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Multivariate Analysis of Subjective Responses to damphetamine In Healthy Volunteers Finds Novel Genetic Pathway Associations

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Abstract

Rationale—Researchers studying behavioral and physiologic effects of d-amphetamine have explored individual response differences to the drug. Concurrently, genome wide analyses have identified several single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) associated with these traits. Univariate methods can identify SNPs associated with behavioral and physiological traits, but multivariate analyses allow identification of clusters of related biologically relevant SNPs and behavioral components.

Objectives—To identify clusters of related biologically relevant SNPs and behavioral components in the responses of healthy individuals to d-amphetamine using multivariate analysis.

Methods—Individuals (N=375) without substance abuse histories completed surveys and detailed cardiovascular monitoring during randomized, blinded sessions: d-amphetamine (10mg, 20mg), placebo. We applied parallel-independent component analysis (Para-ICA) to data previously analyzed with univariate approaches, revealing new associations between genes and behavioral responses to d-amphetamine.

Results—Three significantly associated (p<.001) phenotype-genotype pairs emerged. The first component included physiologic measures of systolic and diastolic blood pressure (BP) and mean arterial pressure (MAP) along with SNPs in calcium and glutamatergic signaling pathways. The second associated components included the 'Anger' items from the Profile of Mood States (POMS) questionnaire and the Marijuana effects from the Addiction Research Center Inventory

Disclosure Statement

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(Cuyas, Verdejo-Garcia et al.), with enriched genetic pathways involved in Cardiomyopathy and MAPK signaling. The final pair included 'Anxious', 'Fatigue', and 'Confusion' items from the POMS questionnaire, plus functional pathways related to cardiac muscle contraction and cardiomyopathy.

Conclusions—Multifactorial genetic networks related to calcium signaling, glutamatergic and dopaminergic synapse function and amphetamine addiction appear to mediate common behavioral and cardiovascular responses to d-amphetamine.

Keywords

D-amphetamine; Parallel-independent component analysis; Single nucleotide polymorphism; acute behavior

Introduction

Thus far, association studies of amphetamine response in healthy individuals have focused on candidate genes, employing univariate statistical approaches (Mattay, Goldberg et al. 2003, Wardle, Hart et al. 2013), which are typically limited by the issue of multiple comparisons, and diminish statistical power to detect subtle but important genetic effects. Thus, in the current study, we applied a novel, multivariate strategy based on parallelindependent component analysis (Para-ICA: see methods) to a previously analyzed data set.

Para-ICA is a multivariate statistical method that maximizes 'cost functions' both within and between complex feature sets (e.g. voxels in MRI scans and gene interactions). This reveals novel, biologically relevant associations that might otherwise not be detected due to small effect sizes and modest-sized sample sets (Liu, Pearlson et al. 2009, Meda, Narayanan et al. 2012). In data with a large number of characteristics, Para-ICA excels at identifying and comparing the most relevant features. Para-ICA also makes more assumptions about noise, thus increasing robustness compared to previous methods.

The current reanalysis used subjective and physiological response data to d-amphetamine in healthy individuals, and explored how these might be influenced by the genome of each participant. It is appropriate to apply Para-ICA to investigate relationships between complex behaviors and gene-gene interactions in this high dimensional data set.

D-amphetamine is a psychostimulant drug that acts acutely by blunting phasic dopamine release via agonist activity at D2 auto-receptors, and enhancing tonic availability of dopamine and norepinephrine by blocking reuptake via membrane transporters into nerve terminals (Greene, Kerr et al. 2008). Its effects include increased alertness/vigilance/arousal, energy, mood/motivation, attention/concentration and appetite suppression, and its side effects include hypertension, tachycardia, cardiac arrhythmias, cardiomyopathy, restlessness, dry mouth, and insomnia (Schep, Slaughter et al. 2010). Although amphetamine has therapeutic value for ADHD and treating fatigue, it also has the potential for abuse and dependence (Greene, Kerr et al. 2008).

There are individual differences in amphetamine response, and both the subjective response to acute amphetamine and amphetamine dependence are heritable (Crabbe, Jarvik et al.

1983, Schilt, Koeter et al. 2009, Cherner, Bousman et al. 2010). Some of the genetic variation is related to drug metabolism: for example methamphetamine users exhibit differential neurocognitive deficits related to specific *CYP2D6* drug metabolism-related alleles (Cherner, Bousman et al. 2010). Carriers of functional Catechol-O-methyltransferase (*COMT*) gene variants may show differential cognitive responses to acute *d*-amphetamine challenge (Mattay, Goldberg et al. 2003, Wardle, Hart et al. 2013), (Hamidovic, Dlugos et al. 2010). Although not directly related to drug challenges, individual differences in behavioral performance on executive and working memory tasks are also observed among polymorphism carriers of other genes relevant to dopaminergic function including *MAOA*, *BDNF* and *DRD4* (Fan, Fossella et al. 2003, Hariri and Weinberger 2003, Herrmann, Walter et al. 2007). To understand these individual differences, some of which may affect drug abuse susceptibility, it is important to investigate the genetic and physiological basis for subjective drug response in the general population (de Wit and Phillips 2012).

Our analysis was performed on a previously published sample that used univariate approaches, using varying sample sizes (*N*=99 or 162), to focus on carefully-selected, hypothesis-based candidate genes: *ADORA2A*, *SLC6A3*, *BDNF*, *SLC6A4*, *CSNK1E*, *SLC6A2*, *DRD2*, *FAAH*, *COMT*, and *OPRM1* (Hart, de Wit et al. 2013). Modest associations were reported, but these were difficult to replicate (Hart, de Wit et al. 2013). The authors also conducted a GWAS study in this population, with some modest findings (Hart, Engelhardt et al. 2012).

