping with 10,000 iterations. The PRS were based on discovery GWAS results from MDD,
644 schizophrenia (SCZ) and bipolar disorder (BIP). Results in the Total sample were based on random-effect meta-
645 analysis of the effects in the individual cohorts.

646

647 Legend to Table 3

648 The impact on major depressive disorder (MDD) is displayed for polygenic risk scores (PRS) and their
649 interaction with the childhood trauma (CT) dichotomous indicator covering sexual abuse and physical abuse
650 (broad definition). The prevalence of CT is presented in MDD cases, controls, and in terms of the full
651 population (Pop) assuming a population prevalence of MDD of 15% with twice the prevalence in females (20%)
652 as in males (10%). The impact of the PRS and CT is presented as the odds ratio (OR) from logistic regression
653 corrected for sex and three principal components, as well as with the variance explained by the PRS on the
654 liability scale. Interaction of PRS with CT (PRSxCT) was assessed as departure from multiplicativity with logistic
655 regression while additionally correcting for the main effects of PRS and CT. The PRS were based on discovery
656 GWAS results from MDD including all SNPs, i.e. with significance threshold $p < 1$.
657

Table 1. Number of depression cases and controls and the 5-domain childhood trauma (CT) measure.

Cohort	N		Dichotomous CT indicator				Continuous CT measure		
			Proportion of CT			OR (p-value)	Mean (SD)		OR (p-value)
	Case	Control	Case	Control	Pop		Case	Control	
Male and female									
COFAMS	56	22	0.70	0.23	0.30	7.22 (8.6e-04)	54.7 (21.4)	33.2 (11.6)	5.60 (1.2e-03)
NESDA	1143	272	0.53	0.21	0.26	4.18 (6.9e-19)	43.0 (14.6)	33.6 (9.1)	3.29 (3.4e-21)
RADIANT UK	269	267	0.62	0.18	0.24	7.60 (1.1e-22)	46.4 (16.2)	32.7 (8.8)	4.08 (7.4e-21)
SHIP-0	340	993	0.36	0.23	0.25	1.94 (1.1e-06)	37.4 (12.3)	33.0 (8.4)	1.52 (7.4e-11)
SHIP-TREND	149	448	0.28	0.15	0.17	2.43 (1.5e-04)	36.9 (14.2)	31.6 (7.3)	1.72 (2.4e-07)
Total	1957	2002	0.50	0.21	0.25	3.80 (3.0e-06)	42.4 (15.1)	32.7 (8.4)	2.62 (1.4e-05)
Male only									
COFAMS	20	12	0.55	0.25	0.28	3.67 (1.1e-01)	50.2 (19.9)	34.8 (14.5)	2.94 (4.4e-02)
NESDA	357	111	0.53	0.19	0.22	4.70 (5.4e-09)	42.0 (13.5)	33.4 (9.1)	3.17 (3.4e-09)
RADIANT UK	73	109	0.62	0.18	0.23	7.42 (7.8e-09)	45.5 (14.5)	33.2 (9.1)	3.43 (4.4e-08)
SHIP-0	112	562	0.39	0.25	0.26	1.95 (1.8e-03)	37.0 (9.1)	33.2 (7.8)	1.48 (1.8e-05)
SHIP-TREND	44	246	0.27	0.18	0.19	1.71 (1.5e-01)	35.7 (10.9)	32.3 (7.5)	1.42 (1.3e-02)
Total	606	1040	0.49	0.22	0.25	3.30 (8.7e-05)	41.3 (13.4)	33.0 (8.2)	2.18 (1.1e-04)
Female only									
COFAMS	36	10	0.78	0.20	0.32	14.0 (2.9e-03)	57.2 (22.0)	31.4 (7.0)	18.44 (2.2e-02)
NESDA	786	161	0.53	0.23	0.29	3.90 (2.1e-11)	43.5 (15.1)	33.7 (9.0)	3.30 (1.5e-13)
RADIANT UK	196	158	0.61	0.17	0.26	7.70 (2.4e-15)	46.8 (16.8)	32.3 (8.6)	4.41 (3.0e-14)
SHIP-0	228	431	0.35	0.22	0.24	1.94 (1.7e-04)	37.5 (13.6)	32.6 (9.0)	1.57 (5.5e-07)
SHIP-TREND	105	202	0.29	0.11	0.15	3.10 (2.6e-04)	37.4 (15.4)	30.7 (6.9)	2.04 (1.2e-05)
Total	1351	962	0.50	0.19	0.25	4.03 (2.5e-06)	42.8 (15.8)	32.3 (8.6)	2.74 (3.6e-05)

658

659

660

Table 2. Impact on major depressive disorder of polygenic risk scores and their interaction with the 5-domain childhood trauma (CT) continuous measure of sexual abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse, physical neglect and emotional neglect

Discovery	N		Impact on MDD					
			PRS			PRSxCT		
	Case	Control	OR	P	R2 (SE, %)	OR	P	RERI (95% CI)
COFAMS								
MDD p<1	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13 (4.61)	0.38 (0.08:1.74)	0.201	-2.07 (NA-NA)
SCZ p<0.05	56	22	1.18 (0.59:2.33)	0.623	0.54 (1.95)	0.01 (0.00:0.37)	0.030	-62.80 (NA-NA)
BIP p<0.5	56	22	0.85 (0.44:1.58)	0.612	0.44 (1.77)	0.13 (0.01:0.96)	0.076	-2.46 (NA-NA)
NESDA								
MDD p<1	1143	272	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.33 (0.84)	1.08 (0.83:1.39)	0.556	1.06 (-1.07:10.48)
SCZ p<0.05	1143	272	1.25 (1.07:1.46)	0.006	1.02 (0.74)	0.91 (0.68:1.22)	0.510	0.39 (-1.18:8.78)
BIP p<0.5	1143	272	1.14 (1.00:1.31)	0.049	0.53 (0.53)	1.19 (0.92:1.52)	0.182	1.97 (-0.28:17.61)
RADIANT UK								
MDD p<1	269	267	1.64 (1.35:2.00)	6.8e-07	5.90 (2.19)	0.93 (0.66:1.31)	0.670	4.42 (-1.78:178.22)
SCZ p<0.05	269	267	1.61 (1.31:2.01)	1.3e-05	4.44 (1.92)	0.90 (0.62:1.30)	0.581	9.87 (-0.43:275.79)
BIP p<0.5	269	267	1.19 (1.00:1.43)	0.053	0.85 (0.86)	1.02 (0.75:1.38)	0.920	4.25 (-0.95:137.22)
SHIP-0								
MDD p<1	340	993	1.30 (1.14:1.48)	1.0e-04	1.81 (0.91)	1.02 (0.89:1.18)	0.737	0.52 (-0.18:2.86)
SCZ p<0.05	340	993	1.05 (0.91:1.22)	0.470	0.06 (0.17)	0.95 (0.83:1.10)	0.497	-0.22 (-0.97:0.60)
BIP p<0.5	340	993	0.95 (0.84:1.09)	0.477	0.06 (0.16)	0.92 (0.81:1.05)	0.230	-0.12 (-0.89:0.96)
SHIP-TREND								
MDD p<1	149	448	1.33 (1.09:1.63)	0.005	2.10 (1.47)	1.28 (0.96:1.72)	0.103	0.22 (-0.50:1.43)
SCZ p<0.05	149	448	1.10 (0.89:1.37)	0.379	0.20 (0.46)	0.90 (0.71:1.15)	0.404	-0.09 (-1.09:1.62)
BIP p<0.5	149	448	1.20 (0.99:1.46)	0.071	0.86 (0.95)	1.05 (0.85:1.32)	0.659	0.07 (-0.75:1.51)
Total								
MDD p<0.01	1957	2002	1.22 (1.08:1.37)	0.001	0.58 (0.26)	1.02 (0.89:1.17)	0.790	-0.17 (-2.86:10.25)
MDD p<0.05	1957	2002	1.29 (1.14:1.45)	4.0e-05	1.08 (0.36)	0.98 (0.79:1.22)	0.846	0.27 (-2.46:15.37)
MDD p<0.1	1957	2002	1.34 (1.18:1.53)	1.0e-05	1.49 (0.42)	1.01 (0.84:1.22)	0.910	0.51 (-2.02:15.72)
MDD p<0.5	1957	2002	1.35 (1.22:1.48)	2.2e-09	1.70 (0.45)	1.03 (0.86:1.23)	0.755	0.84 (-0.52:22.18)
MDD p<1	1957	2002	1.34 (1.23:1.47)	5.1e-11	1.71 (0.45)	1.05 (0.91:1.20)	0.519	0.83 (-0.62:18.03)
SCZ p<0.05	1957	2002	1.22 (1.04:1.43)	0.013	0.57 (0.26)	0.91 (0.79:1.04)	0.172	-0.15 (-2.87:11.06)
BIP p<0.5	1957	2002	1.10 (0.98:1.23)	0.114	0.16 (0.14)	1.00 (0.85:1.18)	0.997	0.39 (-1.13:20.78)

