Expression Quantitative Trait Loci as possible Biomarkers on Depression: Candidate Gene and Genome-wide Approaches

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München, den 05. August 2014

Diese Dissertation wurde angefertigt unter der Leitung von Dr. Elisabeth B. Binder am



Erstgutachter: Prof. Dr. John Parsch Zweitgutachter: PD Dr. Mathias V. Schmidt Tag der mündlichen Prüfung: 26. November 2014 "We are all feeling our way in the face of the extreme complexity of nature and the daunting task of unraveling her secrets."

-Denis Nobel-

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Zusammenfassung

Depression (Major depressive disorder; MDD) ist eine der häufigsten psychiatrischen Erkrankungen, deren Entstehung durch ein komplexes Zusammenspiel verschiedener Faktoren zustande kommt. So ist das Risiko an einer Depression zu erkranken, durch die Kombination aus genetischer Prädisposition und individuell erlebter Stressbelastung erhöht. Die biologischen Mechanismen wie aus diesen Faktoren eine Depression entsteht, sind bisher weitgehend unbekannt. Eine mögliche molekulare Ursache ist die gestörte Regulierung der Kortisolausschüttung und der Effekt dieses Hormons. Das Kortisol wird als Reaktion des Körpers auf Stress freigesetzt. Durch Bindung des Kortisols an den Glukokortikoid-Rezeptor (GR), steuert es die Aktivität verschiedener Gene und bewirkt dadurch eine stressbedingte Anpassung der Zelle. Der GR wandert, nachdem er das Kortisol in der Zelle gebunden hat, in den Zellkern und bindet dort direkt an die DNS. Eine Störung der Regulation der GR vermittelten Stressantwort wurde bei Depressionserkrankungen nachgewiesen.

In dieser Doktorarbeit wurde zuerst der GR medikamentös aktiviert und die daraus resultierenden Veränderung in der Genaktivität in Blutzellen von depressiven Patienten mit denen von gesunden Kontrollpersonen verglichen. Dazu wurden genomweite Genexpressionsdaten, vor und nach GR-Stimulierung mit 1.5 mg Dexamethason p.o., von 29 männlichen Depressionspatienten und 31 gesunden Kontrollen analysiert.

Durch Dexamethason wurden 2670 Gene von Kontrollpersonen und 1151 Gene von depressiven Patienten reguliert (aktiviert oder unterdrückt). Darunter waren mehrere Gene, die zuvor mit Depression in Verbindung gebracht wurden, wie beispielsweise FKBP5 und DUSP1. Die Genexpressionsprofile dieser GR-stimulierten Gene konnten Patienten und Kontrollpersonen besser unterscheiden (79,2% vs. 41,7% Sensitivität der Klassifikation) als herkömmliche endokrine Tests.

Der zweite Teil dieser Doktorarbeit beschäftigte sich mit der Identifikation von Genvarianten, welche GR-stimulierte Genexpressionsänderungen beeinflussen. Solche Analysen kombinieren Daten aus Genexpressions- mit Genotypisierungs-Microarrays und werden expression quantitative trait locus (eQTL) Analysen genannt. Das Ziel dieser Arbeit war es Einzelnukleotid-Polymorphismen (SNPs) zu identifizieren, die mit Glukokortikoidvermittelten Genexpressionsänderungen einhergehen (GR-response eQTLs). Dabei konzentrierten wir uns auf Assoziationen mit SNPs innerhalb einer 1-Mb-Region vom 5'- oder 3'-Ende des Transkriptes, den sogenannten *cis*-eQTLs.

Es wurden 3820 GR-response *cis*-eQTLs identifiziert, bei denen SNPs die GR vermittelte Veränderung der Gentranskription beeinflussen. Bei diesen SNPs handelt es sich signifikant häufiger um SNPs, die mit Depression in einer genomweiten Meta-Analyse assoziiert wurden (Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) Daten mit n > 9000 depressiven Patienten und Kontrollpersonen).

Ahnliche Beobachtungen konnten im Fall von Schizophrenie (SCZ), bipolarer Störung (BPD) und SNPs, die mit Risiko für mehrere psychiatrische Erkrankungen (Crossdisorder Analyse) assoziiert wurden, erzielt werden. Die PGC Crossdisorder Analyse untersuchte das gemeinsame Risiko für fünf psychiatrische Erkrankungen (SZC, MDD, BPD, Autismus und Aufmerksamkeitsdefizit-/ Hyperaktivitätsstörung; n = 33000 Patienten und 29000 Kontrollpersonen).

Die 282 gefundenen SNPs, die sowohl eine Assoziation mit GR-regulierter Transkription als auch mit Depression zeigen (GR/MDD SNPs), regulieren die Aktivität von 25 verschiedenen Transkripten. Mithilfe einer Pathway Analyse wurde nachgewiesen, dass diese 25 Transkripte besonders mit molekularen Prozessen, die mit Veränderung synaptischer Plastizität, Immunaktivität oder mit der Pathophysiologie von Depression, zusammenhängen. In relevanten Mausmodellen konnte gezeigt werden, dass über 66% dieser Transkripte eine GR-Regulierung in verschiedenen Gehirnregionen aufweisen. Zusätzlich wurde mit Hilfe des genetischen Risikoprofiles aus GR/MDD SNPs eine veränderte Amygdala Reaktivität in einer unabhängigen Kohorte nachgewiesen.

Zusammenfassend wurde erstens gezeigt, dass ein Genexpressionsprofil aus GR-stimulierten Genen in Blutzellen ein vielversprechender molekularer Biomarker für Depression sein könnte, welcher die Veränderungen in der GR-Funktionalität abbildet, die wiederum ein wichtiger Bestandteil in der zugrundeliegenden molekularen Pathologie bei depressiven Patienten ist. Weiterhin konnte gezeigt werden, dass genetische Varianten, die mit der ersten transkriptionellen Reaktion auf Stress korreliert sind, häufiger mit stress-assoziierten Krankheiten wie Depression in Verbindung gebracht werden. Diese Erkenntnisse verbessern unser Verständnis von psychiatrischen Erkrankungen als Folge der Interaktion von Umweltund genetischen Faktoren.

Abstract

The risk for major depressive disorder (MDD) is exacerbated by various genetic factors and stress exposure; however, the underlying biological mechanisms leading to an increase in risk are poorly understood. One putative mechanism implicates the variability in the ability of cortisol, released in response to stress, to trigger a cascade of adaptive genomic and non- genomic processes through glucocorticoid receptor (GR) activation. The GR exerts its main downstream effects via its function as transcription factor.

In the first part of my doctoral thesis a differential gene expression analysis utilizing the dexamethasone challenge test to compare GR-mediated changes in gene expression between depressed patients and healthy controls was conducted. A genome-wide gene expression data set with RNA samples at baseline as well as following GR stimulation with 1.5 mg dexamethasone p.o. in peripheral blood cells from 31 male depressed patients and 29 controls was analyzed. I aimed to identify gene expression patterns that would predict MDD disease status from this sample.

The dexamethasone intake led to a reproducible regulation of 2,670 transcripts in controls and 1,151 regulated transcripts in depressed patients, including several genes previously associated with the pathophysiology of MDD, e.g. *FKBP5* and *DUSP1*. Furthermore, using a machine learning algorithm I showed that a gene expression profile of GR-stimulated transcripts outperforms baseline gene expression as a classifier for MDD disease status with sensitivity of 79.2% vs. 41.7%, respectively.

The second part of my doctoral thesis presents a novel approach based on the analysis of GR-response expression quantitative trait loci (eQTLs). I investigated on a genome-wide level, whether variants that alter the immediate transcriptional response to GR activation may alter the risk to suffer from stress-related disorders, like MDD. The eQTL analysis was performed on imputed single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) data in a *cis*-window of ± 1 Mb and the differences in gene expression between GR-stimulated and baseline samples from peripheral blood cells of 160 male individuals (see summary figure below for illustration of the sequence of experiments and analyses investigated in this study).

We identified 3,820 GR-response *cis*-eQTLs with SNPs modulating the GR induction of gene transcription. These SNPs were highly enriched among variants associated with MDD, as identified in a meta-analysis for MDD using the PGC data with an n of over 9,000 MDD cases and controls. Furthermore, there was also evidence for significant enrichment of these GR-response eSNPs with schizophrenia (SCZ), bipolar disorder (BPD) and variants conferring psychiatric risk for cross disorders. The PGC cross disorder analysis measures the shared risk on five major psychiatric disorders (SCZ, BPD, MDD, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and autism spectrum disorder; n = 33,000 cases and 29,000 controls). The 282 SNPs showing both an association with GR-mediated transcription and MDD (GR/MDD SNPs) regulate 25 distinct transcripts. Pathway analysis suggests an involvement of these 25 transcripts in pathways associated with ubiquitination and proteasome degradation and the inflammatory response- systems that have been implicated in the pathophysiology of MDD and in stress-related changes in synaptic plasticity. Additionally, in corresponding mouse models, we found over 66% of these 25 transcripts to be regulated following GR agonist stimulation in hippocampus, prefrontal cortex or amygdala. In addition, the genetic risk profile of the GR/MDD SNPs was associated with altered centromedial amygdala reactivity to threat-related cues.

In summary, it was first shown that in vivo stimulated gene expression in peripheral blood cells could be a promising molecular marker of altered GR functioning, an important component of the underlying pathology, in patients suffering from depressive episodes. Secondly, our data suggests that genetic variants that modulate the first transcriptional response to stress are more likely to be associated with stress-related disorders. This strongly supports the importance of molecular gene by environment interactions for the understanding of the pathophysiology of MDD and related disorders.



1. Introduction

1.1. Background of major depressive disorder

1.1.1. Epidemiology and clinical features

Major depressive disorder (MDD) is the most common psychiatric disorder with a reported lifetime prevalence up to 17% [108]. In Europe, MDD is the third leading cause of disability [62] and rated as one of the disorders with the highest global burden of disease according to the world health organisation (WHO) [218]. From 1990 to 2010, the global burden of MDD increased by 37% [156]. Although several studies reported MDD to be equally heritable in man and women [105], there is some evidence suggesting that women are more likely to experience an episode of depression during their lifetime [106, 3]. Probably there are genes acting differently on the risk for MDD in both sexes [105]. The average age-of-onset is estimated to be in the early to mid twenties [5]. Young adults (18-29 years) are more likely to suffer from depression compared to older adults (>60 years) [107]. Epidemiological studies have shown the high comorbidity of MDD with other psychiatric disorders, especially with anxiety disorders [107]. Around 90% of the patients with an anxiety disorder experience MDD at some point in their life [182].

Despite its high prevalence and impact, the pathophysiological mechanisms underlying MDD are not sufficiently understood, resulting in non-optimal treatments with high rates of recurrence and treatment resistance [232]. Treatment options include pharmacologic therapy, electroconvulsive therapy, psychotherapy or a combination of some or all of these therapies.

The most common symptoms of MDD include affective abnormalities, like depressed mood and loss of interest or pleasure. Other symptoms are sleep distruptions, poor concentration, recurring thoughts of death and significant weight loss without dieting or weight gain [34]. These symptoms are often recurrent and can become chronic.

Currently, depression diagnosis is based on a set of such signs or symptoms, defined by the diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders forth edition, text revision (DSM-IV-TR [6]; see table 1.1) or international classification of diseases (ICD-10). Various other measurements have been used to screen for depressive symptoms including the self-report rating scales, e.g. Hamilton rating scale for depression (HAM-D) and center for epidemiological studies depression scale (CES-D) as well as the interview-based rating scales, e.g. Beck depression invertury (BDI) and patient health questionnaire (PHQ-9). The BDI is the most widely used assessment scale for depression. It is a 21-item questionnaire (<9 no depression, 10-15 mild depression, 16-23 moderate depression and >24 severe depression) with questions rated on a four-point scale. The HAM-D is a 17-item questionnaire (<7 normal depression, 8-13 mild depression, 14-18 moderate depression, 19-22 severe depression, >22 very severe depression) and questions are rated on a five-point scale [35]. Both measurements were used in this thesis (see subsection 2.1).

At present, the optimal diagnostic method or screening tool is unknown. No biological criteria or measures are established for routine diagnosis, thus, finding better biomarkers is one challenge we aim to answer in this thesis.

A. At least five of the following symptoms have been present during the same 2week period and represent a change from previous functioning: at least one of the symptoms is either 1) depressed mood or 2) loss of interest or pleasure.

(1) Depressed mood most of the day, nearly every day, as indicated either by subjective report or observation made by others.

(2) Markedly diminished interest or pleasure in all, or almost all, activities most of the day, nearly every day.

(3) Significant weight loss when not dieting or weight gain, or decrease or increase in appetite nearly every day

(4) Insomnia or hypersonnia nearly every day.

- (5) Psychomotor agitation or retardation nearly every day.
- (6) Fatigue or loss of energy nearly every day.

(7) Feelings of worthlessness or excessive or inappropriate guilt nearly every day.

(8) Diminished ability to think or concentrate, or indecisiveness, nearly every day.

(9) Recurrent thoughts of death, recurrent suicidal ideation without a specific plan, or a suicide attempt or specific plan for committing suicide.

B. The symptoms do not meet criteria for a mixed episode.

C. The symptoms cause clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.

D. The symptoms are not due to the direct physiological effects of a substance or a general medical condition.

F. The symptoms are not better accounted for by bereavement, i.e., after the loss of a loved one, the symptoms persist for longer than 2 months or are characterized by marked functional impairment, morbid preoccupation with worthlessness, suicidal ideation, psychotic symptoms, or psychomotor retardation.

Table 1.1.: DSM-IV-TR diagnosis criteria for MDD. The table is based on [6].

1.1.2. Etiology and candidate systems

The etiology of MDD includes psychological, physiological as well as environmental factors, resulting in a very heterogeneous disorder [82].

1.1.2.1. Stress hormone system

The stress hormone system, or hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis, is an important mediator in depression [71]. A stress response, e.g. after exposure to adverse life events, elicits the activation of this system by releasing corticotrophin-releasing factor/hormone (CRF/CRH) from the hypothalamus. This hormone is mediated by the corticotrophin releasing hormone receptor 1 (*CRHR1*), leading to secretion of adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) from the anterior pituitary. ACTH then triggers the release of glucocorticoids (cortisol, a stress hormone, in humans and corticosterone in rodents) from the cortex of the adrenal glands (see figure 1.1a). Glucocorticoids interact with their receptors to inhibit further secretion of ACTH and corticotrophin releasing hormone (CRH) in a negative-feedback loop [43].

Hyperactivity of the HPA axis in depressed patients is the most common finding in psychiatry. Central mechanisms for this hyperactivity are an increased neurotransmission of CRH and an impaired negative feedback of the HPA axis [11, 158].

Two different types of nuclear hormone receptors mediate the action of glucocorticoids: the mineralocorticoid receptor (MR) and the GR. The MR is selectively expressed in the limbic system and shows a high affinity for glucocorticoids, i.e. a ten-fold higher affinity for cortisol than the GR [43]. It is already activated at basal glucocorticoid levels (low stress levels), such as the cortisol concentration in the afternoon and night [205]. The second receptor is the GR, present in the pituitary, hypothalamus area and prefrontal cortex (PFC). The GR will only be occupied during stress response (high stress levels), but always after the complete saturation of the MRs [205, 42].

1.1.2.2. Glucocorticoid receptor

The GR is a prime candidate for associations with susceptibility for MDD and a target of psychiatric therapy. For example, Modell et al. [154] indicated that people with MDD have a disturbed function or decreased expression of the GR [42].

Glucocorticoid binding allows the GR to translocate from cytoplasm to nucleus, where it binds to specific sequences of the deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) known as glucocorticoid response elements (GREs) and regulates the expression of target genes (see figure 1.1b). The GR is able to stimulate or repress transcription, and interact with other transcription factors (TF)s such as the activating protein-1 (AP1) and the nuclear factor kappa B (NF κ B) [145]. The main function of GR activation is to promote proper negative feedback of the HPA axis to terminate the stress response.

The GR is encoded by the nuclear receptor subfamily 3, group C, member 1 (NR3C1) gene, located on chromosome 5.

1.1.2.3. Dexamethasone

A way to evaluate the reactivity on the HPA axis is provided by the dexamethasone suppression test (DST) [127]. Since endogenous glucocorticoids could serve as prime candidates for stress-related disorders, synthetic analogs of glucocorticoids, i.e. dexamethasone, serve as potent GR agonists [191]. By stimulating the GR, dexamethasone activates the negative feedback loop reducing the activity of the HPA axis and leading to a decrease in the production and release of ACTH and cortisol, which in turn is measured by the DST [127]. Thus, the DST is can be interpreted as a measurement of GR sensitivity. To potentially characterize MDD patients and uncover alteration in the stress hormone system, the DST received considerable attention in psychiatric research [27].

Besides, by altering cortisol secretion, dexamethasone leads to extensive and reproducible gene expression changes (for example see section 3.1) that can be used as molecular markers for GR sensitivity. Genetic variants (see subsection 1.2.1) that influence the transcriptional effects of the GR activation are interesting candidate polymorphisms (see subsection 1.2.1) for MDD. The genetics of variation in gene expression (see subsection 1.2.2 and section 3.2) has gained much attention in the last decade, resulting in meaningful studies to characterize the genetic architecture of transcriptional regulation [150, 224, 155].

Genes which are componets of the HPA axis and known to be associated with MDD are listed in table 1.2.



(a) The stress hormone system.

(b) Circulation of the GR between cytoplasm and nucleus.

Figure 1.1.: Schematic representation of the stress hormone system and its main effector, the GR, which is know to have a disrupted function in MDD. (a) Stressful events activate the HPA axis by including the release of CRH from the hypothalamus, which promotes the secretion of ACTH from the pituitary. ACTH in turn stimulates the adrenal gland to release glucocorticoids into blood stream. Normalization of CRH after stress exposure is archived via negative feedback mechanism, whereby glucocorticoids activate the GR, which terminates the stress reaction [42]. (b) The GR is a nuclear hormone receptor and upon activation, it translocates from the cytoplasm to the nucleus, where it binds to GREs and regulates gene expression.

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1	l Dackground	. OI	major	depressive	uisor	uei

Endophenotype	Gene	Function	Chr.	Reference
UDA arria	NR3C1	GR	5	[221]
IIFA axis	CRHR1	CRH/CRF receptor	17	[19, 126]
	TPH2	involved in the biosynthesis of sero-	12	[246]
Monoamines	MAOA	tonin degrades amine neurotransmitters	Х	[50]
Monoammes	SLC6A4	serotonin transporter	17	[195]
	COMT	breakdown of dopamine in brain	22	[141]
	GAD1	production of GABA	2	[91]
Glutamate	GRIA3	glutamate receptor	Х	[114]
	P2RX7	ATP binding, ion channel activity	12	[128]
	DISC-1	neurodevelopment and neural sig-	1	[81]
	סאסס	naling	1 1	[100]
	BDNF	plasticity	11	[192]
Neuroplasticity	NTRK2	receptor for brain-derived neu-	9	$\lfloor 49 \rfloor$
1		rotrophic factor $(BDNF)$		
	CREB1	transcription factor	2	[49]

Table 1.2.: A list of candidate MDD genes. The table is based on [219].

1.1.2.4. Neurotransmitters

Neurotransmitters are chemical messengers that transmit signals across nerve cells. Alterations in their function in the brain have been implicated in the pathophysiology of MDD before [219].

Major types of neurotransmitters are amino acids (glutamate), neuropeptides (CRH) and monoamines. After introducing the monoamine hypothesis in 1965 [188], greatest attention in MDD research was given by the monoamine system, including serotonin or catecholamines (adrenaline, noradrenaline and dopamine). It proposes that "the underlying biological or neuroanatomical basis for depression is a deficiency of central noradrenergic and/or serotonergic systems and that targeting this neuronal lesion with an antidepressant would tend to restore normal function in depressed patients" [92]. As decreased serotonin levels and noradrenergic and dopaminergic dysfunction has been associated with depression and popular antidepressants prevent serotonin reuptake (selective serotonin re-uptake inhibitor (SSRI)s) candidate studies investigated genes regulating the monoaminergic pathway. The main candidates are summarized in table 1.2 [82].

Glutamate is the most abundant free amino acid in the brain and has excitatory effects on nerve cells [245]. Dysregulation of proteins involved in glutamatergic signaling are implicated in alterations in animal models for depression. Drugs influencing the glutamate receptor tend to have an antidepressant like effect in these models. Additionally, significantly higher levels of glutamate are present in patients with MDD [153]. Studies, which focused on genes involved in the regulation of the glutamatergic neurotransmission, are listed in table 1.2.

1.1.2.5. Neuroplasticity

Plasticity refers to the capacity of cells or organs to change their phenotype in response to alterations in their environment [198]. Especially the term neuroplasticity denotes environmental adaptability through modification of the connectivity between neurons and neuronal circuits, i.e. adding new nerve cells, strengthening or weakening nerve connections (synapses) [140]. In the last few years, the view has gained ground that impairment of neuroplasticity may play an important role in psychiatric diseases, like MDD, and the major goal is to identify the specific transmitter systems involved in those diseases and design appropriate interventions [25].

Patients with MDD display structural brain changes, such as a reduction in hippocampal volume, which may be due to glutamate neurotoxicity-induced reduction in neurogenesis [197]. Moreover, an increased density of hippocampal neurons and glia cells (synaptic plasticity) was observed in MDD patients [209]. In contrast the PFC is associated with decreasing density of neurons and glia cells [180]. Decreased glia density has also been found in amygdala (AM) and cingulate cortex (Cg25) [191, 18]. Furthermore, hippocampal strength is changed by long-term potentiation and depression.

Exposure to chronic stress disrupting hippocampus dependent memory functions and deficits in memory formation are observed in MDD [174]. Synaptic function that underlie memory and learning were recently associated with an orchestrated function of protein synthesis and degradation. Genes involved in the etiology of depression and also in the cellular mechanisms of neuroplasticity are listed in table 1.2.

1.1.2.6. Neuroimaging

Neuroimaging techniques can be used to further study brain function and structure, and help to better understand the relationship between certain brain regions and specific mental function, especially in the light of stress-related disorders. Common techniques include hemodynamic (blood flow or circulation) techniques- such as positron emission tomography (PET) and functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), as well as electro-magnetic techniques-like electroencephalography (EEG) and magnetoencephalography (MEG) [39]. In this thesis we used blood oxygenation level-dependent (BOLD) fMRI to analyze the importance of functional expression SNP (eSNP)s for MDD (see section 3.2).

An MRI scanner works with a magnetic field inside the scanner and magnetic susceptibility effects of deoxygenated hemoglobin (deoxygenated hemoglobin is much more magnetic than oxygen) were utilized for the fMRI technique. Changes in blood oxygenation and flow, which occur in response to neural activity, can be detected by this technique. When the brain is activated by a specific task, the magnetic resonance signal intensity is increased in the thereby activated regions. This is due to greater uptake of oxygen, resulting in an increased blood flow in this area [78]. An fMRI scan produces activation maps visualizing which parts of the brain are involved in a particular mental process [65].

Human neuroimaging studies have examined alterations in the activation of specific brain regions in MDD patients relative to controls. Brain regions involved in emotion experience,

like PFC and Cg25, as well as hippocampus (HC) and AM, which are part of the emotional memory formation and retrieval process, are characterized by dysregulated neural activity in common psychiatric disorders [182].

Structural neuroimaging studies provide strong evidence of decreased volume of brain regions- such as AM, PFC and the HC [65, 131, 220]- that control emotion, mood and cognition, in MDD patients compared to healthy controls.

Furthermore, genetic variants in the serotonergic system (5-HTTLPR, serotonin-transporter-linked polymorphic region in solute carrier family 6 (neurotransmitter transporter), member 4 (SLC6A4)) are associated with increased amygdala activation in patients with MDD [65]. Gene by environment interactions indicating risk-allele carriers to be associated with low grey matter volume and processing of negative affect have been found in this genetic variants [182, 171].

Other studies report a decrease of the connectivity between HC and PFC as well as other brain regions, although there are contradicting reports of increased connectivity of some regions, indicating a more complex disruption of reciprocal connections [53].

1.1.3. Genetic and environmental factors

MDD is characterized by both genetic as well as environmental influences. The primary known environmental risk factors for MDD are life stress events including sexual, physical or emotional abuse, childhood neglect, loss of a parent or living with mentally ill parent [85].

Case-control family studies showing that MDD aggregates within families date back to the first few decades of the 20^{th} century [62]. A meta-analysis of high-quality family studies found that the prevalence of MDD in the first-degree relatives was 2.84-fold higher in relatives of affected subjects compared to relatives of unaffected subjects [213, 62]. This meta-analysis estimated heritability for MDD to be 37% (95% confidence interval (CI) of 31-42%) with minimal shared environmental effects between siblings (0% with 95% CI of 0-5%), but large individual specific environmental effects (63% with 95% CI of 58-67%). The absence of shared family environmental influences points to aggregation within MDD families due to genetics effects. Consistent heritability estimated are found in the Swedish national twin study, comprising more than 15,000 twin-pairs, which estimated a 38% heritability for MDD [104].

Numerous genes have been associated with risk of depression in various studies, the most common candidate genes are listed before in table 1.2 [17]. One of the candidate genes is the most widely studied serotonin transporter gene (SLC6A4) on chromosome 17, a therapeutic target for the SSRI class of drugs [72]. A common polymorphism located in the promoter of this gene is 5-hydroxytriptamine-transporter-linked polymorphic region (5-HTTLPR), a 44base pairs (bp) insertion/deletion short/long polymorphism. The short allele (deletion) correlates with reduced serotonin transporter messenger RNA (mRNA) transcription [84, 86, 72]. Mixed results of the relationship of this polymorphism to depression have been reported [90], including positive and negative associations. More consistent results have been obtained by studying gene by environment interactions between 5-HTTLPR and

stressful life events. Caspi et al. [30] reported that the 5-HTTLPR short allele carriers were more susceptible to depression if they experience early life stress.

Abnormal HPA axis regulation is a key neurobiological characteristic of MDD and GR function has been shown to be disturbed in MDD patient, as described above. Thus polymorphisms altering the transcriptional effects of GR activation might be interesting candidates for this disorder. One important regulator of GR sensitivity is the FK506 binding protein 5 (*FKBP5*) gene on chromosome six. Binder et al. [11, 12] showed that depression is associated with GR supersensitivity in *FKBP5*. Variants in *FKBP5* are associated with antidepressant response. These variants were also correlated with increased intracellular *FKBP5* protein expression, which activates alterations in GR and thereby HPA axis regulation. A less HPA axis hyperactivity during depressive episodes was observed in individuals carrying the correlated genotypes of these variants.

Despite this estimated substantial genetic contribution, candidate genes and genomewide association studies (GWASs) for MDD have failed to identify robust genetic associations. Flint and Kendler [62] recently found over 1,500 articles reporting genetic associations for MDD. Only few groups agree with each other, which is reflected by the conflicting resolution of meta-analysis results for MDD. Table 1.3 summarizes data of 26 candidate genes analyzed by a meta-analysis of which only seven yield a significant nominal p-value (P < 0.05) [62]. Furthermore, the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) adopted a large mega-analysis within over 9,000 cases and the same number of controls and was not able to identify a maker reaching the genome-wide significance threshold $(P < 5 \times 10^{-8})$ [133].

Thus, one aim of this thesis is to identify SNPs associated with glucocorticoid-induced gene expression changes and to functionally characterize their relevance for psychiatric disorders, especially MDD.

1.1.4. Animal models of stress-related disorders

The underlying disease process of depression is not fully understood and recreating the disease in animal models is not possible. At present, the models exhibit a depression-like behavior in simulating parts of the human symptoms. But, not all symptoms can be reproduced in animals, for example subjective feeling and appetite change cannot be used for modeling. Examples for symptoms assessable in animals include physiological, endocrinological and neuroanatomical alterations as well as behavioral traits. Such models can be used to predict variability to detect accurate treatments that are useful for the clinic. Depending on the stressor (physical/systemic vs. cognitive/psychological), different neurological circuits are activated [52].

To assess depression and antidepressant-like behavior the forced swim test (FST) [129] and tail suspension test (TST) [208] were used. An animal model of MDD incorporating disease etiology and predisposition is the learned helplessness (LH) paradigm [194]. All three models rely on relatively short-term aversive stress exposure [45].

Stress exposure is the main environmental risk factor for MDD; therefore, the majority of animal models of MDD are based on the exposure to various types of acute or chronic

1.1 Background	of major	depressive $\left(\begin{array}{c} \left(\begin{array}{c} \left($	disorder

Relevance	# of studies	# of cases	# of controls	P value
5-HTR2A	7 - 11	768 - 1,491	959 - 2,937	≥ 0.12
5- HT - $6R$	4	701	2,422	0.41
5HTTLPR/SLC6A4	4 - 39	275 - 6,836	739 - 14,903	≥ 0.007
ACE	4 - 15	586 - 2,479	5,169 - 7,744	> 0.1
BDNF	2 - 23	285 - 4,173	688 - 12,747	> 0.1
CLOCK	6	930	2,305	0.47
COMT	6	NA	NA	NS
DRD3	4	541	606	NS
DRD4	5	318	814	0.003
GABRA3	NA	NA	NA	NS
GNB3	3	375	492	< 0.05
HTR1A	4 - 13	1,658 - 3,199	2,046 - 4,380	\geq 0.006
HTR1B	NA	NA	NA	NS
HTR2A	4 - 11	768 - 1,491	959 - 2,937	> 0.1
HTR2C	2	NA	NA	NS
HTR6	4	701	2,422	0.406
MAOA	4	NA	NA	NS
MTHFR	4 - 17	291 - 3,341	835 - 13,840	≥ 0.003
NET/SLC6A2	3 - 6	$1,\!673 - 1,\!681$	1,410 - 2,938	0.78
DAT/SLC6A3	3	151	272	< 0.05
TPH1	10	1,812	2,223	> 0.1

Table 1.3.: Candidate gene polymorphisms implicated in meta-analyses of genetic association studies of MDD. NA refers to not available, NS nonsignificant and # to number of. The number of samples and studies included in the meta-analysis is given as range of size (samllest to largest). Significant meta-analysis p-values are highlighted in bold. The table is based on [62].

stressors. Example for models of MDD that include a stress component in adulthood are: the chronic mild stress (CMS) paradigm, aiming to model a chronic depressive-like state that develops gradually over time in response to a mild stressor (isolation or crowed housing, food or water deprivation, disruption in dark-light cycle, etc.) [52]. The CMS has been linked to result in long lasting behavioral and neuroendocrinological changes, which resemble dysfunctions in MDD patients [45]. Other models of adult stress are social conflict animal models. Stress can be a chronic and a recurring factor occurring in lives of all higher animal species. Humans experiencing social defeat show increased MDD symptoms [13]. Different paradigm for the social stress model have been established, like dyadic, i.e. animal is exposed to a dominant and aggressive other animal, and group social stress [45]. In this thesis we used a paradigm developed by Schmidt et al. [189], utilizing chronic social stress as a key pathogenic factor during adolescence. An unstable social environment for a prolonged period of time is created. Animals are exposed to a continuous, stressful situation with no possibility to escape and adapt to. Briefly, animals were exposed to seven weeks of chronic social stress, e.g. the group composition in each cage is changed twice per week, so that each time four different mice are put together in a new clean cage. After the seven weeks stress procedure, all animals were single housed for five weeks. After this recovery phase, susceptible animals exhibit depression-like behavioral and endocrine phenotypes, while this is not the case for resilient animals, which show strong stress-related disturbance immediately after the seven weeks of stress but recovery to the level of unstressed control animals [190, 189, 110].

Contrary to the adult stress models, the early life stress models, like the maternal separation paradigm, have been investigated.

Further evidence is provided by genetic animal models in which components of the HPA axis were modified by mutagenesis (GR or CRHR1 knockout mice) or models which assess the functionality of the HPA axis by challenge tests, such as the DST or the combined dexamethasone-CRH test [42]. The dexamethasone treated mice experiment was part of this thesis (see section 3.2 and subsection 2.1).

1.2. Technological background to identify complex traits

1.2.1. Genome-wide association studies

The genome-wide association study (GWAS) methods screen the whole genome for associations between common genetic variants (single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)s) and a phenotype without any prior selection for specific regions, genes or variants of interest. Therefore, the GWAS approach is also called hypothesis-free approach. This method utilizes high-throughput genotyping arrays (see section 1.2.1), which capture a remarkable proportion of common variation in the genome [109]. GWAS can be used to detect casecontrol associations. Thereby, a set of cases and matched controls is used to assess the difference in SNP frequencies between both sets [22]. The basic design of a GWAS includes two steps: the first one is statistical testing of the correlation between SNPs and phenotype and the second one follows up the best hits in an independent sample for statistical validation [226].

GWASs are an important advance for the identification of genetic variants influencing common human diseases, but there are several limitations. Firstly, there is a huge gap between statistical association and identifying the underlying functional basis between a genomic interval and a given complex trait. Secondly, associations identified in one population are often not reproducible and cannot be replicated in other populations and furthermore a large number of identified loci are cell and tissue specific. Thirdly, the enormous number of loci identified by GWASs have only been able to account for a very small proportion of the heritability of the complex traits [64]. This phenomenon has become known as the "case of missing heritability" [143, 136].

Regardless of the drawbacks, these studies mainly represent a valuable discovery tool for examining genomic function and elucidate pathophysiologic mechanisms [168].

1.2.1.1. Analysis of GWASs

In the following section, several methodologies, which are crucial for GWASs, are described. The outcome highly relies on the correct genotype data, which otherwise reduces the power to fine map the trait of interest.