In the present analysis, we used an unsupervised multivariate approach to identify clusters of relevant interacting genes that were related in functional pathways to phenotypic components representing acute behavioral and physiologic response to d-amphetamine. Such genes could include those in processes previously associated with psychostimulant effects and/or dependence (Li, Mao et al. 2008), drug side effects (e.g. dry mouth, insomnia) as well as those related to drug metabolism and excretion, blood-brain barrier permeability, cardiovascular responsiveness, plus behaviorally-relevant neurotransmitters, receptors and their associated synthetic and degrading enzymes (e.g. dopamine, glutamate, norepinephrine). For the analysis, we generated change-from-pre-capsule baseline scores after placebo or drug to assess genotype-phenotype relationships. Several of the subjective scales had overlapping content, and some measures of somatic effects, e.g. heart rate, might influence subjective reports. Therefore, we expected some crossover between SNP components associated with behavioral and with physiological components.

The Para-ICA multivariate analysis used here provides a sensitive and powerful alternative to traditional univariate analyses using single SNPs and single outcome measures. It is more powerful than univariate analysis because it examines *clusters* of related individual phenotypic measures in relation to *clusters* of related SNPs. The clustering of phenotypic measures is empirically derived from the data, and the SNPs are interpreted based on a large body of knowledge about genes involved with known biological function. Para-ICA uses these two composite clusters to reveal novel, biologically relevant associations that might otherwise not be detected. Here, we applied this robust analysis to an existing data set with acute responses to amphetamine in human volunteers.

Materials and Methods

Participants

Study sample and data collection methods are detailed in previous publications (Hart, Engelhardt et al. 2012). Subjects were recruited and screened via modified Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-IV (SCID) (First November 2002) psychiatric symptom checklist (SCL-90) (Derogatis 1977) electrocardiogram, physical examination, self-reported health and drug use history. Subjects were excluded if they were employed with night shift work, significant medical or psychiatric conditions, if they smoked more than 3 cigarettes/ day, consumed more than 3 cups of coffee/day, or tested positive for amphetamine, cocaine, opiates, phencyclidine (PCP), or marijuana (measured by urine toxicology: Ontrak TesTstik, Roche Diagnostic Systems Inc., Somerville, NJ).

Behavioral Data Collection

486 behavioral variables from the Drug Effects Questionnaire (DEQ; (Chait, Uhlenhuth et al. 1985), the Addiction Research Center Inventory (Martin, Sloan et al. 1971, Cuyas, Verdejo-Garcia et al.) and the Profile of Mood States (POMS; (Johanson and Uhlenhuth 1980) questionnaire were collected in addition to sex, age, education, body mass index, weekly alcohol and caffeine use as well as monthly marijuana use. These included baseline responses to placebo, 10mg d-amphetamine, and 20mg d-amphetamine as well as responses at five additional time points (30, 60, 90, 150 and 180 minutes post-drug). In order to understand changes in these variables compared to placebo, we grouped time points 2–6 into a single measure termed the 'response measure'. We then created four change measures (CM): 1CM= 10mg baseline response - placebo baseline response measure - placebo response measure 4CM= 20mg response measure - placebo response measure. Thus, 100 final behavioral variables were created for further analysis (Supplementary Figure I).

Genetic Data Collection

DNA was extracted from blood at the General Clinical Research Center at the University of Chicago. Genotyping was performed using the Affymetrix 6.0 array at the Functional Genomics Core Facility (Vanderbilt University, Memphis, TN, USA).

Genetic Data Processing

Prior to Para-ICA, genotyped SNPs underwent three pre-processing stages. First, quality control parameters were employed to discard data unsuitable for further analysis. Samples (both subjects and SNPs) were checked for missing data and those with missing call rates (>10%) were excluded. 375 individuals remained in the sample after excluding six individuals during quality control. Following this, all uninformative SNPs (constant variance) were excluded. SNPs were then checked for minor allele frequency (MAF); SNP variants with MAFs <0.1 were excluded. SNPs in linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 > 0.5$) (in block sizes of 100 kb) were removed. Finally, SNPs were checked for Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium set at a threshold of p < 1×10^{-5} . The above analyses were performed using PLINK (Purcell, Neale et al. 2007). Finally, a principal component analysis (PCA) was run

using custom Matlab scripts and the variance from the top 3 components were regressed out of the data to account for population stratification using an approach similar to that implemented in EIGENSTRAT (Li and Yu 2008). All SNPs (N =178,746) were then carried over to the next processing stage.

In order to improve interpretation we biologically prioritized SNPs to only those contained within genes in KEGG database (Mootha, Lindgren et al. 2003, Kanehisa, Goto et al. 2004, Subramanian, Tamayo et al. 2005). In order to do this, we first derived genetic annotations for SNPs from the current dataset (conservatively) by using the Genome Variation Server (http://gvs.gs.washington.edu/GVSBatch137/) and restricting to SNPs within host genes (i.e. no flanking genes were used for SNP annotation). We then downloaded the complete list of KEGG genes from the molecular signatures database MSigDB (http://

www.broadinstitute.org/gsea/msigdb/collections.jsp) and limited our analysis to only those that overlapped with the currently genotyped sample. This produced a biologically enriched SNP set of N=(13,751) that was used as input for the para-ICA analyses.

Parallel Independent Component Analysis

Association Mapping—The number of genetic components in the current study was estimated to be 6 and the number of components estimated for the behavioral networks was 13. Component estimation was data-driven using the standard minimum description length (MDL) criteria (Rissanen 1978).

To investigate associations between genotype and phenotype features, Para-ICA was implemented (See figure I) using the Fusion ICA Toolbox v2.0a; http://icatb.sourceforge.net in Matlab 7.0 and in accordance with previously reported results (Meda, Narayanan et al. 2012). Para-ICA was designed for multimodal processing that extracts components using an entropy term based on information theory to maximize independence, and enhances the interconnection by maximizing the linkage function in a joint estimation process (Calhoun, Liu et al. 2009). The goal of para-ICA was three-fold: a) run an ICA to extract distinct linear combinations of behavioral data (covarying phenotypic networks across subjects), b) simultaneously run another ICA to extract distinct, linear combinations of SNP data (covarying genetic networks across subjects) and c) maximize correlations between the derived networks from steps a and b. This process resulted in a number of components for each feature set that are variably expressed across subjects and quantified by a subject-level loading coefficient for each data type (See figure 1). The loading parameters from para-ICA represent the weight of the overall component for each subject (Calhoun, Adali et al. 2001, Schurz, Radua et al.). In para-ICA the correlation values between these loading parameters across the two feature sets are continuously updated and maximized, until a stopping criterion is reached. Comprehensive mathematical details for this methodology are also discussed in prior publications (Liu, Demirci et al. 2008).