661

662

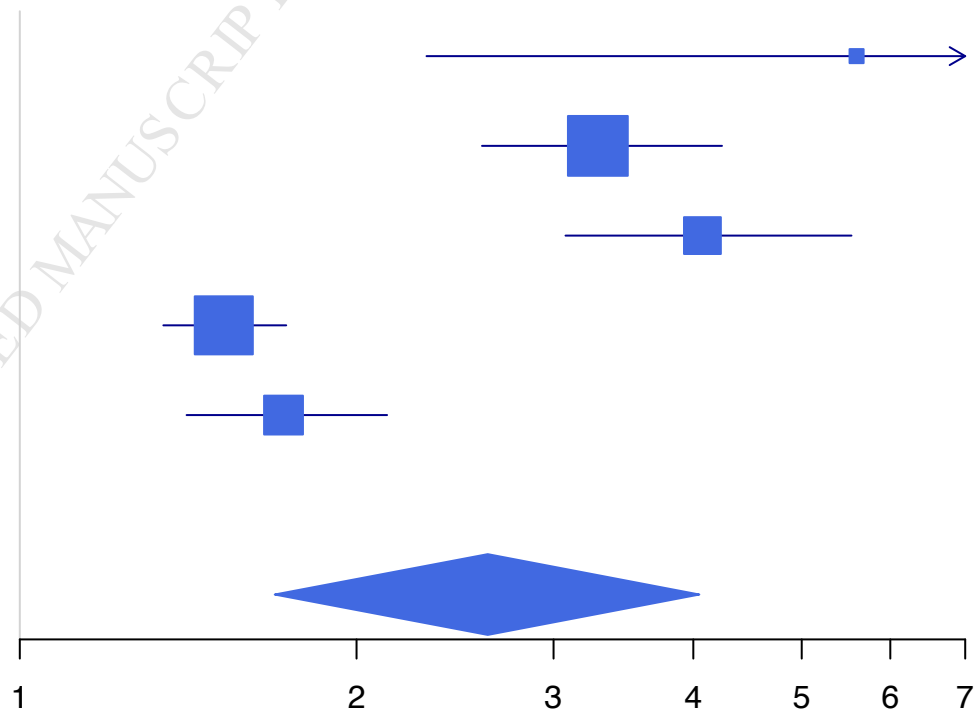
663

Table 3. Proportion exposed to childhood trauma (CT) measured as either sexual or physical abuse, and its interaction with polygenic risk scores (PRS with SNP threshold $p < 1$) in predicting major depressive disorder (MDD)

Cohorts	N		Proportion exposed to CT			Impact on MDD						
						CT		PRS			PRSxCT	
	Case	Control	Case	Control	Pop	OR	P	OR	P	R ² (SE, %)	OR	P
COFAMS	56	22	0.43	0.27	0.30	1.85	0.268	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13 (4.61)	0.51 (0.21:1.05)	0.088
DGN	461	458	0.40	0.20	0.22	2.49	1.9e-09	1.30 (1.13:1.50)	2.5e-04	1.77 (0.94)	1.06 (0.91:1.22)	0.465
NESDA	1133	271	0.32	0.11	0.14	3.83	8.3e-11	1.24 (1.09:1.43)	0.002	1.36 (0.85)	1.06 (0.87:1.28)	0.587
QIMR_3	186	55	0.44	0.18	0.22	3.66	7.0e-04	1.07 (0.79:1.46)	0.670	0.13 (0.60)	0.82 (0.52:1.25)	0.355
QIMR_3_M7	126	29	0.48	0.31	0.34	2.10	0.092	1.16 (0.75:1.80)	0.494	0.66 (1.80)	0.83 (0.49:1.40)	0.496
QIMR_6	121	107	0.38	0.23	0.29	2.05	0.016	0.90 (0.67:1.19)	0.452	0.30 (0.78)	0.87 (0.61:1.22)	0.418
QIMR_C	180	46	0.40	0.33	0.33	1.36	0.387	0.83 (0.58:1.17)	0.297	0.92 (1.70)	0.89 (0.60:1.30)	0.564
RADIANT UK	262	263	0.42	0.15	0.19	4.33	1.5e-11	1.61 (1.33:1.97)	2.1e-06	5.46 (2.14)	1.04 (0.83:1.30)	0.761
SHIP_0	352	1042	0.22	0.12	0.14	2.10	6.0e-06	1.31 (1.15:1.49)	4.2e-05	1.95 (0.93)	0.97 (0.86:1.10)	0.606
SHIP-TREND	147	448	0.20	0.08	0.10	2.77	2.0e-04	1.34 (1.09:1.64)	0.005	2.14 (1.50)	1.08 (0.88:1.35)	0.460
Total	3024	2741	0.35	0.14	0.17	2.63	3.5e-18	1.24 (1.12:1.37)	3.6e-05	1.18 (0.31)	1.00 (0.93:1.07)	0.894

664

Cohort	Cases	Controls	OR
COFAMS	56	22	5.60
NESDA	1143	272	3.29
RADIANT UK	269	267	4.08
SHIP-0	340	993	1.52
SHIP-TREND	149	448	1.72
Total	1957	2002	2.62



Does Childhood Trauma Moderate Polygenic Risk for Depression? A Meta-analysis of 5,765 Subjects From the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium

Supplemental Information

Major Depressive Disorder Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium

Naomi R Wray* 1, 2
 Stephan Ripke* 3, 4, 5
 Manuel Mattheisen* 6, 7, 8, 9
 Maciej Trzaskowski* 1
 Enda M Byrne 1
 Abdel Abdellaoui 10
 Mark J Adams 11
 Esben Agerbo 9, 12, 13
 Tracy M Air 14
 Till F M Andlauer 15, 16
 Silviu-Alin Bacanu 17
 Marie Bækvad-Hansen 9, 18
 Aartjan T F Beekman 19
 Tim B Bigdeli 17, 20
 Elisabeth B Binder 15, 21
 Douglas H R Blackwood 11
 Julien Bryois 22
 Henriette N Buttenschøn 8, 9, 23
 Jonas Bybjerg-Grauholm 9, 18
 Na Cai 24, 25
 Enriqué Castela 26
 Jane Hvarregaard Christensen 7, 8, 9
 Toni-Kim Clarke 11
 Jonathan R I Coleman 27
 Lucía Colodro-Conde 28
 Baptiste Couvy-Duchesne 29, 30
 Nick Craddock 31
 Gregory E Crawford 32, 33
 Gail Davies 34
 Ian J Deary 34
 Franziska Degenhardt 35, 36
 Eske M Derks 28
 Nese Direk 37, 38
 Conor V Dolan 10
 Erin C Dunn 39, 40, 41
 Thalia C Eley 27
 Valentina Escott-Price 42
 Farnush Farhadi Hassan
 Kiadeh 43
 Hilary K Finucane 44, 45
 Andreas J Forstner 35, 36, 46, 47
 Josef Frank 48
 Héléna A Gaspar 27
 Michael Gill 49
 Fernando S Goes 50
 Scott D Gordon 51
 Jakob Grove 7, 8, 9, 52
 Lynsey S Hall 11, 53
 Christine Sørholm Hansen 9, 18
 Thomas F Hansen 54, 55, 56
 Stefan Herms 35, 36, 47
 Ian B Hickie 57
 Per Hoffmann 35, 36, 47
 Georg Homuth 58
 Carsten Horn 59
 Jouke-Jan Hottenga 10
 David M Hougaard 9, 18
 Marcus Ising 60
 Rick Jansen 19, 19
 Eric Jorgenson 61
 James A Knowles 62
 Isaac S Kohane 63, 64, 65
 Julia Kraft 4
 Warren W. Kretschmar 66
 Jesper Krogh 67
 Zoltán Kutalik 68, 69
 Yihan Li 66
 Penelope A Lind 28
 Donald J MacIntyre 70, 71
 Dean F MacKinnon 50
 Robert M Maier 2
 Wolfgang Maier 72
 Jonathan Marchini 73
 Hamdi Mbarek 10
 Patrick McGrath 74
 Peter McGuffin 27
 Sarah E Medland 28
 Divya Mehta 2, 75
 Christel M Middeldorp 10, 76, 77
 Evelin Mihailov 78
 Yuri Milaneschi 19, 19
 Lili Milani 78
 Francis M Mondimore 50
 Grant W Montgomery 1
 Sara Mostafavi 79, 80
 Niamh Mullins 27
 Matthias Nauck 81, 82
 Bernard Ng 80
 Michel G Nivard 10
 Dale R Nyholt 83
 Paul F O'Reilly 27
 Hogni Oskarsson 84
 Michael J Owen 85
 Jodie N Painter 28
 Carsten Bøcker Pedersen 9, 12, 13
 Marianne Giørtz Pedersen 9, 12, 13
 Roseann E. Peterson 17, 86
 Erik Pettersson 22
 Wouter J Peyrot 19
 Giorgio Pistis 26
 Danielle Posthuma 87, 88
 Jorge A Quiroz 89
 Per Qvist 7, 8, 9
 John P Rice 90
 Brien P. Riley 17
 Margarita Rivera 27, 91
 Saira Saeed Mirza 37
 Robert Schoevers 92
 Eva C Schulte 93, 94
 Ling Shen 61
 Jianxin Shi 95
 Stanley I Shyn 96
 Engilbert Sigurdsson 97