SNP genotyping

The increased interest in SNPs has been reflected by the rapid development of diverse and dense SNP genotyping methods. This constitutes the process of determining the genotype of an individual by examining its DNA sequence with the use of biological assays. A higher throughput was provided through the implementation of oligonucleotide microarrays. Hundreds of thousands of fixed sequences can be arranged in a small area, enabling very high-throughput data generation. The typical feature of a microarray based genotyping platform is the large number of SNPs that can be genotyped from one or more samples at the same time.

SNP genotyping methods hold two components: at first a method for discrimination between alternative alleles and second a method for reporting the presence of the allele/s in a given DNA sample. Determination methods include primer extension, enzyme cleavage and allele-specific hybridization. The detection is based on light signals emitted at specific spots on these chips [216].

Several companies such as Applied Biosystems, Luminex, Fluidigm, Affymetrix or Illumina provide high-throughput genotyping arrays commonly used in GWASs.

In this thesis, all individuals of the Max-Planck Institute of Psychiatry (MPIP) cohort were independently genotyped utilizing the Illumina Human610-Quad and Illumina Human660W-Quad Genotyping BeadChips, using the llumina Sentix Human-1, Human-Hap300, Illumina Human610-Quad and HumanOmniExpress Genotyping BeadChips for the Munich antidepressant response signature (MARS) cohort and Illumina HumanOmni-Express BeadChips for the Duke Neurogenetics Study (DNS) cohort (see section 3.2).

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, genotypic- and allelic frequencies

Allele frequency defines the rate of a single allele in a population and is calculated by dividing the number of times the allele of interest is observed in a population by the total number of copies of the alleles at a particular locus¹. The genotype frequency refers to the frequency of the different combinations of those alleles in the population. One of these alleles will appear less frequently than the other, which is then defined as the minor allele. Typically, SNPs with a low minor allele frequency (MAF)(<5%) are excluded in GWASs to avoid misclassification bias, since variants with a low MAF do not show much variation across the population and their detection becomes unlikely [136].

The Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) is a principle describing that the genetic variation in a population in the absence of disturbing factors will remain constant over generations. Moreover, when mating is random in a large population and disturbing factors,

¹http://www.nature.com/scitable/definition/hardy-weinberg-equilibrium-122

e.g. natural selection, mutations and inbreeding, are excluded the law predicts that both genotypes and allele frequencies will remain constant because they are in equilibrium (Eq. 1.1). For instance, a mutation can destroy the equilibrium by introducing new alleles into a population or nonrandom mating and natural selection by changing gene frequencies¹. Deviation from HWE within genotyped SNPs can provide wrong evidence for association. Therefore testing for HWE is part of the normal quality control of GWASs and markers are typically exclude if the P value of the HWE test is less than 10^{-5} .

The Hardy-Weinberg principle can be illustrated with the following equation:

$$p^{2} = f(AA)$$

$$2pq = f(Aa)$$

$$q^{2} = f(aa)$$

$$p^{2} + 2pq + q^{2} = 1$$

$$(1.1)$$

Linkage disequilibrium, haplotypes and tagging SNPs

The pattern of association between SNPs in the genome can be derived from haplotypes and linkage disequilibrium (LD).

A haplotype is a combination of a set of alleles at a number of closely spaced sites on a chromosome [74].

In a GWAS, the genetic phenomenon of a non-random association of alleles at two or more loci is important. Resulting genetic markers in proximity of a disease-causing variant will be more often co-inherited with this disease-causing variant than expected under independent conditions. In fact, the closer two genes are on a chromosome the higher their chances of being inherited together. Contrary, for more distant genes the likelihood of separation during recombination is greater². This lack of independence among different genetic variants is termed LD. Some studies reported that physical distance does not always explain the level of linkage and small distance does not ensure a high level of LD [207, 228, 185, 199]. For example, Abecasis et al. [1] showed that only 45% oft their observed variation in disequilibrium measures could be explained by physical distance. Additional factors, such as allele frequency, type of polymorphism, and genomic location must be taken into consideration.

Various statistical measures are used to quantify LD between alleles of two loci. D' and r^2 are most widely used and depend on linkage coefficient, D (Eq. 1.2), which is defined for a specific pair of alleles, A and B, and does not depend on how many other alleles are at the two loci- each pair has its own D.

$$D = f_{AB} - f_A f_B$$

$$f = frequency$$
(1.2)

The smallest possible value, D_{min} , is the less negative value of $-f_A f_B$ and $-1(1-f_A)(1-f_B)$. The largest possible value, D_{max} , is the smallest of $f_A(1-f_B)$ and $f_B(1-f_A)$. D'

²http://www.nature.com/scitable/definition/linkage-51

is defined as the ratio of D to its maximum possible absolute values of D (Eq. 1.3), given the allele frequencies [199].

$$D' = \frac{D}{D_{min/max}} \tag{1.3}$$

The second measure to quantify LD is:

$$r^{2} = \frac{D^{2}}{f_{A}(1 - f_{A})f_{B}(1 - f_{B})}$$
(1.4)

D' and r^2 range from zero (independence; no LD) to one (complete LD), but their interpretation is slightly different. D' equal to one if just two or three of the possible haplotypes are present, and it is less than one if all four possible haplotypes are present. An r^2 equal to one can just be reached if only two haplotypes are present. In association mapping the r^2 is the LD measure of choice, since there is a inverse relationship between r^2 and the sample size required to detect association between susceptibility loci and SNPs (for more details please see [247]) [228].

The human genome is split into blocks of high LD regions, which are known as haplotype/LD blocks. The length of a LD block varies across different ethnics. The LD in Europeans and European-Americans extends larger distances than in Africans and African-Americans, which might reflect a population bottleneck at the time when modern humans first left Africa[228].

The most widely studied region in humans is the major histocompatibility complex (MHC)- also referred as human leukocyte antigen (HLA) complex, which is located on chromosome 6 and spans 3.6mega base pairs (Mb) (extended MHC spans 7.6Mb [93]). This regions is known for its high degree of LD. It is arranged into conserved extended haplotypes of variable size, which makes portioning into LD blocks highly complex [15].

The LD pattern can further be used to create non-redundant sets of SNPs (LD bins/ SNP bins), this process is called "tagging". SNPs, capturing other SNPs on the basis of LD patterns are defined as tagging SNPs. If a tagging SNP is correlated with a trait of interest the markers in high LD should exhibit association to this trait as well. A sufficient selection of tagging SNPs can provide enough information to predict the information about the other variants in LD [101].

Population stratification

One of the key challenges in GWASs is to avoid spurious associations. Such misleading associations can occur due to confounding factors, e.g. inconsistency in data collection methods or differences in allele frequencies within subpopulations (for more details see section 1.2.2.2). Especially in GWASs with a case-control design, differences in allele frequency among cases and controls unrelated to the outcome of interest can cause spurious associations between phenotype and genotype. Population stratification refers to those

ancestral differences. Large samples comprising multiple populations can interfere the LD structure or lead to deviation from the HWE [176]. Methods dealing with correction for population stratification include the genomic control approach, structured association approach, multidimensional scaling (MDS), principal component analysis (PCA) or linear mixed models. The genomic control [46] corrects stratification by adjusting association statistics at each marker by a common factor for all SNPs (λ_{GC}). The structured association correction [177] assigns the sample to discrete subpopulation clusters and then accumulates evidence of association within each cluster. The most widely used method is the PCA approach. The EIGENSTRAT method [176], uses PCA to identify several top principal components (PC)s and includes them as covariates in the association analysis. A PC is defined as the product of a weight vector and a genotype vector, with weights reflecting the marginal information about ancestry [229]. Another method correcting for stratification, which is equivalent to PCA for certain similarity matrices, is the MDS approach.

Missing genotypic values and imputation

Missing genotype information is a frequent problem within GWASs. Since most of the analysis tools cannot handle missing values, they have to be removed prior to their application, resulting in a considerable loss of information.

Imputation methods address this problem by using the LD information within a region to predict missing genotypes at typed SNPs or genotypes that are not genotyped at all [80, 69]. Based on a reference panel of samples from identical or similar populations that was produced by whole-genome sequencing, imputation methods infer genotypes at markers that were not directly typed in a study. Samples from the HapMap project [96] and/or 1,000 Genomes Project (1KGP) [225] are used as reference panels. Those reference panels contain a much larger number of SNPs, because they were produced by genome sequencing. The 1KGP reference panel allows a deeper analysis of the contribution of genetic variation than the HapMap data. It benefited from whole-genome sequencing technology, which increased resolution significantly. The obvious advantage of imputation is a considerable gain of information at no or low additional costs. Before the rise of GWASs, imputation methods were successfully applied to association studies [83]. Unfortunately, most of them do not work for genome-wide approaches due to excessive computational costs of the algorithms. However, other algorithms especially developed for the genome-wide task proved themselves to be particularly useful because of the dense and numerous marker sets and background information made available by these kinds of studies.

Computationally intensive tools used for genotype imputation include IMPUTE [139], MACH [123], BEAGLE [24] and fastPHASE [187]. They mainly differ in the approach to choose the ancestral haplotypes.

In this thesis we utilized IMPUTE version 2 (see section 2.3) to estimate the genotypes of incomplete or untyped SNPs applying combined reference data of HapMap and 1KGP. Briefly, IMPUTE first aims to identify shared haplotypes of the individuals from a study panel and the haplotypes in the reference sets. Individuals in the study and reference panels share a degree of common ancestry. Therefore, different parts of the study data will be more closely related to different individuals of the reference panel, thus, the haplotypes of a given individual could be modeled as a mosaic of haplotypes of the related individuals. Missing genotypes in the study sample were then imputed on the basis of the matched haplotypes of the reference set. The output for each imputed SNP is the probability of the distributions over the genotypes 0, 1 or 2, which was used to estimate the missing genotype [139, 138].

Analyzing the imputed SNPs can lead to more significant associations and a more detailed view of associated regions.

1.2.2. Gene expression as molecular phenotype

The expression of genes is an intermediate molecular phenotype, which can help to identify genetic variation responsible for psychiatric disorders. Gene expression likely reflects both, state and trait dependent disease-related influences and these have been shown to be highly heritable [211].

1.2.2.1. Analysis of gene expression profiles

Gene expression can be detected using sequencing-based (RNA sequencing (RNA-seq)) or hybridization-based approaches (microarray). In this thesis, gene expression microarrays (see section 2.2) provided the measurements on gene expression. Microarrays utilize the principle of complementary hybridization between nucleic acids and the advantage of the knowledge of the genome. High-density microarrays harbore probe sequences complementary to thousands of genes, each immobilized at a specific coordinate on the surface of the array. To measure gene abundance from certain cells of tissues the ribonucleic acid (RNA) is extracted and labeled fluorescently or radioactively. The tagged RNA hybridizes specifically to complementary DNA (cDNA) sequences on the array and the signal is proportional to the abundance of RNA in the sample [147]. The emitted light signal is detected using autoradiography, chemiluminescence, or fluorescent scanning. Quantitative signal intensity scanning allows gene expression levels to be measured by their positions on the microarray and level of hybridization [224].

Microarrays allow researchers to measure the expression of thousands of genes simultaneously with relatively low costs as compared to the sequencing methods. Nevertheless, microarrays have some limitations. They depend on the quality of the available genome annotations, there is cross-hybridization between similar array probe sequences and they are only able to detect known transcripts- since they interrogate a fixed content.

Furthermore, microarray technologies are very sensitive to create batch effects. Due to practical reasons, the number of samples that can be hybridized or amplified at the same time is limited, resulting in different runs that might be several days or weeks apart. Differences in lab conditions and preparation methods can further contribute to the variation within the gene expression data [118].

Differential gene expression

Examining the differences in gene expression levels across two or more experimental groups is referred to as "differential expression analysis". This can be done by targeting a specific gene or by utilizing genome-wide gene expression levels [41]. In this thesis, we identified significant differences in gene expression levels between cases and controls as well as differences in gene expression levels after dexamethasone between cases and controls (see section 3.1). Further we showed that genetic variants altering the transcriptional response to GR activation are relevant for psychiatric disorders (see section 3.2).

Functional genomic analyses of gene expression

Transcriptional regulation of gene expression

The aim of functional genomics is to elucidate the functions of genes by identifying the locations of all their regulatory elements. A regulatory element, including TFs, DNA methylation patterns, promoters and enhancers, refers to a discrete region in the genome that encodes a defined product or a reproducible biochemical signature such as transcription or specific chromatin structure [57]. Since, the regulation of gene expression mainly occurs at the transcriptional level, the identification of regulatory elements plays an important role in understanding regulation of gene transcription [231]. The formation of regions of open chromatin is a key factor elucidating functional regulatory activity. The structure of the DNA is organized by nucleosome packing, acting as a regulator of transcription by enabling or restricting protein binding, and therefore influencing the activity of a gene [132]. Regions of open chromatin are indicated by deoxyribonuclease I hypersensitive sites (DHSs) and deoxyribonuclease I (DNaseI) mappings which have been instrumental in the discovery of regulatory elements. Chromatin structure can be profiled with DNase-seq [201], a combination of DNaseI digestion and high-throughput sequencing, as well as FAIRE-seq (formaldehyde-assisted isolation of regulatory elements followed by sequencing) [70]. Histone modifications can be also assessed by chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) followed by high-throughput sequencing (ChIP-seq) [67]. The same technique can be used to map the genomic location for TF binding sites. The binding of TFs can modulate transcription levels and influence the activity of specific genes. Further, chromatin contact between specific regulatory elements highlights an important feature in gene expression regulation. The characterization of these physical interactions can be carried out by chromatin interaction analysis by paired-end tag sequencing (ChIA-PET) [242]. This technique converts chromatin structure into millions of short tag sequences and by combining ChIP with chromatin conformation capture (3C) technology and high-throughput sequencing. Thereby, higher order chromatin interactions at genome-wide resolution can be assessed.

The encyclopedia of DNA elements (ENCODE) project [58] proposes to build a comprehensive map of all functional elements in the human genome. Parts of the ENCODE data were used in this thesis to evaluate whether the long-range regulation of GR-response expression quantitative trait locus (eQTL)s may also be associated with long-range physical chromatin interactions, (see section 3.2.2). Therefore, our eQTL data (see section 1.2.2.2) were compared to the ENCODE DHSs and ChIA-PET data. Furthermore, we investigated whether specific TF binding motifs are enriched in the set of GR-response eSNPs.

Of course, other mechanisms to modulate gene expression exist, containing e.g. microRNA (miRNA)s, non-coding RNAs or DNA methylation on the epigenetic level.

Gene network analysis

Gene networks provide a straightforward representation of the relationship between genes. Different network-based approaches can be used, including gene co-expression, protein-protein interaction as well as cell-cell interaction [241].

In general, gene networks are used to identify higher-level features of gene-gene relationships based on graph theoretic consideration like node degree or clustering coefficient. Genes functionally related to each other, often show correlated gene expression profiles. Therefore, co-expression can be utilized to identify clusters of genes, which share a biological function. Similarity can be measured by Pearson correlation coefficient, Kendall's τ correlation or Spearman's rank correlation. The similarity measure is applied to all possible gene pairs generating a symmetric matrix of correlation values [151]. The associations established from a co-expression analysis can be illustrated in a network, depicting a gene expression profile as a node and shared edges between nodes indicate a significant pairwise expression profile association [241]. Evaluating the broader structure of networks allows detecting groups of even higher co-regulation (modules). The genes in a network can be characterized by the number of connections they have. Highly connected genes are major players in a network and are referred to as hubs [152].

In this thesis we used the Pearson similarity measure to test if a set of gene products identified in the GR-response eQTL analysis tends to be more co-regulated on a transcriptional level than random eQTL genes (see section 3.2.6).

Furthermore, these genes were analyzed for physical interactions, regulatory interactions and association with psychiatric disorders based on manually curated relationships extracted from the scientific literature (see section 3.2.6).

Classification

The ability to distinguish between classes of samples, like patients and healthy controls, is especially important in psychiatric research, since the diagnosis is solely based on verbal information. Gene expression data can be used for classification and help to identify biomarkers for psychiatric disorders. The primary classification methods include k-nearest neighbor classifiers, discriminant analysis, neural networks, logistic regression, support vector machines and classification trees.

The classification of microarray gene expression data is challenging due to the large number of genes relative to the small number of samples. Typically, these data sets contain around 12,000 genes for less than 100 samples [51], including a large number of irrelevant or redundant genes uninformative for classification. Therefore, it is crucial to reduce the number of genes in order to achieve good classification accuracy. Feature selection and dimension reduction are the main approaches for this purpose. Feature selection methods are: entropy-based, t-statistics, correlation-based, χ^2 and signal-to-noise statistic [2]. Creating a classifier is a multi-step approach. Firstly, the set of samples is divided randomly into training and test set, using the hold-out, k-fold cross validation or leave-oneout approach. The model is fit on the training set and then used to predict the responses for observations in the test set. The performance of this model can be represented in a confusion matrix that reports the number of true (TP) and false plosives (FP) as well as true (TN) and false negatives (FN). From these values the true positive rate (TPR) (sensitivity; see Eq. 1.5), true negative rate (TNR) (specificity; see Eq. 1.6) and accuracy (ACC; see Eq. 1.7) can be calculated.

$$TRP = \frac{TP}{(TP + FN)} = \frac{TP}{P}$$
(1.5)

$$TNR = \frac{TN}{(FP + TN)} = \frac{TN}{N}$$
(1.6)

$$ACC = \frac{TP + TN}{(P+N)} \tag{1.7}$$

In this thesis, we performed classification with the random forest (RF) classification technique [20]. It gains some advantages compared to other classifiers: usage of bagging on samples, random subset of variables and majority vote schema [2]. The RF uses the training set to create an in-bag partition to construct the tree and the test set, which is not used in the construction of the tree, is used as an out-of-bag (OOB) partition to test the constructed tree and to evaluate the performance. All trees vote to determine the prediction results and an OOB estimate of the error rate is calculated. The RF provides the mean decrease Gini as an importance measure that calculates the quality of a split for each node of a tree by means of the Gini index. Each time a node is split on a variable, the Gini index for both descendent nodes is less than the ancestor node. A higher mean decrease Gini represents a higher variable importance [20, 161]. In this thesis, the Gini index was used as importance measure to run a feature section before starting to create a classification model (see section 3.1).

1.2.2.2. Analysis of expression quantitative trait loci

The study of the genetic source of variation in gene expression is known as expression quantitative trait locus (eQTL) study. It combines established quantitative trait locus (QTL) mapping with genome-wide gene expression data (see figure 1.2 for illustration). These studies take advantage of technical developments such as microarrays, which allow the parallel measurement of expression levels and genotypes of thousands of genes in large numbers of samples [32].

The mapping of eQTLs is based on the assumption that gene expression levels can be incorporated with genotype data in the same way as any other phenotype, such as age or body weight. Typical data sets for eQTL studies consist of a set of two data matrices. The first $n \times G$ matrix contains gene expression values for diverse individuals (n) and the measured transcripts (G; plus several phenotypes). The second $n \times S$ matrix



Figure 1.2.: Genetic association mapping of genome-wide gene expression data. Genome-wide genotyping (SNP) and gene expression data (treated as quantitative phenotype) were combined to identify genetic loci that control quantitative variation in gene expression (eQTLs).

similarly contains all participants (n) and collected information on genomic markers (S) [33]. Thereby eQTL studies connect variation in DNA sequence level to that at the RNA level. The significance of these eQTL studies is further enhanced by the possibility to scan for regulators without the need of prior knowledge of the mechanisms and by simultaneously investigating many gene expression probes enabling the identification of co-regulation, i.e. co-expression networks [32]. The understanding of eQTL data can be further increased by integrating additional biological information e.g. epigenetic or regulatory factors [36]. eQTLs are influenced not only by genetic polymorphisms but also by other biological effects, such as heritability, and *cis* and *trans* effects, which are further characterized in the following paragraphs.

Application of eQTL studies are deeper understanding of the genetic basis of complex disorders and identification of gene networks involved in disease pathogenesis.

Heritability of eQTLs

eQTL studies take advantage of variation in gene expression to detect the underlying genetic cause. A key question is to what extend the phenotypic variation in a trait can be attributed to genetic factors, i.e. heritability [236]. Heritability, attributable to additive genetic factors, is defined as narrow-sense heritability. It can be inflated by non-additive genetic effects, such as epistasis, referring to broad-sense heritability [136]. It is inherently difficult to restrict the contribution of non-genetic factors in humans. An inference of the genetic contribution to polymorphic variation on the level of gene expression can be assessed by estimating heritability of genes by familial aggregation studies. Evidence for familial aggregation was observed by comparing variation among unrelated individuals, among siblings within families and between monozygotic twins [31].

Previous studies [240, 56, 73, 48, 31] have shown that levels of gene expression are highly
heritable using a variety of cells and tissues. For example, Dixon et al. [48] identified 15,084 eQTL probes (out of 54,675 probes) representing 6,660 genes with narrow-sense heritabilities > 0.3 in lymphoblastoid cell lines (LCLs). Lately, in the Multiple Tissue Human Expression Resource (MuTHER) study [76] gene expression across multiple tissues in 856 twins was analyzed. For expressed genes they reported mean heritability values of 0.16 (skin), 0.21 (LCLs) and 0.26 (adipose), with higher estimates for significant *cis*-eQTLs (> 0.3). Most recently, Wright and colleagues [237] analyzed gene expression of 18,392 genes from peripheral blood in 2,752 twins and reported low heritability estimates. Interestingly, they detected that a significantly positive association between heritability and GWAS genes and heritability is strongly associated with expression mean and variance.

Cis- and trans-effects of eQTLs

When interpreting eQTL data one must consider that identified loci can influence the gene expression levels either in *cis* (local; see figure 1.3) or in *trans* (distal; see figure 1.4). To distinguish both effects a search radius (ϵ) has to be selected and for each expression probe p a *cis* -window is termed by Eq. 1.8.

$$N_p = N_{p,\epsilon} = (a_p - \epsilon, b_p + \epsilon) \tag{1.8}$$

,where a_p refers to the coordinated of the 5' end and b_p to the 3' end of the expression probe p. $|N_p|$ denotes the number of SNPs in the defined search space. In this thesis ϵ was set to 1Mb to define *cis*-eQTLs (see section 2.5.2). *Cis*-acting eQTLs include SNPs in the vicinity of the regulated transcripts. To date, eQTL studies have found more *cis* than *trans* effects. This is probably due to the diverse thresholds used for statistical significance and sample sizes [32]. *Cis*- associations have larger effects, are more stable across statistical methodologies and are more common [41], resulting in an easier detectability than *trans* associations. Several studies have indicated that > 90% of the *cis*-eQTLs in humans are located 100kilo base pairs (kb) upstream and downstream of the transcript [48]. The *cis*-eQTLs cluster symmetrically around the transcript start or end sites and reflect polymorphisms located directly upstream of the transcript [211].

When the genomic distance between gene expression probe and genetic variant is large (usually greater than 1Mb), the eQTLs are defined as *trans* [211]. Because *trans*-acting variants can be anywhere in the genome relative to the target gene and stringent statistical correction for multiple testing has to be applied, it is more difficult to detect these effects. Furthermore, their effects are usually weaker than *cis* effects. This is possibly due to the combined influence on a gene by multiple *trans*-acting regulators, whereas usually one or only very few *cis*-acting regulators [32] have sufficient influence. However, *trans* associations are of interest since they are mainly mediated through transcription factors and can possibly reveal master regulators (hubs) of transcription [41, 36].

Of note, the declaration as cis or trans-regulator only implies the distance of the genetic signal to the target gene [32] but carries no functional significance.



Figure 1.3.: Effect of *cis*-acting variants on expression levels of genes. *Cis*- acting variants are found to be in the vicinity to the target genes. Different allelic forms of the genetic variant show different influences on gene expression. Here, individuals with the A-allele have higher expression levels of the target gene than individuals with the G-allele.

Tissue specificity of eQTLs

One of the first questions in designing an eQTL study regards the type of cells to utilize in the study [32]. Ideally, RNA for eQTL analysis should be obtained from a wide range of tissues, to downstream analyze disease-associated SNPs in the disease-relevant tissue/s. For many diseases, it is very difficult to obtain disease-relevant tissue from living humans, this is especially true for brain tissue needed in psychiatric research. However, the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) project achieved to collect gene expression data in over 60 tissues across approximately 1,400 individuals [77].

Studies in humans are primarily investigated in blood and subcutaneous adipose tissues [56], cells from liver samples [186], lymphocytes [73] and cells from tissue from brain banks [157]. These studies indicated that eQTLs are common [77]. Several studies have reported tissue specific effects of eQTLs [76, 244]. The simplest approach to determine eQTLs in different tissues is by mapping eQTLs separately for each tissue and subsequently examining the overlap (tissue-by-tissue analysis) [63]. Another approach is the joint-analysis on all tissues, while simultaneously allowing for differences among eQTLs present in each tissue. This method maximizes the power to detect eQTLs that are actually shared among tissues. It is superior to the tissue-by tissue analysis, which, due to incomplete power, leads to high numbers of falsely interpreted tissue-specific eQTLs. For example, Flutre and colleagues [63] re-analyzed *cis*-eQTLs in samples of LCLs, T-cells and fibroblasts from Dimas and colleagues [47] by applying both, the joint and tissue-by tissue approach. They showed an increased power to identify eQTLs with the joint-analysis, and discovered additional 63% genes with eQTLs. Moreover, they concluded only 8% of the eQTLs to be tissue-specific and 88% to be common between all three tissues. Originally, using the tissue-by-tissue approach 69-80% of the eQTL were thought to operate in tissue-specific manner. Another approach to investigate eQTLs shared among different tissues is to study cross-heritability of gene expression. The method is based on polygenic models and attempts to estimate



Figure 1.4.: Effect of *trans*-acting variants on gene expression levels of genes. *Trans*-acting variants are distally located from the target gene, often on other chromosomes. Different allelic forms of the genetic variant exhibit different influences on gene expression. Here, individuals with the A-allele have a higher expression level of the target gene than those with the T-allele.

the combined influence of all shared eQTLs [63].

An attractive choice of tissue in psychiatric studies is blood since it is the most accessible tissue [32] in the clinic. Many studies show the utility of blood as a surrogate for brain tissue. This has been supported mainly through indirect investigations of expression profiles in relation to specific neurological and psychiatric disorders [26]. However, the question remains, are the resulting eQTLs meaningful? In this thesis, we show that it is indeed possible to differentiate between MDD cases and controls utilizing GR-stimulated gene expression patterns obtained from peripheral blood samples (see section 3.1). Furthermore, we compared gene expression profiles of human GR-response eQTL genes from peripheral blood cells to mice assays from blood and brain tissue. Over 65% of the transcripts identified as candidate genes in our human blood data were also regulated following GR agonist stimulation in mice (see section 3.2.6). Furthermore, a study by Jasinska and colleagues [99] determined gene expression profiles across eight brain regions (cerebellar vermis, pulvinar, head of caudate, hippocampus, occipital pole, orbitofrontal cortex, frontal pole, dorsolateral PFC) and peripheral blood in male monkeys. The primary focus of the study was to identify the correlation of brain and peripheral blood transcriptional profiles. Candidate transcripts were selected for mapping brain eQTLs in peripheral blood. The gene expression of 33% of the transcripts expressed in both brain and blood was found to be highly correlated. Furthermore, Sullivan et al. [212] report correlations of gene expression patterns available in whole blood and multiple brain tissues of around 50%.

Confounding factors of eQTL studies

Confounding factors affect the relationship between an independent and depend variable, thus evoking false correlations leading to incorrect results. Several eQTL studies have shown that confounding variables reduce the power to detect eQTLs [206]. Some confounders are known and others are unknown. Well known confounders include population differences, sample size and technical source of variation referred to as batch effects. Batch effects are systemic variation between groups of samples (batches) induced by experimental features that are not of biological interest [181], i.e. chip type, protocols (sample preparation, amplification, hybridization and labeling), platform, laboratory, staff (technician), storage (time and place), etc. [206, 130, 181]. They can be minimized or even avoided by a thoroughly planed experimental design, considering e.g. randomizing possibly present groups. This means, in cases-control studies, one should always avoid to process all cases on one day and all of the controls on another day. It will be impossible to distinguish the introduced batch effect from any real biological effects [118]. But many types of batches are unavoidable. For example, larger studies with huge sample sizes and have to be carried out over many month or even years [117]. A different issue are the unknown or hidden factors, which cannot directly be removed as they are not measured [206]. Normalization methods for gene expression microarrays have been widely used to adjust for such experimental artifacts between samples [130]. The methods remove systemic effects within or between microarrays (chips). However, they are not directly designed to remove batch effects. Therefore, batch effects may often remain after normalization. Consequently, multiple methods have been developed to remove batch effects, including PCA [181], empirical Bayes approach- called ComBat [102] and surrogate variable analysis [119].

Multiple-testing problem in eQTL studies

The multiple testing problem

Multiple-testing refers to any instance that tries to test a set of hypotheses at the same time. Take the case of n = 100 hypotheses to be tested simultaneously, using some level of significance α . For $\alpha = 0.05$, one expects five true hypotheses to be rejected. Further, if all tests are independent, the probability that at least one of the significant results is due to chance is given by $1 - (1 - \alpha)^n = 1 - 0.95^{100} = 0.994$ (family-wise error rate (FWER)). Thus, with 100 tests being considered, one has a 99,4% chance of observing at least one significant result, even if all of the test are actually not significant. In microarray studies the number if simultaneous tests is quite large, and if one does not take the multiplicity of tests into account, the probability that some of the true null hypotheses are rejected by chance alone is very high [184].

The Bonferroni correction

A very conservative method to corrected for multiple-testing is the Bonferroni correction, which reduces the number of FP and at the same time it also reduces the number of true discoveries. It sets the significance cut-off at α/n . For example, with n = 100 tests and $\alpha = 0.05$, the null hypothesis will only be rejected if the P value is less than 0.0005 [184].

	called significant	called not significant	total
null true	F	$m_0 - F$	m_0
alternative true	T	$m_1 - T$	m_1
total	S	m-S	m

Table 1.4.: Hypotheses definition. The table is based on [210].

Benjamini and Hochberg's false-discovery rate control

A less conservative method is the false discovery rate (FDR) correction introduced by Benjamini and Hochberg [9]. The FDR method has been widely used to detect differential gene expression in microarray experiments [210]. It considers the probability of one or more false positives (FP) discoveries among multiple tests and estimates the proportion of FP in the result [185]. Thus, FDR is a sensitive measure of the balance between the number of TP and FP [210].

Suppose we have m P values with various outcomes that can occur when a significance threshold is applied to them. Table 1.4 summarize these outcomes. F is the number of FP, T is the number of TP and S is the total number of features called significant. m_0 is the number of features that are true and $m_1 = m - m_0$ is the number of truly alternative features. The FDR is can be expressed as in Eq. 1.9, E[*] being the overall error measure in terms of an expected value [210].

$$FDR = E\left[\frac{F}{F+T}\right] = E\left[\frac{F}{S}\right] \tag{1.9}$$

,where FDR is defined to be 0 when S = 0 [210]. The FDR adjusted p-values are called q-values.

Resampling-based methods

Resampling-based multiple-testing corrections are the most commonly used methods to adjust the significance of differential gene expression between classes. Some common resampling-based methods include bootstrapping or permutation tests. These methods create a pseudo-data set, where the phenotype values are randomly sampled and reassigned to individuals with (e.g. bootstrap) or without (e.g. permutation) replacement. A statistical test is applied to the pseudo-data set [227]. Westfall and Young [233] suggested to compare the observed minimum P value for given pseudo-data set (pseudo-p-value) with the actual P value and record (R) the number of times the pseudo P value is equal or less than the actual one. This procedure is repeated several thousand times (R counters) and the proportion of resampled data sets with a minimum pseudo P value less or equal to an actual P value is the adjusted P value.

Multiple-testing correction for eQTLs

For eQTL studies a huge number of statistical tests will be examined. A typical study includes 500,000 genotyped or up to 8 million imputed SNPs and approximately 15,000 gene expression probes, resulting in $(500,000 - 8,000,000) \times 15,000 = 7.5 \times 10^9 - 1.2 \times 10^{11}$ tests. In this case a large number of false positive results is expected. To increase the amount of meaningful information obtained from eQTL studies, appropriate multipletesting correction is crucial [243].

As eQTL data contains two kinds of data, genotyping as well as gene expression data, a two stage design is common. Multiple testing correction on both (i) SNP level and (ii) gene expression probe levels is performed. An according approach was used in this thesis (see section 2.5.2). Briefly, (i) one of the most commonly used method for multiple-testing correction across multiple genetic marker for each phenotype include the resampling-based procedure using permutation or bootstrap (here: permutation). The null distribution is simulated with permuted phenotype values. In detail, the phenotype values are randomly shuffled and reassigned to individuals without replacement. To find the maximal test statistic for each phenotype among SNPs a genome-wide scan is performed. The adjusted P value is the proportion of permutated phenotypes with a maximal test statistics greater than the actual test statistic of the original data [243]. The resampling-based test preserves the correlation structure of the SNPs (LD) and does not require any assumption of distribution for the test statistic [243]. In this thesis the permutation-based p-values for each phenotype were further adjusted by a Westfall-Young correction regarding the number of SNPs per probe. (ii) A second level of multiple-testing problem in eQTL studies are the multiple tests across gene expression traits. Therefore, the prior estimated adjusted empirical p-values (of the most significant association- independence) for each expression probe was used to determine a threshold for the adjusted P values across all gene expression probes by controlling for the FDR [243].