In order to correct for multiple comparisons in resulting behavioral/genetic correlation values, Bonferroni correction was applied based on 13 (phenotype components)×6 (genetic components)=78 comparisons yielding a corrected *p* value threshold of 0.05/78 = 0.00064. Once significant phenotype-genotype associations were identified, the corresponding phenotype and genotype networks were thresholded at a supra level |Z|>2.5 to derive

significantly contributing elements from each feature set. SNPs/phenotypic variables surpassing this threshold were deemed to be contributing significantly to the overall signal of the corresponding component/network. Resulting significant genes were interpreted using a functional annotation tool, ConsensusPathDB-human (http://cpdb.molgen.mpg.de/) to visualize enriched biological networks that were associated with physiologic/behavioral responses identified within our multivariate framework. We selected KEGG from the pathway-based sets comparison option on this functional annotation tool.

Results

Overview

Participant demographics are detailed in previous publications (Hart, Engelhardt et al. 2012). Response to d-Amphetamine increased all scales of the DEQ, ARCI, and all but one of the POMS scales, and in a separate sparse factor analysis their responses to factors of "euphoria", "dysphoria" and "arousal" were dose-dependent (Engelhardt and Stephens 2010).

The Para-ICA reanalysis identified three significant genotype-phenotype pairs after accounting for multiple comparisons using Bonferroni correction. The top 20 most significant genes from each of the genotype components G1, G2 and G3, their Z-scores and associated functional annotations are summarized in Table II. Enrichment of genes mapped to these individual SNPs yielded multiple significant pathways within the KEGG (Kanehisa and Goto 2000, Kanehisa, Goto et al. 2014) database. We report the top ten most significant pathways associated with each component in Table I.

Phenotypic behavioral responses are reported as change measures (CM), an average of all time points with baseline measures subtracted from this average. 1CM= 10mg baseline - placebo baseline 2CM= 20mg baseline - placebo baseline, 3CM= 10mg response measure - placebo response measure 4CM= 20mg response measure - placebo response measure.

Several functional pathways were enriched in all of our significant components, including dopaminergic (G1,G2,G3) and glutamatergic (G1,G2) signaling, consistent with the known mode of action of the drug. Interestingly, significant genes from our dataset (G1,G3) were also found to be over-represented in an 'amphetamine addiction' (not among top 10 pathways) KEGG pathway. As summarized earlier, multiple highly-ranked genes in all three SNP components have been linked to psychostimulant use/dependence, including *NRCAM* in G1 (Ishiguro, Liu et al. 2006) and *CREB5* in G2 (a modulator of *CART*), as well as *ACTB* in G3, *GABRG3* in G2 and *NCAM2* in G1.

Phenotype 1-Genotype 1 Association

The first phenotype component P1 derived by Para-ICA consisted of the physiologic measures of 3CM systolic blood pressure (BP), 3CM and 4CM measures of BP, and both 3CM and 4CM measures of mean arterial pressure (MAP). This component was negatively correlated to the first genetic component (G1; r=-.267, p=2.01e-007) (Table II) that included 211 significant SNPs, (thresholded at Z=2.5). Pathway enrichment analysis indicated that G1 consisted of calcium signaling networks 'calcium signaling pathway' and

'endocrine-regulated calcium reabsorption', plus a 'glutamatergic synapse' network. The calcium signaling pathways contain SNPs associated with Ca channel subunits and function (*CACNA1G, SLC8A3, SLC8A1*), G-protein coupled receptor and downstream pathway genes (*ADRA1A, PRKCB, ITPR1, ADCY2*), and nicotinic cholinergic receptor genes (*CHRNA7*). The glutamatergic pathway genes within this set were related to glutamate receptors (*GRIN2B, GRM1*) and phospholipase C (*PLCB1, PLCB2*). Other KEGG processes included vascular smooth-muscle contraction (that contained alpha-adrenergic-related genes including *ADRA1A*), that are linked to amphetamine-mediated tachycardia and hypertension (Cruickshank and Dyer 2009), long-term depression, gap junction, circadian entrainment, salivary secretion (amphetamine causes dry mouth), amoebiasis (that contained genes relevant to the intestinal lining) and 'pathways in cancer'. Networks named 'dopaminergic synapse', 'cholinergic synapse', 'serotonergic synapse' and 'amphetamine addiction' (*GRIN2B, CREB5, PRKCB, CHP1, GNAS*) also contributed to the G1 component, but were

Phenotype 2-Genotype 2 Association

not in the top ten most significant pathways.

Our second most significantly correlated pair (P2-G2; r=-.236, p=4.52e-006) included 4CM measures of the 'Anger' variables from the POMS questionnaire and 3CM measures from the Marijuana component of the ARCI (ARCI-M) and 229 significant SNPs (thresholded at z=2.5, see Table II) that were enriched in pathways related to somatic drug responses and drug metabolism (not in top 10 pathways). Importantly, three of eleven questions chosen for ARCI-M overlap with the amphetamine sub-score. Of the non-overlapping questions, many describe effects related to salivary secretion and/or cardiovascular function, e.g. "My mouth seems very dry," "I notice that my heart is beating faster." G2 pathways included 'dopaminergic synapse' (not among top 10 pathways), 'hippocampal signaling' (not among top 10 pathways), 'various forms of cardiomyopathy, (hypertrophic, arrhythmogenic right ventricular and dilated), 'adherens junction' and 'focal adhesion' (not in top 10 pathways), 'PI3K-Akt signaling', 'salivary' and 'pancreatic secretion' (not in top 10 pathways), 'MAPkinase signaling'. Genes related to calcium channel regulation, vascular smooth muscle contraction and AMP-activated protein kinase were enriched in these pathways as well. Networks named 'morphine addiction' and 'nicotine addiction' also appeared to be significantly enriched but not among the top ten pathways for the G2 component. The topranked gene in this component, CREB5, is a CART interactor (Kuhar, Jaworski et al. 2005) that has been associated with substance abuse, as well as another top gene GABRG3 (Table II). Amphetamine abuse has been linked to both acute and chronic cardiomyopathies (Greene, Kerr et al. 2008, Schep, Slaughter et al. 2010), and acute methamphetamine damages cardiomyocyte proteins (Turdi, Schamber et al. 2009) so the wide implication of related genes in G2 and G3 is unsurprising.