Grant C B Sinnamon 98
Johannes H Smit 19
Daniel J Smith 99
Hreinn Stefansson 100
Stacy Steinberg 100
Fabian Streit 48
Jana Strohmaier 48
Katherine E Tansey 101
Henning Teismann 102
Alexander Teumer 103
Wesley Thompson 9, 55, 104,
105
Pippa A Thomson 106
Thorgeir E Thorgeirsson 100
Matthew Traylor 107
Jens Treutlein 48
Vassily Trubetskoy 4
André G Uitterlinden 108
Daniel Umbricht 109
Sandra Van der Auwera 110
Albert M van Hemert 111
Alexander Viktorin 22
Peter M Visscher 1, 2
Yunpeng Wang 9, 55, 105
Bradley T. Webb 112
Shantel Marie Weinsheimer 9,
55
Jürgen Wellmann 102
Gonneke Willemsen 10
Stephanie H Witt 48
Yang Wu 1
Hualin S Xi 113
Jian Yang 2, 114
Futao Zhang 1
Volker Arolt 115
Bernhard T Baune 14
Klaus Berger 102
Dorret I Boomsma 10
Sven Cichon 35, 47, 116, 117
Udo Dannlowski 115
EJC de Geus 10, 118
J Raymond DePaulo 50
Enrico Domenici 119
Katharina Domschke 120
Tõnu Esko 5, 78
Hans J Grabe 110
Steven P Hamilton 121
Caroline Hayward 122
Andrew C Heath 90
Kenneth S Kendler 17
Stefan Kloiber 60, 123, 124
Glyn Lewis 125
Qingqin S Li 126
Susanne Lucae 60
Pamela AF Madden 90
Patrik K Magnusson 22
Nicholas G Martin 51
Andrew M McIntosh 11, 34
Andres Metspalu 78, 127
Ole Mors 9, 128
Preben Bo Mortensen 8, 9, 12,
13
Bertram Müller-Myhsok 15,
16, 129
Merete Nordentoft 9, 130
Markus M Nöthen 35, 36
Michael C O'Donovan 85
Sara A Paciga 131
Nancy L Pedersen 22
Brenda WJH Penninx 19
Roy H Perlis 39, 132
David J Porteous 106
James B Potash 133
Martin Preisig 26
Marcella Rietschel 48
Catherine Schaefer 61
Thomas G Schulze 48, 94, 134,
135, 136
Jordan W Smoller 39, 40, 41
Kari Stefansson 100, 137
Henning Tiemeier 37, 138, 139
Rudolf Uher 140
Henry Völzke 103
Myrna M Weissman 74, 141
Thomas Werge 9, 55, 142
Cathryn M Lewis* 27, 143
Douglas F Levinson* 144
Gerome Breen* 27, 145
Anders D Børglum* 7, 8, 9
Patrick F Sullivan* 22, 146,
147,

- 1, Institute for Molecular Bioscience, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, AU
- 2, Queensland Brain Institute, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, AU
- 3, Analytic and Translational Genetics Unit, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, US
- 4, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Universitätsmedizin Berlin Campus Charité Mitte, Berlin, DE
- 5, Medical and Population Genetics, Broad Institute, Cambridge, MA, US
- 6, Centre for Psychiatry Research, Department of Clinical Neuroscience, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, SE
- 7, Department of Biomedicine, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK
- 8, iSEQ, Centre for Integrative Sequencing, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK
- 9, iPSYCH, The Lundbeck Foundation Initiative for Integrative Psychiatric Research, DK
- 10, Dept of Biological Psychology & EMGO+ Institute for Health and Care Research, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam, NL
- 11, Division of Psychiatry, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, GB
- 12, Centre for Integrated Register-based Research, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK
- 13, National Centre for Register-Based Research, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK
- 14, Discipline of Psychiatry, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, SA, AU
- 15, Department of Translational Research in Psychiatry, Max Planck Institute of Psychiatry, Munich, DE
- 16, Munich Cluster for Systems Neurology (SyNergy), Munich, DE
- 17, Department of Psychiatry, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, US
- 18, Center for Neonatal Screening, Department for Congenital Disorders, Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen, DK
- 19, Department of Psychiatry, Vrije Universiteit Medical Center and GGZ inGeest, Amsterdam, NL
- 20, Virginia Institute for Psychiatric and Behavior Genetics, Richmond, VA, US
- 21, Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA, US
- 22, Department of Medical Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, SE
- 23, Department of Clinical Medicine, Translational Neuropsychiatry Unit, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK
- 24, Human Genetics, Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute, Cambridge, GB
- 25, Statistical genomics and systems genetics, European Bioinformatics Institute (EMBL-EBI), Cambridge, GB
- 26, Department of Psychiatry, University Hospital of Lausanne, Prilly, Vaud, CH
- 27, MRC Social Genetic and Developmental Psychiatry Centre, King's College London, London, GB
- 28, Genetics and Computational Biology, QIMR Berghofer Medical Research Institute, Herston, QLD, AU
- 29, Centre for Advanced Imaging, The University of Queensland, Saint Lucia, QLD, AU
- 30, Queensland Brain Institute, The University of Queensland, Saint Lucia, QLD, AU
- 31, Psychological Medicine, Cardiff University, Cardiff, GB
- 32, Center for Genomic and Computational Biology, Duke University, Durham, NC, US
- 33, Department of Pediatrics, Division of Medical Genetics, Duke University, Durham, NC, US
- 34, Centre for Cognitive Ageing and Cognitive Epidemiology, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, GB
- 35, Institute of Human Genetics, University of Bonn, Bonn, DE
- 36, Life&Brain Center, Department of Genomics, University of Bonn, Bonn, DE
- 37, Epidemiology, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, Zuid-Holland, NL
- 38, Psychiatry, Dokuz Eylul University School Of Medicine, Izmir, TR
- 39, Department of Psychiatry, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, US
- 40, Psychiatric and Neurodevelopmental Genetics Unit (PNGU), Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, US
- 41, Stanley Center for Psychiatric Research, Broad Institute, Cambridge, MA, US

- 42, Neuroscience and Mental Health, Cardiff University, Cardiff, GB
- 43, Bioinformatics, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, CA
- 44, Department of Epidemiology, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston, MA, US
- 45, Department of Mathematics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, US
- 46, Department of Psychiatry (UPK), University of Basel, Basel, CH
- 47, Human Genomics Research Group, Department of Biomedicine, University of Basel, Basel, CH
- 48, Department of Genetic Epidemiology in Psychiatry, Central Institute of Mental Health, Medical Faculty Mannheim, Heidelberg University, Mannheim, Baden-Württemberg, DE
- 49, Department of Psychiatry, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin, IE
- 50, Psychiatry & Behavioral Sciences, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, US
- 51, Genetics and Computational Biology, QIMR Berghofer Medical Research Institute, Brisbane, QLD, AU
- 52, Bioinformatics Research Centre, Aarhus University, Aarhus, DK
- 53, Institute of Genetic Medicine, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne, GB
- 54, Danish Headache Centre, Department of Neurology, Rigshospitalet, Glostrup, DK
- 55, Institute of Biological Psychiatry, Mental Health Center Sct. Hans, Mental Health Services Capital Region of Denmark, Copenhagen, DK
- 56, iPSYCH, The Lundbeck Foundation Initiative for Psychiatric Research, Copenhagen, DK
- 57, Brain and Mind Centre, University of Sydney, Sydney, NSW, AU
- 58, Interfaculty Institute for Genetics and Functional Genomics, Department of Functional Genomics, University Medicine and Ernst Moritz Arndt University Greifswald, Greifswald, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, DE
- 59, Roche Pharmaceutical Research and Early Development, Pharmaceutical Sciences, Roche Innovation Center Basel, F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd, Basel, CH
- 60, Max Planck Institute of Psychiatry, Munich, DE
- 61, Division of Research, Kaiser Permanente Northern California, Oakland, CA, US
- 62, Psychiatry & The Behavioral Sciences, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA, US
- 63, Department of Biomedical Informatics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, US
- 64, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, MA, US
- 65, Informatics Program, Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, MA, US
- 66, Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, University of Oxford, Oxford, GB
- 67, Department of Endocrinology at Herlev University Hospital, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, DK
- 68, Institute of Social and Preventive Medicine (IUMSP), University Hospital of Lausanne, Lausanne, VD, CH
- 69, Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics, Lausanne, VD, CH
- 70, Division of Psychiatry, Centre for Clinical Brain Sciences, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, GB
- 71, Mental Health, NHS 24, Glasgow, GB
- 72, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University of Bonn, Bonn, DE
- 73, Statistics, University of Oxford, Oxford, GB
- 74, Psychiatry, Columbia University College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York, NY, US
- 75, School of Psychology and Counseling, Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, QLD, AU
- 76, Child and Youth Mental Health Service, Children's Health Queensland Hospital and Health Service, South Brisbane, QLD, AU
- 77, Child Health Research Centre, University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, AU
- 78, Estonian Genome Center, University of Tartu, Tartu, EE
- 79, Medical Genetics, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, CA
- 80, Statistics, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, CA
- 81, DZHK (German Centre for Cardiovascular Research), Partner Site Greifswald, University Medicine, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, DE