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Samples and study design

2.1.1. MPIP cohort

The subject pool for the eQTL analysis consisted of 164 male Caucasian individuals (90%) of German origin) recruited within the MARS project [97]: 93 healthy probands (age = 40.2 ± 12.4 years; body mass index (BMI) = 24.9 ± 3.1 kg/m²) and 71 in-patients with depressive disorders (age = 48.5 ± 13.5 years; HAM-D = 25.3 ± 8.0 ; BMI = $26.1 \pm 3.6 kq/m^2$) treated at the hospital of the Max Planck Institute of Psychiatry in Munich, Germany (MPIP cohort). Only individuals not reporting a history of current psychiatric disorders as well as major neurological and general medical disorders were included in the control sample. Recruitment strategies and further characterization of the MPIP cohort have been described previously [148, 88]. Of these participants, 4 were excluded due genotyping problems. Baseline whole blood samples (for plasma and RNA) were obtained at 6pm after 2 hours of fasting and abstention from coffee and physical activity and immediately followed by oral administration of 1.5 mg dexamethasone. A second blood draw was performed three hours later at 9pm (see figure 3.3a). Cortisol and ACTH serum levels were determined using previously described radioimmunoassays [148]. Plasma dexamethasone concentrations were assessed in serum samples drawn at 9pm using Liquid chromatographytandem mass spectrometry on API4000 (AB Sciex). The study was approved by the local ethics committee and all individuals gave written informed consent.

A subsample of 60 participants (29 patients with depressive disorders and 31 healthy probands; see table 2.1 for full description of diagnoses) out the 164 participants from the eQTL analysis were used to study differential gene expression between patients and controls. This subsample was further randomly subdivided into two samples, which were used as training and test set for classification.

2.1.2. MARS cohort

This sample included 1,005 unipolar depressed patients (561 female, 444 males; age = 48.15 ± 14.13 years; HAM-D = 25.68 ± 6.5), as well as 478 controls (298 females, 180 males; age = 47.83 ± 13.7 years), recruited for the MARS project at the MPIP in Munich, Germany. All included patients were of European descent. Recruitment strategies and further characterization including population stratification of the MARS cohort have been described previously [148, 88]. All individuals used within the eQTL study (MPIP cohort) were not part of this sample.

	Sample 1	(training got)	Sample 2		
		Controla	Cases	(test set)	
	Cases	Controls	Cases	Controls	рі
	n = 18	n = 18	n = 11	n = 13	P value
Mean Age	44.2 ± 14.3	43.2 ± 10.8	50.8 ± 15	37.7 ± 10.2	0.075
Mean BMI	24.5 ± 3.0	25.3 ± 3.5	26.1 ± 2.5	24.7 ± 4.5	0.612
Mean age of onset	33.3 ± 13.3		30.1 ± 13.2		0.548
Mean HAM-D	25.8 ± 7.9		23.9 ± 9.8		0.573
Bipolar disorder	5(28%)		2(18%)		0.649
Prev. episodes	2.7(3.7)		4.6(9.6)		0.486
Recurrent depression	13~(72%)		6~(55%)		0.331
Prev. suicide attempts	3~(17%)		4(36%)		0.172
Family history	9~(50%)		7~(64%)		0.306
Response 5 weeks	9(50%)		5(45%)		0.306
Remission 5 weeks	7~(38%)		5~(45%)		0.125
Medication*					
TCA	4(22%)		1 (9%)		0.418
SSRI	2(11%)		4(36%)		0.074
SNRI	7(39%)		6 (55%)		0.283
NaSSA	6(33%)		2 (18%)		0.454
SSRE	1 (6%)		0		0.448
Antipsychotics	6(33%)		3(27%)		0.856
Mood stabilizer	5 (28%)		2 (18%)		0.649
Lithium	2 (11%)		1 (9%)		0.927
Benzodiazepine	8 (44%)		8 (73%)		0.069

2 Material and Methods

 Table 2.1.: Sociodemographic and clinical characteristics of MPIP cohort subsample subdivided into training (sample 1) and test set (sample 2). *at RNA withdraw

2.1.3. DNS cohort¹

The DNS samples were ascertained at the Duke University in Durham, NC, USA and all participants provided informed written consent prior to participation in accord with the guidelines of the Duke University Medical Center Institutional Review Board. All participants were in good general health and free of DNS exclusion criteria: (1) medical diagnosis of cancer, stroke, diabetes requiring insulin treatment, chronic kidney or liver disease or lifetime psychotic symptoms; (2) use of psychotropic, glucocorticoid or hypolipidemic medication, and (3) conditions affecting cerebral blood flow and metabolism (e.g., hypertension). Current DSM-IV Axis I and select Axis II disorders (Antisocial Personality Disorder and Borderline Personality Disorder) were assessed with the electronic Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview [196] and Structured Clinical Interview for the DSM-IV Axis II (SCID-II) [61], respectively. These disorders are not exclusionary as the DNS seeks to

¹Parts of the DNS methods have been published previously by our collaborators [175, 16]

establish broad variability in multiple behavioral phenotypes related to psychopathology.

On January 6th, 2014, 726 participants had overlapping fMRI and genetic data that was fully processed and used for these analyses. Of these participants, 79 were excluded due to scanner-related artifacts in fMRI data (n = 6), incidental structural brain abnormalities (n = 2), a large number of movement outliers in fMRI data (n = 21); see Artifact detection tool (ART) description below), inadequate signal in our amygdala regions of interest (n =14; see coverage description below), poor behavioral performance (n = 20; accuracy lower than 75%), outlier status according to ancestrally-informative principal components (n =5), scanner malfunctions (n = 2), incomplete fMRI data collection (n = 1), and failed genotyping at one genetic risk profile score (GRPS) polymorphisms (without a proxy of $r^2 > 0.90; n = 8$). Thus, all imaging genetics analyses were conducted in a final European-Americans (EUR-AM) subsample of 306 participants (age = 19.72 ± 1.23 years; 148 males; 63 with DSM-IV Axis I disorder) and a full sample of 647 participants (age = 19.65 ± 1.24 years; 285 males; 117 with DSM-IV Axis I disorder; 306 European Americans, 72 African Americans, 170 Asians, 37 Latino/as, and 62 of Other/Multiple racial origins according to self-reported ethnicity; for a full description of diagnoses present in the sample see table 2.2).

	EUR-AM	Full sample
	n = 306	n = 647
Alcohol Abuse	22	41
Alcohol Dependence	19	31
Major Depressive Disorder	8	17
Marijuana Abuse	7	15
Gernalized Anxiety Disorder	7	11
Social Anxiety Disorder	3	8
Agoraphobia w/o Panic Disorder	6	8
Bipolar Disorder NOS	6	8
Marijuana Dependence	5	7
Bipolar II	3	6
OCD	4	6
Bulimia Nervosa	2	5
Panic Disorder	1	4
Dysthymia	0	1
PTSD	0	1
Anorexia Nervosa	0	1
Bipolar I	1	1
TOTAL	94	171

Table 2.2.: This table represents the number of diagnoses across DNS participants for the European-Americans (EUR-AM) and entire sample. Some individuals presented with comorbid status.

2.1.4. Mouse models

The animal experiments were carried out in the animal facilities of the MPIP in Munich, Germany. Male C57BL/6N mice at an age of 12 weeks (mean bodyweight 26.8 ± 0.1 g) were used for the dexamethasone-stimulation test (DEX-mouse). The experiment was performed twice with two separate batches of mice (n = 22 per batch). All mice were kept under 12h light/dark cycle and held under standard conditions. Food and tap water were available ad libitum. All efforts were made to minimize animal suffering during the experiment. The committee for the Care and Use of Laboratory animals of the Government of Upper Bavaria, Germany approved the protocols. Animals were injected i.p. with either vehicle (n = 11) or 10 mg/kg dexamethasone (n = 11) between 9am and 11am. Animals were sacrificed 4 hours post injection, blood was collected and the brains were carefully removed. The PFC (batch 1), HC (batch 1) and AM (batch 2) were dissected immediately according to standard protocols [202]. Briefly, Amygdala preparation: brains were cut into ca. 1 mm thick slices using a custom-mounting device. Amygdala (all subnuclei [167]) was manually dissected with a scalpel under visual control using a binocular microscope; HC and PFC preparation: brain regions were manually dissected from the whole brain by trained personnel. Dissected tissues were directly transferred into RNA lysis solution (Applied Biosystems, USA) and frozen at -80 °C. In addition, 300 μ l of trunk blood (batch 1) was collected into microcentrifuge tubes containing PaxGene RNA stabilizer solution and frozen at -20 °C.

The chronic social stress mice sample includes 12 male CD1 mice (6 susceptible and 6 resilient mice). The chronic social stress procedure and mice sample have been described previously [110, 190, 189]. Brain slices of the hippocampal region were cut at 20 μ m and thaw-mounted on membrane-coated slides (Carl Zeiss MicroImaging). Laser dissection of CA1 and dentate gyrus (DG) material was performed using a laser-capture microscope (for more details see Schmidt et al. [190]).

2.2. Gene expression data

2.2.1. MPIP cohort

Human whole blood of the MPIP cohort was collected using PAXgene Blood RNA Tubes (PreAnalytiX), processed as described previously [148] and hybridized to Illumina HumanHT-12 v3.0 Expression BeadChips. Samples had a mean RNA integrity number (RIN) of 7.97 ± 0.42 standard deviation (SD). The Illumina Bead Array Reader was used to scan the microarrays and summarized raw probe intensities were exported using Illumina's GenomeStudio v2011.1 Gene Expression module. Further processing was carried out using R version 2.14.0².

²http://www.r-project.org/

2.2.1.1. eQTL analysis

All 48,750 probes present on the microarray were first filtered by an Illumina detection P value of 0.01 in at least 10% of the samples, leaving 14,168 expressed probes for further analysis. Second, each transcript was transformed and normalized through variance stabilization and normalization (VSN) [125]. Third, technical batches were adjusted using ComBat [102] with fixed effects of amplification round. To further reduce batch effects baseline (6pm) and dexame thas one stimulated (9pm) RNA samples for each individual were processed within a single run. Finally for each probe, we constructed a linear model of the log fold change in gene expression between 6pm and 9pm standardized to 6pm controlling for age, disease status and BMI. Models were implemented in R using the "lm" function. The residuals (=GR-response residuals) from this regression were used as phenotype values in the following analyses. Including dexamethasone serum levels 3 hours following administration or the RIN factor, as additional covariates did not change the results. To control if significant eQTLs might be biased due to SNPs within the probes, the Illumina re-annotation pipeline [7] (ReMOAT version August 2009) was used to annotate SNPs (relying on UCSC dbSNP 126 table) that were located within the gene expression probe sequence. No bias of eQTL misclassifications due to such sequence polymorphisms in the probe region could be identified. For the GR-response eQTL analysis only transcripts that showed a difference in gene expression between the samplings at 6pm and 9pm with an absolute fold change > 1.3 in at least 20% of all samples were categorized as robustly effected by dexamethas one stimulation (n = 4,630 transcripts) and further used in the analysis. The probe gene names were updated using the NCBI build 36 (hg18) Reference Sequence (RefSeq) [178] gene annotation table obtained from the UCSC table browser³. The positions of the probes were annotated using ReMOAT and only autosomal probes were used for the GR-response eQTL analysis (n = 4,447 autosomal probes).

2.2.1.2. Differential gene expression analysis

A subset (n = 60 individuals, i.e 120 RNA samples) from the raw microarray data of the entire MPIP cohort was extracted and first filtered by a Illumina detection P value of 0.01 in at least five individuals and secondly, transformed and normalized through VSN [125]. From a total of 48,750 transcripts 15,573 remained in the analysis having significant expression according to these criteria.

2.2.2. Mouse models

DEX-mouse RNA was extracted from whole blood using the PAXgene blood miRNA kit (PreAnalytiX) according to Krawiec et al. [111] and mouse brain regions using RNeasy Plus Universal Mini Kit (Qiagen) with standardized protocols. RNA was quality checked on the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyser, amplified using the Illumina Total Prep 96-Amplification kit (Life Technology) and then hybridized on Illumina MouseRef-8 v2.0 BeadChips. For each tissue

 $^{{}^{3} \}tt{http://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg18/database/refGene.txt.gz}$

the samples were processed together (RNA amplification, hybridization and scanning). All samples had a mean RIN of 7.5 ± 0.2 SD for blood cells and a mean RIN of 9.2 ± 0.4 SD for brain tissues. All 25,697 probes present on the microarray were first filtered by an Illumina detection P value of 0.05 in at least 15% of the samples, leaving for blood 10,667, HC 16,838, PFC 16,576 and AM 14,890 expressed array probes for further analysis. Secondly, each transcript was transformed, normalized and batch corrected, in the same fashion as for the human gene expression data. An additional analysis was performed taking HC and PFC samples together. Therefore the quality control was repeated on the joint data set, leaving 16,536 expressed array probes. For differential gene expression analysis between the vehicle and dexamethasone treated animals linear regression models implemented in R were used on the normalized, transformed and batch corrected expression values for each tissue. For the combined analysis of PFC and HC repeated measures ANOVA was performed.

Full details of the RNA quality checks as well hybridization procedures from the chronic social stress sample have been previously described in [190], including details for the microarray gene expression analysis.

2.3. Genotype data

2.3.1. MPIP cohort

Human DNA of the MPIP cohort samples was isolated from EDTA blood samples using the Gentra Puregene Blood Kit (Qiagen) with standardized protocols. Genome-wide SNP genotyping was performed using Illumina Human610-Quad and Illumina Human660W-Quad Genotyping BeadChips according to the manufacturer's standard protocols. 582,539 genetic markers in 163 individuals could be successfully genotyped. Individuals with low genotyping rate (< 98%) and SNPs showing significant deviation from HWE (P value $< 1 \times 10^{-5}$) were excluded. Similarly, low MAF (< 10%) and SNPs with high rates of missing data (> 2%) were excluded, resulting in 436,643 SNPs and 160 individuals for further analysis. In the 160 samples that passed the quality control imputation of additional variants was performed using IMPUTE v2 [94] on the basis of HapMap Utah Residents (CEPH) with Northern and Western European ancestry (CEU) Phase 3 [95] and 1,000 Genomes Project version June 2010 (hg18) CEU data for ~ 8 million SNPs [54]. Imputed SNPs were excluded if their posterior probability averages were less than 90% for the most likely imputed genotype. SNPs were also excluded if their call rate was less than 98%, HWE P value was less than 1×10^{-5} and MAF < 10%. This yielded a total of 2,011,895 SNPs. To annotate SNPs for the closest gene, we used Annovar version November 2011 [230] with the RefSeq gene annotation [178]. SNP coordinates are given according to hg18.

2.3.2. MARS cohort

Human DNA of the MARS cohort samples was extracted from EDTA blood samples using the Gentra Puregene Blood Kit (Qiagen) with standardized protocols. Whole-genome SNP genotyping for the MARS cohort was performed on Illumina Sentix Human-1, HumanHap300, Illumina Human610-Quad and HumanOmniExpress Genotyping BeadChips according to the manufacturer's standard protocols. Individuals as well as the genotype data have been subjected to the same quality control steps as the MPIP cohort (genotyping rate < 98%, MAF < 10%, HWE P value $< 1 \times 10^{-5}$, SNP missingness < 98%). Missing genotype data were imputed via IMPUTE v2 [94] based the 1,000 Genomes Project version Nov. 2010 (hg19) ALL reference panel [54]. The GR/MDD eSNP profile was derived from loci associated with both GR-induced differences in gene expression and MDD, and included alleles from 20 of the 23 tagging eSNPs (3 SNPs diverged from HWE in the MARS sample, see table 3.4). Non-risk and risk alleles (according to association with depression in the PGC dataset) were coded 0 and 1, respectively, and summed in an additive fashion to create cumulative genetic risk profile scores (GRPS; 0,1,2). The MARS GRPSs ranged from 12-30. This genetic profile is highly correlated with a profile weighted based on the strength of association in the PGC dataset (R = 0.99); hence we report only the additive profile here for simplicity.

2.3.3. DNS cohort

Human DNA from participants of the DNS cohort was isolated from saliva derived from Oragene DNA self-collection kits (DNA Genotek) customized for 23andMe⁴. DNA extraction and genotyping were performed by the National Genetics Institute (NGI), a CLIA-certified clinical laboratory and subsidiary of Laboratory Corporation of America. The Illumina HumanOmniExpress BeadChips and a custom array containing an additional ~ 300,000 SNPs were used to provide genome-wide data. Due to differences in genotyping array content the DNS GRPSs included alleles from 19 of the 23 eSNPs (see table 3.4) and were coded in the same way as the MARS GRPSs. All SNPs used for the GRPSs had genotyping rates < 97%, MAF < 10%, HWE P value < 1×10^{-5} (see table 3.4). DNS GRPSs ranged from 10-28 and were normally distributed (see figure 3.10). To account for differences in ancestral background in the full sample, we used EIGENSTRAT (v, 5.0.1) [176] to generate principal components and included the first 5 components as covariates in the analysis. Five participants were outliers on these components (±6 SD from the mean on one of the top ten components) and were hence excluded from analyses.

⁴www.23andme.com

2.4. DNS neuroimaging protocol⁵

2.4.1. BOLD fMRI paradigm

A widely used and reliable challenge paradigm was employed to elicit amygdala reactivity. The paradigm consists of 4 task block requiring face-matching interleaved with 5 control blocks requiring shape-matching (see figure 2.1). In each face-matching trial within a block, participants view a trio of faces derived from a standard set of facial affect pictures (expressing angry, fearful, surprised, or neutral emotions), and select which of 2 faces presented on the bottom row of the display matches the target stimulus presented on the top row. Each emotion-specific block (e.g., fearful facial expressions only) consists of 6 individual trials, balanced for gender of the face. Block order is pseudo-randomized across participants. Each of the 6 face trios is presented for 4 seconds with a variable interstimulus interval of 2-6 seconds; total block length is 48 seconds. In the shape-matching control blocks, participants view a trio of geometric shapes (i.e., circles, horizontal and vertical ellipses) and select which of 2 shapes displayed on the bottom matches the target shape presented on top. Each control block consists of 6 different shape trios presented for 4 seconds with a fixed inter-stimulus interval of 2 seconds, comprising a total block length of 36 seconds. The total paradigm is 390 seconds in duration. Reaction times and accuracy are recorded through an MR-compatible button box.



Figure 2.1.: DNS fMRI task. Participants completed four expression-specific (Neutral, Angry, Fear, Surprise) face-matching task blocks interleaved with five sensorimotor shape-matching control blocks. Order for task blocks was counterbalanced across participants.

⁵Parts of the DNS neuroimaging protocol have been published previously by our collaborators [175, 16]

2.4.2. BOLD fMRI acquisition

Participants were scanned using a research-dedicated GE MR750 3T scanner equipped with high-power high-duty-cycle 50-mT/m gradients at 200 T/m/s slew rate, and an eight-channel head coil for parallel imaging at high bandwidth up to 1MHz at the Duke-UNC Brain Imaging and Analysis Center. A semi-automated high-order shimming program was used to ensure global field homogeneity. A series of 34 interleaved axial functional slices aligned with the anterior commissure-posterior commissure (AC-PC) plane were acquired for full-brain coverage using an inverse-spiral pulse sequence to reduce susceptibility artifact (TR/TE/flip angle = 2000 ms / 30 ms / 60; FOV = 240 mm; $3.75 \times 3.75 \times 4$ mm voxels (selected to provide whole brain coverage while maintaining adequate signal-to-noise and optimizing acquisition times); interslice skip = 0). Four initial RF excitations were performed (and discarded) to achieve steady-state equilibrium. To allow for spatial registration of each participant's data to a standard coordinate system, high-resolution three-dimensional structural images were acquired in 34 axial slices co-planar with the functional scans (TR/TE/flip angle = 7.7 s / 3.0 ms / 12; voxel size = $0.9 \times 0.9 \times 4$ mm; FOV = 240 mm; interslice skip = 0).

2.4.3. BOLD fMRI data analysis

The general linear model of Statistical Parametric Mapping 8 (SPM8)⁶ was used for wholebrain image analysis. Individual subject data were first realigned to the first volume in the time series to correct for head motion before being spatially normalized into the standard stereotactic space of the Montreal Neurological Institute (MNI) template using a 12-parameter affine model. Next, data were smoothed to minimize noise and residual differences in individual anatomy with a 6mm FWHM Gaussian filter. Voxel-wise signal intensities were ratio normalized to the whole-brain global mean. Then the ART⁷ was used to generate regressors accounting for images due to large motion (i.e., > 0.6 mm relative to the previous time frame) or spikes (i.e., global mean intensity 2.5 standard deviations from the entire time series). Participants for whom more than 5% of acquisition volumes were flagged by ART (n = 21) were removed from analyses. An region of interest (ROI) mask (Automated Anatomical Labeling (AAL) atlas) from WFU pickatlas [134] was used to ensure adequate amygdala coverage for the face-matching and number-guessing tasks, respectively. Participants who had less than 90% coverage of the amygdala (n = 14) were excluded from analyses.

Following preprocessing steps outlined above, linear contrasts employing canonical hemodynamic response functions were used to estimate task-specific (i.e., "Angry & Fearful Faces > Neutral Faces", "Angry & Fearful > Shapes", "Neutral > Shapes") BOLD responses for each individual. The primary contrast of "Angry & Fearful > Neutral" was used to assay centromedial reactivity to cues that are conditioned social signals to threat in the envi-

⁶http://www.fil.ion.ucl.ac.uk/spm

⁷https://www.nitrc.org/docman/view.php/104/390/Artifact%20Detection%20Toolbo/ %20Manual

ronment (i.e., angry and fearful expressions) relative to signals that do not convey threat information about the environment (i.e., neutral expressions). Post-hoc analyses using the "Angry & Fearful > Shapes" and "Neutral > Shapes" contrasts were used to discern if the association with GRPS reflected relatively decreased reactivity to angry and fearful expressions or increased reactivity to neutral expressions. Individual contrast images (i.e., weighted sum of the beta images) were used in second-level random effects models accounting for scan-to-scan and participant-to-participant variability to determine mean contrast-specific responses using one-sample t-tests. A voxel-level statistical threshold of P value < 0.05, family wise error corrected for multiple comparisons across the bilateral centromedial amygdala ROIs, and a cluster-level extent threshold of 10 contiguous voxels was applied to these analyses. The bilateral centromedial amygdala ROIs were defined using anatomical probability maps [4]. The centromedial ROI was chosen because it includes the central nucleus of the amygdala (CeA), which specifically functions to drive physiologic, attentive, and neuromodulatory responses to threat, as opposed to the basolateral complex of the amygdala (BLA), which primarily functions to relay information to the CeA; thus the expression of stress responsive behavior is more closely linked with the activity of the CeA and not the BLA [40, 116]. Human research using such distinctions has shown that ROIs encompassing the CeA or BLA differentially respond to stimuli and share different patterns of functional as well as structural connectivity [23, 59, 120].

BOLD parameter estimates from a cluster within the left centromedial amygdala ROI exhibiting a main effect for the "Angry & Fearful > Neutral" contrast were extracted using the VOI tool in SPM8 and exported for regression analyses in SPSS (v.18). No significant cluster emerged in the right centromedial amygdala. Extracting parameter estimates from clusters activated by our fMRI paradigm, rather than those specifically correlated with our independent variables of interest, precludes the possibility of any correlation coefficient inflation that may result when an explanatory covariate is used to select a region of interest. Our collaborators have successfully used this strategy in prior studies [16].

2.5. Statistical Analysis

2.5.1. Differential gene expression analysis

For differential expression analysis linear regression models implemented in R were used on the normalized log_2 -transformed expression values from a subset of MPIP cohort (n = 60individuals) at baseline, after GR-stimulation as well as their difference comparing cases and controls

Classifications were performed with the RF classification technique [124]. The sample was randomly subsetted into training (sample 1: 18 cases and 18 controls; see section 2.1 and table 2.1) and test set (sample 2: 11 cases and 13 controls; see section 2.1 and table 2.1). The RF provides the mean decrease Gini as an importance measure that calculates the quality of a split for each node of a tree by means of the Gini index. Each time a node is split on a variable, the Gini index for both descendent nodes is less than the ancestor

node. A higher mean decrease Gini represents a higher variable importance [20].

2.5.2. eQTL analysis

The eQTL analysis (MPIP cohort, n = 164) was restricted to those SNP-probe pairs that map within a region of 1Mb upstream or downstream of the gene expression probe, in order to detect *cis*-eQTLs. To measure the transcriptional response we used the log fold change in gene expression changes between 6pm (baseline) and 9pm (GR-stimulation) standardized to 6pm.

PLINK v1.07 [179] was used to test for *cis*-association between all imputed SNPs and transcriptional response. As eQTL data were composed of two kinds of data: genotyping and expression data, we used a two stage of multiple testing correction: (i) SNP level correction: for each *cis*-region (array probe) we preformed a permutation test. The sample identifiers in the gene expression data were shuffled in order to preserve the structure in the genotype data (LD). A total of 500,000 permutations were carried out per probe, i.e. maxT procedure of Westfall-Young [233]. (ii) Probe level correction: Cis-regions with an extensive LD structure will increase the number of false positive eQTLs [234]. Therefore we applied the Benjamini-Hochberg method to correct the maxT adjusted P value significance by using only the most significant and independent SNPs per probe (tag SNPs). The number of tag eSNPs per *cis*-region was identified by LD pruning and "clumping" the SNPs using the "clump" command in PLINK (using distance < 1 Mb and $r^2 < 0.2$ as setting). Each tag SNP forms a SNP bin, by aggregating all other SNPs into bins by tag SNP at $r^2 \leq 0.2$ and distance < 1Mb, such that all SNPs within a given bin were correlated to the tag SNP, but to any other tag SNP. We aim to limit the false-positive SNP-probe pairs to less than 5% and therefore we considered the FDR analogue of the P value (Q value) < 5% as statistically significant.

Validation of *cis*-eQTL results was carried out with a sample size-weighted Z-score metaanalysis [60] in an additional independent data set using peripheral blood samples (baseline and after GR-stimulation with 1.5 mg dexamethasone) of 58 individuals (21 male controls, 14 male cases and 23 female cases). We applied the same strategy as used in the discovery sample (MPIP cohort) to filter, normalize and batch correct the gene expression data. We adjusted the analysis for the same covariates plus gender; applied the same SNP quality control checks and performed the *cis*-eQTL mapping in PLINK. A *cis*-eQTL is validated if the meta-analysis P value is less than the actual maxT adjusted P value in the discovery sample.

The Genomic control inflation factor (λ_{gc}) [46] was calculated for every GR-response *cis*eQTL gene expression probe (n = 297) based on (i) the genome-wide genotype data (λ_{gc}) and (ii) the genotype data within each of the *cis*-windows (λ_{cis}) . Both inflation factors were computed in PLINK as median χ^2 statistic. The median λ_{gc} over all probes is 1 and the median λ_{cis} is 1.0099, which imply that no large inflation was present.

The combined set of the first two replicates of the RNA Polymerase II ChIA-PET data [121, 122] generated from K562 chronic myeloid leukemia cell lines (n > 400, 000 interac-)tion regions; other cell lines n < 70,000 interaction regions) were obtained from the UCSC genome browser⁸. Genomic coordinates of our GR-response eSNP bins were converted from hg18 to GRCh build 37 (hg19) using the UCSC genome browser liftOver tool⁹ and the probe gene coordinates were updated with the hg19 RefSeq [178] gene table obtained from the UCSC table browser¹⁰ (excluding 15 probe genes on hg19). To estimate the overlap of the direct chromatin interactions and GR-response eQTL bins (eSNP bin-probe gene combination) we tested if one ChIA-PET tag overlapped with the region of the eSNP bin ± 10 kb as well as the relevant array probe gene (10kb \pm transcription start or end). To establish the null distribution, we permuted the distances between the GR-response eSNP bins and the transcription sites of the corresponding probe genes (n = 270 updated to hg19) and estimated the overlap with ChIA-PET interaction signals. We repeated the analysis 1,000 times and for each set we counted the number of genes with overlapping ChIA-PET data. Enrichment calculations with a permutation-based FDR < 10% were considered as statistically significant within the entire manuscript.

Transcription factor binding affinities for a set of SNPs were estimated using the web tool of the physical affinity-based method TRAP [183, 135]. We extracted a region of ± 20 bp around all *cis*-eSNPs from the human genome (hg18) as provided by UCSC (Bioconductor Annotation package¹¹). For each binding matrix (n = 904) TRAP first calculates the affinity of the matrix for every SNP sequence (length of 41bp) and then transforms these affinities into P values. The P values for the SNPs are combined using Fisher's method to determine whether the affinities to specific TF are significantly higher than the ones from 2,000 random promoter sequences (matched for sequence length) after correction for multiple testing using Benjamini Hochberg method [215]. This analysis was applied to the reference and alternative allele, separately. To exclude possible effects due to different GC content between our eSNP and human promoter sequences, we generated random control data sets with RSA tools¹² matching (i) GC content = 42% (equal to eSNP sequences) and (ii) GC content = 50% (equal to random promoter sequences). We determined the TRAP affinity P values for both controls sets and observed similar P value distributions (Wilcoxon $P_{(i):(ii)} = 0.0002$) showing a pronounced difference to the GR-response P value distribution (Wilcoxon $P_{eQTL:(i)} = 5.57 \times 10^{-52}$ and Wilcoxon $P_{eQTL:(ii)} = 3.68 \times 10^{-50}$; no differences among the alleles). Therefore, we exclude confounding due to different GC contents between human promoter and GR-response sequences.

In order to calculate whether GR-response eSNPs would show allele-specific binding profiles (reference vs. alternate allele) we used the GR position-specific weight matrix present

⁸http://hgdownload.cse.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg19/encodeDCC/wgEncodeGisChiaPet/ ⁹http://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgLiftOver

¹⁰http://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg19/database/refGene.txt.gz

¹¹www.bioconductor.org/packages/2.12/data/annotation/BSgenome.Hsapiens.UCSC.hg18.html ¹²rsat.ulb.ac.be/rssa/

in Genomatix (Matrix Family Library version 8.4¹³, vertebrates: 867 matrices in 182 families) and calculated the binding affinities separately for the two SNP alleles using the R package of TRAP¹⁴. The significance of the differences in the binding affinity between the opposite alleles was archived using 1,000 sets of random SNPs (sized matched) and determining the expected allele-bases differences.

To identify whether GR-response eSNPs were enriched for association with MDD we conducted a meta-analysis based on the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) GWAS mega-analysis for MDD [133]. We used the "meta-analysis" function in PLINK assuming a fixed effect model in 17,846 individuals of European ancestry (8,864 cases with MDD and 8,982 controls) from 8 of the 9 studies included in the PGC data and excluded all samples from the initial PGC data (n = 18,759) that overlap with our MARS cohort (n =376 cases and 537 controls), which we used as validation sample. The PGC used SNP data imputed to the 1,000 Genomes Project version June 2011. For comparability we converted all our SNP coordinates from hg18 to hg19 using the UCSC genome browser liftOver tool and created the overlap of all MDD SNPs and our imputed SNPs of high quality. To match the MAF distributions of the random SNP sets with our GR-response eQTL data we divided the SNPs into non-overlapping MAF bins, each of the width 0.05 as described previously [159]. We generated 1,000 sets (conditional on MAF and number of GR-response eSNPs overlapping with MDD associations; n = 3,492) of randomly drawn SNPs (without replacement) from the set of all imputed SNPs. For every set we counted the percentage of unique SNPs with a MDD meta-analysis P value < 0.05. On this basis we constructed the null distribution and compared it to the observed percentage of eSNPs with a MDD meta-analysis P value < 0.05 to measure the enrichment statistics. Additionally, we compared baseline eSNPs (see supplementary notes A.1.1) to GR-response eSNPs. Due to the different size of the overlap of GR-response and baseline eSNPs with the MDD meta-analysis data (GR-response eSNP overlap n = 3,492 vs. baseline eSNP overlap n =28,861; 31,541 original number of eSNPs) we used the same strategy as described above for random SNPs. To further account for the genomic LD structure, we limited the analyses to tag SNPs (tag SNP = SNP showing the highest association per *cis*-eQTL bin) and generated 1,000 randomized SNP sets; conditional on MAF and each of the same size as the GR-response tag SNPs overlap with MDD associations (n = 285).

To identify whether GR-response eSNPs were enriched within risk loci associated with other psychiatric disorders we used the results of the PGC cross-disorder (CD) analysis (33,332 patients and 27,888 controls of European ancestry distributed among five disorders: SCZ, BPD, attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), autism spectrum disorder (ASD) and MDD) [37]. The PGC CD analysis applied a multinomial regression procedure and used SNP data imputed to the HapMap Phase 3 data (hg18). The data sets from the PGC CD associations and the sub-analysis results for BPD, SCZ, ASD and

¹³http://www.genomatix.de

¹⁴http://trap.molgen.mpg.de/cgi-bin/download.cgi

ADHD used within the CD associations were obtained from the PGC website¹⁵. We used the same enrichment analysis as described for MDD to assess whether SNPs with nominal CD associations ($P \leq 0.05$) and if SNPs with nominal associations among the four individual diseases (SCZ, BPD, ASD and ADHD) were enriched for GR-response eSNPs. Briefly, for the individual diseases and the CD associations, 1,000 randomized SNP sets were generated, each conditional on MAF and of the same size as the GR-response eSNPs overlap with CD data sets (n = 1,047). We summarized the enrichment results for these simulations in table 3.5.

To proof the significance of the GR/MDD tag SNPs for MDD we used a logistic regression model in R with the function "glm" to test the association of the GRPSs for disease status in the MARS cohort. Gender and age were used as covariates. To establish the null distribution we generated 1,000 random SNP profiles by swapping individual labels to provide new SNP profiles under the null hypothesis.