Phenotype 3-Genotype 3 Association

The third correlated pair P3-G3 (r=-.206, p=7.03e-005) was comprised of the 'Anxious', 'Fatigue', and 'Confusion' items from POMS questionnaire. It was significantly correlated with genotype component G3, which included 208 significant SNPs (thresholded at Z=2.5) and was enriched for several functional pathways related to cardiovascular function. This included some of the same networks discussed in G1 and G2 ('vascular smooth muscle

contraction', 'cardiac muscle contraction', 'arrhythmogenic right ventricular', 'dilated' and 'hypertrophic cardiomyopathies') (Table I). Additional enriched networks included 'focal adhesion', PI3k-Akt signaling', 'MAPK signaling pathway', 'calcium signaling pathway', and like G1 and G2, 'pathways in cancer'. The networks 'amphetamine addiction' and 'dopaminergic synapse' (discussed above) also appeared in G3 but were not among the top 10 pathways. The top SNP (*ACTB*) has been linked to methamphetamine-conditioned place preference (Shibasaki, Mizuno et al. 2011), and another top SNP (*PRKCE*) has been associated with substance use and cardiovascular stress (Nikpay, Seda et al. 2012).

We had hypothesized above that genes would be involved in functional pathways related to phenotypic components representing previously documented associations with acute behavioral and physiological responses to d-amphetamine. For the top- 20 ranked genes within each SNP network, this was true for 14 SNPs in component G1, and 16 in both G2 and G3, (represented e.g. as gene name-Gx for a particular gene comprising one of the top 20 in SNP component Gx) as follows:

Psychostimulant response: NFATC3-G1. Psychostimulant dependence/addiction
vulnerability: NRCAM-G1 (Ishiguro, Liu et al. 2006, Richardson, Grkovic et al. 2006),
CREB5-G2, GABRG3-G2, ACTB-G3, NCOR2-G3, PRKCE-G3. Drug metabolism and
excretion: DPYD-G1. Blood-brain barrier permeability: CD44-G1. Cardiovascular
responsiveness: NFATC3-G1, AP2A2-G1, SPTLC2-G2, RAB5A-G2, DHRS3-G2, SLC8A1-G2, CACNA2D3-G2, ST6GALNAC3-G3. Vascular contractility/endothelium: PLCB2-G1,
ITGA8-G2, COLEC12-G2, PRKCQ-G3, KCNMA1-G3, PIK3C2B-G3, PRKCE-G3.
Behavior-relevant neurotransmitters- dopamine: PARK2-G1, RORA-G1, RORB-G3.
Glutamate: NCAM2-G1, GABA: GABRG3-G2. Drug side effects - insomnia; RORA-G1,
RORB-G3. General abused substance relevance e.g. cell adhesion processes (Ishiguro, Liu et al. 2006, Uhl, Drgon et al. 2008), NCAM2-G1, COL4A2-G2, ITGA6-G2. General brain
development and/or neurotransmission: ST8SIA1-G1, ERBB4-G1, TXNDC5-G1, SPTLC2-G2, PAK7-G2, GMDS-G2, BAIAP2-G2, ACTB-G3, ORC3-G3, MAPT-G3, WASF3-G3,
B3GALTL-G3, KCNK10-G3, XYLT1-G3, DAPK1-G3.

Discussion

The current analysis used Para-ICA, a novel multivariate approach, to identify pairs of related genotype and phenotype characteristics derived from subjective and physiological responses to two d-amphetamine doses compared to placebo in healthy individuals. We demonstrate that this empirically derived approach is a useful method for examining complex behavioral and cardiovascular responses to drugs where multiple, presumably interacting genes are involved. More traditional approaches (such as GWAS) produce findings that have been hard to replicate (Hart, de Wit et al. 2013), and require very large samples to achieve statistical significance.

Our results suggest that commonalities in d-amphetamine response may in part be explained by gene polymorphisms in several previously identified drug addiction-relevant pathways, and gene clusters related to cardiovascular function. The most significant association pair was G1-P1. Gene network G1 was negatively correlated with P1, indicating that decreased

3CM systolic BP, 3CM and 4CM measures of diastolic BP, and 3CM and 4CM MAP measures of mean arterial pressure (MAP) associates with increased G1 loading scores. Similarly, G2-P2 and G3-P3 were negatively correlated.

Although P1 subsumed only cardiovascular responsiveness measures, whereas phenotypes 2 and 3 contained exclusively behavioral self-report items, several of these latter subjective reports contained cardiovascular responsiveness items, (such as: "I noticed that my heart is beating faster"). In addition, many genes (such as those involved with many calcium and potassium channels, responsible for generating and conducting electrical impulses) are expressed both in brain and heart (Lu, McKinsey et al. 1999). This likely explains the mixture of SNPs belonging to genes identified with both cardiovascular and behavioral responses in all three gene components.

P1 comprised physiological drug response (HR, BP and MAP) and the corresponding G1 contained pathways for 'long-term depression', 'circadian entrainment', calcium and glutamatergic signaling. G1's component network contains an enriched pathway for the glutamatergic synapse, including genes coding for the ionotropic glutamate receptor (*GRIN2B*), and *SLC1A1* encoding the excitatory aminoacid transporter 2 (*EAAT3*), required for removing glutamate from extracellular spaces. *GRIN2B* has been previously identified in inter-individual responses to the amphetamine MDMA via cognitive performance (Cuyas, Verdejo-Garcia et al. 2011).