- 82, Institute of Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, DE
- 83, Institute of Health and Biomedical Innovation, Queensland University of Technology, Brisbane, QLD, AU
- 84, Humus, Reykjavik, IS
- 85, MRC Centre for Neuropsychiatric Genetics and Genomics, Cardiff University, Cardiff, GB
- 86, Virginia Institute for Psychiatric & Behavioral Genetics, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, US
- 87, Clinical Genetics, Vrije Universiteit Medical Center, Amsterdam, NL
- 88, Complex Trait Genetics, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Amsterdam, NL
- 89, Solid Biosciences, Boston, MA, US
- 90, Department of Psychiatry, Washington University in Saint Louis School of Medicine, Saint Louis, MO, US
- 91, Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology II, Institute of Neurosciences, Center for Biomedical Research, University of Granada, Granada, ES
- 92, Department of Psychiatry, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, Groningen, NL
- 93, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Medical Center of the University of Munich, Campus Innenstadt, Munich, DE
- 94, Institute of Psychiatric Phenomics and Genomics (IPPG), Medical Center of the University of Munich, Campus Innenstadt, Munich, DE
- 95, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD, US
- 96, Behavioral Health Services, Kaiser Permanente Washington, Seattle, WA, US
- 97, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Psychiatry, University of Iceland, Reykjavik, IS
- 98, School of Medicine and Dentistry, James Cook University, Townsville, QLD, AU
- 99, Institute of Health and Wellbeing, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, GB
- 100, deCODE Genetics / Amgen, Reykjavik, IS
- 101, College of Biomedical and Life Sciences, Cardiff University, Cardiff, GB
- 102, Institute of Epidemiology and Social Medicine, University of Münster, Münster, Nordrhein-Westfalen, DE
- 103, Institute for Community Medicine, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, DE
- 104, Department of Psychiatry, University of California, San Diego, San Diego, CA, US
- 105, KG Jebsen Centre for Psychosis Research, Norway Division of Mental Health and Addiction, Oslo University Hospital, Oslo, NO
- 106, Medical Genetics Section, CGEM, IGMM, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, GB
- 107, Clinical Neurosciences, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, GB
- 108, Internal Medicine, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, Zuid-Holland, NL
- 109, Roche Pharmaceutical Research and Early Development, Neuroscience, Ophthalmology and Rare Diseases Discovery & Translational Medicine Area, Roche Innovation Center Basel, F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd, Basel, CH
- 110, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern, DE
- 111, Department of Psychiatry, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, NL
- 112, Virginia Institute of Psychiatric & Behavioral Genetics, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, US
- 113, Computational Sciences Center of Emphasis, Pfizer Global Research and Development, Cambridge, MA, US
- 114, Institute for Molecular Bioscience; Queensland Brain Institute, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, AU
- 115, Department of Psychiatry, University of Münster, Münster, Nordrhein-Westfalen, DE

- 116, Institute of Medical Genetics and Pathology, University Hospital Basel, University of Basel, Basel, CH
- 117, Institute of Neuroscience and Medicine (INM-1), Research Center Juelich, Juelich, DE
- 118, Amsterdam Public Health Institute, Vrije Universiteit Medical Center, Amsterdam, NL
- 119, Centre for Integrative Biology, Università degli Studi di Trento, Trento, Trentino-Alto Adige, IT
- 120, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Medical Center, University of Freiburg, Faculty of Medicine, University of Freiburg, Freiburg, DE
- 121, Psychiatry, Kaiser Permanente Northern California, San Francisco, CA, US
- 122, Medical Research Council Human Genetics Unit, Institute of Genetics and Molecular Medicine, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, GB
- 123, Department of Psychiatry, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, CA
- 124, Centre for Addiction and Mental Health, Toronto, ON, CA
- 125, Division of Psychiatry, University College London, London, GB
- 126, Neuroscience Therapeutic Area, Janssen Research and Development, LLC, Titusville, NJ, US
- 127, Institute of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of Tartu, Tartu, EE
- 128, Psychosis Research Unit, Aarhus University Hospital, Risskov, Aarhus, DK
- 129, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, GB
- 130, Mental Health Center Copenhagen, Copenhagen University Hospital, Copenhagen, DK
- 131, Human Genetics and Computational Biomedicine, Pfizer Global Research and Development, Groton, CT, US
- 132, Psychiatry, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, US
- 133, Psychiatry, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA, US
- 134, Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, US
- 135, Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University Medical Center Göttingen, Goettingen, Niedersachsen, DE
- 136, Human Genetics Branch, NIMH Division of Intramural Research Programs, Bethesda, MD, US
- 137, Faculty of Medicine, University of Iceland, Reykjavik, IS
- 138, Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, Zuid-Holland, NL
- 139, Psychiatry, Erasmus MC, Rotterdam, Zuid-Holland, NL
- 140, Psychiatry, Dalhousie University, Halifax, NS, CA
- 141, Division of Epidemiology, New York State Psychiatric Institute, New York, NY, US
- 142, Department of Clinical Medicine, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, DK
- 143, Department of Medical & Molecular Genetics, King's College London, London, GB
- 144, Psychiatry & Behavioral Sciences, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, US
- 145, NIHR BRC for Mental Health, King's College London, London, GB
- 146, Genetics, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC, US
- 147, Psychiatry, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, NC, US

Dichotomous Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ) score

The CTQ covers the five domains of sexual abuse (SA), physical abuse (PA), emotional abuse (EA), emotional neglect (EN), and physical neglect (PN). Each domain is assessed by five questions (scored 1 to 5) resulting in a domain score ranging from 5 to 25. Per domain, cutoffs were applied to define a narrow definition of childhood trauma separating no or mild trauma from moderate or severe trauma, based on cut-offs for moderate/severe of > 7 (SA), > 9 (PA), > 12 (EA), > 14 (EN), > 9 (PN) respectively. These cut-offs are based on the CTQ manual. From this, an overall dichotomous CTQ indicator was constructed to separate trauma in any of the five domains (1) from trauma in none of the domains (0).

Childhood trauma in DGN and QIMR

In the Depression Gene Network (DGN) cohort, sexual abuse was assessed with two questions: "Someone touched parts of your body in a sexual way, or had you touch parts of the person in a sexual way"; and "Someone had or attempted to have oral sex, anal sex, or sexual intercourse with you". Physical abuse in DGN was also assessed with two questions: "Someone outside your household physically attacked or assaulted you, threatened you with a weapon or held you captive"; and "Your mother, father or another adult household member hurt you on purpose (for example, beat, choked, kicked, cut or burned you)". The narrow definition was defined as at least one of four questions occurring frequently versus sometimes, rarely or never, and the broad definition as at least one of four questions occurring frequently or sometimes versus rarely or never. For data from the Queensland Institute of Medical Research (QIMR), two instruments were used to assess childhood trauma before the age of 18. Most QIMR individuals were assessed with an instrument covering sexual abuse: touching your sexual parts, you touching their sexual parts, or sexual intercourse (SA assessed with one question for family members and one question for non-family); and physical abuse: being punished by hitting (one question), hurting from punishment next day (one question), being physically injured on purpose (one question). The other QIMR individuals (on the QIMR_3 genotype-batch labeled as M7) were assessed with a questionnaire covering sexual abuse as the occurrence of: exposure to sexual organs, exposure to masturbation, being touched, attempt to have sex, and have sex (SA specified in 16 separate questions); and for physical abuse the occurrence of: being hit, kicked, choked, throttled or locked in by either father, father-figure, mother, or mother-figure (PA specified in 13 separate questions). For QIMR the narrow and broad definitions were defined as above, except for physical abuse from the second questionnaire (QIMR_3_M7) that didn't distinguish between occurring "frequently" and "sometimes" resulting in converging of the narrow and broad definitions. For the analyses, we applied the broad definition.

Simulation study 1: impact of gene-environment correlation in tests for GxE-interaction

Tests of genotype by environment interaction are known to be scale dependent. In a linear regression model, where a continuous phenotype is regressed on a measured genetic variant (e.g. a candidate gene) and a measured exposure, non-normality of the phenotypic distribution can give rise to spurious interaction effects. We considered this issue given logistic regression of a binary phenotype by means of a small simulation study. We generated phenotypic data based on 12 binary symptoms, which were related to an underlying normally distributed depression liability by a Rasch model (1). The parameters of the Rasch model were chosen so that the distribution of the sum scores based on the 12 symptoms was highly skewed. We dichotomized the sum score of these 12 symptoms to arrive at the binary phenotype with a prevalence of .20. The underlying normally distributed depression liability was subject to main effects of genes (A; explaining 38.8% of the liability variance) and the main effects of a given exposure (explaining 11.1%). There was no interaction effect (AxE). We considered the type I error rate α of the interaction effect, where we regressed the binary phenotype on A, the dichotomized exposure variable (E; prevalence .10) and on the interaction AxE. We set the nominal α at .05. We varied the correlation between the exposure and the genetic variable. Based on 10,000 replications, we observed an inflated type I error rate of the interaction effect as a function of the correlation between the genetic variable and the exposure. However, this inflation was relatively small. The observed type I error rate was .046 (zero correlation), .056 (correlation .15) and .0752 (correlation .30). Note that .056 and .0752 both deviate significantly from the nominal value of .05 ($p=.003$ and $p<.0001$, respectively). So in this scenario, which is based on the NESDA and Radiant-UK data, we note that we expect some type I error rate inflation. However, we conclude that the type I error rate inflation in test of GxE in the present set-up is small and does not render the test useless. Specifically, in the NESDA and Radiant-UK data the correlation between the genetic variable (polygenic risk score) and the exposure (childhood trauma) is likely to be very low (Table S5).

Simulation study 2

The aim of this simulation study is to aid interpretation of interaction analyses with polygenic risk score (PRS) by simulating different underlying genetic architectures.