The interaction network (figure 3.11) was built by manual curation and literature mining, using the CIDeR database [115] and the yED software (yWorks GmbH, Tübingen, Germany). Gene products identified in the GR-response eQTL analysis were analyzed for physical interactions, regulatory interactions and association with psychiatric disorders.

We used the GR-response residuals from all array probes (n = 4447) to determine if the 25 GR/MDD array probes are more tightly co-regulated than 1,000 sets of randomly chosen transcripts. To realize this, we carried out a co-expression analysis in R using the function "dist" specifying the Euclidian distance as distance measure and calculated the mean distance of all pair-wise distances. We established the significance of co-expression network of the 25 GR/MDD array probes by testing the observed mean distance versus the null distributions created by calculating the mean distance of all pair-wise distances for 1,000 sets of 25 randomly chosen GR-response transcripts. Next, we determined the number of sets, having lower mean distances than the actual GR/MDD-relevant transcripts to measure the enrichment statistic.

Statistical analyses of the imaging data were completed using linear regression in SPSS to test the association of the DNS GRPSs to amygdala reactivity. To maintain variability but constrain the influence of extreme outliers, prior to analyses all imaging variables were winsorized (i.e., following data quality control procedures, outliers more than ± 3 SD were set at ± 3 SD from the mean; for the "Angry and Fearful > Neutral faces" contrast, 13 outliers (2.01%) of the entire sample were moved to ± 3 SD from the mean). Gender, psychiatric diagnosis (0,1) and age were entered as covariates for both EUR-AM and entire sample analyses. Five ancestrally-informative principal components that distinguish the sample were added as additional covariates in the analyses of the entire sample. We computed permutations (n = 1,000) in which we constructed randomly generated SNP

¹⁵http://pgc.unc.edu

profiles that were matched for MAF, amount of SNPs (n = 19) and constrained by the max LD observed within the sample.

Graphs were generated with Haploview [8], ggplot2 [235] and Circos[112].

2.6. Quantitative real-time PCR validation

Total RNA was reverse-transcribed to cDNA using random primers and the Superscript II reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) for quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) to validate microarray results. qPCR was carried out according to manufactures instructions using Roche-LightCycler 480 System (Roche Applied Science) and assays were designed using the Roche Universal Probe Library¹⁶.

2.6.1. Differential gene expression analysis

Microarray results were validated separately in sample 1 (training set) and 2 (test set). We selected FKBP5 and BEST1 as genes showing both regulation with dexamethasone as well as differences between cases and controls (in the microarray data), and TBP as the endogenous control gene. For the both target genes both the regulation with dexamethasone as well as the differences between cases and controls could be validated (see figure 3.2). Sequences of primers used are summarized in table 2.3. All samples were run in duplicates and duplicates discordant in crossing points by more than 0.4 cycles, were excluded from the analysis.

Target gene	Primer set (5'-3')	UPL probe nr.
FKBP5	Forward: ccattgctttattggcctct	15
	Reverse: ggatatacgccaacatgttcaa	
BEST1	Forward: ttgattcaggctgttgtaggac	76
	Reverse: ctaggaagcggccaatgat	
TBP	Forward: ctttgcagtgacccagcat	67
	Reverse: ccagcaggacactgatcca	

Table 2.3.: List of primers and Universal probe library number used for the qPCR validation of differential expressed genes within a subset of the MPIP cohort (n = 60).

 $^{^{16}}$ http://qpcr.probefinder.com

2.6.2. eQTL analysis

Microarray results were validated for ADORA3- the probe with a significant GR-response eQTLs), HIST2H2AA3/HIST2H2AA4- the probe with the most eSNPs overlapping with the meta-analysis results for MDD) and TBP as the endogenous control gene. The association between eSNPs and GR-stimulated gene expression of the two target genes could be validated using qPCR (see figure 3.4a,(b) and supplementary notes A.1.2). Sequences of primers used are summarized in table 2.4. All samples were run in duplicates and duplicates discordant in CT values by more than 0.2 cycles, were excluded from the analysis. Relative gene transcript levels were determined by Pfaffl's equation [172] with:

$$ratio = \frac{(E_{gene})^{\triangle CT_{gene}(\text{baseline sample-GR-stimulated sample})}}{(E_{TBP})^{\triangle CT_{TBP}(\text{baseline sample-GR-stimulated sample})}}$$
(2.1)

These ratios were regressed against the SNPs of interest, while adjusting for age, BMI and disease status in R. qPCR ratios shown in figure 3.4b were calculated using the following equations:

$$pre = \frac{(E_{TBP})^{CT_{TBP(\text{baseline sample})}}}{(E_{gene})^{CT_{gene(\text{baseline sample})}}}$$
(2.2)

$$post = \frac{(E_{TBP})^{CT_{TBP(\text{GR-stimulated sample})}}}{(E_{gene})^{CT_{gene(\text{GR-stimulated sample})}}}$$
(2.3)

Target gene	Primer set (5'-3')	UPL probe nr.
ADORA3	Forward: tcatttgcagccaggtagc	82
	Reverse: tgcttgggtgtggtctatca	
HIST2H2AA3/HIST2H2AA4	Forward: cgacgaggaactgaacaagc	61
(short isoform)	Reverse: gcctggatgttaggcaagac	
HIST2H2AA3/HIST2H2AA4	Forward: aaggggcacctgtgaactc	21
(long isoform)	Reverse: gactgagagtggccagcatt	
TBP	Forward: ctttgcagtgacccagcat	67
	Reverse: cgctggaactcgtctcacta	

Table 2.4.: List of primers and Universal probe library number used for qPCR validation of GR-response eQTLs (MPIP cohort, n = 160).

3. Results

3.1. Genome-wide gene expression profiles following glucocorticoid stimulation in healthy volunteers and MDD patients¹

To test whether reliable case-control differences can be identified following GR activation, we compared gene expression profiles between MDD cases and controls before and 3h after stimulation with dexamethasone in two independent samples (see section 2.1).

3.1.1. Dexamethasone effect on gene expression levels of MDD cases and healthy controls

In controls dexame thasone led to the overlapping regulation of 2,670 transcripts in both samples at P value ≤ 0.05 of which 42% $(n=1,132 \mbox{ array probes})$ were up-regulated and 58% $(n=1,538 \mbox{ array probes})$ down-regulated (see supplementary table 2 in Menke/Arloth et al. [148] for more details). In depressed patients only 1,151 transcripts were significantly regulated in both samples with 44% up-regulated transcripts $(n=507 \mbox{ array probes})$ see supplementary table 3 in Menke/Arloth et al. [148] for more details). In total 23% of the significant dexame thasone-induced gene expression changes observed in patients were also observed in controls.

3.1.2. Using gene expression profiles to classify MDD cases and controls

Classification was performed with the RF algorithm using sample 1 to train the model and sample 2 for testing (see subsection 2.1).

3.1.2.1. Baseline gene expression

We first performed a feature selection by including those transcripts that showed a significant difference in baseline gene expression between MDD cases and controls in the training set at P value ≤ 0.05 (uncorrected) and of absolute fold change ≥ 1.15 . This resulted in 635 array probes that were used for classification with the RF algorithm. The RF was run using the best performing parameters, e.g. 1,000 trees (ntree) and 25 random features to

¹A version of this chapter has been published in Menke/Arloth et al. [148].

build each tree (mtry)). This revealed an OOB error rate of 27.8% to classify MDD cases and controls with a sensitivity (see Eq. 1.5) of 72.2% and specificity (see Eq. 1.6) of 72.2%. However, using the test set (sample 2), the constructed prediction model only achieved an area under the curve (AUC) value of 0.56 and an accuracy of 41.7% (see Eq. 1.7; 10 out of 24 correctly classified).

3.1.2.2. GR-stimulated gene expression

To select features for classifying cases and controls using GR-stimulated gene expression measures we only kept those transcripts that showed a difference in gene expression change from baseline to GR-stimulation between MDD cases and controls at a nominal P value ≤ 0.05 and an absolute fold change following dexamethasone in controls ≥ 1.15 . This resulted in 250 transcripts, which we used for classification with RF. Using the best performing parameters, e.g. ntree = 1,500 trees and mtry = 240, the RF algorithm revealed an OOB error rate of 16.7% to differentiate between MDD cases and controls with a sensitivity of 80% and specificity of 87.5%. Testing this model in sample 2 resulted in an AUC value of 0.73 and an accuracy of 79.2% (19 out of 24 correctly classified). Thus the predicator created by GR-stimulated gene expression levels performed much better than the predictor built from baseline gene expression (accuracy of 79.2% vs. 41.7%).

3.1.2.3. Reduction of the number of transcripts for classification

To identify the genes that contributed most to the classification in both samples, RF classification was performed without feature selection in all individuals together (not separated by samples). The analysis was repeated 10 times and the importance scores (Gini index) were averaged. Out of the 206 most important features, i.e. features having an average Gini index in the 10 repetitions ≥ 0.02 , 19 transcripts also showed a significant differences (nominal P value ≤ 0.05) in dexamethasone regulation between MDD cases and controls in both samples (see table 3.1 and figure 3.1).

3.1.2.4. Validation of differentially regulated transcripts

We used qPCR to validate gene expression differences of two out of the 19 transcripts, e.g. *FKBP5* and *BEST1* in cases and controls in both samples (see figure 3.2). For *FKBP5* we could validate the significant association between the change in gene expression from base-line to GR-stimulation and disease status for both samples ($P_{\text{sample 1}} = 0.005$; $P_{\text{sample 2}} = 0.007$) as well as the main effect of GR-stimulation ($P_{\text{sample 1}} = 0.001$; $P_{\text{sample 2}} = 0.001$). For *BEST1* we could validate the regulation by dexamethasone ($P_{\text{sample 1 & 2}} = 0.028$) and the effect of the disease status when analyzing both samples together ($P_{\text{sample 1 & 2}} = 0.08$ two-sided and 0.041 one-sided), but not separately for each sample. However, the direction of the effect was the same in both samples and the observed lack of significance may reflect lack of power in the subsample analysis.



Figure 3.1.: This heatmap illustrates the gene expression changes (GR-stimulation/baseline mRNA levels) of the 19 significantly differentially regulated genes between MDD cases and controls. Red indicates an up-regulation (58% of the transcripts) following dexamethasone and blue a down-regulation (42% of the transcripts).

3	Resul	lts
3	Resul	ts

			Sample 1			Sample 2	
Probe gene	Probe id	FC_{Cases}	$FC_{Controls}$	P	FC_{Cases}	$FC_{Controls}$	P
ARG1	ILMN_1812281	1.70	2.09	0.03	1.56	2.04	0.003
BEST1	ILMN_1718982	1.33	1.62	0.003	1.43	1.80	0.01
CD14	ILMN_1740015	-1.25	-1.44	0.01	-1.06	-1.32	0.037
CKLF	ILMN_1712389	1.15	1.30	0.039	1.24	1.48	0.042
CPVL	ILMN_2400759	-1.34	-1.59	0.04	-1.11	-1.53	0.005
FAM129B	$\rm ILMN_1661755$	-1.16	-1.43	0.00	-1.24	-1.58	0.005
FKBP5	ILMN_1778444	4.78	6.32	0.03	5.16	6.93	0.031
FLJ20699	ILMN_1692464	1.01	1.19	0.01	1.02	1.19	0.019
GNA15	ILMN_1773963	-1.11	-1.21	0.02	-1.05	-1.25	0.015
LAT2	ILMN_2326953	1.18	1.33	0.01	1.37	1.61	0.031
MUM1	ILMN_1764764	-1.09	-1.19	0.04	-1.13	-1.27	0.007
P2RY2	ILMN_2372915	-1.02	-1.18	0.02	-1.08	-1.25	0.002
RNF144B	$\rm ILMN_1752526$	1.48	1.70	0.03	1.43	1.72	0.002
RUNX1	ILMN_1801504	-1.08	-1.17	0.03	-1.05	-1.20	0.023
SELL	$\rm ILMN_1724422$	1.22	1.40	0.02	1.33	1.68	0.024
SOCS1	ILMN_1774733	1.43	1.58	0.04	1.24	1.40	0.017
SSH2	$ILMN_1672834$	1.47	1.74	0.01	1.62	1.99	0.04
TMEM176A	ILMN_1791511	-1.08	-1.22	0.04	-1.10	-1.27	0.019
no symbol	ILMN_1880406	1.42	1.67	0.05	1.44	1.65	0.047

Table 3.1.: List of the 19 transcripts contributing most to the classification algorithm.



Figure 3.2.: Validation of the differential gene expression of FKBP5 and BEST1 and comparison of healthy controls and depressed cases for sample 1 (training set) and sample 2 (test set). A significant associations were observed for FKBP5 (*) and significant main effects (#) of dexamethasone was observed for FKBP5 when analyzing both samples separately. For BEST1 we observed a significant main and association with disease status when analyzing both samples together.

3.2 Genetically determined differences in the immediate transcriptome response to stress predict risk-related brain function and psychiatric disorders

3.2. Genetically determined differences in the immediate transcriptome response to stress predict risk-related brain function and psychiatric disorders

3.2.1. Genetic regulation of GR-stimulated gene expression

We first identified genetic variants that alter GR-stimulated gene expression changes, by adopting a stimulated eQTL approach (see figure 3.3a).



stimulated gene expression in whole blood of 160 male individuals from the MPIP cohort.

(a) Study design for GR- (b) Circularized Manhattan plot displaying *cis*-associations for GRresponse set of eSNP bin probe combination (eQTL bin)s (n = 320) and their respective significance $(-log_{10} \text{ Q values})$. Displayed from the outer to the inner circle are the number of chromosomes, the ideograms for the human karvotype (hg18), genes nearby eSNPs and Manhattan plots for the eQTL bins that survived correction for multiple testing.

Figure 3.3.: Analysis of GR-response *cis*-eQTLs

Gene expression profiles from peripheral blood cells of 160 male individuals of the MPIP cohort (91 cases and 69 controls, see section 2.1) were obtained at baseline and three hours after stimulation with the selective GR agonist dexamethasone (see supplementary figure A.1) and combined with genome-wide SNP data. All individuals showed a strong endocrine response to dexame thas one (Cortisol: $F_{1,159} = 43.93$, $P = 5.02 \times 10^{-10}$ and ACTH: $F_{1,158} =$ 37.96, $P = 5.76 \times 10^{-9}$, see supplementary figure A.2). After quality control, 4,447 gene expression probes that exhibited strong regulation following dexamethasone administration (absolute fold change in gene expression, i.e. baseline to three hours post-dexamethasone, \geq 1.3 in at least 20% of all samples) were combined with genotype data of around 2 million imputed SNPs (see section 2.5.2). We used the log fold change in gene expression standardized to baseline values as phenotype and restricted the analysis to a 1Mb *cis*-region around each array probe. 3,820 GR-response-modulating *cis*-eQTLs (GR-response eQTLs) were identified, which remain significant after accounting for disease status, age, and BMI and correction for multiple testing (see section 2.2). These comprised 297 unique array probes and 3,662 unique SNPs. The 3,662 unique GR-response *cis*-expression SNP (eSNP)s can be summarized in terms of independent tag SNPs (tag SNP=SNP showing the highest association per bin) into 296 uncorrelated *cis*-eSNP bins, i.e. sets of SNPs in LD (see section 2.5.2). These 296 cis-eSNP bins correspond to 320 cis-eQTL bins, i.e. cis-eSNP bin-probe combinations (listed in supplementary table A.1 and see figure 3.3b, 3.4(a)(b)for illustration).



Figure 3.4.: Boxplots of human gene expression values for ADORA3, which is an example of a significant GR-response eQTL. Expression levels are stratified based on the eSNP genotypes for ADORA3. Baseline (6pm) measures are displayed in red and GR-stimulated measures (9pm) in blue. Microarray data could be validated by qPCR.

3.2 Genetically determined differences in the immediate transcriptome response to stress predict risk-related brain function and psychiatric disorders

Including dexamethasone serum levels as covariate did not change the results, thus we could exclude any confounding effects of individual genetic and environmental variability of dexamethasone concentration.

To assess the robustness of these GR-response eQTLs, we validated these eQTLs in an independent sample of n = 58 (see section 2.5.2). Due to the small sample size of the validation set we applied a sample size-weighted Z-score meta-analysis. 72% of the GR-response eQTLs could be validated, i.e. showing a meta-analysis P value equal or less than the actual significance threshold (see section 2.5.2).

3.2.2. GR-response eSNPs are located in long-range enhancer regions

Next, we mapped the distances between eSNPs and array probes. In order to account for genomic LD structure, the following analyses are based on eSNP bins. We mapped the distance of the set of eSNPs in LD (eSNP bin)s from the 320 GR-response eQTL bins to the probe sequence of the respective regulated transcript and compared this to eSNP bin-probe distances for baseline *cis*-eSNP bins (see supplementary note A.1.1). GR-response eSNP bin-probe distance (*mean* = 406kb ± 303kb, n = 320 bins) was significantly longer (Wilcoxon $P = 1.03 \times 10^{-50}$) than baseline eSNP bin-probe distance (*mean* = 149kb ± 232kb, n = 1,148 bins; see figure 3.5, supplementary note A.1.1). The results indicate that GR stimulation is associated with significantly more long-range transcriptional regulation than baseline gene expression.

To evaluate whether the long-range regulation of GR-response expression quantitative trait loci (eQTLs) may also be associated with long-range physical chromatin interaction, we compared our data to data from a chromatin interaction analysis with paired-end tag sequencing (ChIA-PET [121]) generated by ENCODE [57] in leukemia cells line K562. For this, we examined whether regions containing the GR-response eSNP bin and the corresponding probe gene overlap with physically interacting ChIA-PET tags (see section 2.5.2). Twenty-five percent of the GR-response eSNP bin/probe gene combinations (i.e. 68 out of 270 probe genes) overlapped with chromatin interaction signals. Notably, we observed that our GR-response eSNP bin/probe gene pairs were more likely to colocalize with physically interacting ChIA-PET tag pairs than 1,000 equally sized sets of randomly distributed GR-response eSNP bin/probe gene pairs (enrichment ratio = 1.13, permutation-based FDR = 0.056; see section 2.5.2). Interestingly, restricting the analysis to more long-range eSNP bin/probe gene pairs (distance > 100kb) strengthened the enrichment of such colocalizations (enrichment ratio = 1.57, permutation-based FDR = 0.007).

Figure 3.6 illustrates such an example of long-range regulation accompanied by longdistance chromatin interaction: SNPs in the CLOCK locus regulate the GR-stimulated gene expression of the *PAICS* transcript, which is located about 900kb upstream of the CLOCK locus.



Figure 3.5.: Boxplots show the distance of eSNP to array probe for significant eQTL bins from the GR-response and the baseline analyses. The dotted red lines indicate the mean eSNP bin-probe distances

3.2.3. GR-response eSNPs influence predicted transcription factor binding affinity

To investigate whether specific TF binding motifs are enriched in the set of GR-response eSNPs, we compared these eSNP sequences to random human promoter sequences using TRAP [183] (see section 2.5.2). Consistent with evidence that dexamethasone selectively activates the GR (itself a TF), GR binding sites and TF binding sites that directly modulate GR signaling (such as AP1, CEBP, HNF3, HNF4, OCT1, STAT5A and STAT6 [103, 44]) were significantly over-represented in the GR-response eSNP sequence set (TRAP affinity P values $\leq 4.58 \times 10^{-17}$) as compared to the random sequences (see supplementary table A.2). Using only the unique tagging eSNPs (n = 296, representing the highest association per *cis*-eQTL bin) we also observed a significant enrichment of these TF binding sites.

Interestingly, we found not only that TF binding sites were enriched among the GRresponse sequences, but also significant GR affinity differences between the opposite alleles $(t_{all} = -3.02, P_{all} = 0.0025; t_{taggingSNPs} = -2, 23, P_{taggingSNPs} = 0.027)$. It is thus likely that the observed eSNPs modulate GR-stimulated gene expression changes by altering the affinity of the DNA binding sites to the GR and its co-factors. Figure 3.7, provides one specific example of this possible mechanism by illustrating how the predicted changes in affinity to the GR for the sequence containing one intronic SNP (rs2460432) parallel the observed allele-based differences in GR-stimulated gene expression of the gene ASL.

3.2 Genetically determined differences in the immediate transcriptome response to stress predict risk-related brain function and psychiatric disorders



Figure 3.6.: Long-range chromatin interaction of GR-response eQTLs as exemplified by the region containing the CLOCK locus (chr4: 56,350,000-57,300,000; hg19). Top panel, ideogram for chromosome 4. A red box isolate the region shown (enlarged) in panel 2 and 3. Second panel, linkage disequilibrium plot based on r^2 for the SNPs surrounding the tagging SNP rs7673908 of the *CLOCK* locus ($r^2 = 0$ is shown in white, $0 < r^2 < 1$ is shown in shades of grey and $r^2 = 1$ is shown in black). Third panel, ChIA-PET tags from leukemia cells (brown and green tracks) validate a chromatin interaction between the CLOCK eSNP locus and the promoter of the regulated gene *PAICS* (relevant tags highlighted in purple). The paired ChIA-PET tags coincide with DNaseI hypersensitivity sites in the leukemia cell line (blue track) and blood cells (violet track). Magnified views of the region around the ChIA-PET tags are shown in the last track. Bottom panel, normalized expression intensity levels for CLOCK (left) and PAICS (right) at baseline (6pm; red) and after dexamethasone stimulation (9pm; blue), stratified by rs7673908 genotypes. Note that rs7673908 shows significant associations only with the GR-stimulated gene expression of PAICS but not with the expression of CLOCK (Q values were obtained by GR-response *cis*-eQTL analysis).

3 Results





3.2.4. GR-response eSNPs are enriched in loci nominally associated with MDD

In order to test whether our functionally relevant eSNPs are over-represented among nominally significant GWAS results for MDD, we determined the overlap between the GRresponse eSNPs and all MDD-associated markers reaching a meta-analysis P value ≤ 0.05 from an analysis including approximately 9,000 cases and the same number of controls (part of the PGC data [133]; see section 2.5.2). Permutation analysis (see section 2.5.2) predicted an expected mean overlap of 210 SNPs (6%, range 168 to 255, SD = 13.9) from 1,000 randomly selected SNP sets. For 1,000 randomly generated baseline *cis*-eSNP sets,

3.2 Genetically determined differences in the immediate transcriptome response to stress predict risk-related brain function and psychiatric disorders

a mean overlap of 218 SNPs (6.2%, range 174 to 268, SD = 13.5) was calculated. Both estimates were significantly lower than the actual overlap of 282 (8%) SNPs from the GR-response eSNPs. No simulated random set nor baseline *cis*-eSNP set ever yielded the same or greater overlap with MDD-associated SNPs (enrichment *ratio_{random}* = 1.34, enrichment *ratio_{baseline}* = 1.29, permutation-based FDRs < 0.001; see figure 3.8).

The 282 GR-response eSNPs that overlap with MDD-associated SNPs correspond to 23 unique eSNP bins (reflecting 26 eQTL bins) that regulate 25 unique transcripts (see table 3.2). We call these 23 eSNP bins GR/MDD eSNP bins in the remaining manuscript to refer to GR-response eSNPs that also show a nominal association with MDD in this meta-analysis. If we restricted this analysis to tagging eSNPs only (n = 285; see section 2.5.2) we still observed an enrichment compared to 1,000 equally sized sets of random and random baseline tagging eSNP sets (enrichment $ratio_{random} = 1.42$, permutation-based $FDR_{random} = 0.059$ and enrichment $ratio_{baseline} = 1.31$, permutation-based $FDR_{baseline} = 0.082$), indicating that the enrichment is independent from LD structure.



Figure 3.8.: GR-response eSNPs are enriched among variants associated with MDD (GR/MDD eSNPs). The dotted red line shows the number of GR-response eSNPs that overlap with SNPs in our meta-analysis for MDD. The distribution of the observed overlap for sets of 1,000 random SNPs (gray) and 1,000 random baseline eSNPs (brown) are represented as histograms.

l	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16	15	14		13	12	11	10	9	x	7	6	C7		4	ω	2	1		
rs9268926	rs9268926	rs9268671	rs917585	rs7252014	rs7194275	rs6545924	rs6493387	rs35288741	rs2956993	rs2422008	rs2395891	rs2395891	rs2269799	rs2072443	rs1981294	rs1873625	rs17239727	rs12620091	rs12611262	rs12432242	rs10505733	rs10505733	rs10002500	19-40883657	1 - 148440425	tag SNP	
HLA-DRA, HLA-DRB5	HLA-DRA. HLA-DRB5	HLA-DRA, HLA-DRB5	SLC6A7	KCNN1	$C16 or f 91, \ CCDC154$	COMMD1, B3GNT2	TRPM1	NFASC	GANAB	WDPCP	BTBD2, MKNK2	BTBD2, MKNK2	SV2B	TMEM176B	LRIF1, DRAM2	BSN	BLVRA	ALMS1P	SEMA6B, TNFAIP8L1	SLC7A7	CLEC4C	CLEC4C	CNGA1	UPK1A, ZBTB32	PLEKHO1, ANP32E	Genes nearby tag SNP	GR-response
ILMN_2159694	ILMN_1697499	ILMN_1697499	ILMN_1694686	ILMN_1766487	ILMN_1688749	ILMN_1761242	ILMN_1778734	$ILMN_{2094952}$	ILMN_1746525	ILMN_1679268	ILMN_2347068	ILMN_1721344	ILMN_1663699	ILMN_1791511	ILMN_1721989	ILMN_1705737	ILMN_2081335	$ILMN_{-}1662954$	ILMN_1658486	ILMN_1810275	ILMN_1682259	ILMN_1665457	ILMN_1700306	ILMN_1720542	ILMN_1695435	Probe id ^a	cis-eQTL data
HLA- $DRB4$	HLA- $DRB5$	HLA- $DRB5$	HMGXB3	LRRC25	RPS2	COMMD1	MTMR15	NUAK2	FTH1	PELI1	MKNK2	MOB3A	SLCO3A1	TMEM176A	ATP5F1	IMPDH2	C7orf44	CCT7	MRPL54	SLC7A7	CLEC4C	CLEC4C	OCIAD2	POLR2I	HIST2H2AA3/4	Probe gene	
0.00073	0.012	0.00021	0.045	0.038	0.049	0.045	0.045	0.044	0.044	0.042	0.028	0.024	0.047	0.036	0.037	0.048	0.024	0.047	0.046	0.041	0.00021	0.00021	0.024	0.044	0.006	Qb	,
≥;	Α	A	Ω	А	T	T	T	А	T	А	T	T	Ţ	T	T	А	А	Ţ	Ļ	Ţ	А	А	Ţ	Ω	Ţ	A1 ^c	
G d	G	G	G	G	Ω	G	Ω	Q	Q	Ω	G	Q	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Q	Ω	Ω	Ω	Ω	Q	Ω	Q	G	A2°	
0.92	0.92	0.95	1.05	1.06	0.92	1.06	0.93	1.05	0.95	1.05	1.07	1.07	0.95	1.05	1.07	0.94	0.94	0.95	1.06	0.94	0.94	0.94	1.07	0.91	1.09	OR	GC
<u>م</u>	G	G	Q	А	Q	Ţ	Q	А	G	А	Ţ	Ţ	Q	T	Ţ	Q	G	Q	Ţ	Q	Q	Q	Т	G	Т	^e Risk ^t	uata
0.041	0.041	0.031	0.029	0.016	0.021	0.018	0.001	0.042	0.032	0.036	0.031	0.031	0.04	0.034	0.021	0.018	0.022	0.022	0.022	0.008	0.021	0.021	0.043	0.001	0.013	Pg	
CD, SCZ, ASD, ADHD	CD, SCZ, ASD	CD, SCZ, ASD	CD, SCZ		CD, BPD, SCZ		CD			CD, ASD	CD, BPD	CD, BPD			CD		CD			CD, BPD	SCZ	SCZ		BPD	CD, BPD, SCZ, ADHD	CD Association ^h	
yes	ves	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	Net ⁱ	

SNPs from the meta-analysis for MDD (nominally associated with MDD; n = 17,846 samples- part of the PGC data). Ő Ó / / F C

^a llumina probe identifier (Human HT-12 v3)
^b Q values, which were obtained by GR-response *cis*-eQTL analysis
^c code for allele 1 (reference allele, not necessary minor allele) in PGC data
^d code for allele 2 in PGC data
^e odds ratio in PGC data
^f risk allele in PGC data

^g meta analysis P value in PGC data
 ^h probes that also had an eSNP associated with bipolar disorder (BPD), schizophrenia (SCZ), attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), autism spectrum disorder (ASD) or the cross disorders analysis (CD)
 ⁱ probe genes that generated a tightly interconnected network in figure 3.11 (yes)

3.2 Genetically determined differences in the immediate transcriptome response to stress predict risk-related brain function and psychiatric disorders

We next constructed a genetic risk profile score (GRPS) using the 23 GR/MDD tagging eSNPs for each individual, by adding up the individual's number of risk alleles of each SNP (see section 2.5.2). These GRPSs are associated with MDD in an independent cohort (Z = 3.76, P = 0.00017; 1,005 MDD cases and 478 controls; see table 3.3 and section 2.5.2); specifically, individuals with higher GRPSs were overrepresented in the MDD group (see figure 3.9). The association was significantly enriched compared to 1,000 randomly generated SNP profiles (see section 2.5.2) with a permutation-based FDR = 0.008.

	GR	l-response <i>cis</i> -e						
	ag SNP	Proxy for SNP	Genes nearby tag SNP	A1 ^a	$A2^{b}$	MAF	HWE ^c	Used
1	1-148440425	rs72694971 (renamed)	PLEKHO1, ANP32E	G	Т	0.12	0.56	yes
2	19-40883657	rs73048504 (renamed)	UPK1A, ZBTB32	С	G	0.18	0.22	yes
3	rs10002500		CNGA1	Т	С	0.13	0.58	yes
4	rs10505733		CLEC4C	С	А	0.29	0.42	yes
5	rs12432242		SLC7A7	C	Т	0.39	0.87	yes
6	rs12611262		SEMA6B, TNFAIP8L1	Т	С	0.39	0.59	yes
7	rs12620091	rs34874205 $(r^2 = 0.92)$	ALMS1P	С	Т	0.37	< 0.00001	no
8	rs17239727		BLVRA	Т	С	0.21	0.48	yes
9	rs1873625		BSN	A	С	0.29	0.85	yes
10	rs1981294		LRIF1, DRAM2	С	Т	0.17	0.47	yes
11	rs2072443		TMEM176B	Т	С	0.41	0.75	yes
12	rs2269799		SV2B	С	Т	0.32	0.23	yes
13	rs2395891		BTBD2, MKNK2	Т	G	0.35	0.21	yes
14	rs2422008		WDPCP	Α	С	0.43	1	yes
15	rs2956993		GANAB	G	Т	0.38	0.30	yes
16	rs35288741		NFASC	G	А	0.35	0.25	yes
17	rs6493387		TRPM1	Т	С	0.47	0.11	yes
18	rs6545924		COMMD1, B3GNT2	G	Т	0.50	0.30	yes
19	rs7194275		C16orf91, CCDC154	C	Т	0.12	0.0007	yes
20	rs7252014		KCNN1	А	G	0.48	0.054	yes
21	rs917585		SLC6A7	G	С	0.50	0.57	yes
22	rs9268671	rs116072659	HLA-DRA, HLA-DRB5	А	G	0.34	< 0.00001	no
23	rs9268926	(renamed) rs114766558 $(r^2 = 0.81)$	HLA-DRA, HLA-DRB5	G	А	0.31	< 0.00001	no

- Table 3.3.: GR/MDD tagging eSNPs and their proxy SNPs used to generate the cumulative risk allele profile in the MARS cohort. Three SNPs deviated from HWE (rs12620091, rs9268671 and rs9268926) and were excluded from the analysis. As result the remaining 20 SNPs were used to generate a profile.
 - $^{\rm a}$ code for allele 1 (reference allele, not necessary minor allele) in MARS cohort
 - ^b code for allele 2 in MARS cohort
 - ^c Hardy-Weinberg test statistics (P values) in MARS cohort


Figure 3.9.: The distribution of the GRPSs for an independent sample of MDD cases (violet) and controls (gray) are represented as histograms and kernel density curves. Individuals with depression display higher GRPSs.

3.2 Genetically determined differences in the immediate transcriptome response to stress predict risk-related brain function and psychiatric disorders

3.2.5. Cumulative risk scores for the GR/MDD eSNPs correlate with dysfunctional amygdala reactivity²

To investigate the relationship between GR/MDD tagging eSNP GRPSs and variability in stress-related brain function, we applied an imaging genetics strategy to data from 647 participants (171 individuals with current or past DSM-IV Axis I disorders and 476 controls; 306 of participants were self-reported EUR-AM; see table 3.4) of the Duke Neurogenetics Study (DNS) (see section 2.1). Our analyses focused on centromedial amygdala reactivity to canonical threat-related angry and fearful facial expressions (see figure 3.10a), because this phenotype is clearly implicated in the etiology and pathophysiology of stress-related disorders, including depression [173]. Moreover, activity in the amygdala triggers a coordinated behavioral and physiologic response to threat. This includes activation of the stress hormone response via projections from the medial division of the central nucleus of the amygdala, (captured in our analysis by our centromedial amygdala region of interest) to the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus [217].