Metabotropic glutamate receptor (mGLUR) genes (*GRM1*) are also represented in G1's 'calcium signaling', and 'glutamatergic synapse' pathways, consistent with glutamate receptor involvement in cognitive control and amphetamine processing. Both acute DA and glutamate effects in rat brain, and the alteration of long-term potentiation via glutamatergic tone and metabotropic glutamate receptors are crucial to acute responses to psychostimulant drugs and addiction (Zhang, Loonam et al. 2001), (Kalivas 2009). The ventral medial prefrontal cortex, with abundant glutamatergic transmission, is involved in modulating bradycardic/tachycardic reflexes (Ferreira-Junior, Fedoce et al. 2013). Cardiac vagal preganglionic neurons are also responsible for heart rate modulation, and receive glutamatergic signaling input (Hildreth and Goodchild 2010).

Of the top 20 genes in the G1 component (Table II), several have been previously linked strongly to neuronal development and addiction vulnerability (*NRCAM* (Ishiguro, Liu et al. 2006), *NCAM2* (McIntyre, Titlow et al. 2010), *PRKG1* (Ishiguro, Liu et al. 2006, Uhl, Drgon et al. 2008)) or code for proteins affecting amphetamine metabolism (*DPYD, PARK2, RORA, NFATC3, GRID2*). For example, *NRCAM* knockout mice do not develop conditioned place preference for substances (amphetamine, cocaine, morphine,) that wild type mice do (Ishiguro, Liu et al. 2006).

Dopamine 1 receptor (D1R) agonists enhance stimulatory responses, and activate adenylyl cyclases, consistent with the high ranking of an adenylyl cyclase (*ADCY2*) gene in our G1 and G2 components; the top gene for G2 (*CREB5*) codes for cAMP-responsive element binding.

The ADCY family has been implicated in neural function and drug response (Procopio, Saba et al. 2013) as well as cardiac contractile response (Lipskaia, Defer et al. 2000). *ADCY2* interacts downstream with phospholipase C (PLC) signaling cascades; represented in the enriched pathways of our G1 component (*PLCB1, PLCB2*). PLC hydrolyses phosphatidylinositol 4,5-biphosphate (PIP₂) to create inositol 1,4,5-triphosphate receptor (IP3). The gene coding for IP3 receptor type 1 (*ITPR1*) is enriched in pathways of the G1 and G2 component.

A recent GWAS report of comorbid depression and alcoholism subjects (from the Consortium on the Genetics of Alcoholism, COGA) reported clusters of potential risk-conferring alleles similar to those described here (Edwards, Aliev et al. 2012) including glutamatergic genes (*GRIN2C* (Edwards, Aliev et al. 2012), *GRIN2B* (G1,G2), *GRIN2A* ((Edwards, Aliev et al. 2012), G3), *GRIA1* (Edwards, Aliev et al.), *GRIA4* (Edwards, Aliev et al.), and *GRM1* (G1,G2). *CTNNA2* is enriched in G2 and G3, while *CTNNA3* is enriched in pathways from our G2 component. *CTNNA2* has been identified in a large study of risk-taking propensity and excitement-seeking (Terracciano, Esko et al. 2011). Thus, there may be commonalities and functional gene networks underlying multiple types of substance abuse.

Enriched pathways in the G2 component include ' MAPK signaling' 'PI3K/Akt signaling', 'salivary secretion', 'hypertrophic cardiomyopathy', 'dilated cardiomyopathy', 'arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy', and 'circadian entrainment'.(Table I). Protein expression related to cardiovascular function would logically affect both subjective drug effects and physiological responses, as they involve generating, amplifying and transmitting cellular electrical signals in both heart and CNS. Heart rate increase in response to drug stimulant properties has been reported as a risk factor for substance abuse (Conrod, Peterson et al. 2001). Li and colleagues (Li, Mao et al. 2008) surveyed 1500 human addiction-related genes to identify molecular pathways significantly enriched for all four major classes of addictive drugs (Li, Mao et al. 2008). The authors then narrowed these genes to those supported by two or more studies, and finally to gene pathways enriched by these genes as compared to the whole genome. Among the most significant pathways identified were the MAPK (G2, G3) and calcium signaling (G1, G2, and G3) pathways along with the gap junction (G1). MAPK is also cited in relation to amphetamine exposure by Wang 2011 (Wang, Yuan et al. 2011) and Akt by Chen 2009 (Chen, Chen et al. 2009).

Salivary secretion decreases with amphetamine (Gotrick, Giglio et al. 2009), leading to complaints of dry mouth, and in part contributing to dental damage in chronic amphetamine abuse. *DHRS3* is a top gene in the G2 component, and is related to myocardial formation. The deletion or mutation of other top G2 genes result in cardiac failure, arrhythmia (*SLC8A1*) and stroke (*PRKCH, COL4A2*).

Another top-ranked gene appearing in G2 codes for the GABA-receptor subunit, *GABRG3*, identified as conferring genetic risk for alcoholism/alcohol withdrawal symptoms in COGA (Edenberg and Foroud 2006). This gene also appeared within our functional networks named 'morphine addiction' and 'nicotine addiction'.

The G3 component includes enriched pathways previously discussed in G1 and G2 in addition to pathways named 'focal adhesion', 'vascular smooth muscle contraction', and 'cardiac muscle contraction'. Adhesion molecules likely play an important role in methamphetamine risk (Uhl, Drgon et al. 2008).