Liability threshold model and the impact of childhood trauma (CT) on major depressive disorder (MDD)

Simulation is based on the liability-threshold model, which can be modeled as MDD underpinned by an unobserved liability, l_{MDD} , where individuals are affected when liability exceeds disease threshold, T_{MDD} . The liability is assumed to be normally distributed and scaled to a population mean of 0 and variance of 1 (which defines T_{MDD} given the prevalence of MDD K_{MDD}), and to result from independent normally distributed environmental (e_{MDD}) and genetic effects (g_{MDD}) with $l_{MDD} = g_{MDD} + e_{MDD}$, where $var(g_{MDD})/var(l_{MDD}) = var(g_{MDD}) = h_{l,MDD}^2$, the heritability of MDD on the liability scale. Here, we subdivide the environmental effects as $e_{MDD} = CT_{liability\ scale} + e_{residual,MDD}$. We assume that $CT_{observed\ scale}$ is represented by a dichotomous measure that labels individuals as exposed (1) or unexposed (0) with an odd ratio for MDD of exposed of OR_{CT} . For a prevalence of MDD of $K_{MDD} = 0.15$, prevalence of CT of $K_{CT} = 0.25$ and $OR_{CT} = 3.2$, the $CT_{observed\ scale}$ can be transformed to $CT_{liability\ scale}$ as -0.16 (unexposed) and 0.47 (exposed), and explains 7.4% of variation on the liability scale (Appendix A). Assuming a heritability of MDD of $h_{l,MDD}^2 = 0.35$, the variance explained by the residual environmental effects $e_{residual,MDD}$ follows as 57.6% (assuming that $CT_{liability\ scale}$, $e_{residual,MDD}$, and g_{MDD} are all independent). For Model 1, we consider CT as part of the environmental effects on MDD, but we note that CT has been found to be heritable itself (2); the consequences of which will be discussed later. In Model 1, we will, further, assume that the genetic and residual environmental effects are equal in those exposed and those unexposed to CT, which can thus be thought of as a “pure additive” model on the liability scale of $CT_{liability\ scale}$, $e_{residual,MDD}$, and g_{MDD} (i.e. no GxE-interaction). After describing simulation of SNP data, we will discuss decreasing the correlation of SNP-effects between those exposed and those unexposed to CT (Model 2), increasing a genetic contribution to CT through introducing a heritability for CT (Model 3), increasing magnitude of SNP-effects on MDD in those exposed compared to those unexposed to CT (Model 4), and decreasing magnitude of residual environmental effects on MDD in those exposed compared to those unexposed to CT (Model 5).

Simulation of SNP data and genetic effects

We simulated individuals in a population one-by-one until a total of 9,000 cases and 9,000 controls were obtained, from which 10,000 were used as discovery and 8,000 as target set. Therefore, we

first simulated the SNPs following the method of Golan et al (3), and subsequently modeled CT and MDD. Briefly, the properties of 10,000 SNPs in full linkage equilibrium were first defined by drawing their minor allele frequencies (MAF) from the uniform distribution from 0.05 to 0.5, and a proportion of 30% of these SNPs were set to have an effect on MDD with effects drawn from a normal distribution with variance $h_{i,MDD}^2/3,000$ while the effects of the other SNPs were set at 0. With these SNP effects, an individual i was simulated by first drawing its allele count (x_{ij} ; 0,1 or 2) with probabilities of $(1 - MAF_j)^2$, $2(1 - MAF_j)MAF_j$, and MAF_j^2 respectively for all SNP j , and, second, defining its genetic effects as $g(i)_{MDD} = \sum_j effect_j(x_{ij} - 2MAF_j)/(2(1 - MAF_j)MAF_j)$. Childhood trauma status of individual i was assigned with probability K_{CT} , and transformed to the liability scale $CT(i)_{liability\ scale}$ as described in Appendix A. The residual environmental effect $e(i)_{residual,MDD}$ was drawn from a normal distribution with variance $1 - h_{i,MDD}^2 - var(CT_{liability\ scale})$, so that the liability of individual i followed as $l(i) = g(i)_{MDD} + CT(i)_{liability\ scale} + e(i)_{residual,MDD}$. Individual i was deemed affected with MDD when $l(i) > T_{MDD}$ and non affected otherwise, where disease threshold T_{MDD} was defined such that $K_{MDD} = P(z > T_{MDD} | z \sim N(0,1))$. This procedure was repeated until a total of 9,000 cases and 9,000 controls were obtained. Subsequently, a genome-wide association study (GWAS) was conducted with PLINK on 5,000 cases and 5,000 controls (4), the results of which were used to prepare polygenic risk scores in the target set of the other 4,000 cases and 4,000 controls. For every parameterization, the simulation was repeated 10 times.

Simulation - Model 1

For the base assumption of the genetic architecture we assumed a prevalence of MDD of $K_{MDD} = 0.15$, a heritability of MDD of $h_{i,MDD}^2 = 0.35$, a prevalence of CT of $K_{CT} = 0.25$, no impact of SNPs in CT ($h_{i,CT}^2 = 0$), and odds ratio for MDD in those exposed to childhood trauma of $OR = 3.2$, and pure additivity on the liability scale (identical genetic and residual environmental effects in those exposed and those unexposed to childhood trauma).

Simulation - Model 2

A clear case of GxE interaction would be when the individual SNP-effects on MDD in those exposed would differ from the effects in those unexposed, i.e. when

$r_g = cor(effect_{SNP\ j | CT=1}, effect_{SNP\ j | CT=0}) = 0$ for the 3,000 effective SNPs. To model this scenario, we further assumed that the effects are on the same 3,000 SNPs and the variance explained is constant, that is $var(effect_{SNP\ j | CT=1}) = var(effect_{SNP\ j | CT=0}) = 0.35$.

Simulation - Model 3

For the Models 1, 2, 4 and 5 we have assumed that CT is purely environmental, but heritability of childhood trauma has been estimated at around 0.5 (2). Therefore, an impact of SNPs effects on CT is considered here. For this, we assume that CT is a “disease trait” itself with underlying liability as described above for MDD (not suggesting that children are to blame for the trauma they experience, rather we hypothesize that heritability arises from transmitted alleles that affect personality characteristics in parents). Nevertheless, we drew SNP-effects for CT from a random normal distribution with variance $h_{l,CT}^2 = 0.5$ and environmental effects from a normal distribution with variance $1 - h_{l,CT}^2$ to construct a liability of CT l_{CT} , and individuals were deemed exposed to CT when $l_{CT}(i) > T_{CT}$ with the threshold defined such that $K_{CT} = P(z > T_{CT} | z \sim N(0,1))$. The effects were assigned to the same 3,000 SNPs impacting MDD, but drawn from an independent normal distribution. Given the CT status thus simulated, MDD was derived as described above.

Simulation - Model 4

Another way to think about GxE interaction is that environmental stress might potentiate genetic effects. This was modeled by setting a proportion of genetic effects on MDD in those exposed to those unexposed to CT as $var(effect_{SNP j | CT=1})/var(effect_{SNP j | CT=0}) = 3$ while keeping $cor(effect_{SNP j | CT=1}, effect_{SNP j | CT=0}) = 1$. The variances of SNP-effects were chosen in such way that the variance of genetic effects in the full population were fixed at 0.35, while the residual environmental effects had the same variance in those exposed and those unexposed to CT (Appendix B).

Simulation - Model 5

A hypothetical scenario could be that environmental risk factors for MDD (such as socioeconomic status and life-stress in adulthood) cluster in those exposed to CT; the link between these environmental risk factors would be captured in estimates of the OR of CT, but could in addition result in less residual environmental variation in those exposed compared to those unexposed to childhood trauma. We modeled this as $var(e_{residual,MDD|CT=1})/var(e_{residual,MDD|CT=0}) = 1/3$ while assuming constant genetic effects in those exposed and those unexposed to CT, $effect_{SNP j | CT=1} = effect_{SNP j | CT=0}$ (Appendix C).

Appendix A. Transformation of OR to liability scale

To transform the OR from CT on MDD to the liability scale the approach of Witte et al was applied (5). Therefore, the OR (set at 3.2) was first transformed to the RR (2.6) and consequently to the risk

on MDD in exposed ($CT = 1$ with MDD proportion 0.28) and unexposed ($CT = 0$ with MDD proportion 0.11) assuming a population prevalence of $K_{MDD} = 0.15$ and $K_{CT} = 0.25$. The liability disease threshold for MDD in the full population was found as $T_{MDD,full\ population} = \Phi^{-1}(1 - K_{MDD}) = \Phi^{-1}(1 - 0.15) = 1.0364$. First assuming a liability variance of 1 in both exposed and unexposed, the threshold in exposed was found as $T_{MDD|CT=1} = \Phi^{-1}(1 - 0.28) = 0.589$ and in unexposed as $T_{MDD|CT=0} = \Phi^{-1}(1 - 0.11) = 1.241$. In line with Witte et al, the mean liability in exposed was found at $\mu_{l|CT=1} = T_{MDD,full\ population} - T_{MDD|CT=1}$ and in unexposed at $\mu_{l|CT=0} = T_{MDD,full\ population} - T_{MDD|CT=0}$, allowing to merge exposed and unexposed while ensuring the disease risks of 0.28 and 0.11 respectively. However, because the variance in both exposed and unexposed was assumed to equal 1, the merged sample had a variance larger than 1 introduced by the variance of CT and a mean slightly different from zero. To ease modeling of genetic effects, we rescaled to mean of zero and variance one, also correcting the disease threshold in this manner. With this, a model was derived transposing CT status of exposed and unexposed to the liability scale, while the overall variance of liability was set at 1, and mean at 0, as usual.