A significant effect of GRPSs (see section 2.5.2) on centromedial amygdala responses to angry and fearful facial expression in comparison to neutral expressions was identified for the EUR-AM DNS subsample ($F_{1,301} = 7.06$, P = 0.008; see figure 3.10a and 3.10b) after correcting for age, sex, and the presence of an Axis I disorder. The effect was found in the entire sample as well, after accounting for population stratification ($F_{1.637} = 6.05$, P =0.014; see supplementary figure A.3). In both the EUR-AM subsample and entire sample, individuals with higher GRPSs had blunted centromedial amygdala reactivity to angry and fearful facial expressions in comparison to neutral expressions relative to individuals with lower GRPSs (see figure 3.10b, supplementary figure A.3). Permutation analyses that formed random SNP profiles (n = 1,000; matched for MAF and not exceeding the)maximum correlation among profile SNPs; see section 2.5.2) indicated that the actual GRPSs were more likely to be associated with these differences in amygdala reactivity than 1,000 sets of random SNP profiles (EUR-AM subsample: permutation-based FDR =0.003; entire sample: permutation-based FDR = 0.012). Post-hoc analyses revealed that this differential effect was driven by a higher centromedial amygdala reactivity to neutral facial expressions in comparison to shapes in participants with higher GRPS (EUR-AM subsample: $F_{1,301} = 6.47$, P = 0.011; see figure 3.10c and entire sample: $F_{1,637} = 8.52$, P = 0.004; see supplementary figure A.3 and A.4b) while there were no effects of GRPS on amygdala response to angry and fearful facial expressions in comparison to shapes (EUR-AM subsample: $F_{1,301} = 0.2$, P = 0.65; see figure 3.10d and entire sample: $F_{1,637} =$ 0.09, P = 0.76; see supplementary figure A.3 and figure A.4a).

This pattern of altered amygdala reactivity in individuals with higher GRPSs is suggestive of impaired threat-related cue learning with inappropriately increased reactivity

²The imaging analysis in the DNS cohort was conducted in collaboration with Ryan Bogdan^{+,*} and Ahmad R. Hariri^{*}.

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^{*} Department of Psychology and Neuroscience, Institute for Genome Sciences and Policy, Duke University, Durham, NC, USA

to neutral expressions, which do not convey threat [21, 160]. Thus, higher GRPS may be associated with non-specific or overgeneralized threat and stress responses, which are consistently observed in depression as well as other mood and anxiety disorders [21, 160].



Figure 3.10.: GR-response eSNPs correlate with dysregulated threat-related amygdala reactivity. (a) Statistical parametric map illustrating left centromedial amygdala reactivity to the "Angry & Fearful > Neutral" contrast in the entire sample (15 contiguous voxels; max voxel MNI coordinate, x = -24, y = -10, z = -14, t = 4.35, $P = 7.76 \times 10^{-6}$). (b) Higher DNS GRPSs in the European-American subsample (n = 306) predicted amygdala reactivity to threat-related facial expressions in comparison to neutral facial expressions. Post-hoc analyses (c, d) revealed that GRPSs did not predict amygdala reactivity to threat-related expressions (d), but that higher GRPSs predicted elevated amygdala reactivity to neutral facial expressions (c), in comparison to non-face control stimuli. The 95% confidence interval is displayed as gray shaded band in (b-d).

	5	eresponse <i>cus</i> -ec	иг дата			MAF			nort	HWEd			
	tag SNP	Proxy for SNP ^a	Genes nearby tag SNP	$A1^{\rm b}$	$A2^{c}$	EUR-AM	ALL	EUR-AM	AFR-AM	Latino/a	ASN1	ASN2	Used
-	1-148440425	rs11588837 $(r^2 = 0.96)$	PLEKHO1, ANP32E	Α	IJ	0.15	0.34	0.48	0.95	0.34	0.99	0.72	yes
7	19-40883657	$rs8106959$ $(r^2 = 0.95)$	KMT2B	A	IJ	0.22	0.18	0.53	0.89	0.87	0.28	0.5	yes
3	rs10002500		CNGA1	Ŀ	D	0.1	0.19	0.28	0.74	0.65	0.48	0.5	yes
4	rs10505733	rs1894823 $(r^2 = 1)$	CLEC4C	H	D	0.31	0.28	0.34	0.4	0.16	0.14	0.35	yes
ъ	rs12432242	rs2281677 $(r^2 = 0.93)$	SLC7A7	A	IJ	0.38	0.39	0.96	0.29	0.04	0.16	0.31	yes
9	rs12611262		SEMA6B, TNFAIP8L1	H	D	0.37	0.44	0.49	0.84	0.57	0.26	0.55	yes
-	rs12620091	no Proxy											no
×	rs17239727	$rs10229363$ $(r^2 = 1)$	BLVRA	A	IJ	0.2	0.13	0.23	0.62	0.47	0.86	0.35	yes
6	rs1873625	rs9858280 $(r^2 = 1)$	BSN	H	υ	0.37	0.28	0.39	0.6	0.71	0.52	0.24	yes
10	rs1981294	rs483884 $(r^2 = 1)$	LRIF1, DRAM2	A	IJ	0.2	0.19	0.63	0.66	0.48	0.932	0.67	yes
11	rs2072443		TMEM176B	H	υ	0.42	0.44	0.38	0.41	0.59	0.39	0.74	yes
12	rs2269799		SV2B	U	H	0.33	0.35	0.1	0.6	0.32	0.5	0.35	yes
13	rs2395891		BTBD2, MKNK2	Ð	IJ	0.34	0.38	0.49	0.18	0.26	0.3	0.03	yes
14	rs2422008		WDPCP	A	U	0.47	0.41	0.85	0.25	0.9	0.13	0.82	yes
15	rs2956993		GANAB	IJ	H	0.35	0.29	0.42	0.47	0.43	0.61	0.99	yes
16	rs35288741	rs7534993 $(r^2 = 0.95)$	NFASC	IJ	A	0.34	0.27	0.24	0.21	0.56	0.53	0.35	yes
17	rs6493387	rs12901022 $(r^2 - 1)$	TRPM1	C	E	0.48	0.46	0.79	0.44	0.41	0.94	0.82	yes
18	rs6545924	rs921320	COMMD1, B3GNT2	C	A	0.5	0.5	0.17	0.53	0.4	0.65	0.94	yes
		$(r^{2} = 1)$		ζ	E	0	0	3		1		,	
19	rs7194275		C16orf91, CCDC154	с -	÷ c	0.19	0.19	0.5 0.5	0.92	0.73	0.051		yes
07	rs/252014	C	KUNNI	А	ۍ	0.48	0.47	0.55	0.37	0.31	0.07	0.45	yes
71	csc/test	no Proxy											no
22	rs9268671	no Proxy											no
23	rs9268926	no Proxy											no
.				1	,							C F F	.
Tab	le 3.4.: GR	./MDD tagging	g eSNPs and their prov	cy SN	Ps us	ed to gene	rate th	ie cumula	tive risk a	llele profil	e in the	DNS C	ohort.
	Fou	ur SNPs did no	ot have a proxy avail.	able ((rs126)	320091, rs9	917585	, rs92686	71 and rs	9268926).	No SI	NPs dev	viated
	froi	n HWE.											
${}^{\mathrm{a}}r^{2}$ b co c co	= LD for CEU de for allele 1 (de for allele 2 ii	population from 1 reference allele, no 2 DNS cohort	IKGP (> 0.90 for all subpop ot necessary minor allele) in	ulation DNS c	s) ohort								
Ч. Ч.	ardy-Weinberg	test statistics (P v	alues) in DNS cohort (Eurol	pean-A	mericaı	ns (EUR-AM	I), East	Asian (ASN)), African Aı	merican (AF	R-AM)		

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3.2.6. Functional relevance of transcripts regulated by GR/MDD eSNPs

3.2.6.1. Network-based analysis of GR/MDD genes³

To validate our results, we investigated whether the probe genes (n = 24) regulated by the GR/MDD eSNPs are part of specific pathways that may be relevant for the pathophysiology of MDD. We were able to generate a tightly interconnected network containing 22 of the 24 gene products, based on manually curated relationships extracted from the scientific literature (see figure 3.11, supplementary table A.3). This network revealed that the 22 gene products show direct associations with mood disorders and response to antidepressant treatment in independent datasets. In addition, they are predominantly involved in pathways associated with ubiquitination and proteasome degradation and the inflammatory response - systems that have been implicated in the pathophysiology of MDD and in stress-related changes in synaptic plasticity [149, 214].

These gene products not only interact on the protein level but also appear to be coregulated on a transcriptional level. Co-expression analysis (see section 2.5.2) from the GRstimulated gene expression measures in blood cells from all individuals of the MPIP cohort (n = 160) identified that the 25 GR/MDD array probes are more tightly co-regulated than 1,000 sets of randomly chosen transcripts selected from all GR-stimulated transcripts (inverse enrichment ratio = 1.04, permutation-based FDR = 0.078). These data suggest that these 25 array probes (24 genes) not only functionally interact on the protein level but are also coordinated in their transcriptional response to GR activation or stress to perform an orchestrated function.

3.2.6.2. Convergent functional genomics: integrating human GR/MDD genes with relevant mouse models

To establish whether the transcripts regulated by acute GR activation in blood are also regulated in the brain in a similar timeframe, we investigated whether the orthologues of the 24 GR/MDD genes were differentially regulated in mouse blood and brain (PFC, HC, and AM) following dexamethasone administration (10 mg/kg dexamethasone i.p.)). In this experiment 15 of the 24 genes had a mouse orthologous gene, which were expressed above detection threshold (see supplementary table A.3). Ten (66.7%) of the 15 genes showed significant changes in transcriptional levels 4 hours after dexamethasone administration in one or more of the investigated brain regions, and all 15 genes were also regulated in mouse blood (see figure 3.12 right panel and supplementary table A.4).

In order to better link the 24 GR/MDD genes to actual risk for MDD and not only GR reactivity, we further investigated whether chronic social stress differentially regulates the same 24 GR/MDD genes in resilient vs. susceptible mice. In this animal model,

³The interaction network was conducted in collaboration with Goar Frishman^{*} and Andreas Ruepp;^{*}. ^{*} Helmholtz Zentrum München - German Research Center for Environmental Health, Ingolstädter Landstrae 1, 85764 Neuherberg, Germany

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Figure 3.11.: For 22 of the 24 GR/MDD genes a tightly interconnected network was generated from manually curated experimental data derived from the scientific literature. Transcripts that were differently expressed in the GR-stimulation mouse model are marked by a gray mouse and those differential regulated in the chronic social stress mouse model are marked by a brown mouse.

mice were exposed to seven weeks of chronic social stress during adolescence. After five weeks of recovery, susceptible animals exhibit depression-like behavioral and endocrine phenotypes, while this is not the case for resilient animals [110, 190, 189]. In this experiment 11 orthologous genes were analyzed in HC samples (see supplementary table A.4). After 5 weeks recovery, 8 (72.7%) of 11 genes expressed in the CA1 area and/or the DG showed nominally significant (absolute DiffScore > 13) differential expression between resilient vs. susceptible animals (see supplementary table A.4). Interestingly, for 6 of these 8 genes, the difference in gene expression regulation between resilient and susceptible animals in the HC matched the direction of the difference in GR-induction in humans with the risk allele vs. humans with the protective genotypes (see figure 3.12 left panel).

We also tested whether additional transcripts of proteins linked to the GR/MDD genes in the interaction network analysis were significantly regulated in either of the two mouse models. We identified a set of 15 additional transcripts from the network (see supplementary table A.5) that were regulated in brain by GR activation or were associated with risk or resilience to exposure to chronic social stress; these are marked in figure 3.11.



Figure 3.12.: Rows of the heatmaps correspond to genes, and columns correspond to the analyzed tissues. First heatmap: left panel, log fold change in gene expression between stress-susceptible (SS) vs. stress-resilient (SR) groups of mice (brown, n = 12 mice) in the CA1 and DG region of the hippocampus and difference in GR-induced expression of these genes in blood cells in humans between risk allele (RA) and protective genotype (PG) carriers (blue, n = 160 samples). Second heatmap: gene expression changes from baseline to GR-stimulation in mouse brain (gray, n = 22 mice) and human blood cells (blue). Investigated tissues are labeled within the bottom row of every heatmap (PFC, HC, and AM, CA1 area of HC and DG). Log fold change in mRNA levels are color coded as indicated in bottom of each heatmap.

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3.2.7. GR-response eSNPs are enriched in loci associated with other psychiatric disorders

Recent studies suggest shared genetic risk loci for five major psychiatric disorders, which include MDD, BPD, SCZ, ADHD and ASD [37]. In fact, using GWAS data to identify SNP-based genetic correlation (rg_{SNP}) , MDD has been shown to have relevant genetic correlation with BPD $(rg_{SNP} = 0.47)$, SCZ $(rg_{SNP} = 0.43)$ and ADHD $(rg_{SNP} = 0.32)$ but not with ASD $(rg_{SNP} = 0.05)$ [38].



Figure 3.13.: The plots show the results of the GR-response eSNP enrichment analysis in GWAS for bipolar disorder (BPD), schizophrenia (SCZ), attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), autism spectrum disorder (ASD) and the cross-disorder associations (CDA). The dotted red lines show the actual overlap of GR-response eSNPs with the respective disease SNPs. The histograms represent the distribution of the overlap observed for sets of 1,000 random SNPs matched for MAF. GR-response eSNPs are enriched for CDA (permutation based FDR = 0.001), SCZ (permutation based FDR < 0.001) and BPD (permutation based FDR = 0.009) susceptibility loci.

Considering this shared genetic liability across at least some of these five psychiatric disorders and the fact that adverse life events confer risk for most of them |144|, we tested for enrichment of our GR-response eSNPs in the association data set from the PGC crossdisorder analysis (33,332 cases and 27,888 controls; see section 2.5.2). We also tested for enrichment in each disorder independently (9,379 SCZ cases; 6,990 BPD cases; 840 ADHD cases, 1,947 ADHD trio cases; 161 ASD cases, 4,788 ASD trio cases; see figure 3.13 and table 3.5). There was evidence for significant GR-response eSNP enrichment in 1,000 randomly generated SNP sets in the cross-disorder associations (enrichment ratio = 1.33), permutation-based FDR = 0.001). Furthermore, there was evidence of GR-response eSNP enrichment in SCZ (enrichment ratio = 1.87, permutation-based FDR < 0.001) and BPD (enrichment ratio = 1.29, permutation-based FDR = 0.009). By contrast, a significant underrepresentation in ASD (inverse enrichment ratio = 1.87, permutationbased FDR < 0.001) and ADHD (inverse enrichment ratio = 1.92, permutation-based FDR < 0.001) was observed. Those findings are consistent with the evidence that SCZ and BPD have the highest co-heritability with MDD, while ASD and ADHD have the lowest co-heritability with MDD [38].

	GR-response eSNPs	Random e	eSNPs	
	Count	Mean count ^a	Range	$\mathrm{FDR}^{\mathrm{b}}$
CDA*	115 (11%)	$86.5 \pm 8.99 \text{ SD} (8\%)$	61-119	0.001
BPD*	91 (9%)	$70.36 \pm 8.34 \text{ SD} (7\%)$	44-100	0.009
SCZ*	157 (15%)	84.08 ± 8.79 SD (8%)	61-111	< 0.001
ADHD*	29 (3%)	$55.69 \pm 7.14 \text{ SD} (5\%)$	36-79	1
ASD*	34 (3%)	$63.73 \pm 7.62 \text{ SD} (6\%)$	44-91	1
MDD#	282 (8%)	210 ± 13.9 SD (6%)	168-255	< 0.001

Table 3.5.: Number (proportion) of GR-response eSNPs overlapping with SNPs fromthe PGC cross-disorder analyses (*) and meta-analysis for MDD (#).

^a mean count (proportion) of the number of GR-response eSNPs observed for 1,000 random draws of 1,047^{*} and 3,492# SNPs from bins matched for the MAF to the GWAS SNPs

^b permutation-based FDR

4. Discussion

This doctoral thesis presented genome-wide results from both a differential gene expression as well as an eQTL study and shows that both analyses are important contributors in the understanding of the pathophysiology of stress-related psychiatric disorders, especially MDD.

The differential gene expression analysis showed that GR-stimulated gene expression changes in peripheral blood cells enable a much better discrimination between depressed patients and healthy controls than gene expression measures at baseline. Interpretation of the GR-stimulated gene expression profiles of the top differentially regulated genes (see figure 3.1 and table 3.1) led to a correct prediction for 79.2% of the tested samples, and thus outperformed baseline gene expression patterns with a rate of 41.7% correct predictions. This supports the previously described superiority of GR-stimulated over baseline gene expression differences as biomarkers for MDD [203]. Spijker and colleagues [203] investigated gene expression changes in peripheral blood monocytes following an *ex vivo* challenge with lipopolysaccharide, a strong immunogenic stimulus. This paradigm is less influenced by confounding variables than the here presented *in vivo* challenge test. However, the reported sensitivity and specificity values are comparable to the ones reported here in this thesis (sensitivity: 76.9% vs. 80% and specificity: 71.8% vs. 87.5%.). This suggests that in vivo stimulated gene expression patterns, which require less hands on time in the laboratory than ex vivo stimulation, could be better suited to further serve as potential biomarkers for depression-related GR function changes.

Endocrine measures could serve as an alternative to gene expression patterns to classify depressed cases and healthy controls. Such endocrine measures, e.g. cortisol or ACTH, showed a robust suppression in depressed patients as well as healthy controls after dexamethasone investigation. However, they failed to be a reliable discriminator between both groups (for more details please see [148]) in our data set.

Robust GR-induced reproducible gene expression profiles in both depressed patients and healthy controls were found. Interestingly, three of the most significantly GR-regulated genes in both groups (*FKBP5*, *DUSP1* and *ZBTB16*) have been previously reported to be involved in the development of stress-related psychiatric disorders or neuroprotection. Briefly, SNPs in *FKBP5* have been associated with a number of phenotypes related to mood disorders [12] and *FKBP5* gene expression differences have been reported for posttraumatic stress disorder [146, 193]. *DUSP1* has been shown to be more strongly expressed in postmortem hippocampus tissue from depressed patients as compared to healthy controls [55]. Additionally, it mediates stress-related depression-like behavior in rodents [55]. *ZBTB16* is a corticosteroid-responsive transcription factor. It is induced by stress exposure in the brain and may have a neuroprotective function [170].

Of the 19 genes contributing most to our classifier (see figure 3.1 and table 3.1), FKBP5 and TMEM176A have previously been associated with stress-related disorders. Alternated gene expression profiles in HC and PFC of TMEM176A were identified in a rat model of depression-like behavior [14]. Thus, these results support the importance of using GR-stimulated gene expression patterns as biomarkers for depression.

A limitation of this study was the discordant medication with antidepressants of the patients compared to un-medicated controls. This generally complicates downstream analyses of the observed associations since it is difficult to examine whether gene expression changes are related to treatment or disease status. But even if the observed differences were exclusively related to the effects of antidepressant drugs, this would not affect the observed superiority of GR-stimulated over baseline gene expression. To exclude possible medication effects, we post-hoc tested if the duration or number of antidepressant treatment/s at the time of RNA collection had an impact on gene expression regulation in all patients for the 19 genes that best differentiate between cases and controls (see table 3.1). We did not find any significant effect (see table 4.1) suggesting that antidepressant medication is not likely to have a major impact on the expression of those genes. To further exclude medication as a confounder of the reported case-control differences, a new experiment comparing medicated and un-medicated patients and controls has to be investigated as follow-up.

Probe id	Gene name	Type of medication	Duration of medication
ILMN_1718982	BEST1	0.69	0.82
ILMN_1724422	SELL	0.97	1
ILMN_1752526	RNF144B	0.39	0.21
ILMN_1773963	GNA15	0.08	0.09
$\rm ILMN_1661755$	FAM129B	0.36	0.32
ILMN_2372915	P2RY2	0.08	0.34
$\rm ILMN_1672834$	SSH2	0.85	0.27
ILMN_1712389	CKLF	0.79	0.34
$ILMN_1791511$	TMEM176A	0.99	0.62
ILMN_1692464	FLJ20699	0.65	0.49
ILMN_1764764	MUM1	0.35	0.4
ILMN_1778444	FKBP5	0.72	0.19
ILMN_1880406	no symbol	0.2	0.8
ILMN_1740015	CD14	0.9	0.47
ILMN_1774733	SOCS1	0.65	0.38
ILMN_1801504	RUNX1	0.78	0.68
ILMN_1812281	ARG1	0.86	0.29
ILMN_2326953	LAT2	0.64	0.94
ILMN_2400759	CPVL	0.22	0.07

Table 4.1.: List of the 19 transcripts contributing most to our classifier for MDD disease status. The duration or number of antidepressant treatment/s had no impact on gene expression regulation of the listed transcripts.

Antidepressant drugs have been reported to increase GR mRNA expression [28, 66, 87, 222, GR protein expression [28, 89, 113] and GR function as measured using the translocation of the receptor to the nucleus [28, 66, 87, 165] or dexamethas one-induced GR-mediated gene transcription [162, 163, 164, 165, 169]. This pattern of increased GR activation was not observed here. Moreover, the number of genes significantly regulated by dexame has one in depressed patients was significantly lower than in controls (1.151 vs. 2.670 transcripts). In addition, the fold changes of the 19 genes used for classification (see table 3.1) were lower in patients than the ones in controls (mean fold change in patients: sample $1 = 1.19 \pm 1.51$, sample $2 = 1.24 \pm 1.72$ vs. controls: sample $1 = 1.23 \pm 1.51$, sample $2 = 1.27 \pm 1.78$). This observation could likely reflects baseline differences in GR sensitivity. This is further supported since FKBP5 shows less regulation after dexamethasone in patients than in controls. FKBP5 is a heatshock protein 90 associated co-chaperone of the GR and its expression is strongly induced by glucocorticoids via intronic steroid response elements as part of an intracellular short negative feedback loop for GR activity [223]. Its induction by GR activation has been proposed as a molecular indicator of GR sensitivity [98, 223].

On the other hand, this thesis also reported a genome-wide analysis of genetic variants that influence the GR-induced gene expression changes of cis-genes (±1Mb) in peripheral blood cells of 160 male individuals. Based on the results of previous reports [186] and our current sample size we chose not to engage to the analysis of *trans* variants.

This study showed that common variants in long-range enhancer elements alter the transcriptional responsiveness of a network of GR target genes to the GR, and that these variants cumulatively increase the risk for stress-related psychiatric disorders, including MDD. These findings suggest that the risk of developing MDD after adverse life events may be influenced by an individual's sensitivity to the downstream, transcriptional effects of cortisol released during the stressful adverse events. In addition, the findings suggest that the alterations in the very first transcriptional response to stress may influence how an individual processes stressful exposures. Indeed, the risk variants were also associated with altered centromedial amygdala reactivity to threat-related cues. Such abnormal neural processing of threat-related cues may mediate the increase in risk for MDD and other psychiatric disorders.

One of our notable genetic findings was that the distance between the GR-response eSNPs and the regulated probe is significantly longer than the distances previously reported for baseline eQTLs (mean distance of 406kb for GR-response eQTLs vs. 149kb baseline eQTLs in our dataset). Our data support and extend previous observations that indicated a long-range transcriptional regulation by the GR [200, 100, 79], i.e. GREs were generally distally distributed between upstream and downstream regions of the transcription start and end site. Particularly, 63% of the GREs were distal, i.e. further than 10kb from the transcription start and end site, whereas only 31% were proximal (within 5kb from the transcription start and end site) [100]. In fact, a combined analysis of our GR-response eQTLs and ChIA-PET data [121] from the ENCODE project [57] suggests that there could be a physical long-range interaction between the eSNP locus and the promoter of the GR-regulated transcript for at least 25% of the GR-response eQTLs. This observation was more frequent than expect (permutation-based FDR = 0.056). Additional experiments that investigate the direct effects of the different alleles on the enhancer function are necessary to further validate this suggestion. The finding that the identified GR-response eSNPs do indeed tag GREs is supported by a strong enrichment of GREs and other GR-function-related TF binding sites [103] among GR-response eSNP sequences compared to random sequences. The potential long-range transcriptional regulations by GR activation further highlights the importance of using functional data for the annotation of GWAS signals, including those for MDD [142]. Proximity to or location within a gene does not necessarily indicate that associated SNPs regulate the expression of this gene or that they do not impact the regulation of more distant genes (see figure 3.6), even if there is convincing prior evidence for pathophysiological relevance (such as, in our case, for the *CLOCK* gene and MDD [166]).

Our results indicate that stimulated eQTL approaches that involve disease-risk relevant transcriptional stimuli (in our case GR activation and stress) are useful in identifying novel risk genes for common disorders. Previous studies have used eQTLs or DNA methylation QTLs (mQTLs) for the annotation of GWAS results [155, 238] and have indicated the importance of using eQTLs and mQTLs from disease-relevant tissues [68, 159]. While we do not observe a significant enrichment of baseline blood eQTLs, GR-response eQTLs from this tissue were enriched almost 1.34-fold among the variants associated with MDD. Our findings support the notion that not only the tissue but also the type of stimulation, e.g. mimicking aspects of stress in our experiments, can be relevant for using such QTL studies in annotating GWAS results.

While these common genetic variants were discovered in peripheral blood cells, we provided evidence for their importance in neural circuits that are critical for generating and regulating the stress axis response to adversity. First, using imaging genetics we demonstrated that the cumulative GR/MDD eSNP genetic risk profile predicts dysfunctional reactivity of the human amygdala. Second, the majority of the transcripts affected by these eSNPs in their GR-regulated gene expression in human blood were also regulated by short-term GR activation or following exposure to chronic stress in the mouse hippocampus, prefrontal cortex, or amygdala. In addition, 22 of the 24 genes formed a tightly interconnected network with numerous experimentally validated links to psychiatric and neurological disorders as well as antidepressant treatment (see figure 3.11 and supplementary table A.3). Next to inflammation, proteasome degradation was the pathway with the highest connectivity in our network. For example PELI1, MKNK2, MOB3A and COMMD1, all GR/MDD transcripts, are involved in ubiquitination. It has been shown that activation of GRs enhances ubiquitin/proteasome-mediated degradation of glutamate receptor subunits, and thereby mediates cognitive impairment induced by repeated stress exposure [239]. Genetic modulation of such effects may provide a mechanistic link between risk for psychiatric disorders and the genetic differences in GR-induced expression of ubiquitination-related genes observed in this study.

Most importantly, our GR-response eQTL analysis revealed an enrichment of these eSNPs among MDD-associated SNPs contrary to random SNP sets. This suggests that SNPs altering the first transcriptional response to stress also influence the risk for MDD. This association could be verified in an independent cohort and the increase in risk conferred by these functional variants may extend to SCZ and BPD. A recent study of cis-eQTLs in human cerebellumon for BPD reported a 1.32-fold enrichment of eSNPs over random sets [68], which is concordant with our GR-responde eSNP enrichment results for BPD (1.29-fold enrichment). A possible explanation for this agreement could be that our analysis takes advantages, since we only used a set of preselected, i.e., differentially regulated, probes. Alternatively, it is not clear to what extent results obtained on postmortem brain tissue are relevant for the disease in living subjects. Interestingly, when using the eQTL data to measure the enrichment of GR-response eSNPs in a disorder where blood is a more relevant tissue, like rheumatoid arthritis (RA), the eSNPs perform differently compared to MDD. In this case GR-response *cis*-eSNP show no enrichment (see figure 4.1). Thus, we further can conclude that GR-response eQTLs are more relevant for MDD and related disorders than for RA and future analyses may benefit from incorporating knowledge of *cis*-regulatory eSNPs from disease-risk relevant transcriptional stimuli.

The imaging genetics results provided one potential neural pathway by which GR/MDD eSNPs may increase risk for the development of stress-related psychopathology, including depression. Interestingly, GR/MDD eSNPs predict heightened amygdala reactivity to stimuli that do not inherently signal threat (i.e., neutral facial expressions); this suggests that GR/MDD eSNPs associated with the immediate transcriptome response to stress may impair the neural circuitry that supports the learning of threat-related cues and, possibly, thereby contribute to the overgeneralization of threat-related stress responses. Such overgeneralization may evoke stress responses in non-threatening situations and contribute to cognitive biases associated with the development of depression and other forms of psychopathology [29].

In summary, both analyses supported that studying GR-stimulated blood may help to give additional insights into disease etiology of stress-related psychiatric disorders, especially MDD. The results of the first part of this doctoral thesis underline the value of GRstimulated gene expression profiles as a biomarkers for depression-related GR resistance. Studies in larger independent samples with different gender composition and different clinical settings will further explore the potential of the molecular dexamethasone-stimulation test as a biomarker helping to characterize subgroups within patient samples that fulfill current diagnostic criteria for a certain psychiatric category. The data presented in the last part of this thesis show that common genetic variants that change the GR-mediated immediate transcriptome response to stress are linked, in long-term, to both changes in neural processing of threat and increased risk for MDD and other psychiatric disorders. To our knowledge this is the first *in vivo* study of eQTLs that moderate the transcriptional response to glucocorticoids. Two previous studies reported GR-stimulated *cis*-eQTLs using



Figure 4.1.: An enrichment of GR-response eSNPs was not observed for a meta-analysis of rheumatoid arthritis (RA; n = 5,500 cases and 20,000 controls) [204], a disease in which glucocorticoids are one of the effective treatments [10]. Only 6.5% of the GR-response eSNPs (the dotted red line) were associated with RA at the significant level of 0.05. The distribution of the observed overlap for sets of 1,000 random SNPs is represented as histogram.

in vitro dexamethasone incubation in osteoblasts [75] and lymphoblastoid cell lines [137], respectively. Unfortunately, due to differences in study design, e.g. cell types, smaller cis-windows and in vitro conditions, which may have an effect on gene expression levels, our results are not directly comparable with these reports. Another important conclusion from the here reported data led further support to the notion of a possible shared genetic liability of some psychiatric disorders and specifically point to stress-responsive genes as common risk factors. Studies dissecting how these genetic variants alter the molecular, cellular, and neural response to glucocorticoids in the short- and long-term could inform the development of novel strategies for the prevention and treatment of stress-related psychiatric disorders.

A. Appendix

A.1. Supplementary Notes

A.1.1. Baseline cis-eQTLs

Using baseline gene expression of the 4,447 differently regulated autosomal array probes (absolute fold change ≥ 1.3 in at least 20% of all samples), 26,205 unique *cis*-SNPs and 764 gene expression probes corresponding to 31,541 *cis*-eQTLs were found to be significant after multiple testing correction with the same strategy as described for the GR-stimulated gene expression changes. The 26,205 unique eSNPs represent 1,010 uncorrelated eSNP bins (1,148 eSNP bin-probe combinations). 775 eQTL bins (68%) are located within 100 kb upstream or downstream from the array probe ends, 911 eQTL bins (79%) within 200 kb and only 237 eQTLs bins > 200 kb (21%; figure 3.5 main text).

A.1.2. qPCR validation results for GR-response eQTLs

HIST2H2AA3/4 was the array probe with the most eSNPs overlapping with the metaanalysis results for MDD. Two transcript variants encoding isoforms with a different 3'UTR length have been identified for *HIST2H2AA3*, *HIST2H2AA4*. The shorter gene product (isoform 1) is annotated by RefSeq while the alternatively spliced longer gene product (isoform 2) is annotated by Ensembl release 54 (HIST2H2AA3-001; ENST00000369161) and further predicted by AceView (HIST2H2AA3.aApr07-unspliced, HIST2H2AA4.aApr07unspliced). This longer isoform is tagged by the significant Illumina probe (ILMN_1695435). Hence we designed two different assays- one covering the common part of both isoforms (assay 1) and the other tagging isoform 2 (assay 2). The expression levels measured with both assays were highly correlated (Spearman's test P value < 1.5×10^{-20} , R = 74%). We could replicate a significant SNP effect in 137 samples with a P value of 0.012 using assay 1 with a genotypic model and P = 0.017 using a carrier model, with the same direction of change as in the expression array.

A.2. Supplementary Figures



Figure A.1.: The number of genes that are differently expressed at several time points after administration of 1.5 mg dexamethasone relative to baseline in 4 healthy male individuals are shown. The height of the bars indicates the total number of transcripts with nominally significant changes from baseline gene expression. Baseline blood samples were obtained at 6pm. This evening time point was chosen so that the stimulation experiments took place during the quiescent period of the stress hormone system. Baseline blood draws were immediately followed by oral administration of dexamethasone. Additional blood samples were drawn at 9pm, 11pm the same day, 8am, 6pm the next day and 6pm at day 3. A comparison of baseline gene expression vs. gene expression after 3, 5, 14, 24 and 48 h shows an initial high number of gene expression changes, followed by a normalization within 24-48 hours. The highest number of differently expressed genes (highest bar in chart) was observed at 3 and 5 hours after dexamethasone ingestion. For practical reasons as well as to avoid secondary GR target effects, in the subsequent experiment we collected blood 3 hours after dexamethasone intake.



(b) MDD patiens

Figure A.2.: Administration of dexamethasone resulted in a robust suppression of cortisol in all individuals. Cortisol levels were significantly suppressed in healthy controls (a; $F_{1,90} = 89.74$, $P = 3.57 \times 10^{-15}$) as well as in depressed patients (b; $F_{1,67} = 7.09$, P = 0.0097) 3h after dexamethasone challenge. Similar results were observed for ACTH, with a significant reduction in ACTH levels in healthy controls (a; $F_{1,91} = 43.96$, $P = 2.33 \times 10^{-9}$) and in depressed patients (b; $F_{1,65} = 9.75$, P = 0.0027) after 3h.