This component contained multiple genes associated with neuronal development and with vascular smooth muscle contraction. Two among the top four, *ACTB* (Shibasaki, Mizuno et al. 2011) and *NCOR2*, are known to be associated with amphetamine and cocaine dependence, respectively; the second emerged as a gene important in cocaine dependence risk study (Gelernter, Sherva et al. 2013). Several cardiac genes in the G3 component are involved in smooth muscle function through calcium and potassium channel-related pathways (*KCNK10, KCNMA1, PIK3C2B, PRKCE, ST6GALNAC3*). *PRKCE* has also been implicated as a risk gene for substance use, and hyperactive stress response. Animals with *PRKCE* dysfunction show increased sensitive to alcohol and consume less alcohol than wild-type mice (Choi, Wang et al. 2002)

Genes in the CACNA family (*CACNG3, CACNA2D4, CACNA1A, CACNA1E, CACNA1G, CACNA2D3, CACNA2D1, CACNB2*) were represented in the 'cardiac muscle contraction' pathway and highly correlated with behavioral components in our G3 component. *CACNA1C* and *CACNA2D4* deletion have been implicated in bipolar disorder and schizophrenia susceptibility (Roussos, Bitsios et al. 2013). Similarly, a nicotinic cholinergic receptor gene enriched in pathways of G1 (*CHRNA7*) has been associated with schizophrenia (Freedman 2013). Amphetamine use is associated with symptomatic schizophrenia-like illnesses, likely associated with excessive dopamine release (Bramness, Gundersen et al. 2012).

In general, Para-ICA identified gene components related to drug use and abuse such as dopaminergic and glutamatergic signaling. Our results indicate a possible multi-loci genetic component encompassing individual genes playing crucial roles in drug response that may be markers for substance abuse susceptibility. Although we were unable to replicate the majority of previously reported genetic findings from the same subjects in univariate analyses (Hamidovic, Dlugos et al. 2010, Wardle, Hart et al. 2013); these initially-published findings were also not replicated in an expanded subject sample (Hart, de Wit et al. 2013).

Limitations

We recognize that our results are unreplicated, and that our analysis does not cover all genes or all neural genes. Our study is limited to functional annotation software categories and gene ontologies that are works-in-progress (Khatri, Sirota et al. 2012), and can contain functional annotation data based on prediction rather than experimental evidence. In addition, each of the pathway databases could have a inherent bias associated with them with respect to genes available within them given the nature of their initial field of inception. While our genetic pathways reflect the most current knowledge to date, the particular nomenclature may be transient. Our analysis also depends on SNPs with allele frequencies greater than 0.1 and restricting to KEGG related genes. The SNPs genotyped on the arrays may not capture some functional variants that are not in strong linkage disequilibrium.

Para-ICA should be considered for future analyses of behavioral-genetic relationships in individual drug responses. This multivariate analysis strategy compares relationships within and between two composite clusters, and identified several plausible network associations between d-amphetamine response and genetic variation. Both phenotypic and genotypic findings were generally predictable from known clinical acute behavioral and cardiovascular amphetamine effects and corresponding genes associated with related physiological brain and cardiovascular processes respectively, as well as genes associated with longer-term psychostimulant abuse/dependence.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Figure 1. Parallel Independent Component Analysis Study flow

Table I

List of Top 10 processes using KEGG database for G1, G2 & G3

| 61 | p-value | q-value | Genes implicated |
|---|----------|----------|---|
| Calcium signaling pathway | 5.96E-13 | 9.66E-11 | ADRAIA; PLCB1; PLCB2; PRKCB; ERBB4; ADCY2; GNAS; RYR3; RYR2; CHP1; PTGFR; CACNAIG; ITPKA; SLC8A1; GNA14; CHRNA7; GNAL; SLC8A3; ITPR1; GRM1 |
| Long-term depression | 4.44E-10 | 3.05E-08 | PLCB1; PLCB2; GRID2; PRKCB; GUCY1A2; PRKG1; GUCY1B3; PLA2G4A; ITPR1; GRM1; GNAS |
| Circadian entrainment | 5.65E-10 | 3.05E-08 | PLCB1; PLCB2; PRKCB; ADCY2; GNAS; RYR3; RYR2; CACNA1G; GRIN2B; GUCY1A2; PRKG1; GUCY1B3; ITPR1 |
| Salivary secretion | 3.21E-09 | 1.30E-07 | ADRAIA; PLCB1; PLCB2; ADCY2; GNAS; RYR3; PRKCB; ATP1B1; GUCY1A2; PRKG1; GUCY1B3; ITPR1 |
| Vascular smooth muscle contraction | 1.02E-08 | 3.32E-07 | ADRAIA; PLCB1; PLCB2; ADCY2; GNAS; PRKCB; PRKCE; GUCYIA2; PRKG1; PRKCH; GUCYIB3; PLA2G4A; ITPRI |
| Endocrine and other factor- regulated calcium reabsorption | 2.53E-07 | 6.47E-06 | PLCB1; PLCB2; GNAS; PRKCB; ATP1B1; DNM3; AP2A2; SLC8A1 |
| Amoebiasis | 2.79E-07 | 6.47E-06 | LAMAI; PLCB2; PRKCB; PLCB1; GNAS; SERPINB1; GNA14; COL4A1; GNAL; LAMC3; LAMC1 |
| Gap junction | 3.61E-07 | 7.31E-06 | PLCB1; PLCB2; ADCY2; GNAS; PRKCB; GUCY1A2; PRKG1; GUCY1B3, ITPR1; GRM1 |
| Pathways in cancer | 5.26E-07 | 9.32E-06 | BCL2LI; LAMAI; TGFBRI; PRKCB; CDK6; RXRG; TCF7LI; RET; AKT2; ETSI; CREBBP; COL4AI; MITF; LAMC3; CTBP2; LAMC1; DAPKI; FGF14 |
| Glutamatergic synapse | 5.75E-07 | 9.32E-06 | PLCB1; PLCB2; ADCY2; GNAS; PRKCB; CHP1; SLC1A1; GRIN2B; PLA2G4A; ITPR1; GRM1 |
| G2 | | | |
| Arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy (ARVC) | 3.95E-10 | 4.71E-08 | ITGA8; ACTN2; ITGB3; ITGA6; CACNB2; TCF7L2; CTNNA2; SLC8A1; CACNA2D3; CACNG3; CACNA2D4; CTNNA3 |
| Calcium signaling pathway | 6.69E-10 | 4.71E-08 | LHCGR; ATP2B2; ADRAID; ADCY2; EGFR; RYR3; PRKCB; CHRM3; CACNAIG; GRM1; CHRNA7; SLC8A1; AGTR1; ITPR1; GRIN2A; ATP2B4; GNAQ |
| Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (HCM) | 1.98E-08 | 9.29E-07 | ITGA8; TGFB2; CACNB2; PRKAG2; PRKAA2; ITGA6; ITGB3; SLC8A1; CACNA2D3; CACNG3; CACNA2D4 |
| Salivary secretion | 4.68E-08 | 1.65E-06 | ATP2B2; ADRA1D; ADCY2; ATP1B2; RYR3; PRKCB; CHRM3; PRKG1; ITPR1; ATP2B4; GNAQ |
| MAPK signaling pathway | 1.18E-07 | 3.32E-06 | TGFBR2; TGFB2; RASGRF1; CACNB2; PRKCB; EGFR; NTRK2; CACNA1G; FASLG; MAPT; CACNA2D3; FGF12; FLNB; CACNG3; FGFR2; IL1R2; CACNA2D4 |
| Pathways in cancer | 1.48E-07 | 3.47E-06 | WNT2B; TGFBR2; TGFB2; RALBP1; STAT1; WNT2; BID; PRKCB; EGFR; DCC; ITGA6; FASLG; COL4A2; TCF7L2; FGF12; FGFR2; DAPK2; CTNNA2; CTNNA3 |
| Dilated cardiomyopathy | 4.86E-07 | 9.79E-06 | ITGA8; ITGB3; ADCY2; CACNB2; TGFB2; ITGA6; SLC8A1; CACNA2D3; CACNG3; CACNA2D4 |
| PI3K-Akt signaling pathway | 6.65E-06 | 0.00011 | ITGA8; ITGB3; TEK; EGFR; CREB5; PPP2R2A; PRKAA2; ITGA6; PPP2R2B; FASLG; COL4A2; TNC; FGF12; VWF; ANGPT1; FGFR2; PPP2R5A |
| Circadian entrainment | 7.70E-06 | 0.00011 | GNAQ; ADCY2; RYR3; PRKCB; CACNA1G; GRIN2B; GRIN2A; PRKG1; ITPR1 |
| Adherens junction | 7.83E-06 | 0.00011 | TGFBR2; ACTN2; EGFR; TCF7L2; BAIAP2; PTPRM; CTNNA2; CTNNA3 |