Appendix B. Modeling increased magnitude of SNP-effects in $CT=1$ compared to $CT=0$

When aiming to model increased variance of SNP effects in those exposed compared to those unexposed to CT, arbitrary choices have to be made about the residual environmental effects in exposed and unexposed, and the variance of liability, genetic effects and environmental effects in the overall population. We choose to fix the full population variance of liability at 1, variance of genetic effects at $h_{l,MDD}^2 = 0.35$, and variance of environmental effects at $1 - h_{l,MDD}^2 = 0.65$ (the latter including both the variance of $CT_{liability}$ as well as residual environmental effects). To obtain e.g. a variance of genetic effects in exposed three times the variance of genetic effects in unexposed ($var(effect_{SNP\ j|CT=1})/var(effect_{SNP\ j|CT=0}) = 3$), the variance of genetic effects followed as $var(effect_{SNP\ j|CT=1}) = 0.56$ and $var(effect_{SNP\ j|CT=0}) = 0.28$ thereby ensuring that the variance of genetic effect in the full population equals $var(effect_{SNP\ j}) = 0.25\mu_{effect_{SNP\ j|CT=1}}^2 + 0.75\mu_{effect_{SNP\ j|CT=0}}^2 - (0.2\mu_{effect_{SNP\ j|CT=1}} + 0.8\mu_{effect_{SNP\ j|CT=0}})^2 = 0.25(0.56 + 0^2) + 0.75(0.28 + 0^2) - 0 = 0.35$. We choose to fix the residual variance in both exposed and unexposed first at $var(e_{residual|CT=1}) = var(e_{residual|CT=0}) = 0.65$, and the overall variance of liability was thus larger in exposed than in unexposed. As a result, the sums in Appendix A were slightly adjusted as the variance and mean of the merged sample differed slightly to the above, and therefore correction to obtain variance of 1 and mean of zero in the full population also differed.

Appendix C. Decreased environmental variation in individuals exposed to CT

When aiming to model a smaller variance of residual environmental effects in those exposed compared to those unexposed to CT, several model choices have again to be made. We chose to fix the full population variance of liability at 1, variance of genetic effects at $h_{i,MDD}^2 = 0.35$ equal in exposed and unexposed, and variance of environmental effects at $1 - h_{i,MDD}^2 = 0.35$ (the latter including both the variance of $CT_{liability}$ as well as residual environmental effects).

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

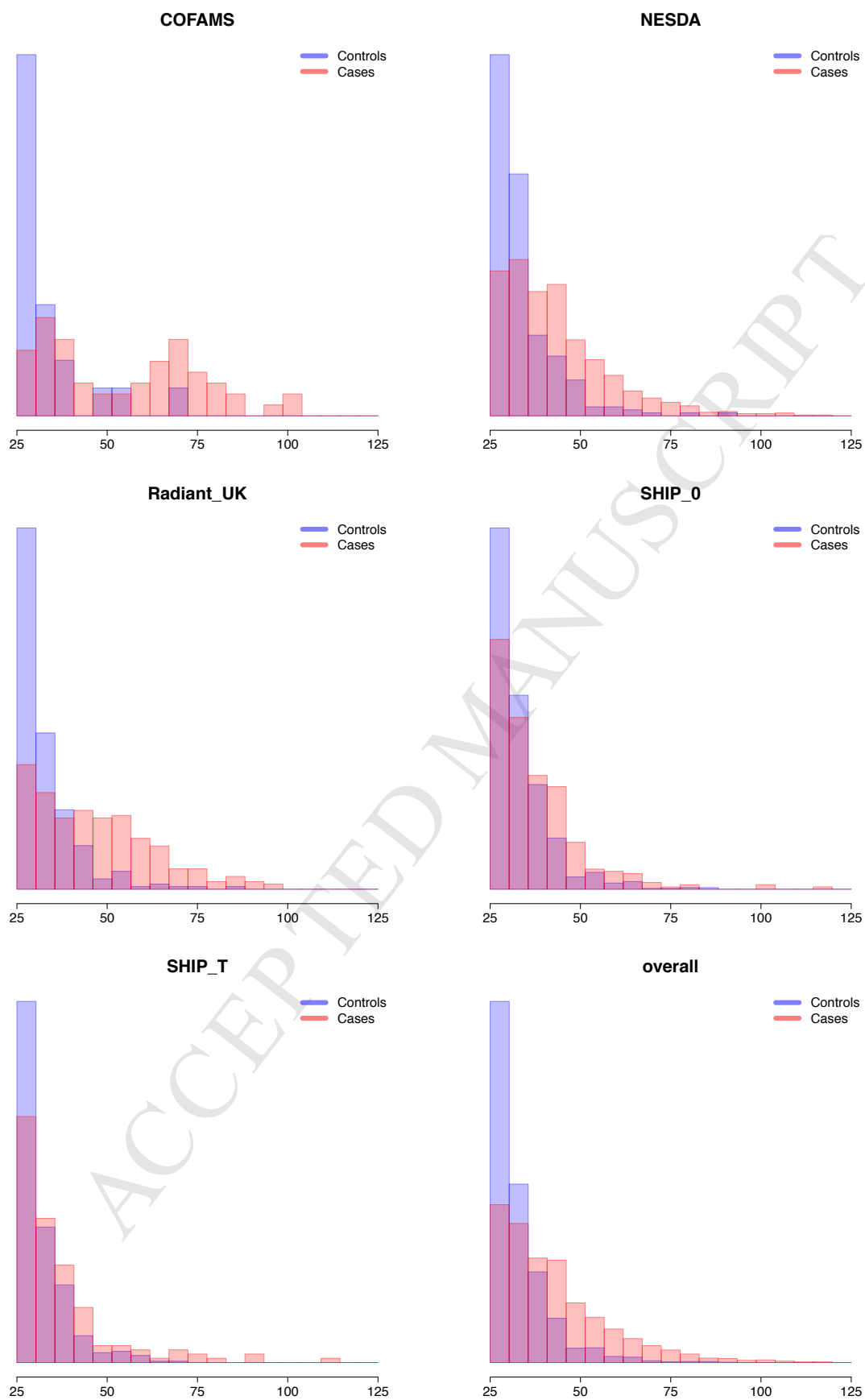


Figure S1. Distribution of the 5-domain continuous childhood trauma measure

Table S1. Demographic information for contributing cohorts of major depressive disorder cases and unaffected controls

Cohort	Country	N		N with CT information		Demographics	
		Cases	Controls	Cases	Controls	Mean age	% female
COFAMS	Australia	120	126	56	22	38.2	0.59
DGN	USA	463	459	461	458	-	0.70
NESDA	Netherlands	1493	1603	1133	271	42.9	0.67
QIMR (3 sub cohorts)	Australia	1902	1660	613	237	36.3	0.64
RADIANT UK	UK	1859	1519	262	264	46.0	0.66
SHIP (2 sub cohorts)	Germany	515	1529	499	1490	53.6	0.50

CT=childhood trauma

Table S2. Correlation of childhood trauma domains (N=3850)

	EA	PA	SA	EN	PN	SUM
<i>Childhood Trauma Questionnaire subscales (continuous measures)</i>						
Emotional Abuse (EA)	1	0.596	0.387	0.609	0.481	0.803
Physical Abuse (PA)	0.596	1	0.387	0.413	0.410	0.681
Sexual Abuse (SA)	0.387	0.387	1	0.246	0.285	0.539
Emotional Neglect (EN)	0.609	0.413	0.246	1	0.632	0.805
Physical Neglect (PN)	0.481	0.410	0.285	0.632	1	0.728
Sum score (SUM)	0.803	0.681	0.539	0.805	0.728	1
<i>Dichotomous indicator of sexual or physical abuse</i>						
SA/PA (dichotomous)	0.367	0.542	0.754	0.203	0.201	0.497

The Pearson correlation coefficients (all p -value < $2e-16$) are displayed between the five domains of the Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ) by applying the residuals of linear regression of the domains on sex and cohort (COFAMS, NESDA, Radiant-UK, SHIP). It can be seen that sexual abuse is slightly less correlated than the other domains, and that there seems no clear distinction between the abuse and neglect domains. In addition, the Spearman's rho correlation coefficient is displayed of the CTQ domains with the dichotomous indicator of sexual abuse and/or physical abuse (SA/PA) that was available for two additional cohorts.