Figure A.3.: Elevated GRPSs correlate with dysfunctional amygdala reactivity in the entire DNS sample (n = 647). As was found in the European-American subsample, elevated GRPSs predicted blunted amygdala reactivity to threatrelated expressions in comparison to neutral expressions in the entire sample when controlling for patterns of population stratification. Post-hoc analyses revealed that GRPS was not predictive of reactivity to threat-related expressions, but that higher GRPSs predicted elevated amygdala reactivity to neutral expressions, in comparison to non-face control stimuli.



Figure A.4.: Statistical parametric map illustrating amygdala reactivity. Main effects of post hoc contrasts for left centromedial amygdala reactivity used in imaging genetics analyses of GRPS in the entire sample. (a) "Angry & Fearful > Shape" (49 contiguous voxels; max voxel MNI coordinate, x = -24, y = -10, z = -14, t = 22.59, $P < 4.41 \times 10^{-16}$), and (b) "Neutral > Shape" (35 contiguous voxels; max voxel MNI coordinate, x = -24, z = -14, t = 10.73, $P < 4.41 \times 10^{-16}$).

A.3. Supplementary Tables

total SNP Location Chr. ² Probe form Constrant 4 LMNL 16136 Probe grant Coll 124 S200516 7 SPARCL1 intronic 1 LMNL 16136 MPP2 004460 124 S20051 13 MFN2 intronic 1 LMNL 16136 MPP2 004460 124 S20051 13 MFN2 00460 124 00466 124 S20051 13 MFN2 00466 124 <th>able A.1.: Lis</th> <th>st of the</th> <th>$320\ cis$-eSNP bin-probe c</th> <th>ombinations (e</th> <th>QTL b</th> <th>ins).</th> <th></th> <th></th> <th></th>	able A.1.: Lis	st of the	$320\ cis$ -eSNP bin-probe c	ombinations (e	QTL b	ins).			
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	tag SNP	$\mathbf{N}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{g}^{\perp}$	Genes nearby tag SNP	SNP Location	$\mathbf{Chr.}^2$	Probe id ³	Probe gene	${f Q}$ values ⁴	\mathbf{FC}^{5}
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs9994839	0	SPARCL1	downstream	4	ILMN_1651354	SPP1	0.04493	1.14
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs3766746	7	PLOD1	intronic	1	ILMN_1651385	MFN2	0.04061	1.28
$ \begin{array}{lcccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	rs2295281	21	MFN2	intronic	1	ILMN_1651385	MFN2	0.00026	1.28
$ \begin{array}{lcccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	rs2460432	188	ASL	intronic	7	ILMN_1651950	TPST1	0.03325	2.3
$ \begin{array}{lcccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	rs2848122	0	ANKRD36BP2, MIR4436A	intergenic	2	ILMN_1652199	IGKC	0.04686	-1.16
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs12417156	1	CHRDL2	intronic	11	ILMN_1652753	PAAF1	0.01664	-1.17
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs17586305	×	D21S2088E, LOC339622	intergenic	21	ILMN_1653667	TBX1	0.03325	1.17
	rs2828337	7	D21S2088E, LOC339622	intergenic	21	ILMN_1653667	TBX1	0.04686	1.17
	rs231478	11	MPP2	intronic	17	ILMN_1653711	FZD2	0.01755	-1.22
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs4777959	2	SLCO3A1, ST8SIA2	intergenic	15	ILMN_1654735	SLCO3A1	0.02471	1.23
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs3865451	0	ADCK4	intronic	19	ILMN_1654875	CLC	0.04911	-1.36
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs3853657	0	MIR4456, CEP72	intergenic	5 L	ILMN_1655195	SMA4	0.03563	-1.17
	rs7622109	27	TCAIM	intronic	e S	ILMN_1655702	ABHD5	0.02774	1.51
$ \begin{array}{lcccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	rs7915524	0	FAM171A1	intronic	10	ILMN_1656378	NMT2	0.03563	-1.24
$ \begin{array}{lcccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	rs7256770	c S	ACP5	upstream	19	ILMN_1656822	DNM2	0.04579	1.18
	15-20476475	1	CYFIP1	intronic	15	ILMN_1657478	MAGEL2	0.04686	1.09
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs11227523	3	ZDHHC24	downstream	11	ILMN_1657701	RBM4	0.04735	-1.15
$ \begin{array}{lcccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	rs8082593	1	UTP18, CA10	intergenic	17	ILMN_1657884	NME1	0.04395	-1.1
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs3802984	0	ODF3	exonic	11	ILMN_1657932	MUC6	0.04861	1.11
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs6482235	23	PIP4K2A, ARMC3	intergenic	10	ILMN_1657977	MSRB2	0.03563	1.31
$ \begin{array}{lcccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	rs12611262	0	SEMA6B, TNFAIP8L1	intergenic	19	ILMN_1658486	MRPL54	0.04579	-1.24
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs524908	4	FRMD5	intronic	15	ILMN_1658743	<i>CCNDBP1</i>	0.04136	1.13
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs417557	0	CLDN14,SIM2	intergenic	21	ILMN_1661194	CLDN14	0.04686	1.14
$ \begin{array}{lcccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	rs12620091	0	ALMS1P	ncRNA_intronic	5	ILMN_1662954	CCT7	0.04686	-1.17
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs2282444	4	TOMM6, USP49	intergenic	9	ILMN_1663489	UBR2	0.04729	1.15
$ \begin{array}{lcccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	rs2269799	0	SV2B	intronic	15	ILMN_1663699	SLCO3A1	0.04686	1.11
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs698915	9	RPRD2	intronic	1	ILMN_1664706	HIST2H3D	0.03386	1.13
$ \begin{array}{l c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	rs877836	0	UQCRFS1, LOC284395	intergenic	19	ILMN_1664920	C19 or f12	0.0498	-1.12
	rs12497322	1	XIRP1, CX3CR1	intergenic	e C	ILMN_1665148	RPSA	0.04442	-1.36
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	rs10505733	9	$CLEC_4C$	intronic	12	ILMN_1665457	CLEC4C	0.00021	1.19
	rs4242902	ъ 2	DPPA3, CLEC4C	intergenic	12	ILMN_1665457	CLEC4C	0.0299	1.19
	rs11055463	x	DPPA3, CLEC4C	intergenic	12	ILMN_1665457	CLEC4C	0.00164	1.19
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	rs11123840	x	PDCL3, NPAS2	intergenic	5	ILMN_1665877	RNF149	0.01182	1.42
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	rs4887017	0	ACSBG1	intronic	15	ILMN_1665887	WDR61	0.04395	-1.21
	rs300035	0	FOXL1, C16 or f95	intergenic	16	ILMN_1666594	IRF8	0.04493	-1.06
$rs7535902$ 0 $LIN28A$ intronic 1 $ILMN_{-1}668270$ $ZDHHC18$ 0.04729 1.34	rs1893233	0	PIEZO2, GNAL	intergenic	18	ILMN_1667744	MPPE1	0.04196	1.19
	rs7535902	0	LIN28A	intronic	1	ILMN_1668270	ZDHHC18	0.04729	1.34

¹number of SNP within an eSNP bin ²eQTL chromosome ³llumina probe identifier (Human HT-12 v3) ⁴FDR analog of the P value ⁵fold change of GR-stimulated/baseline gene expression

A.3 Supplementary Tables

tag SNP	Ntag	Genes nearby tag SNP	SNP Location	Chr.	Probe id	Probe gene	Q values	FC
rs10234768	2	C7orf72	intronic	7	ILMN_1669617	GRB10	0.04442	1.14
rs2178779	0	OR4E2, DAD1	intergenic	14	ILMN_1670272	LRP10	0.02929	1.31
rs6531673	2	TLR6	intronic	4	ILMN_1670931	PDS5A	0.03758	-1.1
rs12443981	0	$SEPHS_{2}, ITGAL$	intergenic	16	ILMN_1671854	ZNF48	0.03758	-1.18
rs36074193	8	TOB1-AS1,SPAG9	intergenic	17	ILMN_1672004	TOB1	0.00198	1.46
rs885950	0	POU5F1, PSORS1C3	intergenic	9	ILMN_1673753	ABCF1	0.04488	-1.12
rs7955208	12	PTPN11, RPH3A	intergenic	12	ILMN_1674063	OAS2	0.01742	-1.25
rs2387976	17	NANP	intronic	20	ILMN_1674394	C20 or f3	0.01664	1.37
3-43101876	17	GTDC2	intronic	3	ILMN_1674522	HIGDIA	0.04395	-1.07
rs12981801	П	ZNF554	downstream	19	ILMN_1674926	C19 or f 35	0.04686	1.37
rs60492890	1	C19 or f24	npstream	19	ILMN_1674926	C19 or f 35	0.02774	1.37
rs4902681	0	ACTNI	intronic	14	ILMN_1675448	ZFP36L1	0.04729	-1.06
rs4767092	0	LHX5, RBM19	intergenic	12	ILMN_1675640	OASI	0.04856	-1.16
rs10939637	6	SLC2A9	intronic	4	ILMN_1675844	WDR1	0.04727	1.18
rs9320357	0	GSTM2P1, SLC16A10	intergenic	9	ILMN_1676891	CDC2L6	0.04686	1.25
rs1562782	1	ADM, AMPD3	intergenic	11	ILMN_1678004	$TMEM_{41B}$	0.04442	-1.06
rs2422008	ŝ	WDPCP	intronic	2	ILMN_1679268	PEL11	0.04204	1.68
rs724208	ŝ	OLIG1, C21 or f54	intergenic	21	ILMN_1679476	GART	0.04493	-1.19
rs1532445	0	LZTS1, LZTS1-AS1	intergenic	×	ILMN_1679483	INTS10	0.04442	-1.11
rs4253082	4	ERCC6	intronic	10	ILMN_1679555	TIMM23	0.04579	-1.21
rs914314	62	SYNDIG1, CST7	intergenic	20	ILMN_1679826	CST7	0.03386	1.14
rs2296887	2	GBF1	UTR5	10	ILMN_1682165	NT5C2	0.04061	1.23
rs11055463	×	DPPA3, CLEC4C	intergenic	12	ILMN_1682259	$CLEC_4C$	0.04395	1.12
rs10505733	6	CLEC4C	intronic	12	ILMN_1682259	$CLEC_4C$	0.00021	1.12
rs11760934	0	POLR2J2, FAM185A	intergenic	7	ILMN_1682368	LRWD1	0.04729	1.26
rs59464952	1	NLRP1, LOC339166	intergenic	17	ILMN_1682761	C17 or f87	0.04488	-1.18
rs10881678	1	KIF20B, LINC00865	intergenic	10	ILMN_1682799	STAMBPL1	0.04925	-1.21
rs3761821	13	OBP2B, ABO	intergenic	6	ILMN_1683498	RPL7A	0.03872	-1.16
rs17340646	7	TPI1P2, LOC407835	intergenic	7	ILMN_1683811	TNPO3	0.03386	1.18
rs1001073	0	MASP1	intronic	3	ILMN_1685722	EIF4A2	0.04442	-1.26
rs7099954	7	ITIH2	intronic	10	ILMN_1685774	ATP5C1	0.04061	-1.26
rs4924398	6	GPR176	intronic	15	ILMN_1686116	THBS1	0.04061	1.24
rs11638679	0	C15 or f54, THBS1	intergenic	15	ILMN_1686116	THBS1	0.04715	1.24
rs5756520	ы С	TMPRSS6, IL2RB	intergenic	22	ILMN_1687306	LGALS2	0.04729	-1.18
rs4075428	-	CIZ1	intronic	6	ILMN_1687857	ST6GALNAC4	0.04686	1.07
rs2524379	4	EMR2	intronic	19	ILMN_1688152	IL27RA	0.04686	-1.2
rs7194275	0	C16 orf 91, CCDC154	intergenic	16	ILMN_1688749	RPS2	0.04856	-1.22
rs11645488	7	FLJ26245	intergenic	16	ILMN_1689327	CR617556	0.03563	-1.05
rs12335026	ŝ	FABP12, IMPA1	intergenic	×	ILMN_1690586	DQ579214	0.03073	-1.28
rs2280516	0	DRC1	intronic	2	ILMN_1691090	MPV17	0.02446	-1.18
rs4147779	0	NDUFS8	downstream	11	ILMN_1692026	SUV420H1	0.04911	1.15
rs13285411	0	DNM1	intronic	6	ILMN_169223	LCN2	0.04686	1.16
rs2359795	×	JDP2	intronic	14	ILMN_1694233	ACYP1	0.04061	-1.14
rs11672145	0	ZNF799	downstream	19	ILMN_1694325	NFIX	0.02607	1.06
rs917585	0	SLC6A7	intronic	ഹ	ILMN_1694686	HMGXB3	0.04488	-1.14
rs4968392	7	VMP1	intronic	17	ILMN_1695157	CA4	0.04488	1.7

tag SNP	$\mathbf{N}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{g}$	Genes nearby tag SNP	SNP Location	Chr.	Probe id	Probe gene	Q values	FC
rs7755418	2	FAM50B, PRPF4B	intergenic	9	ILMN_1695311	HLA-DMA	0.04856	-1.37
1-148440425	199	PLEKHO1, ANP32E	intergenic	1	ILMN_1695435	HIST2H2AA3/4	0.00581	1.22
1-155229343	56	ARHGEF11	intronic	1	ILMN_1695576	MRPL24	0.04061	-1.25
rs12372446	0	KRT71, KRT74	intergenic	12	ILMN_1695812	KRT72	0.04493	-1.02
rs3771863	0	TACRI	intronic	2	ILMN_1696375	TTC31	0.04493	-1.16
rs6651024	1	C6orf10	intronic	9	ILMN_1697499	HLA- $DRB5$	0.04061	-1.07
rs1265758	13	C6orf10	intronic	9	ILMN_1697499	HLA- $DRB5$	0.04387	-1.07
rs9268926	196	HLA_DRA,HLA-DRB5	intergenic	9	ILMN_1697499	HLA- $DRB5$	0.01205	-1.07
rs9268671	392	HLA-DRA,HLA-DRB5	intergenic	9	ILMN_1697499	HLA- $DRB5$	0.00021	-1.07
rs11246074	0	IFITM3, B4GALNT4	intergenic	11	ILMN_1698519	AL137655	0.04625	1.25
rs10002500	×	CNGA1	intronic	4	ILMN_1700306	OCIAD2	0.02446	-1.32
rs17108932	33	PTEN, RNLS	intergenic	10	ILMN_1701134	PTEN	0.03563	1.56
rs2473263	4	WNT4, ZBTB40	intergenic	1	ILMN_1701603	ALPL	0.04398	1.42
rs10487531	0	LOC730441,MTRNR2L6	intergenic	7	ILMN_1701875	ZYX	0.04488	1.23
rs55776343	0	SLC41A3	intronic	3	ILMN_1702055	ROPN1B	0.04488	1.13
rs2305160	1	NPAS2	exonic	2	ILMN_1702806	PDCL3	0.04488	-1.15
rs3760352	0	ASGR2, ASGR1	intergenic	17	ILMN_1703433	PLSCR3	0.02607	-1.26
rs6070412	42	PPP4R1L	ncRNA_intronic	20	ILMN_1704079	RBM38	0.03563	1.11
rs35406858	×	RPP25,SCAMP5	intergenic	15	ILMN_1704477	COX5A	0.0384	-1.27
rs1873625	1	BSN	intronic	3	ILMN_1705737	IMPDH2	0.048	-1.24
rs4976450	12	SPOCK1	intronic	5 C	ILMN_1706539	KDM3B	0.04488	1.13
rs6439982	14	SPSB4, ACPL2	intergenic	3	ILMN_1706598	ACPL2	0.01664	1.25
rs9418982	2	LOC619207, CYP2E1	intergenic	10	ILMN_1708348	ADAM8	0.04686	1.24
rs717450	0	XCL1	downstream	1	ILMN_1709233	F5	0.04442	1.31
rs57988909	1	OR5H15, OR5H6	intergenic	3	ILMN_1710326	CLDND1	0.04442	-1.23
rs12497322	1	XIRP1, CX3CR1	intergenic	3	ILMN_1710885	RPSA	0.03872	-1.34
rs10489832	0	OR10R2, OR6Y1	intergenic	1	ILMN_1710937	IFI16	0.04686	1.29
rs8041381	0	RORA	intronic	15	ILMN_1711899	ANXA2	0.04811	-1.14
rs1647990	c,	RORA	intronic	15	ILMN_1711899	ANXA2	0.03872	-1.14
rs624420	0	CPT1A,MRPL21	intergenic	11	ILMN_1711994	TCIRG1	0.04861	1.3
rs16858988	1	GAD1	intronic	2	ILMN_1712305	CYBRD1	0.03386	1.13
rs6749185	5	CYBRD1	intronic	2	ILMN_1712305	CYBRD1	0.03872	1.13
rs6433294	11	DCAF17, CYBRD1	intergenic	2	ILMN_1712305	CYBRD1	0.01664	1.13
rs166211	16	LOC283867, CDH5	intergenic	16	ILMN_1712389	CKLF	0.04294	1.3
rs7349097	0	PTPRF	intronic	1	ILMN_1714445	SLC6A9	0.04488	1.09
rs7826635	1	CHMP7,R3HCC1	intergenic	×	ILMN_1715969	SLC25A37	0.02774	1.24
rs809972	1	MIR34A, H6PD	intergenic	1	ILMN_1716465	RBP7	0.02504	1.33
rs2027237	0	LOC728228	downstream	20	ILMN_1717809	RNF24	0.04061	1.2
rs250145	0	MAF, MIR548H4	intergenic	16	ILMN_1719543	MAF	0.04493	-1.18
rs17031905	85	INPP4A	intronic	2	ILMN_1719756	ZAP70	0.04294	-1.2
19-40883657	ъ 2	UPK1A, ZBTB32	intergenic	19	ILMN_1720542	POLR2I	0.04442	-1.18
rs2395891	3	BTBD2, MKNK2	intergenic	19	ILMN_1721344	MOB3A	0.02446	1.15
rs11644259	15	BRD7	intronic	16	ILMN_1721349	MAGT1	0.04061	1.11
rs2363536	4	CD53	intronic	1	ILMN_1721989	ATP5F1	0.04196	-1.13
rs1981294	4	LRIF1, DRAM2	intergenic	1	ILMN_1721989	ATP5F1	0.03653	-1.13
rs3760352	0	ASGR2, ASGR1	intergenic	17	ILMN_1722900	EIF4A1	0.04061	-1.2

tag SNP	$\mathbf{N}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{g}$	Genes nearby tag SNP	SNP Location	Chr.	Probe id	Probe gene	Q values	FC
rs2730355	en en	GALNT15	intronic	33	ILMN_1723414	HACL1	0.0299	-1.17
rs12423255	0	PITPNM2	upstream	12	ILMN_1725187	PITPNM2	0.04061	1.17
rs538645	0	DDX6,CXCR5	intergenic	11	ILMN_1726306	HMBS	0.04395	1.03
rs9525211	46	RASA3	intronic	13	ILMN_1727389	CDC16	0.04061	-1.14
rs2161343	0	FLJ38109	ncRNA_intronic	ъ	ILMN_1728742	C5 or f4	0.04398	1.13
rs3826440	11	POLR2A	intronic	17	ILMN_1731546	RPL26	0.04395	-1.25
rs1859441	89	COL2A1, SENP1	intergenic	12	ILMN_1731666	ZNF641	0.03325	1.05
rs4075428	7	CIZ1	intronic	6	ILMN_1732049	DPM2	0.02607	1.12
rs1559155	0	PPFIA3	intronic	19	ILMN_1732053	SNRNP70	0.04856	-1.12
rs7544118	1	ADORA3	intronic	1	ILMN_1733259	ADORA3	0.00164	2.08
rs10906402	0	LOC399715, PRKCQ	intergenic	10	ILMN_1733421	PRKCQ	0.04488	-1.2
rs35406858	×	RPP25,SCAMP5	intergenic	15	ILMN_1733696	IMP3	0.04186	-1.27
1-20817476	ы С	CDA	intronic	1	ILMN_1734231	DDOST	0.04856	-1.19
rs11083620	0	C19 or f 69	upstream	19	ILMN_1734878	CD79A	0.04061	-1.3
rs10039049	1	ANXA6	intronic	2	ILMN_1736567	CD74	0.04686	-1.25
rs11760186	18	PHACTR1	intronic	9	ILMN_1736982	PHACTR1	0.005	1.19
rs1228529	ъ С	PHACTR1	intronic	9	ILMN_1736982	PHACTR1	0.03872	1.19
rs2420147	0	LYRM7, CDC42SE2	intergenic	5 C	ILMN_1737343	FNIP1	0.04847	1.25
rs10835861	n	RCN1, WT1	intergenic	11	ILMN_1737806	BX648962	0.04686	1.05
rs12216600	0	PDE1C	intronic	7	ILMN_1737947	LSM5	0.04686	-1.2
rs12206258	2	GMDS	intronic	9	ILMN_1738401	FOXC1	0.02366	1.42
rs12128782	c C	TBX19, MIR557	intergenic	1	ILMN_1739103	MPZL1	0.04061	1.24
rs6709463	4	FAM117B	intronic	2	ILMN_1739942	FAM117B	0.03728	-1.07
rs2812500	0	C10 orf 35, COL13A1	intergenic	10	ILMN_1740633	PRF1	0.04442	1.09
rs7556661	91	ARNT, SETDB1	intergenic	1	ILMN_1741200	RFX5	0.03563	-1.3
rs2209313	15	SIRPB1	intronic	20	ILMN_1742442	SIRPB1	0.00043	1.15
rs4845143	6	IL19	intronic	1	ILMN_1742601	CR1	0.04847	1.3
rs12438495	0	IGF1R	intronic	15	ILMN_1744023	IGF1R	0.04686	1.17
rs2672027	1	MIR4456, CEP72	intergenic	ъ	ILMN_1744210	SDHA	0.04387	-1.16
rs11078835	0	GAS7	intronic	17	ILMN_1745994	GAS7	0.04488	1.14
rs10790231	23	TMPRSS4	intronic	11	ILMN_1746516	RPS25	0.01596	-1.25
rs4442562	1	FOXR1	intronic	11	ILMN_1746516	RPS25	0.04686	-1.25
rs2956993	0	GANAB	intronic	11	ILMN_1746525	FTH1	0.04395	1.11
17-8005504	0	VAMP2	intronic	17	ILMN_1746883	SSAT2	0.04395	-1.17
rs6607302	0	HNF1B, LOC284100	intergenic	17	ILMN_1748651	PSMB3	0.03563	1.12
rs2385067	0	TMEM104	intronic	17	ILMN_1748797	GRB2	0.04061	1.21
rs17304079	ъ С	RBM6	intronic	3	ILMN_1749662	GPX1	0.04442	1.09
rs4889991	0	CARD14	intronic	17	ILMN_1749722	RNF213	0.03728	1.13
rs1317577	2	N4BP2,RHOH	intergenic	4	ILMN_1750507	RPL9	0.02774	-1.41
rs6581076	1	OR10P1, METTL7B	intergenic	12	ILMN_1750636	RPS26	0.03563	-1.21
rs639459	7	C7orf25	upstream	7	ILMN_1751051	C7 or f 25	0.04686	1.16
rs11672145	0	ZNF799	downstream	19	ILMN_1751571	RAD23A	0.03981	-1.05
rs9526443	15	MED4	intronic	13	ILMN_1751708	ITM2B	0.04442	1.27
rs4990638	0	TMEM132E, CCT6B	intergenic	17	ILMN_1752520	SLFN11	0.03364	-1.2
rs2568032	1	ST5	intronic	11	ILMN_1752988	C11 or f17	0.04488	-1.18
rs7089504	0	PRKCQ	intronic	10	ILMN_1754178	GDI2	0.04686	-1.08

$\operatorname{tag}\operatorname{SNP}$	$\mathbf{N}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{g}$	Genes nearby tag SNP	SNP Location	Chr.	Probe id	Probe gene	Q values	FC
rs11264449	1	SEMA4A	intronic	1	ILMN_1755123	GBA	0.04488	1.19
rs843631	0	ACYP2, C2orf73	intergenic	2	ILMN_1755883	RPS27A	0.04861	-1.36
rs492799	0	NAALADL1, CDCA5	intergenic	11	ILMN_1756204	RPS6KA4	0.02774	-1.17
rs2567342	e	BDH1	intronic	ŝ	ILMN_1756360	RPL35A	0.04442	-1.22
rs200891	0	LOC100289473, SIRPA	intergenic	20	ILMN_1758146	SIRPA	0.04442	1.4
rs8047140	0	KCTD13	intronic	16	ILMN_1759008	ZNF689	0.04196	-1.24
rs734570	0	SNRNP70	intronic	19	ILMN_1759436	NOSIP	0.03121	-1.24
rs11238359	7	EGFR, LANCL2	intergenic	7	ILMN_1760338	SUMO2	0.04061	-1.1
rs213637	0	PAQR7	UTR3	1	ILMN_1760556	BC041843	0.048	1.12
rs6545924	0	COMMD1,B3GNT2	intergenic	2	ILMN_1761242	COMMD1	0.04488	-1.22
rs3793243	0	STX1A	intronic	7	ILMN_1761387		0.04061	1.31
rs444297	0	LIMK1, EIF4H	intergenic	7	ILMN_1761387		0.04395	1.31
rs1352312	1	MAP3K14	intronic	17	ILMN_1762678	NMT1	0.048	-1.13
rs10781518	9	SDCCAG3	intronic	6	ILMN_1764239	PMPCA	0.04488	-1.12
rs59562633	4	LOC100128714	ncRNA_intronic	15	ILMN_1764549	UBE3A	0.04395	-1.12
rs17178720	6	UGGTI	exonic	2	ILMN_1765122	MAP3K2	0.04442	1.17
rs1379868	2	NRTN	intronic	19	ILMN_1766125	LONP1	0.02446	-1.19
rs7252014	0	KCNN1	intronic	19	ILMN_1766487	LRRC25	0.0384	1.1
rs4845143	6	IL19	intronic	1	ILMN_1767193	CR1	0.04061	1.22
rs3015983	0	PAK1	intronic	11	ILMN_1767365	PAKI	0.04686	1.22
rs7870685	ъ 2	LOC401497,AC01	intergenic	6	ILMN_1767980	LOC401497	0.02179	1.05
rs17034661	0	VGLL4	intronic	e	ILMN_1768480	VGLL4	0.04811	-1.16
rs12441390	4	RASGRP1, C15orf53	intergenic	15	ILMN_1768958	RASGRP1	0.04493	-1.17
rs698915	9	RPRD2	intronic	1	ILMN_1769027	CDC42SE1	0.04395	1.22
rs11707455	×	BBX	intronic	S	ILMN_1771333	CD47	0.02504	-1.17
rs7673908	50	CLOCK	intronic	4	ILMN_1773760	PAICS	0.04493	-1.19
rs6749185	ъ	CYBRD1	intronic	2	ILMN_1773847	DYNC112	0.04686	-1.16
rs1007122	ъ	COMMD7,DNMT3B	intergenic	20	ILMN_1774250	PLUNC	0.04686	1.06
rs4309551	1	RRM2, C2orf 48	intergenic	2	ILMN_1775011	NOL10	0.01664	1.1
rs60157471	0	IL36B	intronic	2	ILMN_1775501	IL1B	0.04727	-1.47
rs13090	0	MED16	exonic	19	ILMN_1777190	CFD	0.04395	1.11
rs12548608	9	KIF13B	intronic	×	ILMN_1778226	EXTL3	0.03563	1.44
rs6493387	3	TRPM1	intronic	15	ILMN_1778734	MTMR15	0.04488	-1.16
rs12886153	0	KTN1, RPL13AP3	intergenic	14	ILMN_1780132	PELI2	0.03653	1.17
rs12891572	4	HNRNPC	upstream	14	ILMN_1780533	RNASE6	0.04204	1.4
rs12433896	D D	RNASE4, EDDM3A	intergenic	14	ILMN_1780533	RNASE6	0.01755	1.4
rs6543137	1	IL18RAP	intronic	7	ILMN_1781700	IL18R1	0.01742	1.99
rs4845391	0	KCNN3	intronic	1	ILMN_1782057	ATP8B2	0.04686	-1.21
rs9525211	46	RASA3	intronic	13	ILMN_1782292	LAMP1	0.01755	1.12
rs6904470	0	TAAR5, TAAR3	intergenic	9	ILMN_1782621	RPS12	0.04442	-1.09
rs91710	0	ARRDC2, IL12RB1	intergenic	19	ILMN_1782977	UBA52	0.04671	1.08
rs17654580	0	ARRDC2, IL12RB1	intergenic	19	ILMN_1782977	UBA52	0.04398	1.08
rs4452682	0	SLC22A23	intronic	9	ILMN_1783158	LY6G6F	0.04856	1.12
rs11249756	4	BTNL3, BTNL9	intergenic	ъ	ILMN_1783795	BTNL3	0.00581	1.16
rs2329844	6	TSPEAR	intronic	21	ILMN_1785179	UBE2G2	0.03325	-1.25
rs57057834	53	SLC19A1, LOC100129027	intergenic	21	ILMN_1785179	UBE2G2	0.04729	-1.25
rs17280306	40	ZNF621, CTNNB1	intergenic	3	ILMN_1786242	RPL14	0.04442	-1.32