| 61 | p-value | q-value | Genes implicated |
|--|----------|----------|---|
| G3 | | | |
| Dilated cardionyopathy | 7.17E-12 | 9.39E-10 | TGFB2; CACNAIS; CACNA2D3; GNAS; ITGA1; CACNAIC; CACNAID; MYL2; MYBPC3; CACNB2; SLC8A1; PLN; ACTB; CACNG3 |
| Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (HCM) | 3.82E-11 | 2.50E-09 | TGFB2; CACNG3; CACNB2; CACNA1C; CACNA1D; PRKAG2; MYL2; MYBPC3; ITGA1; SLC8A1; CACNA2D3; ACTB; CACNA1S |
| Calcium signaling pathway | 1.74E-10 | 7.61E-09 | ADRAIA; CACNAII; PTGFR; PRKCB; GNAS; RYR3; CACNAIC; CACNAID; PTGER3; GNAI4; ITPKB; OXTR; SLC8AI; PLN; CACNAIS; TACR1; GRINZA |
| MAPK signaling pathway | 5.16E-09 | 1.69E-07 | CACNA1I; TGFB2; CACNA1S; RASGRF1; RASGRP3; MAP3K3; CACNA1C; CACNA1D; CHUK; PRKCB; NTF3; MAP2K6; MAPT; CACNB2; CACNA2D3; CACNG3; FGFR2; FGF14 |
| Arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy (ARVC) | 3.30E-08 | 8.64E-07 | CACNAIS; CACNB2; CACNAIC; CACNAID; ITGAI; SLC8AI; CACNA2D3; ACTB; CACNG3; CTNNA2 |
| Pathways in cancer | 1.98E-07 | 4.33E-06 | LAMAI; TGFB2; MSH3; RALBPI; CTNNA2; PRKCB; CSFIR; CHUK; GLI2; GLI3; ETSI; COLAA2; COLAA1; WNT5B; CTBP2; FGFR2; DAPK1; FGF14 |
| PI3K-Akt signaling pathway | 2.07E-06 | 3.87E-05 | LAMAI; IL6R; EIF4E2; PDGFD; SGKI; ITGAI; CSFIR; CHUK; PPP2R2B; RELN; COL4A2; COL4A1; COL6A1; COL6A3; ANGPT1; FGFR2; FGF14 |
| Focal adhesion | 2.46E-06 | 4.03E-05 | LAMAI; PDGFD; RASGRFI; VAVI; ITGAI; PRKCB; MYL2; RELN; COL4AI; COL6AI; ACTB; COL6A3; COL4A2 |
| Vascular smooth muscle contraction | 3.47E-06 | 5.06E-05 | ADRAIA; PRKCB; GNAS; PRKCE; CACNAIC; CACNAID; KCNMAI; PRKGI; PRKCQ; CACNAIS |
| Cardiac muscle contraction | 5.68E-06 | 7.44E-05 | CACNAIS; CACNB2; CACNAIC; CACNAID; MYL2; SLC8AI; CACNA2D3; CACNG3 |
| | | | |

Table reports significant values from a standard enrichment analysis derived from the CPDB database. Top 10 enriched KEGG process IDs are noted along with the significant genes in the current study that are involved in these processes. Uncorrected p and corresponding FDR corrected q values are also reported in this table. Gene components G1,G2 and G3 were significantly associated with phenotypic components P1, P2 and P3 respectively.