Table S3. Number of overlapping SNPs between cohorts for GRM-based analyses

	COFAMS	DGN	NESDA	QIMR_3	QIMR_6	QIMR_C	RAD. UK	SHIP-0	SHIP-T
COFAMS	771,120	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
DGN	741,245	1,051,603	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NESDA	675,669	851,244	924,741	-	-	-	-	-	-
QIMR_3	626,026	775,291	702,250	821,960	-	-	-	-	-
QIMR_6	716,604	930,576	822,954	803,446	1,000,453	-	-	-	-
QIMR_C	711,902	746,328	683,496	635,209	724,195	772,404	-	-	-
RAD. UK	729,795	954,007	840,621	811,506	983,793	736,767	1,028,612	-	-
SHIP-0	706,975	905,732	907,329	737,015	871,372	713,690	890,930	992,050	-
SHIP-T	762,091	1,037,269	903,725	809,699	981,370	765,093	1,008,254	967,781	1,131,800

Table S4. Impact of CTQ subdomain continuous measures on MDD

Subset	Mean (SD)		OR (p-value)
	Cases	Controls	
Emotional Abuse			
Male & Female	9.3 (4.8)	6.2 (2.3)	2.40 (1.1e-06)
Male	8.5 (4.2)	6.0 (2.0)	2.01 (7.1e-05)
Female	9.6 (5.0)	6.3 (2.5)	2.46 (2.1e-07)
Physical Abuse			
Male & Female	6.3 (2.8)	5.6 (1.6)	1.51 (4.6e-05)
Male	6.3 (2.6)	5.7 (1.6)	1.41 (1.1e-04)
Female	6.2 (2.9)	5.5 (1.5)	1.51 (8.8e-05)
Sexual Abuse			
Male & Female	6.3 (3.4)	5.2 (1.3)	1.64 (1.6e-03)
Male	5.8 (2.3)	5.1 (0.9)	1.25 (3.4e-03)
Female	6.5 (3.8)	5.3 (1.7)	1.95 (2.9e-03)
Emotional Neglect			
Male & Female	12.6 (5.4)	8.9 (4.0)	2.08 (8.4e-06)
Male	12.6 (5.2)	9.2 (4.1)	1.87 (2.8e-04)
Female	12.5 (5.4)	8.6 (3.9)	2.14 (4.7e-06)
Physical Neglect			
Male & Female	7.8 (3.0)	6.8 (2.4)	1.75 (8.4e-05)
Male	7.9 (2.9)	7.0 (2.5)	1.54 (2.9e-04)
Female	7.8 (3.1)	6.6 (2.3)	1.79 (9.3e-04)
Overall CTQ score			
Male & Female	42.4 (15.1)	32.7 (8.4)	2.62 (1.4e-05)
Male	41.3 (13.4)	33.0 (8.2)	2.18 (1.1e-04)
Female	42.8 (15.8)	32.3 (8.6)	2.74 (3.6e-05)

CTQ = Childhood Trauma Questionnaire; MDD = major depressive disorder; OR = odds ratio; SD = standard deviation

Table S5. Impact of polygenic risk score (based on MDD discovery $p < 1$) on childhood trauma (i.e. gene-environment correlation)

Cohort	N		Impact of PRS on CT in						Approximation of full population by 100 times sampling case/control=0.15/0.85			
			All		Case only		Control only		Beta of regression		Correlation	
			Case	Control	Beta	P	Beta	P	Beta	P	Mean	SE
Continuous CTQ measure covering five domains (linear regression)												
COFAMS	56	22	1.68	0.507	-0.52	0.871	2.03	0.426	-	-	-	-
NESDA	1143	272	1.10	0.004	1.03	0.020	-0.19	0.742	0.21	0.040	0.02	0.003
RADIANT UK	269	267	1.34	0.041	-0.51	0.640	0.01	0.988	0.68	0.033	0.06	0.003
SHIP-0	340	993	0.15	0.580	-0.08	0.905	-0.08	0.761	0.07	0.009	0.01	0.001
SHIP-TREND	149	448	1.17	0.004	3.21	0.007	0.15	0.682	0.79	0.018	0.09	0.002
Total	1957	2002	0.84	0.004	0.76	0.186	-0.01	0.975	0.37	0.010	0.04	0.001
Dichotomous measure covering sexual and physical abuse (logistic regression)												
COFAMS	56	22	-0.04	0.859	-0.37	0.233	0.71	0.269	-	-	-	-
DGN	461	458	0.11	0.143	0.11	0.256	-0.02	0.866	0.04	0.005	0.03	0.002
NESDA	1133	271	0.16	0.010	0.13	0.048	0.03	0.876	0.13	0.009	0.02	0.003
QIMR_3	186	55	0.10	0.462	0.02	0.876	0.36	0.266	-	-	-	-
QIMR_3_M7	126	29	0.14	0.423	0.13	0.505	0.20	0.672	-	-	-	-
QIMR_6	121	107	-0.10	0.547	-0.21	0.358	0.11	0.670	0.03	0.007	-0.04	0.004
QIMR_C	180	46	-0.06	0.675	-0.07	0.656	0.01	0.972	-	-	-	-
RADIANT UK	262	263	0.16	0.119	0.02	0.912	0.01	0.963	0.11	0.007	0.03	0.003
SHIP-0	352	1042	0.09	0.240	-0.04	0.781	0.10	0.290	0.10	0.003	0.03	0.001
SHIP-TREND	147	448	0.22	0.105	0.26	0.235	0.12	0.500	0.19	0.005	0.02	0.001
Total	3024	2741	0.11	5.4e-04	0.07	0.108	0.07	0.197	0.10	0.002	0.02	0.001

The impact of the polygenic risk scores (PRS) (based on major depressive disorder [MDD] discovery results $p < 1$) on childhood trauma (CT) is displayed in all individuals, MDD cases only and controls only for the continuous Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ) measure covering five domains (applied in main Table 2) and the dichotomous measure covering sexual and/or physical abuse (applied in main Table 3). However, the potential bias of gene-environment correlation in gene-environment interaction analyses depends on the correlation in the full population. Therefore, cases were randomly sampled such that cases/controls=0.15/0.85 to mimic results in the full population. Sampling was repeated 100 times, and conducted for those cohorts with more than 100 controls only. The Pearson correlation was estimated for the continuous CTQ measure, and the Spearman correlation for the dichotomous CT measure, and analyses were corrected for sex and three principal components.

Table S6. Interaction-analyses for male and female separately with the PRS based on MDD-PRS including all SNPs (discovery $p < 1$ in the sample of $N = 112,268$)

Cohort	N		Impact on MDD				
			PRS			PRSxCT	
	Case	Control	OR	P	R2 (SE, %)	OR	P
Male & female (i.e. results displayed in main Table 2)							
COFAMS	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13 (4.61)	0.38 (0.08:1.74)	0.201
NESDA	1143	272	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.33 (0.84)	1.08 (0.83:1.39)	0.556
Radiant-UK	269	267	1.64 (1.35:2.00)	6.8e-07	5.90 (2.19)	0.93 (0.66:1.31)	0.670
SHIP-0	340	993	1.30 (1.14:1.48)	1.0e-04	1.81 (0.91)	1.02 (0.89:1.18)	0.737
SHIP-T	149	448	1.33 (1.09:1.63)	0.005	2.10 (1.47)	1.28 (0.96:1.72)	0.103
ALL	1957	2002	1.34 (1.23:1.47)	5.1e-11	1.71 (0.45)	1.05 (0.91:1.20)	0.519
Male only							
COFAMS	20	12	1.66 (0.73:4.21)	0.243	5.05 (7.95)	0.55 (0.06:4.21)	0.553
NESDA	357	111	1.23 (0.99:1.54)	0.061	1.24 (1.31)	1.13 (0.75:1.70)	0.565
Radiant-UK	73	109	1.47 (1.06:2.09)	0.025	3.58 (3.01)	0.84 (0.47:1.52)	0.561
SHIP-0	112	562	1.36 (1.10:1.68)	0.005	2.59 (1.79)	1.08 (0.90:1.32)	0.424
SHIP-T	44	246	1.37 (0.98:1.93)	0.072	2.57 (2.82)	1.22 (0.83:1.84)	0.316
ALL	606	1040	1.34 (1.18:1.52)	8.6e-06	1.71 (0.72)	1.09 (0.91:1.30)	0.367
Female only							
COFAMS	36	10	1.35 (0.65:2.96)	0.419	3.02 (6.29)	0.66 (0.05:6.75)	0.689
NESDA	786	161	1.24 (1.04:1.48)	0.015	1.33 (1.08)	1.09 (0.78:1.48)	0.609
Radiant-UK	196	158	1.72 (1.36:2.20)	1.0e-05	7.20 (2.96)	1.01 (0.66:1.56)	0.970
SHIP-0	228	431	1.26 (1.07:1.50)	0.006	1.54 (1.10)	1.01 (0.82:1.26)	0.912
SHIP-T	105	202	1.35 (1.05:1.74)	0.020	2.42 (2.00)	1.36 (0.93:2.21)	0.161
ALL	1351	962	1.35 (1.21:1.50)	5.2e-08	1.93 (0.63)	1.07 (0.90:1.27)	0.459

Table S7. Interaction-analyses for the separate CT domains with the MDD-PRS including all SNPs (discovery $p < 1$)