$\operatorname{tag}\operatorname{SNP}$	Ntag	Genes nearby tag SNP	SNP Location	Chr.	Probe id	Probe gene	Q values	FC
rs10885031		RBM20	intronic	10	ILMN_1787378	ADD3	0.04488	-1.05
rs10180924	D D	ATOH8, LOC284950	intergenic	2	ILMN_1790692	GNLY	0.01664	1.02
rs2856728	0	ELN	intronic	7	ILMN_1791375	STAG3L2	0.04686	-1.25
rs17173596	28	GIMAP1-GIMAP5, TMEM176B	intergenic	7	ILMN_1791511	TMEM176A	0.01749	-1.15
rs2072443	0	TMEM176B	exonic	7	ILMN_1791511	TMEM176A	0.03563	-1.15
rs2388881	0	MCTP2, LOC440311	intergenic	15	ILMN_1792682	MCTP2	0.04442	1.29
rs2938387	-	PPARG	intronic	°	ILMN_1793724	C3orf31	0.03563	-1.18
rs760657	0	BPIFC, FBX07	intergenic	22	ILMN_1793934	PISD	0.03872	1.35
rs1280984	ю	CASZ1, C1 orf 127	intergenic	1	ILMN_1794165	PGD	0.01755	1.29
rs3825073	0	SYVN1	intronic	11	ILMN_1794364	CTSW	0.04395	-1.05
rs11176799	0	CAND1, DYRK2	intergenic	12	ILMN_1794588	DYRK2	0.03758	-1.32
rs3758587	0	ARHGAP19-SLIT1	ncRNA_intronic	10	ILMN_1794914	UBTD1	0.02929	1.15
rs10746914	4	ANXA1, RORB	intergenic	6	ILMN_1795228	ZFAND5	0.04387	1.07
rs7071536	7	ANKRD16	downstream	10	ILMN_1795467	LOC399715	0.01755	1.19
rs4433629	2	LOC338758,LINC00615	intergenic	12	ILMN_1795835	LOC338758	0.04488	-1.16
rs1423738	1	HS3ST4, C16 orf 82	intergenic	16	ILMN_1798204	IL 21R	0.04488	-1.16
10-44400544	0	CXCL12, TMEM72-AS1	intergenic	10	ILMN_1798533	ZNF22	0.04488	-1.16
rs10931765	2	PGAP1, ANKRD44	intergenic	2	ILMN_1798543	STK17B	0.04121	1.42
rs158391	2	ZNF33B, BMSI	intergenic	10	ILMN_1799208	CSGALNACT2	0.03758	1.23
rs2234768	ы	ACTA2	intronic	10	ILMN_1799848	ANKRD22	0.04579	1.43
rs1610037	0	ADCYAPI	UTR3	18	ILMN_1803676	ENOSF1	0.01807	-1.14
rs42931	1	GAL3ST1	intronic	22	ILMN_1803925	MTMR3	0.04061	1.26
rs12705071	0	ZNF3, COPS6	intergenic	7	ILMN_1804530	ARPC1B	0.04856	1.08
rs4795402	0	ORMDL3, LRRC3C	intergenic	17	ILMN_1805636	PERLD1	0.04488	-1.14
19-18810229	8	UPF1	intronic	19	ILMN_1805693	GMIP	0.04442	1.21
5-50827997	2	ISL1, PELO	intergenic	2	ILMN_1806651	PARP8	0.04686	1.25
rs9931197	31	SCNN1G,SCNN1B	intergenic	16	ILMN_1806908	PRKCB	0.04398	1.14
rs55678304	ĉ	RAB3A, PDE4C	intergenic	19	ILMN_1807277	IFI30	0.04493	-1.18
rs2749883	ĉ	NID2	intronic	14	ILMN_1807925	GNG2	0.048	1.04
rs5752890	2	EMID1	intronic	22	ILMN_1809433	XBP1	0.03563	-1.17
rs4985671	0	LOC339166, WSCD1	intergenic	17	ILMN_1810045	NLRP1	0.03563	1.16
rs12432242	ъ	SLC7A7	intronic	14	ILMN_1810275	SLC7A7	0.04061	-1.01
rs9873175	0	RPL29, DUSP7	intergenic	3	ILMN_1811063	RPL29	0.04811	-1.27
rs7198922	7	SHISA9, ERCC4	intergenic	16	ILMN_1814808	BFAR	0.04686	-1.15
rs7027886	4	KCNV2, KIAA0020	intergenic	9	ILMN_1818149		0.03728	-1.16
rs34771359	03	CHN2, PRR15	intergenic	7	ILMN_1821876	AK024143	0.04686	1.07
rs5994328	0	SLC35E4, DUSP18	intergenic	22	ILMN_1832879	CD237904	0.04727	1.36
rs2253693	0	SIRPB1	UTR3	20	ILMN_1841622	AI655567	0.04395	1.35
rs10784359	88	SLC2A13	intronic	12	ILMN_1859584	AK026751	0.0181	1.22
rs17108932	ŝ	PTEN, RNLS	intergenic	10	ILMN_1880406	PTEN	0.03563	1.62
rs6001675	2	ENTHD1	intronic	22	ILMN_1883491	A1970822	0.04686	1.08
rs34764163	0	DISP1	intronic	1	ILMN_1901666	AI445566	0.04488	1.07
rs9329125	0	LOC728554, PROP1	intergenic	ъ	ILMN_1910550	DR980253	0.04729	-1.14
rs1529505	12	F2RL1	UTR5	ъ	ILMN_2041190	F2RL1	0.03758	1.19
rs17239727	174	BLVRA	intronic	2	ILMN_2081335	C7orf44	0.02446	1.18
rs2240516	0	COA1	intronic	2	ILMN_2081335	C7orf44	0.03325	1.18
rs6433294	11	DCAF17, CYBRD1	intergenic	2	ILMN_2087692	CYBRD1	0.02388	1.14

tag SNP	$\mathbf{N}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{g}$	Genes nearby tag SNP	SNP Location	Chr.	Probe id	Probe gene	\mathbf{Q} values	FC
rs2387976	17	NANP	intronic	20	ILMN_2091792	ENTPD6	0.03872	-1.18
rs1562782	1	ADM,AMPD3	intergenic	11	ILMN_2093500	ZBED5	0.03563	-1.12
rs35288741	1	NFASC	intronic	1	ILMN_2094952	NUAK2	0.04387	1.15
rs4924543	-1	ZNF770, ANP32AP1	intergenic	15	ILMN_2103547	GOLGA8A	0.03328	-1.26
rs7796045	83	CCT6P3, ZNF92	intergenic	7	ILMN_2118663	ERV3	0.02446	1.21
rs13332660	0	SEZ6L2	intronic	16	ILMN_2125747	CORO1A	0.04061	1.12
rs1408069	2	KLF4, ACTL7B	intergenic	6	ILMN_2137789	KLF4	0.03782	-1.11
rs425181	0	C1 orf87, NFIA	intergenic	1	ILMN_2143148	TM2D1	0.04811	-1.06
rs8007588	4	STXBP6	intronic	14	ILMN_2148944	ADCY4	0.02723	1.26
rs13022989	0	LOC440905	ncRNA_intronic	2	ILMN_2156982	IMP4	0.04729	-1.19
rs9268926	196	HLA-DRA, HLA-DRB5	intergenic	6	ILMN_2159694	HLA- $DRB4$	0.00073	-1.08
rs749326	0	SH3BP1	intronic	22	ILMN_2162367	DMC1	0.04727	1.07
rs633683	0	PHLDB1	intronic	11	ILMN_2181241	RPL23AP64	0.04442	-1.22
rs9503750	0	PXDC1, FAM50B	intergenic	9	ILMN_2186806	HLA-B	0.02504	1.16
rs4688030	2	MAATSI	intronic	3	ILMN_2187718	COX17	0.04442	-1.16
rs7678870	11	LOC340017,FAM198B	intergenic	4	ILMN_2190851	PPID	0.04686	1.1
rs531815	30	MAK	intronic	9	ILMN_2209115	MAK	0.01664	1.13
rs2049490	0	POC5, SV2C	intergenic	5 C	ILMN_2221507	F2R	0.04686	1.09
rs7173954	0	INO80	intronic	15	ILMN_2234758	SRP14	0.04061	-1.11
rs2237250	5	FYN	intronic	6	ILMN_2249920	FYN	0.04398	-1.19
rs4653108	0	SMIM12, DLGAP3	intergenic	1	ILMN_2260500	KIAA0319L	0.04625	1.34
rs2277628	1	MYCBPAP	intronic	17	ILMN_2263718	SPAG9	0.02504	1.19
rs62262832	ŝ	C3orf17, BOC	intergenic	с С	ILMN_2286514	GTPBP8	0.04488	-1.18
rs2712353	0	ATP6V1A	intronic	3	ILMN_2286514	GTPBP8	0.04686	-1.18
rs6439982	14	SPSB4, ACPL2	intergenic	3	ILMN_2306955	ACPL2	0.04488	1.26
rs171803	405	SLCO6A1, PAM	intergenic	5 C	ILMN_2313901	PAM	0.00026	1.13
rs7256770	n	ACP5	upstream	19	ILMN_2339377	DNM2	0.02774	1.11
rs11859842	1	SLC7A5P1,SPN	intergenic	16	ILMN_2344373	MVP	0.03728	1.1
rs1041898	5 C	SULF2,LINC00494	intergenic	20	ILMN_2345142	SULF2	0.03386	1.17
rs2395891	3	BTBD2, MKNK2	intergenic	19	ILMN_2347068	MKNK2	0.02774	1.18
rs325828	13	MROH2B	intronic	ъ	ILMN_2357577	PRKAA1	0.02774	-
rs9503168	0	LOC100508120	ncRNA_intronic	6	ILMN_2376205	LTB	0.04811	-1.36
rs10039049	1	ANXA6	intronic	ъ	ILMN_2379644	CD74	0.04488	-1.28
rs12766521	16	SH2D4B, NRG3	intergenic	10	ILMN_2380494	ANXA11	0.04442	1.22
rs4075678	1	GALNT18	intronic	11	ILMN_2380946	EIF4G2	0.04061	-1.01
rs736020	2	DHRS9, LRP2	intergenic	2	ILMN_2384181	DHRS9	0.04061	1.47
rs8033385	J L	ITGA11, CORO2B	intergenic	15	ILMN_2386530	RPLP1	0.04061	-1.3
rs4845143	6	IL19	intronic	1	ILMN_2388112	CR1	0.04488	1.24
rs11686934	1	MXD1, ASPRV1	intergenic	2	ILMN_2388466	TIA1	0.04488	-1.1
rs17849707	2	CEP68	exonic	2	ILMN_2388605	ACTR2	0.04811	1.06
rs745749	0	MAPK9	intronic	ъ	ILMN_2390227	TBC1D9B	0.04442	-1.12
rs661552	2	Sep-09	intronic	17	ILMN_2391912	SEC14L1	0.04488	1.33
rs5763241	0	RFPL1	downstream	22	ILMN_2393169	THOC5	0.04515	1.15
rs131430	0	IGLL1, C22 orf 43	intergenic	22	ILMN_2393765	IGTT1	0.04488	-1.13
rs8015121	4	RBM23	intronic	14	ILMN_2403889	PRMT5	0.01205	1.1
rs6070412	42	PPP4R1L	ncRNA_intronic	20	ILMN_2404049	RBM38	0.03758	1.1
rs2371129	94	EIF1B-AS1	ncRNA_intronic	3	ILMN_2404850	RPL14	0.00997	-1.14

tag SNP	Ntag	Genes nearby tag SNP	SNP Location	Chr.	Probe id	Probe gene	\mathbf{Q} values	FC
rs17834472	13	SLC38A6,TMEM30B	intergenic	14	ILMN_2410516	PPM1A	0.02471	1.14
rs4075428	7	CIZ1	intronic	6	ILMN_2413064	ST6GALNAC4	0.01888	1.08
rs166211	16	LOC283867, CDH5	intergenic	16	ILMN_2414027	CKLF	0.04392	1.27
3-113567114	°.	CD200, BTLA	intergenic	°.	ILMN_2415786	CD96	0.04488	-1.29

Table A.2.: List of transcription factor binding sites enriched within the sequences of
GR-response cis -eSNPs. Transcription factor affinities were calculated using
TRAP (http://trap.molgen.mpg.de/). For all GR-response <i>cis</i> -eSNPs a
region of 20bp was used for the analysis. The list is ranked according to the
most enriched factors.

ID^6	$Name^7$	Sequences with the reference al-			Sequences with the alternative al-			
		$_{\chi^{28}}^{\mathbf{leles}}$	Combined P^9	Corrected \mathbf{P}^{10}	χ^{28}	Combined \mathbf{P}^9	Corrected \mathbf{P}^{10}	
M01230	ZNF333	29329	<1e-321	<1e-321	27243	<1e-321	<1e-321	
M00980	TBP	22500	< 1e-321	<1e-321	20684	< 1e-321	< 1e-321	
M00486	PAX2	16213	<1e-321	<1e-321	14555	< 1e-321	<1e-321	
M01107	RUSH1A	15509	< 1e-321	<1e-321	15033	< 1e-321	< 1e-321	
M01181	NKX32	14829	<1e-321	<1e-321	12921	< 1e-321	<1e-321	
M00489	NKX62	14763	<1e-321	<1e-321	14267	< 1e-321	<1e-321	
M01162	OG2	14540	<1e-321	<1e-321	13820	< 1e-321	<1e-321	
M00630	FOXM1	14433	<1e-321	<1e-321	13248	< 1e-321	<1e-321	
M01281	NFAT1	13992	<1e-321	<1e-321	12693	<1e-321	<1e-321	
M01275	IPF1	13952	<1e-321	<1e-321	12937	< 1e-321	<1e-321	
M00493	STAT5A	13531	<1e-321	<1e-321	12277	< 1e-321	<1e-321	
M01032	HNF4	13184	<1e-321	<1e-321	11774	< 1e-321	<1e-321	
M01653	HMGIY	13135	<1e-321	<1e-321	12740	< 1e-321	<1e-321	
M00100	CDXA	12004	<1e-321	<1e-321	11957	< 1e-321	<1e-321	
M00137	OCT1	11468	<1e-321	<1e-321	11462	< 1e-321	<1e-321	
M01131	SOX10	11426	<1e-321	<1e-321	10355	4.8e-236	2.1e-234	
M00395	HOXA3	11132	1e-309	<1e-321	11511	<1e-321	<1e-321	
M00624	DBP	10963	4.4e-293	2e-291	10516	9e-251	4.1e-249	
M00921	GR	10896	1.2e-286	5.1e-285	10194	1.2e-221	4.7e-220	
M01292	HOXA13	10803	1.1e-277	4.6e-276	10560	7.6e-255	3.6e-253	
M00500	STAT6	10726	2e-270	8e-269	9863	5.1e-193	1.9e-191	
M00744	POU1F1	10234	3.3e-225	1.3e-223	10212	3.2e-223	1.3e-221	
M00912	CEBP	10173	8.2e-220	3e-218	9664	1.7e-176	5.9e-175	
M01665	IRF8	10138	9.3e-217	3.2e-215	9147	4.1e-136	1.2e-134	
M01117	OTX	9897	5.9e-196	2e-194	9895	9.9e-196	3.7e-194	
M01227	MAFB	9578	1.5e-169	4.6e-168	8420	2.6e-86	6.1e-85	
M00962	AR	9461	3.3e-160	9.8e-159	8949	1.2e-121	3.3e-120	
M00109	CEBPB	9381	6.4e-154	1.9e-152	9330	5.3e-150	1.7e-148	
M00268	XFD2	9249	8.4e-144	2.3e-142	9065	4.3e-130	1.3e-128	
M00482	PITX2	8901	2.9e-118	7.5e-117	8880	8e-117	2.2e-115	
M00690	AP3	8854	5.8e-115	1.4e-113	8335	4.3e-81	9.3e-80	
M00498	STAT4	8691	8e-104	2e-102	8137	2e-69	3.8e-68	
M00285	TCF11	8651	3.5e-101	8.3e-100	8428	9e-87	2.1e-85	
M00396	EN1	8569	8.4e-96	1.9e-94	8596	1.4e-97	3.8e-96	
M01294	PROP1	8544	3.4e-94	7.6e-93	8590	3.6e-97	9.1e-96	
M00672	TEF	8505	1.1e-91	2.3e-90	8398	6.1e-85	1.4e-83	
M01067	GFI1	8459	9.6e-89	2e-87	8256	2.4e-76	4.9e-75	
M00987	FOXP1	8386	3.2e-84	6.7e-83	8362	1.1e-82	2.4e-81	
M00252	TATA	8244	1.2e-75	2.5e-74	7693	4.7e-46	7e-45	
M01483	DBX1	8197	7.7e-73	1.5e-71	8241	1.9e-75	3.7e-74	
M00960	PR	8159	1.2e-70	2.3e-69	7906	9.7e-57	1.6e-55	
M00451	NKX3A	8136	2.5e-69	4.7e-68	8294	1.4e-78	2.9e-77	
M01232	SATB1	8097	3.7e-67	6.7e-66	8157	1.5e-70	3e-69	
M00463	POU3F2	8096	4.5e-67	8e-66	8082	2.7e-66	5e-65	
M00116	CEBPA	8076	5.9e-66	1e-64	8161	9.2e-71	1.8e-69	

 $^{6}\mathrm{transcription}$ factor accession number according to the TRANSFAC database ⁷name of transcription factor ⁸ χ^2 -distribution for each eSNP sequence combined using Fisher's method ⁹P value for the χ^2 -distribution ¹⁰multiple testing corrected combined P values using Benjamini-Hochberg method

A Appendix

	MAR .						
M00267	XFD1	7916	3e-57	5e-56	7939	1.6e-58	2.9e-57
M01654	DRI1	7912	4.3e-57	7.2e-56	7959	1.4e-59	2.5e-58
M00293	FBEAC7	7876	3 6e-55	6e-54	7793	5 6e-51	9e-50
M01420	HOYD ^o	7075	2.7. 55	C - T 4	7010	0.7. 57	47.50
M01432	HUXD8	1815	3.76-55	6e-54	7910	2.7e-57	4.7e-50
M00465	POU6F1	7842	2e-53	3.2e-52	7862	1.8e-54	3e-53
M00742	HFH4	7797	3.9e-51	6e-50	7790	8.2e-51	1.3e-49
M00510	LHXS	7758	30-10	1 50-18	7792	6 20-51	9.80-50
1000010	DING	7700	00-40	4.00-40	1132	0.20-01	3.86-30
M01137	FOXO3A	7711	6.3e-47	9.4e-46	7766	1.2e-49	1.9e-48
M01464	HOXA10	7682	1.6e-45	2.4e-44	7731	7e-48	1.1e-46
M01316	TST1	7628	5.2e-43	7.4e-42	7682	1.6e-45	2.3e-44
MOOOOG	DDV1	7616	20.42	2.76.41	7612	2 80 42	2 80 41
100090		7010	20-42	2.76-41	7015	2.00-42	3.66-41
M01473	BRN4	7555	1.2e-39	1.6e-38	7616	2e-42	2.7e-41
M00351	GATA3	7549	2.2e-39	2.9e-38	7512	9.9e-38	1.3e-36
M01308	SOX	7543	$4.2e^{-30}$	5 5e-38	7178	$2.2e^{-24}$	26-23
M00800	FOX	7522	1.20 00	1 50 27	7594	0.00.20	27.27
M00809	FOA	1000	1.16-29	1.5e-57	1324	2.86-38	5.7e-57
M01420	NCX	7531	1.3e-38	1.7e-37	7556	1e-39	1.4e-38
M00269	XFD3	7512	9.8e-38	1.2e-36	7512	9.6e-38	1.3e-36
M00130	FOXD3	7485	1 4e-36	1 8e-35	7492	7 3e-37	9 2e-36
M00005	A D1	7400	2.7. 20	1.00-00	6002	9.6-10	9.20-00
M00925	API	7475	3.76-30	4.0e-35	6993	3.0e-18	2.6e-17
M00496	STAT1	7436	1.8e-34	2.2e-33	7164	6.6e-24	5.9e-23
M00423	FOXJ2	7434	2.2e-34	2.6e-33	7439	1.3e-34	1.6e-33
M01300	HBOI	7415	1 40 33	1 60 32	7500	1 30 37	1.60.36
M01333		7415	1.46-00	1.06-32	7009	1.00-07	1.06-30
M01148	DMRT3	7397	7.6e-33	8.8e-32	7393	1.1e-32	1.3e-31
M00148	SRY	7396	8.3e-33	9.5e-32	7349	6.7e-31	7.1e-30
M00795	OCT	7371	8 7e-32	9 9e-31	7402	4 9e-33	5 7e-32
MOOGIG	4 ED1	7964	1.7 21	1.0° 20	7995	2.60.20	0.10 02
M00010	AFFI	7304	1.76-31	1.96-30	7333	2.0e-30	2.76-29
M01599	FOXP3	7330	3.7e-30	4.1e-29	7319	1.1e-29	1.1e-28
M01469	NKX61	7324	6.5e-30	7.1e-29	7426	4.7e-34	5.7e-33
M01147	DMRT2	7315	1 5e-29	1 6e-28	7384	2 6e-32	3e-31
M01277	IDVDO	7911	1.00 20	2.4.20	7260	2.0002	26.20
M01577	INADJ	7311	2.58-29	2.4e-28	7300	2.4e-51	2.0e-30
M01659	CDX2	7308	2.7e-29	2.8e-28	7304	4e-29	4e-28
M00082	EVI1	7295	8.9e-29	9.2e-28	7153	1.7e-23	1.5e-22
M00129	HFH1	7293	1 1e-28	1 1e-27	7258	2 5e-27	2.4e-26
M000125	NUVOF	7200	1.10-20	1.4.97	7200	2.00-21	2.40-20
M00241	NKA25	7290	1.4e-28	1.4e-27	1333	2.9e-30	3e-29
M00394	MSX1	7269	9.3e-28	9e-27	7405	3.6e-33	4.3e-32
M00802	PIT1	7264	1.4e-27	1.3e-26	7374	6.7e-32	7.6e-31
M01472	IRX5	7997	3 50-26	3 30-25	7944	8 10-27	80-26
M01904	OCTAMED	7227	0.00-20	0.00-20	7244	0.40-21	6.20
M01324	OCTAMER	(22)	3.6e-26	3.4e-25	7220	6.6e-26	6.2e-25
M00416	CART1	7216	9e-26	8.2e-25	7204	2.5e-25	2.3e-24
M01375	HOXD10	7199	3.7e-25	3.3e-24	7060	2.6e-20	2.1e-19
M00405	MMFF9	7106	4.00.25	4 40 24	7963	1 50 97	1 50 96
M00405	MMLF 2	7190	4.96-20	4.46-24	7203	1.0e-27	1.5e-20
M01391	PAX6	7190	8e-25	7e-24	7250	4.9e-27	4.7e-26
M00406	HMEF2	7140	5e-23	4.4e-22	7168	4.9e-24	4.4e-23
M01439	DLX1	7108	5 9e-22	5 1e-21	7183	1.4e-24	1 3e-23
M00794	INFOALDILA	7100	6.4 . 22	5.10 21 E 4o 91	7169	7.2. 24	6.4.22
M00724	HONGO	7108	0.46-22	0.40-21	7105	7.50-24	0.4e-25
M01321	HOXC8	7101	1.1e-21	9.1e-21	7177	2.4e-24	2.2e-23
M01405	IRX2	7083	4.2e-21	3.5e-20	7053	4.2e-20	3.3e-19
M00006	MEF2	7079	6e-21	4 9e-20	7116	3 3e-22	2.8e-21
M00620	IINEC	7067	1 5 20	1.00 20	7008	1.2.01	1.1. 20
M00059	HNF0	1001	1.5e-20	1.2e-19	7098	1.5e-21	1.1e-20
M00318	LPOLYA	7054	4e-20	3.2e-19	7101	1e-21	8.8e-21
M00132	HNF1	7053	4.2e-20	3.4e-19	7023	3.9e-19	3e-18
M01363	LMX1B	7051	$4.9e^{-20}$	3.96-19	7087	3.26-21	2 6e-20
M01410		7040	F.C. 00	4.4.10	7091	5.1.01	4.1. 20
M01410	IRA4	7049	5.6e-20	4.4e-19	7081	5.1e-21	4.1e-20
M01146	DMRT1	7037	1.4e-19	1.1e-18	6994	$3.4e{-}18$	2.5e-17
M01149	DMRT4	7020	5e-19	3.7e-18	6965	2.7e-17	1.8e-16
M00102	CDP	7012	0 ₀₋ 10	6 60-18	7057	3 10-20	25 - 10
M00224		C000	4.4.10	2.0-17	000	0.10-20	2.00-19
M00334	DTYPEPA	6990	4.4e-18	3.2e-17	6898	2.5e-15	1.6e-14
M01353	LHX5	6987	5.6e-18	4e-17	7038	1.3e-19	1e-18
M01268	FXR	6977	1.1e-17	7.7e-17	6439	4.5e-05	0.00019
M00001	CDX	6075	1.30 - 17	8 90-17	6053	5 90-17	10-16
M00991		0910	1.00-17	0.30-17	0300	0.90-17	46-10
M00311	ATATA	6967	2.2e-17	1.5e-16	6990	4.3e-18	$3.1e{-}17$
M00310	APOLYA	6967	2.3e-17	1.6e-16	6998	2.6e-18	1.9e-17
M00045	E_4BP_4	6962	3.2e-17	2.2e-16	6893	3.4e-15	2.2e-14
M00479	CDC5	6050	7 40 17	50.16	6054	5 70 17	3.00.16
1/1004/8		0900	1.40-17	00-10	0904	0.10-11	5.9e-10
M01409	LMX1	6947	9.2e-17	0.1e-16	6963	3.1e-17	2.1e-16

M01406	HOXC6	6934	2.3e-16	1.5e-15	7023	4e-19	3e-18
M01150	DMRT5	6919	6 2e-16	4 1e-15	6779	4 3e-12	2.6e-11
M01318	IRX3	6896	2.8e-15	1 8e-14	6929	3.2e-16	2 1e-15
M01408	BRNSC	6877	2.0c-15	6.40.14	6041	1.40.16	2.10-10 0o.16
M01408	HOVD	6976	9.00-10	0.4e-14	7006	1.40-10	9e-10 1.1. 17
M01451		0070	1.16-14	0.96-14	7000	1.4e-16	1.1e-17
M00260	HLF	6871	1.5e-14	9.4e-14	6850	5.6e-14	3.5e-13
M01392	HOXA6	6867	2e-14	1.2e-13	6944	1.1e-16	7.5e-16
M00294	HFH8	6865	2.2e-14	1.4e-13	6902	2e-15	1.3e-14
M00042	SOX5	6802	1.1e-12	6.7e-12	6741	3.8e-11	2.2e-10
M00407	RSRFC4	6800	1.2e-12	7.4e-12	6818	4.1e-13	2.6e-12
M00789	GATA	6779	4.2e-12	2.5e-11	6885	5.9e-15	$3.7e{-}14$
M00791	HNF3	6754	1.8e-11	1.1e-10	6757	1.5e-11	8.9e-11
M01426	HOXB9	6746	2.9e-11	1.7e-10	6730	7e-11	4e-10
M00131	HNF3B	6743	3.4e-11	1.9e-10	6694	5e-10	2.7e-09
M01125	OCTA	6742	3.6e-11	2.1e-10	6755	1 7e-11	9.8e-11
M00725	HD1SITEEACTOR	6735	5.00-11	2.10-10	6757	1.70-11 1.50.11	8 0o 11
M01418		6709	0.2e-11	1 20 00	6770	1.00-11	0.5e-11 2.5e-11
M01410		0700	2.30-10	1.50-09	0719	4.16-12	2.0e-11
M01400		0701	5.4e-10	1.9e-09	0700	9.7e-12	5.8e-11
M00292	FREAC4	6687	7.2e-10	3.9e-09	6593	7.8e-08	3.9e-07
M01356	PMX2B	6672	1.6e-09	8.5e-09	6714	1.7e-10	9.4e-10
M01431	BARX2	6671	1.7e-09	8.9e-09	6720	1.2e-10	6.9e-10
M01446	BARHL2	6665	2.3e-09	1.2e-08	6654	3.8e-09	2.1e-08
M00734	CIZ	6648	5.3e-09	2.8e-08	6640	7.9e-09	4.2e-08
M00228	VBP	6648	5.4e-09	2.9e-08	6574	1.8e-07	9e-07
M00485	NKX22	6644	6.5e-09	3.4e-08	6623	1.8e-08	9.5e-08
M01211	PARP	6633	1.1e-08	5.9e-08	6523	1.7e-06	7.7e-06
M01486	DLX7	6632	1.2e-08	6.2e-08	6696	4.5e-10	2.5e-09
M01328	ISL.2	6627	1.5e-08	7.9e-08	6723	1.1e-10	5.9e-10
M00201	FREACS	6507	6.20.08	3.10.07	6523	1.10-10	7 70 06
M00291	PREACS DDN0	6502	7.70.08	3.16-07	6717	1.76-00	7.76-00
M01249	DRNZ KAD	0595	7.76-08	5.8e-07	0717	1.4e-10	1.76-10
M01348	K2B	6593	7.7e-08	3.8e-07	6557	3.9e-07	1.9e-06
M01396	HOXB7	6573	1.9e-07	9.2e-07	6631	1.2e-08	6.5e-08
M00640	HOXA4	6567	2.5e-07	1.2e-06	6557	3.9e-07	1.9e-06
M00103	CLOX	6556	4e-07	2e-06	6581	1.3e-07	6.7e-07
M00622	CEBPGAMMA	6555	4.2e-07	2.1e-06	6573	1.9e-07	9.3e-07
M00157	RORA2	6548	5.8e-07	2.8e-06	6439	4.5e-05	0.00019
M01487	HOXA1	6546	6.2e-07	3e-06	6580	1.4e-07	7e-07
M01454	HOXC5	6536	9.5e-07	4.5e-06	6573	1.9e-07	9.2e-07
M01460	HOXB6	6531	1.2e-06	5.6e-06	6594	7.3e-08	3.7e-07
M01319	HOXB5	6516	2.3e-06	1e-05	6543	7.1e-07	3.4e-06
M01413	HMX3	6512	2 7e-06	1 2e-05	6504	3.6e-06	1.6e-05
M01458	UNCX4 1	6512	2.7e-06	1.2e 00	6563	3e-07	1.0e 00
M01490	HOMEZ	6507	2.10-00	1.50.05	6438	4.60.05	0.00010
M00410	SOVO	6507	3.30-00	1.50-05	6962	4.00-00	0.00013
M00410	SOA9 HOXAG	0507	3.3e-00	1.5e-05	0205	0.0088	0.051
M01394	AMERO	6500	4.3e-06	1.9e-05	0540	8.1e-07	3.8e-06
M00403	AMEF2	6499	4.4e-06	2e-05	6517	2.2e-06	9.8e-06
M01369	HOXC4	6490	6.5e-06	2.9e-05	6538	9e-07	4.2e-06
M01416	HOXC9	6481	9.2e-06	4.1e-05	6578	1.5e-07	7.4e-07
M01016	SOX17	6480	9.6e-06	4.2e-05	6460	2e-05	8.8e-05
M01378	HOXA11	6469	1.4e-05	6.2e-05	6528	1.4e-06	6.4e-06
M01381	OBOX5	6464	1.8e-05	7.6e-05	6557	3.9e-07	1.9e-06
M00289	HFH3	6442	4e-05	0.00017	6472	1.3e-05	5.7e-05
M01661	HBP1	6439	4.4e-05	0.00019	6429	6.4e-05	0.00027
M01359	DOBOX	6438	4.6e-05	0.00019	6359	0.00063	0.0024
M01435	PSX1	6434	5 3e-05	0.00022	6435	5.2e-05	0.00022
M01244	HSEO	6499	80.05	0.00022	6374	0.00041	0.00022
M01244		C410	0.2005	0.00033	6501	1.80.06	0.0010
M01271		0410	9.20-05	0.00038	0.021	7.0-05	0.00000
M01351	HOXA9	6418	9.4e-05	0.00039	6423	7.9e-05	0.00033
M01423	AKA	6412	0.00011	0.00046	6416	1e-04	0.00042
M01360	DBX2	6408	0.00013	0.00052	6441	4.1e-05	0.00018
M01335	VSX1	6406	0.00014	0.00057	6428	6.5e-05	0.00027
M01183	BCL6	6402	0.00016	0.00065	6376	0.00037	0.0014
M01323	OTP	6393	0.00022	0.00087	6409	0.00013	0.00052
M00437	CHX10	6372	0.00043	0.0017	6402	0.00016	0.00066
M01345	SIX6	6371	0.00045	0.0017	6377	0.00036	0.0014

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M01315	NKX52	6367	5e-04	0.0019	6360	0.00061	0.0023
M01251	E2F1	6360	0.00062	0.0024	6284	0.0053	0.019
M01327	VAX2	6356	7e-04	0.0027	6389	0.00025	0.001
M01424	HOXB4	6355	0.00072	0.0028	6387	0.00026	0.001
M01151	DMRT7	6341	0.0011	0.0042	6290	0.0045	0.016
M00462	GATA6	6333	0.0014	0.0052	6402	0.00016	0.00065
M01329	HOXC11	6333	0.0014	0.0052	6380	0.00033	0.0013
M01341	MSX3	6329	0.0016	0.0059	6358	0.00066	0.0025
M00805	LEF1	6304	0.0031	0.011	6268	0.0078	0.028
M01368	OCT2	6301	0.0034	0.013	6328	0.0016	0.0061
M01355	ALX3	6286	0.005	0.018	6296	0.0039	0.014
M01402	HOXA2	6282	0.0055	0.02	6307	0.0029	0.011
M01286	SOX	6275	0.0067	0.024	6264	0.0086	0.031
M01476	POU2F3	6257	0.01	0.036	6288	0.0048	0.017
M01326	GSH2	6246	0.013	0.047	6313	0.0024	0.009

Subject	Relation type	Object	PubMed ID	CIDeR ID
15q13.3 microdeletion syndrome	affects activity of	Autism	19289393	46184
15q13.3 microdeletion syndrome	affects activity of	mental retardation	19289393	46185
22q11.2 deletion syndrome	affects activity of	Schizophrenia	17008057	46202
22q11.2 deletion syndrome	increases expression of	RPS2	17008057	46203
AKT1	increases activity of	mTOR signaling	18924132	32977
AKT1	increases quantity of	HIF1A	12764143	32458
AKT1	is part of	COMMD1-AKT1 complex	20237237	32241
Alzheimer disease	affects expression of	APP (amyloid beta peptide)	24270855	46214
Alzheimer disease	increases expression of	OCIAD2	24270855	46204
ATP5F1	Interacts (localizes) with	ICT1	20186120	46187
ATP5F1	interacts (colocalizes) with	SNCA	18614564	31888
ATP5F1	interacts (colocalizes) with	VHL	17353931	31896
C7orf44	Interacts (localizes) with	CCDC56	23260140	46189
CCDC56	Interacts (localizes) with	OCIAD2	23260140	46190
CCT7	interacts (colocalizes) with	CDKN1A	21900206	32886
CDKN1A	interacts (colocalizes) with	HMGXB3	21900206	32897
Citalopram	increases quantity of	CTNNB1	22634067	32972
CLEC4C	affects activity of	immune response	23606632	46851
CLECAC	interacts (colocalizes) with	NEK2	12386167	46849
COMMD1	affects activity of	NEDD4L	20237237	32238
COMMD1	decreases activity of	NF-kannaB complex	19220812	32316
COMMD1	decreases expression of	HIF1A	20458141	32449
COMMD1	interacts (colocalizes) with	CUL2	17183367	31950
COMMD1	interacts (colocalizes) with	SGK1	20237237	31547
COMMD1	is part of	COMMD1-SGK1 complex	20237237	32931
COMMD1	interacts (colocalizes) with	AKT1	20237237	32235
COMMD1	is part of	COMMD1-AKT1 complex	20237237	32902
COMMD1-AKT1 complex	decreases activity of	EnaC complex	20237237	32237
COMMD1-SGK1 complex	decreases activity of	EnaC complex	20237237	32236
CTNNB1	interacts (colocalizes) with	NEK0	18086858	46845
CIIIO	is part of	Flongin B/C CIII 9 VHL BBX1 complex	21042715	31044
Demamethasons	dogroopee guaptity of	ATD5E1	21060002	21540
Deramethasone	increases qualitity of	FKDD5	12510866	22802
Deramethasone	internata (apleasling) with	ND9C1	16180205	21549
CULO VIII DDV1	Interacts (colocalizes) with		10169295	21045
CULZ-VHL-RBAI complex	Let and a to (le aplicate) with	TIF IA CTNND 1	21942710	31940
	interacts (localizes) with	CINNBI M · I · I I	21162205	40192
ESKZ (polymorphism)	cooccurs with	Major aepressive aisoraer	22901010	40208
EWSKI EANI (MEMD 15)	anects expression of	C70rf44	20442286	41802
FANI (MIMRIS)	co-occurs with	15q13.3 microaeletion synarome	19289393	40180
FANI (MIMRID)	Interacts (localizes) with	FSUND	20603015	46194
FANI (MTMR15)	Interacts (localizes) with	SUMO2	21693764	46191
FKBP5	decreases activity of	AKTI	22590527	32808
	interacts (colocalizes) with	HSP90AAI	19560279	32795
FKBP5 (polymorphism)	cooccurs with	Major depressive disorder	15565110	19744
FKBP5 (polymorphism)	cooccurs with	response to antidepressants	15565110	19606
FSCN1	Interacts (localizes) with	CTNNB1	10026156	46195
F'TH1	Interacts (localizes) with	GRB2	21988832	46197
GRB2	Interacts (localizes) with	CC17	19380743	46198
GRB2	Interacts (localizes) with	HIST2H2AA3	12577067	46196
HIF1A	increases activity of	inflammatory response	12628185	32471
HIF'IA	increases expression of	EWSR1	20442286	41801
HLA-DRB4 (alelle variant)	co-occurs with	Autism	12039413	41905
HLA-DRB4 (polymorphism)	cooccurs with	Schizophrenia	9713902	41901
HLA-DRB5 (haplotype)	affects activity of	Schizophrenia	17001352	46209
HLA- $DRB5$ (polymorphism)	affects activity of	immune response	24075919	46210
IFNG	increases expression of	SLC7A7	15280038	32261
IKBKB	affects activity of	inflammatory response	18626576	46211
IKBKB	Interacts (localizes) with	CTNNB1	11527961	46200
immune response	affects expression of	HLA-DRB4	9952022	41903
IMPDH2	decreases activity of	NF-kappaB complex	21460227	32324
IMPDH2	decreases activity of	TLR signaling pathway	21460227	32546
IMPDH2	interacts (colocalizes) with	AKT1	10930578	32903
Ketamine	decreases activity of	Major depressive disorder	22205190	32978
Ketamine	increases activity of	mTOR signaling	20724638	32809
Major depression disorder	increases expression of	TMEM176A	20830301	46212
Major depressive disorder	increases expression of	ATP5F1	22832852	31537
MKNK2	decreases activity of	SPRY2	19864419	32242
MKNK2	increases activity of	inflammatory response	10559880	32362
MKNK2	increases quantity of	IFNG	10559880	32361
MKNK2	increases quantity of	SPRY2-NEDD4 complex	19864419	32231
MKNK2	increases quantity of	TNF	10559880	32357
MKNK2	Interacts (localizes) with	ESR2	11013076	46199
MRPL54	Interacts (localizes) with	ICT1	20186120	46188
NEDD4	increases ubiquitination of	MOB3A	19953087	32436
NEDD4	is part of	SPRY2-NEDD4 complex	19864419	32233
NEDD4L	decreases activity of	BMP receptor signaling	15496141	32523
NEDD4L	decreases activity of	$EnaC\ complex$	20237237	32239
NEDD4L	increases ubiquitination of	MOB3A	19953087	32436
NF-kappaB complex	affects activity of	inflammatory response	22726116	32319
NF-kappaB complex	increases expression of	HIF1A	18432192	32463
NF-kappa B complex	increases expression of	NUAK2	15345718	32395

Table A.3.: Annotation of all interactions in figure 3.11 with the respective literaturereferences supporting the interaction network.

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NR3C1	increases expression of	CDKN1A	9442036	32989
NR3C1	increases expression of	SGK1	16189295	31549
NR3C1	interacts (colocalizes) with	HSP90AA1	19560279	32793
NUAK2	increases activity of	neural tube development	22689267	32406
Obesity	increases expression of	OCIAD2	20020228	46206
OCIAD2	increases quaintity of	APP (amyloid beta peptide)	24270855	46205
PELI1	affects activity of	inflammatory response	19734906	32252
PELI1	affects activity of	TLR signaling pathway	19734906	32562
PELI1	increases activity of	NF-kappaB complex	19734906	32251
PELI1	Interacts (localizes) with	IKBKB	21204785	46201
POLR2I	interacts (colocalizes) with	TBP	20482850	32611
Post-traumatic stress disorder	increases methylation of	FSCN1	23630272	46215
RELA	increases activity of	NF-kappaB complex	12213593	32952
RELA	interacts (colocalizes) with	COMMD1	20048074	31555
RELA	interacts (colocalizes) with	TBP	7706261	31648
response to antidepressants	affects quantity of	CTNNB1	22472057	32974
RPS2	Interacts (localizes) with	VHL	17353931	46217
Schizophrenia	increases expression of	FTH1	18191109	46218
SGK1	increases transport of	SLC9A3R2	11751930	31677
SGK1	increases transport of	SLC9A3R2	11751930	31677
SGK1	is part of	COMMD1-SGK1 complex	20237237	32240
SLC6A15	increases activity of	neutral amino acid transport	21521612	32887
SLC6A15 (polymorphism)	cooccurs with	Major depressive disorder	21521612	22768
SLC7A7	increases activity of	neutral amino acid transport	9878049	32965
SLCO3A1	interacts (colocalizes) with	SLC9A3R2	15553237	31675
SLCO3A1 (polymorphism)	cooccurs with	Schizophrenia	18521091	32933
SNCA	interacts (colocalizes) with	CCT7	18614564	31889
SPRY2	interacts (colocalizes) with	NEDD4	19864419	32232
SPRY2	is part of	SPRY2-NEDD4 complex	19864419	32244
SUMO2	Interacts (localizes) with	HIST2H2AA3	21693764	46193
TLR signaling pathway	increases activity of	mTOR signaling	18924132	32871
TMEM176A	affects activity of	dendritic cell differentiation	20501748	46216
TNF	increases expression of	SLC7A7	11742806	32266
VHL	interacts (colocalizes) with	CUL2	9122164	31934
VHL	is part of	CUL2-VHL-RBX1 complex	21942715	31941

Table A.4.: List of the gene expression data from two mouse experiments compared to human eQTL study. The orthologous genes in mice were compared to the human probe genes of the GR-response *cis*-eQTLs that showed overlap with the meta-analysis for MDD and tested for differential expression between baseline and GR-stimulated expression in HC, PFC and AM, as well as for differential expression between stress resilient and susceptible groups of mice in CA1 and DG. Transcripts regulated in brain are marked with #.

			Humans				
	Network ^{\$}	Probe gene ^a	Probe id ^b	FC^{c}	$FC_{Risk}^{\rm d}$	$FC_{NoRisk}^{\rm e}$	$\mathrm{change}^{\mathrm{f}}$
1	yes	ATP5F1	ILMN_1721989	-1.13	-0.12	-0.33	0.21
2	yes	C7orf44	ILMN_2081335	1.18	0.18	0.36	0.17
3	yes	CCT7	ILMN_1662954	-1.17	-0.4	-0.2	-0.2
4	yes	CLEC4C	ILMN_1665457	1.19	0.69	0.21	-0.48
		CLEC4C	ILMN_1682259	1.12	0.46	0.14	-0.32
5	yes	COMMD1	ILMN_1761242	-1.22	-0.18	-0.34	0.16
6	yes	FTH1	ILMN_1746525	1.11	0.29	0.11	-0.18
7	ves	HIST2H2AA3.HIST2H2AA4	ILMN_1695435	1.22	0.34	-0.02	-0.36
8	ves	HLA-DRB4	ILMN_2159694	-1.08	-0.03	-0.23	-0.2
9	yes	HLA-DRB5	ILMN_1697499	-1.07	0.04	-0.32	-0.36
10	yes	HMGXB3	ILMN_1694686	-1.14	-0.3	-0.13	0.16
11	yes	IMPDH2	ILMN_1705737	-1.24	-0.36	-0.2	-0.16
12	no	LRRC25	ILMN_1766487	1.1	-0.06	0.21	0.15
13	yes	MKNK2	ILMN_2347068	1.18	0.44	0.22	-0.21
14	yes	MOB3A	ILMN_1721344	1.15	0.42	0.2	-0.22
15	yes	MRPL54	ILMN_1658486	-1.24	-0.45	-0.27	-0.18
16	yes	MTMR15	ILMN_1778734	-1.16	-0.27	-0.16	0.11
17	yes	NUAK2	ILMN_2094952	1.15	0.1	0.3	0.19
18	yes	OCIAD2	ILMN_1700306	-1.32	0.24	-0.36	-0.61
19	yes	PELI1	ILMN_1679268	1.68	0.98	0.69	-0.29
20	yes	POLR2I	ILMN_1720542	-1.18	-0.29	-0.11	-0.19
21	yes	RPS2	ILMN_1688749	-1.22	0.14	-0.3	0.17
22	yes	SLC7A7	ILMN_1810275	-1.01	-0.23	0.03	-0.2
23	yes	SLCO3A1	ILMN_1663699	1.11	0.34	0.12	-0.22
24	yes	TMEM176A	ILMN_1791511	-1.15	-0.02	-0.24	-0.22
. de							

* expressed below background-signal

^{\$} Probe genes that generated a tightly interconnected network in 3.11 (indicated by: yes)

^a Human array probe gene

^b Illumina probe identifier for HumanHT-12 v3

^{c, d, e} fold change of GR-stimulated/baseline gene expression (=deltaDex) for all samples, risk genotype carriers and nonrisk genotype carriers in human blood

f deltaDex change from risk to nonrisk genotype carriers in human blood

 $^{\rm g}$ orthologous genes in mice

^{h,u} array quality checks

ⁱ Illumina probe identifier for MouseRef-8 v2

j, l, n ,p ,r fold change of GR-stimulated/baseline gene expression in each mice tissue (blood, HC, PFC, HC and PFC together, AM)

k, m, o, q, l, s nominal P value for differentially regulated mRNA Expression of deltaDex in each mice tissue (blood, HC, PFC, HC and PFC together, AM)

^U Illumina probe identifier for MouseRef-8 v1

^{v, w} score for differential expression between resilient and stress susceptible groups of mice (DS=DiffScore> ± 13 equal to P value=0.05)

x, y fold change of general expression between resilient and stress susceptible groups of mice
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	GR-stimulation mouse model									
	Orthologe $Genes^g$	Array QC^h	Probe id^i	$FC_{Blood}{}^{j}$	$P_{Blood}{}^k$	FC_{HC}^{l}	$P_{HC}{}^m$			
1	Atp5f1		ILMN_2790486	-1.11	0.00669	1.04	0.412			
2	no orthologous gene	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
3	# Cct7		ILMN_1233793	1.14	0.00353	1.23	0.0428			
4	Clec4c		ILMN_2959372	-1.14	0.00418	*	*			
5	Commd1		ILMN_1215639	1.05	0.24	-1.01	0.93			
	Commd1		ILMN_1231658	-1.19	9.66e-05	-1.02	0.503			
6	Fth1		ILMN_2876066	1.16	0.109	-1	0.978			
	Fth1		ILMN_2876071	1.23	0.0276	-1.04	0.732			
7	Hist1h2al	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
8	no orthologous gene	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
9	no orthologous gene	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
10	# Hmgxb3		ILMN_1246992	-1.17	0.00727	1.1	0.0632			
11	Impdh2		ILMN_2588398	-1.43	2.36e-06	1.02	0.697			
12	Lrrc25		ILMN_2715800	*	*	*	*			
13	# Mknk2		ILMN_2733887	-1.19	0.0381	1.16	0.00162			
14	Mob3a	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
15	# Mrpl54		ILMN_2755519	-1.36	3.89e-05	-1.06	0.141			
16	Mtmr15	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
17	# Nuak2		ILMN_2680038	-1.24	0.00153	1.06	0.14			
18	# Ociad2		ILMN_2943722	1.21	0.0388	-1.03	0.739			
19	# Peli1		ILMN_1239770	-1.22	0.000412	1.07	0.279			
	Peli1		ILMN_2627441	-1.26	0.00012	1.07	0.406			
20	# Polr2i		ILMN_2666438	-1.02	0.597	-1.06	0.0287			
21	Rps2		ILMN_2946616	-1.22	0.0435	-1.09	0.125			
22	# Slc7a7		ILMN_1240318	*	*	1.06	0.288			
	Slc7a7		ILMN_2723826	*	*	1	0.953			
23	Slco3a1		ILMN_1235635	*	*	1.16	0.219			
	# Slco3a1		ILMN_1235735	1.07	0.00475	1.04	0.402			
	# Slco3a1		ILMN_2663230	1.05	0.105	1.23	0.000565			
24	Tmem176a	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			

GR-stimulation mouse model										
	$FC_{PFC}{}^n P_{PFC}{}^o FC_{PFC\$HC}{}^p P_{PFC\&HC}{}^q FC_{AM}{}^r P_{AM}{}^s$									
1	1.08	0.204	1.05	0.2463	1.05	0.294				
2	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA				
3	-1.12	0.142	1.03	0.6176	1	0.968				
4	*	*	*	*	*	*				
5	-1.08	0.261	-1.06	0.284	1.02	0.723				
	1.01	0.813	-1.01	0.7038	1	0.918				
6	1.01	0.899	1.01	0.9968	-1.04	0.306				
	-1.06	0.419	-1.05	0.455	-1.02	0.581				
7	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA				
8	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA				
9	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA				
10	1.07	0.218	1.08	0.02834	-1.03	0.373				
11	1.04	0.325	1.02	0.4948	-1.04	0.358				
12	*	*	*	*	*	*				
13	1.14	0.00155	1.14	3.847 e-05	1.05	0.226				
14	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA				
15	-1.08	0.0877	-1.08	0.02002	-1.01	0.787				
16	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA				
17	1.1	0.0274	1.08	0.004751	1.13	0.00145				
18	1.39	0.000124	1.15	0.01646	1.34	2.45e-06				
19	1.12	0.0489	1.09	0.05299	1.11	0.0154				
	1.02	0.643	1.04	0.3519	1.09	0.0667				
20	-1.02	0.424	-1.04	0.01715	-1.02	0.376				
21	1.08	0.231	1.01	0.8909	1.01	0.783				
22	1.15	0.00107	1.09	0.00193	*	*				
	1.06	0.12	1.03	0.2904	1.02	0.562				
23	-1.02	0.805	1.06	0.3859	1.03	0.62				
	1.19	0.000628	1.11	0.001138	1.03	0.509				
	1.37	3.29e-05	1.28	6.379e-08	1.05	0.365				
24	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA				

	Chronic social stress mouse model								
	Orthologe Genes	Array QC^t	Probe id^u	DS_{CA1}^{v}	$change_{CA1}{}^w$	DS_{DG}^{x}	$change_{DG}{}^{y}$		
1	# Atp5f1		ILMN_2790486	-87.35	0.51	-5.67	0.11		
2	no orthologous gene	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		
3	# Cct7		ILMN_1233793	-259.81	0.71	-5.01	0.06		
4	Clec4c	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		
5	Commd1		II MN 1215630	*	*	0.41	0.04		
9	Commd1		ILMN 12210059	9 / 1	0.2	-0.41	0.04		
6	\mathcal{L} E+b1		ILMIN_1251058	-3.41	0.0	-4.38	0.09		
0	# FUII		11.11111.2744442	-0.92	0.02	50.91	-0.21		
7	Hist1h2al	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		
8	no orthologous gene	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		
9	no orthologous gene	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		
10	Hmgxb3	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		
11	# Impdh2		ILMN_2588399	15.23	-0.14	4.16	-0.06		
12	Lrrc25		ILMN_2715800	*	*	*	*		
13	Mknk2		ILMN_2733887	2.44	-0.29	3.73	-0.27		
	Mknk2		ILMN_2776441	*	*	*	*		
14	Mob3a	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		
15	Mrpl54		ILMN_2755519	-2.67	0.22	-4.65	0.11		
16	Mtmr15	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		
17	Nuak2	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		
18	Ociad2	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		
19	# Peli1		ILMN_1239770	*	*	18.18	-1.09		
	# Peli1		ILMN_2627441	2.82	-0.55	17.92	-0.26		
20	# Polr2i		ILMN_2666438	-3.05	0.16	16.44	-0.2		
21	$\overset{''}{\#}$ Rps2		ILMN_2717549	-14.56	0.12	24.45	-0.13		
22	Slc7a7		ILMN_1240318	*	*	*	*		
	Slc7a7		ILMN_2690187	*	*	*	*		
23	# Slco3a1		ILMN_1235635	-16.46	0.45	-35.34	0.29		
	Slco3a1		ILMN_1235735	*	*	*	*		
	Slco3a1		ILMN_2663230	13.38	-0.47	0.68	-0.03		
24	Tmem176a	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		

Table A.5.: This list represents the set of genes of the interaction network in figure 3.11 including genes supported by the eQTL study ("eQTL") as well as the additional genes ("add") from the network analysis. The probes for orthologous mouse genes on gene expression arrays were tested for differential expression in the CA1 and DG region of the HC between stress-resilient and stress-susceptible groups of mice. The orthologous genes were also tested for significant regulation in the HC, PFC and the AM after stimulation with dexamethasone. The human genes APP, C70RF44, HLA-DRB4 and HLA-DRB5 had no orthologs in mouse.

	Chronic social stress mouse model				GB-stimulation mouse model					
	Notwork	P gono ^a	Proba id ^b			Proba id ^e	P f	P		P
1	network	r gene	II MN1212025	*	*	II MN1212025	*	*	*	*
1	add	AKUI	ILMN1213935	07.95	F 67	ILMIN1213935	0.419	0.904	0.9469	0.904
2	eQIL	Cada56	ILMN 2022518	-01.33	-5.07	ILMN 2022518	0.412	0.204	0.2403	0.294
4	OTL	Cct7	ILMN 12332518	250.81	5.01	ILMN 1232703	0.438	0.142	0.4927	0.0070
4	eQIL	Cdlm1a	ILMN 2624082	-209.01	-3.01	ILMN 2624082	4.200.14	1.500.15	2 8770 28	0.908
	add	Cdknla	ILMN 1014871	-0.20	-2.80	no Ilum Probo	4.29e-14 NA	1.59e-15 NA	5.8776-28 NA	2.17e-10 NA
	add	Cdkn1a	no Ilum Probe	N A	-0.85 NA	ILMN 2846775	1.460.14	1 320 13	5 1840 27	5 980 17
5	add	Cdkn1a	no Ilum Probe	NA	NA	ILMN 2846776	5 50 16	3.060.15	2 5110 30	4 280 16
6	OTI	Close	no llum Probo	NA	NA	ILMN 2050272	*	*	*	*
0	OTL	Commd1	ILMN 1215630	*	0.41	ILMN 1215630	0.03	0.261	0.284	0 723
7	OTL	Commd1	ILMN 1231658	3 /1	1 38	ILMN 1221658	0.503	0.201	0.204	0.018
'	add	Ctnnbl	no Ilum Probe	NA	NA	ILMN 2616556	0.505	0.519	0.7058	0.312
	add	Ctnnb1	ILMN 2696575	371 3	205 5	ILMN 2696575	0.524	0.0561	0.2291	0.568
8	add	Ctnnb1	no Ilum Probe	NA	205.5 N A	ILMN 2004460	0.024	0.246	0.2231	0.951
0	add	Cul2	ILMN 1238615	2 51	-36.65	ILMN 1238615	0.438	0.53	0.8926	0.331
9	add	Cul2	no Ilum Probe	N A	N A	ILMN 2987369	0.236	0.459	0.1312	0.470
5	add	Esr2	ILMN 1236030	0.2	-5.55	ILMN 1236030	*	*	*	0.948
	add	Esr2	no Ilum Probe	N A	NA	ILMN 3041053	*	*	*	*
10	add	Esr2	no Ilum Probe	NA	NA	ILMN 3115826	*	*	*	*
10	add	Ewsr1	ILMN 1219609	*	*	ILMN 1219609	*	*	*	*
11	add	Ewsr1	ILMN 2769308	*	*	ILMN 2769308	*	*	*	*
12	add	Ekbn5	ILMN 2718266	0.81	0.03	ILMN 2718266	5.05e-13	1 41e-13	1 223e-24	4 95e-20
13	add	Fscn1	ILMN 2630605	2 19	-53 54	ILMN 2630605	0.00419	0.5	0.003726	0.596
10	OTL	Fth1	ILMN 2744442	0.02	30.01	ILMN 2876066	0.00415	0.800	0.0068	0.306
14	OTL	Fth1	11111112144442	-0.52	00.01	ILMN 2876071	0.732	0.419	0.455	0.581
15	add	Grb2	ILMN 1222450	-10.32	-4 16	ILMN 2995537	0.579	0.689	0.400	0.409
16	add	HIE1A	no Ilum Probe	NA	NA	ILMN 2852034	0.505	0.11	0.06288	0.403
17	eOTL	Hist1h2al	no Ilum Probe	NA	NA	no Ilum Probe	N A	N A	N A	N A
18	OTL	Hmgyb3	no Ilum Probe	NA	NA	ILMN 1246992	0.0632	0.218	0.02834	0.373
10	add	Hsp90aa1	no Ilum Probe	NA	NA	ILMN 2662557	*	*	*	*
19	add	Hsp90aa1	no Ilum Probe	NA	NA	ILMN 2752883	0.285	0.0204	0 3006	0.714
20	add	Ict1	ILMN 2642063	-10.32	-4.16	ILMN 2642063	0.200	0.735	0.3128	0.082
21	add	Ifng	ILMN 2685712	*	*	ILMN 2685712	*	*	*	*
22	add	Ikbkb	ILMN 2589557	4 41	25.13	ILMN 2589556	0.0291	0.938	0.08341	0.525
23	eOTL	Impdh2	ILMN 2588399	15 23	4 16	ILMN 2588398	0.697	0.325	0 4948	0.358
20	eOTL	Mknk2	ILMN 2733887	2.44	3 73	ILMN 2733887	0.00162	0.00155	3 847e-05	0.226
24	eOTL	Mknk2	ILMN 2776441	*	*	111111111111111111111111111111111111111	0.00102	0.00100	0.0110 00	0.220
25	eOTL	Mob3a	no Ilum Probe	NA	NA	no Ilum Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA
26	eOTL	Mrp154	ILMN 2755519	-2.67	-4 65	ILMN 2755519	0.141	0.0877	0.02002	0.787
27^{-2}	eOTL	Mtmr15	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA
28	add	Nedd4	ILMN_2594344	-9.54	13.46	ILMN_2594344	0.075	0.513	0.07812	0.196
29	add	Nedd4l	ILMN_2604457	34.36	-2.76	ILMN_2878501	8.15e-06	2.91e-06	1.274e-10	0.000183
30	add	Nek2	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA
31	add	Nr3c1	ILMN_2740568	*	*	ILMN_2740568	0.0389	7.46e-07	3.807e-07	NA
32	eQTL	Nuak2	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	ILMN_2680038	0.14	0.0274	0.004751	0.00145
33	eQTL	Ociad2	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	ILMN_2943722	0.739	0.000124	0.01646	2.45e-06
	eQTL	Peli1	ILMN_1239770	*	18.18	ILMN_1239770	0.279	0.0489	0.05299	0.0154
34	eQTL	Peli1	ILMN_2627441	2.82	17.92	ILMN_2627441	0.406	0.643	0.3519	0.0667
35	eQTL	Polr2i	ILMN_2666438	-3.05	16.44	ILMN_2666438	0.0287	0.424	0.01715	0.376
36	add	Rela	ILMN_2740859	-7.16	-11.26	ILMN_2740859	0.61	0.909	0.6022	0.0311
37	eQTL	Rps2	ILMN_2717549	-14.56	24.45	ILMN_2946616	0.125	0.231	0.8909	0.783
38	add	Sgk1	ILMN_1213954	*	*	ILMN_1213954	1.23e-07	2.47e-09	4.711e-15	3.21e-12
	add	Slc6a15	ILMN_1245258	-102.16	-0.25	ILMN_1245258	0.75	0.715	0.8139	0.594
	add	Slc6a15	ILMN_1258914	0.72	4.5	ILMN_1258914	0.913	0.426	0.4772	0.753
39	add	Slc6a15	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	ILMN_2689230	0.825	0.624	0.7441	0.527
	eQTL	Slc7a7	ILMN_1240318	*	*	ILMN_1240318	0.288	0.00107	0.00193	*
40	eQTL	Slc7a7	ILMN_2690187	*	*	ILMN_2723826	0.953	0.12	0.2904	0.562
	add	Slc9a3r2	ILMN_1231582	*	*	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA
	add	Slc9a3r2	ILMN_1218241	0.51	*	ILMN_1218241	*	0.755	*	*
41	add	Slc9a3r2	ILMN_2710274	*	*	ILMN_2710274	0.174	0.319	0.1818	0.328
	eQTL	Slco3a1	ILMN_1235635	-16.46	-35.34	ILMN_1235635	0.219	0.805	0.3859	0.62
	eQTL	Slco3a1	ILMN_1235735	*	*	ILMN_1235735	0.402	0.000628	0.001138	0.509
42	eQTL	Slco3a1	ILMN_2663230	13.38	0.68	ILMN_2663230	0.000565	3.29e-05	6.379e-08	0.365
	add	Snca	ILMN_3059393	*	*	ILMN_3059393	0.937	0.873	0.7163	0.393
	add	Snca	ILMN_3136638	*	*	ILMN_3136638	0.295	0.9	0.5863	0.709
43	add	Snca	ILMN_3161601	*	*	ILMN_3161601	0.71	0.695	0.7955	0.767

44	add	Spry2	ILMN_2749464	-0.27	2.29	ILMN_2749464	0.67	0.308	0.6795	NA
	add	Sumo2	ILMN_2715025	-8.62	-1.77	ILMN_2980331	0.938	0.123	0.221	0.703
45	add	Sumo2	ILMN_1221126	-0.44	7.72	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA
	add	Tbp	ILMN_2626740	*	*	ILMN_2869461	0.991	0.112	0.4598	0.943
46	add	Tbp	ILMN_2613569	*	*	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA
47	add	Tgfb1	ILMN_2711461	*	*	ILMN_2711461	0.048	0.0763	0.02671	0.00015
48	eQTL	Tmem176a	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	no Ilum. Probe	NA	NA	NA	NA
49	add	Tnf	ILMN_2467245	*	*	ILMN_2899863	*	*	*	*
50	add	Vhlh	ILMN_2518546	-119.09	-10.06	ILMN_2518546	0.244	0.392	0.7012	0.787

* expressed below background-signal
a Mouse array probe gene
b Illumina probe identifier for MouseRef-8 v1
c,d score for differential expression between resilient and stress susceptible groups of mice (for a P value of 0.05, DS=DiffScore
> ±13)
e Illumina probe identifier for MouseRef-8 v2
f,g,h,i nominal P value for differentially regulated mRNA Expression of the ratio GR-stimulated/baseline

List of Abbreviations

1KGP 1,000 Genomes Project **5-HTR2A** 5-hydroxytryptamine receptor 2A 5-HTTLPR 5-hydroxytriptamine-transporter-linked polymorphic region **ACC** accuracy **ACTH** adrenocorticotrophic hormone **ADHD** attention deficit-hyperactivity disorder AM amygdala **AP1** activating protein-1 **ART** Artifact detection tool **ASD** autism spectrum disorder **ASN** East Asian **ATP** adenosine triphosphate **AUC** area under the curve **BDI** Beck depression invertury **BDNF** brain-derived neurotrophic factor **BLA** basolateral complex of the amygdala **BMI** body mass index **BOLD** blood oxygenation level-dependent bp base pairs **BPD** bipolar disorder **cAMP** cyclic adenosine monophosphate CD cross-disorder **CDA** cross-disorder associations **cDNA** complementary DNA **CeA** central nucleus of the amygdala **CES-D** center for epidemiological studies depression scale **CEU** Utah Residents (CEPH) with Northern and Western European ancestry **Cg25** cingulate cortex **ChIA-PET** chromatin interaction analysis by paired-end tag sequencing **ChIP** chromatin immunoprecipitation CL confidence interval **CMS** chronic mild stress **COMT** catechol-O-methyltransferase **CREB1** cAMP responsive element binding protein 1 **CRF** corticotropin releasing factor **CRH** corticotrophin releasing hormone

CRHR1 corticotropin releasing hormone receptor 1 **DAOA** D-amino acid oxidase activator DG dentate gyrus **DHSs** deoxyribonuclease I hypersensitive sites **DISC-1** disrupted in schizophrenia-1 **DNA** deoxyribonucleic acid **DNasel** deoxyribonuclease I **DNS** Duke Neurogenetics Study **DSM-IV-TR** diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders forth edition, text revision **DST** dexame thas one suppression test **EEG** electroencephalography **ENCODE** encyclopedia of DNA elements eQTL bin set of eSNP bin probe combination **eQTL** expression quantitative trait locus **eQTLs** expression quantitative trait loci **eSNP bin** set of eSNPs in LD **eSNP** expression SNP **EUR-AM** European-Americans **FDR** false discovery rate **FKBP5** FK506 binding protein 5 **fMRI** functional magnetic resonance imaging FN fase negatives FP false positives **FST** forced swim test **FWER** family-wise error rate **GABA** gamma-aminobutyric acid **GAD1** glutamate decarboxylase 1 GR glucocorticoid receptor **GREs** glucocorticoid response elements **GRIA3** glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA subunit 3 **GRPS** genetic risk profile score **GTEx** Genotype-Tissue Expression **GWAS** genome-wide association study **HAM-D** Hamilton rating scale for depression HC hippocampus **HLA** human leukocyte antigen **HMM** hidden Markov model **HPA** hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal **HWE** Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium **ICD-10** international classification of diseases kb kilo base pairs LCLs lymphoblastoid cell lines

LD linkage disequilibrium LH learned helplessness LM linear models **MAF** minor allele frequency **MAOA** monoamine oxidase A **MARS** Munich antidepressant response signature Mb mega base pairs **MDD** major depressive disorder **MDS** multidimensional scaling **MEG** magnetoencephalography **MHC** major histocompatibility complex miRNA microRNA **MPIP** Max-Planck Institute of Psychiatry **mQTLs** DNA methylation QTLs MR mineralocorticoid receptor **MRI** magnetic resonance imaging **mRNA** messenger RNA **MuTHER** Multiple Tissue Human Expression Resource **NaSSA** noradrenergic and specific serotonergic antidepressant $\mathbf{NF}\kappa\mathbf{B}$ nuclear factor kappa B **NR3C1** nuclear receptor subfamily 3, group C, member 1 **NTRK2** neurotrophic tyrosine kinase, receptor, type 2 **OOB** out-of-bag **P2RX7** purinergic receptor P2X, ligand-gated ion channel, 7 PC principal components **PCA** principal component analysis **PET** positron emission tomography PFC prefrontal cortex **PGC** Psychiatric Genomics Consortium PHQ-9 patient health questionnaire **qPCR** quantitative real-time PCR **QTL** quantitative trait locus RA rheumatoid arthritis **RefSeq** Reference Sequence RF random forest RIN RNA integrity number **RNA-seq** RNA sequencing **RNA** ribonucleic acid **ROI** region of interest **SAGE** serial analysis of gene expression **SCZ** schizophrenia SD standard deviation

SLC6A4 solute carrier family 6 (neurotransmitter transporter), member 4

- **SNP** single nucleotide polymorphism
- **SNRI** serotonin and noradrenaline re-uptake inhibitor
- **SSRE** selective serotonin re-uptake enhancer
- **SSRI** selective serotonin re-uptake inhibitor
- $\textbf{TCA} \quad tricyclic \ antidepressants$
- **TF** transcription factors
- **TN** true negatives
- $\ensuremath{\mathsf{TNR}}$ true negative rate
- **TP** true prosives
- **TPH2** tryptophan hydroxylase 2
- $\ensuremath{\mathsf{TPR}}$ true positive rate
- $\textbf{TST} \quad tail \ suspension \ test$
- $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{VSN}}$ variance stabilization and normalization
- $\ensuremath{\mathsf{WHO}}$ world health organisation

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Acknowledgements

This work was carried out in the Department of Translational Research in Psychiatry at the Max-Planck Institute of Psychiatry in Munich. First of all, I would like to thank Professor Dr. Dr. Dr. Florian Holsboer and Dr. Elisabeth B. Binder for the opportunity to work on this project. I would like to thank my advisor Dr. Elisabeth Binder for her guidance and support of this work. It was an honor to work under her and gain from her huge knowledge and her excellent supervision. Thank you for giving me the opportunity to participate in this great project. I would also like to express my gratitude to my thesis advisor Professor Dr. John Parsch and PD Dr. Mathias V. Schmidt as well as the rest of my thesis committee, who kindly agreed to referee this thesis.

This work would not have been possible without the great number of even greater collaborators. I am much obliged to Ryan Bogdan (Washington University and Duke University), Ahmad R. Hariri (Duke University), Goar Frishman (Helmholtz Zentrum München) and Andreas Ruepp (Helmholtz Zentrum München), Dietrich Trümbach (Helmholtz Zentrum München) and Wolfgang Wurst (Helmholtz Zentrum München). I am grateful to the members of the Major Depressive Disorder Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC) for sharing their data.

Thanks to all former and present members of our group for making the department a great place to work. Especially, Dr. Peter Weber, Nazanin Karbalai, Simone Röh, Dr. Divya Mehta, Professor Dr. Bertram Müller-Myhsok, Dr. Darina Czamara, Dr. Andre Altmann for useful discussions; Dr. Peter Weber, Nazanin Karbalai, Simone Röh for proof-reading parts of this thesis; Klaus V. Wagner, Dr. Mathias V. Schmidt for performing the animal experiments; Monika Rex-Haffner, Anne Löschner, Dr. Manfred Uhr, Micheal Ködel, Dr. Peter Weber, Dr. Divya Mehta, Dr. Thomas Bettecken and Stefan Darchinger for excellent technical support and generating microarray data; Dr. Andreas Menke, Dr. Torsten Klengel, Laura Preis and Dr. Andreas Eichelkraut for recruitment and sample ascertainment.

My great appreciation goes to all my friends for their support and encouragement throughout the whole time. Finally and most importantly, I am deeply grateful to Captain Knauer for always believing in me and never giving up.
Eidesstattliche Erklärung

Ich versichere hiermit an Eides statt, dass die vorgelegte Dissertation von mir selbstständig und ohne unerlaubte Hilfe angefertigt wurde.

Des Weiteren erkläre ich, dass ich nicht anderweitig ohne Erfolg versucht habe, eine Dissertation einzureichen oder mich der Doktorprüfung zu unterziehen.

Die vorliegende Dissertation liegt weder ganz, noch in wesentlichen Teilen einer anderen Prüfungskommission vor.

München, den 05. August 2014