CT domain	N		Impact on MDD				
	Case	Control	PRS			PRSxCT	
			OR	P	R2 (SE, %)	OR	P
COFAMS							
Sum	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13 (4.61)	0.38 (0.08:1.74)	0.201
EA	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13 (4.61)	0.36 (0.07:1.73)	0.187
PA	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13 (4.61)	0.01 (0.00:1.05)	0.102
SA	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13 (4.61)	0.36 (0.01:2.07)	0.369
EN	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13 (4.61)	0.88 (0.30:2.98)	0.820
PN	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13 (4.61)	0.27 (0.04:1.35)	0.132
NESDA							
Sum	1143	272	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.33 (0.84)	1.08 (0.83:1.39)	0.556
EA	1125	268	1.22 (1.07:1.41)	0.004	1.17 (0.80)	0.92 (0.72:1.19)	0.547
PA	1134	271	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.33 (0.84)	0.89 (0.68:1.15)	0.388
SA	1139	272	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.33 (0.84)	0.89 (0.60:1.33)	0.573
EN	1118	270	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.32 (0.84)	1.25 (1.04:1.51)	0.019
PN	1125	272	1.25 (1.09:1.43)	0.002	1.38 (0.86)	1.01 (0.83:1.23)	0.909
RADIANT UK							
Sum	269	267	1.64 (1.35:2.00)	6.8e-07	5.90 (2.19)	0.93 (0.66:1.31)	0.670
EA	266	267	1.64 (1.35:2.01)	7.4e-07	5.89 (2.19)	0.87 (0.65:1.18)	0.350
PA	263	265	1.63 (1.34:1.99)	1.2e-06	5.72 (2.17)	1.05 (0.75:1.50)	0.771
SA	264	265	1.64 (1.35:2.00)	9.0e-07	5.84 (2.19)	1.02 (0.73:1.49)	0.923
EN	260	266	1.64 (1.35:2.01)	8.8e-07	5.89 (2.21)	0.95 (0.72:1.26)	0.720
PN	261	267	1.65 (1.36:2.02)	5.4e-07	6.10 (2.24)	0.99 (0.76:1.29)	0.935
SHIP-0							
Sum	340	993	1.30 (1.14:1.48)	1.0e-04	1.81 (0.91)	1.02 (0.89:1.18)	0.737
EA	353	1039	1.31 (1.15:1.49)	5.0e-05	1.91 (0.92)	1.02 (0.89:1.17)	0.795
PA	353	1048	1.31 (1.16:1.50)	3.4e-05	2.00 (0.94)	1.00 (0.87:1.15)	0.976
SA	354	1045	1.31 (1.15:1.49)	5.1e-05	1.90 (0.92)	1.07 (0.95:1.24)	0.286
EN	350	1025	1.31 (1.16:1.50)	3.7e-05	2.00 (0.94)	1.05 (0.92:1.20)	0.497
PN	351	1030	1.30 (1.15:1.48)	6.0e-05	1.89 (0.92)	1.03 (0.90:1.18)	0.686
SHIP-TREND							
Sum	149	448	1.33 (1.09:1.63)	0.005	2.10 (1.47)	1.28 (0.96:1.72)	0.103
EA	148	446	1.33 (1.09:1.63)	0.005	2.06 (1.47)	1.12 (0.87:1.49)	0.426
PA	146	448	1.34 (1.09:1.64)	0.005	2.12 (1.49)	1.09 (0.89:1.42)	0.463
SA	149	448	1.33 (1.09:1.63)	0.005	2.10 (1.47)	1.70 (0.77:3.79)	0.166
EN	149	441	1.34 (1.10:1.64)	0.005	2.14 (1.49)	1.18 (0.94:1.49)	0.166
PN	147	443	1.33 (1.09:1.63)	0.006	2.06 (1.47)	1.30 (1.02:1.70)	0.044
ALL							
Sum	1957	2002	1.34 (1.23:1.47)	5.1e-11	1.71 (0.45)	1.05 (0.91:1.20)	0.519
EA	1948	2042	1.34 (1.22:1.47)	2.5e-10	1.69 (0.44)	0.96 (0.85:1.09)	0.545
PA	1952	2054	1.34 (1.24:1.46)	1.4e-12	1.74 (0.45)	1.00 (0.89:1.12)	0.947
SA	1962	2052	1.34 (1.23:1.46)	9.2e-12	1.72 (0.45)	1.05 (0.90:1.21)	0.551
EN	1933	2024	1.35 (1.24:1.47)	5.2e-12	1.76 (0.46)	1.11 (1.00:1.22)	0.043
PN	1940	2034	1.35 (1.23:1.47)	3.3e-11	1.76 (0.45)	1.05 (0.93:1.19)	0.441

Sum = sumscore of all five CT domains; EA = Emotional abuse; PA = Physical Abuse ; SA = Sexual Abuse ; EN = Emotional Neglect ; PN = Physical Neglect

Table S8. Comparing different discovery samples for MDD

Cohort	Effective N discovery	N target		Effect of PRS			Effect of CT		Effect of PRSxCT	
		Case	Control	OR	P	R2	OR	P	OR	P
MDD discovery results from PGC, Decode, Genscot, Gera, iPsych and UKB										
COFAMS	112,268	56	22	1.41 (0.82:2.49)	0.212	3.13 (4.61)	6.25	8.0e-04	0.38 (0.08:1.74)	0.201
NESDA	112,268	1143	272	1.24 (1.08:1.42)	0.002	1.33 (0.84)	3.29	3.7e-21	1.08 (0.83:1.39)	0.556
RADIANT UK	112,268	269	267	1.64 (1.35:2.00)	6.8e-07	5.90 (2.19)	4.03	3.0e-20	0.93 (0.66:1.31)	0.670
SHIP-0	112,268	340	993	1.30 (1.14:1.48)	1.0e-04	1.81 (0.91)	1.52	7.0e-11	1.02 (0.89:1.18)	0.737
SHIP-TREND	112,268	149	448	1.33 (1.09:1.63)	0.005	2.10 (1.47)	1.71	3.7e-07	1.28 (0.96:1.72)	0.103
Total	112,268	1957	2002	1.34 (1.23:1.47)	5.1e-11	1.71 (0.45)	2.53	1.3e-09	1.05 (0.91:1.20)	0.519
MDD discovery results from PGC MDD wave 2 leaving the target cohort out										
COFAMS	40,373	56	22	1.02 (0.60:1.76)	0.928	0.02 (0.36)	6.25	8.0e-04	0.76 (0.17:3.80)	0.732
NESDA	37,435	1143	272	1.23 (1.08:1.41)	0.002	1.26 (0.82)	3.29	3.7e-21	1.38 (1.07:1.76)	0.011
RADIANT UK	36,909	269	267	1.32 (1.10:1.58)	0.003	2.07 (1.33)	4.03	3.0e-20	0.67 (0.51:0.90)	0.006
SHIP-0	39,406	340	993	1.08 (0.95:1.22)	0.246	0.16 (0.28)	1.52	7.0e-11	1.03 (0.91:1.17)	0.628
SHIP-TREND	40,084	149	448	1.32 (1.08:1.62)	0.006	1.98 (1.43)	1.71	3.7e-07	1.00 (0.79:1.27)	0.987
Total	-	1957	2002	1.20 (1.10:1.31)	2.8e-05	0.66 (0.28)	2.53	1.3e-09	1.00 (0.79:1.26)	0.972

Table S9. Polygenic risk scores analyses with simulated data

Cohort	Mean polygenic risk scores (SE)				Case-control PRS difference		PRSxCT Interaction-effect	
	Cases		Controls		CT=0	CT=1	OR	P
	CT=0	CT=1	CT=0	CT=1				
Model 1 ("additive")	0.32 (0.007)	0.17 (0.008)	-0.24 (0.003)	-0.30 (0.008)	0.57	0.47	0.91	0.157
Model 2 ("interaction")	0.24 (0.006)	0.03 (0.004)	-0.14 (0.003)	-0.16 (0.011)	0.38	0.19	0.83	0.013
Model 3 (h2I_CT=0.5)	0.26 (0.004)	0.27 (0.005)	-0.29 (0.003)	-0.18 (0.014)	0.55	0.45	0.90	0.185
Model 4 (increased G in CT=1)	0.24 (0.007)	0.24 (0.007)	-0.22 (0.004)	-0.32 (0.010)	0.46	0.56	1.15	0.099
Model 5 (decreased E in CT=1)	0.30 (0.005)	0.27 (0.006)	-0.26 (0.004)	-0.38 (0.010)	0.55	0.65	1.16	0.047

Simulated data of 10,000 SNPs were based on five models, all assuming heritability of MDD of 0.35, prevalence of MDD of 0.15, prevalence of CT of 0.25 and an odds ratio (OR) of CT on MDD of 3.2 (see Supplemental Methods). Model 1: SNP-effects are the same in exposed and unexposed; Model 2: correlation of 0 between SNP-effects in exposed and unexposed; Model 3: SNP-effects on MDD are the same in exposed and unexposed, heritability of CT of 0.5 (for Models 1,2,4, and 5, heritability of CT was set at 0); Models 4: same direction of SNP-effects in exposed and unexposed (correlation of 1), but 3 times larger variance of effects in exposed than unexposed; Model 5: SNP-effects the same in exposed and unexposed, but three times smaller environmental variance in exposed. Simulation was repeated ten times, the means of which are displayed with the standard error (SE) between brackets.

Supplemental References

1. Rasch G (1960): *Studies in mathematical psychology: I. Probabilistic models for some intelligence and attainment tests.* .
2. Sartor CE, Grant JD, Lynskey MT, McCutcheon V V, Waldron M, Statham DJ, *et al.* (2012): Common heritable contributions to low-risk trauma, high-risk trauma, posttraumatic stress disorder, and major depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry.* 69: 293–9.
3. Golan D, Lander ES, Rosset S (2014): Measuring missing heritability: Inferring the contribution of common variants. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 111: E5272-81.
4. Purcell S, Neale B, Todd-Brown K, Thomas L, Ferreira MAR, Bender D, *et al.* (2007): PLINK: a tool set for whole-genome association and population-based linkage analyses. *Am J Hum Genet.* 81: 559–75.
5. Witte JS, Visscher PM, Wray NR (2014): The contribution of genetic variants to disease depends on the ruler. *Nat Rev Genet.* 15: 765–76.