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Table 2

List of top 20 SNPs/genes and their function for each significantly correlated components

| Gene | Chromosome/Position | SNP | Pathway/Function | Disease association | Z score |
|---------|---------------------|------------|--|--|------------|
| 61 | | | | | |
| PARK2 | 6:161860169 | rs9458252 | DAT function | Parkinson's disease (Singleton, Farrer et al. 2013) | 4.7709134 |
| PLCB2 | 15:40590265 | rs2305648 | Vascular smooth muscle | Cardiovascular (LaBelle and Polyak 1996) | -4.1793759 |
| CD44 | 11:35200916 | rs3794105 | V ascular/blood-brain barrier | Encephalomyelitis (Flynn, Michaud et al. 2013) | 3.9902939 |
| TXNDC5 | 6:7896491 | rs443861 | Protein folding | Schizophrenia, Arthritis (Lin, Liu et al. 2009, Wang, Zheng et al. 2013) | 3.8772794 |
| CD44 | 11:35184823 | rs353635 | See above | See above | 3.8637463 |
| NRCAM | 7:107908197 | rs1269659 | Neural circuit formation | Addiction vulnerability (Ishiguro, Hall et al. 2012) | -3.7852901 |
| RORA | 15:61433543 | rs11071587 | DA/GLU signaling, circadian rhythms, learning (Lalonde and Strazielle 2008) | Autism (Sarachana and Hu 2013), PTSD (Logue, Baldwin et al. 2013) | 3.7836012 |
| NFATC3 | 16:68154862 | rs2418736 | Neural-based amphetamine response (Jayanthi, Deng et al. 2005) Cardiovascular muscle | | -3.6746777 |
| ACSM5 | 16:20439718 | rs6497484 | | | 3.6730504 |
| ST8SIA1 | 12:22473320 | rs2541299 | Calcium Signaling | Neuromuscular junction (Zitman, Todorov et al. 2011) | -3.6606826 |
| AP2A2 | 11:942344 | rs10751669 | Cardiac muscle function | Cardiovascular disease | 3.6062236 |
| ERBB4 | 2:212376745 | rs2030457 | Neural/Cardiovascular development | | -3.559317 |
| NCAM2 | 21:22494449 | rs2826663 | Cell adhesion molecule | Addiction Vulnerability | 3.5584064 |
| GRID2 | 4:94312343 | rs1948016 | Glutamate Receptor | Neurodegenerative disorders | 3.5515802 |
| HPSE2 | 10:100224362 | rs754586 | ECM structure, angiogenesis | Urofacial syndrome | 3.5447522 |
| NUP153 | 6:17627590 | rs4716167 | DNA repair | НІV | -3.5299582 |
| GALNTL6 | 4:172849152 | rs10005702 | | | -3.4903409 |

Psychopharmacology (Berl). Author manuscript; available in PMC 2016 August 01.

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| Gene | Chromosome/Position | SNP | Pathway/Function | Disease association | Z score |
|---------|---------------------|------------|--|---|------------|
| DPYD | 1:97895762 | rs11165870 | Drug metabolism marker | | 3.4758147 |
| PRODH | 22:18917031 | rs367766 | Phosphatidylinositol signaling | | -3.4520486 |
| DGKG | 3:185916113 | rs2268846 | Lipid metabolism | Obesity (Ng, Tam et al. 2010) | -3.4225716 |
| ATP6V1H | 8:54628736 | rs3735833 | ATPAse, Protein folding | | -3.4225603 |
| G2 | | | | | |
| CREB5 | 7:28443938 | rs42704 | DA/Cholinergic synapses | Drug addiction | -4.6509652 |
| TNC | 9:117840922 | rs1330351 | Inflammation | | -4.2077072 |
| SPTLC2 | 14:78057835 | rs2142187 | Neural and cardiovascular function | Neuropathy (Murphy, Ernst et al. 2013) | -4.1203353 |
| ITGA8 | 10:15638751 | rs1057969 | Smooth muscle contraction | Schizophrenia (Supriyanto, Watanabe et al. 2013) | -3.8815892 |
| RAB5A | 3:20022495 | rs12488378 | GTP-binding protein, cardiovascular function | | -3.8546808 |
| COL4A2 | 7:28432434 | rs387344 | PI3K-Akt signaling pathway, focal adhesion | Myopathy, glaucoma, stroke (Kuo, Labelle-Dumais et al. 2012) | 3.838731 |
| PAK7 | 13:111152478 | rs6056921 | Cell survival and neuronal growth | Learning deficits (Nekrasova, Jobes et al. 2008) | 3.83302 |
| GMDS | 20:9816860 | rs1013303 | CNS development | | -4.6509652 |
| HK2 | 6:1749928 | rs2229626 | Glycolytic metabolism | Glioblastoma (Wolf, Agnihotri et al. 2011) | -4.2077072 |
| COL9A1 | 2:75113657 | rs476863 | Protein digestion | | 3.8077398 |
| COLEC12 | 6:70927967 | rs2076867 | Vascular endothelium function | | -3.7897615 |
| GABRG3 | 20:9815528 | rs9672753 | GABA signaling | Alcohol/psychostimulant dependence (Dick, Edenberg et al. 2004) | -3.6973569 |
| DHRS3 | 18:335732 | rs4618985 | Cardiac tissue development | Myocardium malformation (Billings, Pierzchalski et al. 2013) | -3.6398269 |
| DERLI | 15:27631886 | rs11781842 | Protein folding | Alzheimer's Disease (Honjo, Ito et al. 2012) | 3.6321892 |
| ITGA6 | 1:12671324 | rs10930556 | Cell adhesion molecule | Depression (Orsetti, Di Brisco et al. 2008) | -3.6159337 |
| SLC8A1 | 7:28422523 | rs4952410 | Various cardiovascular | Heart failure, arrhythmia (Khananshvili 2013) | -3.6005603 |

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| Gene | Chromosome/Position | ANP | Pathway/Function | Disease association | Z score |
|----------|---------------------|------------|---|---|------------|
| PRKCH | 7:28468319 | rs2147539 | Vascular smooth muscle contraction | Stroke (Kitazono, Kubo et al. 2008) | 3.5958762 |
| ENPP7 | 8:124028479 | rs9900295 | | | -3.5718529 |
| BAIAP2 | 2:173297206 | rs8067235 | Neuronal cell migration and development | Neurodegenerative disease (Thomas, Foye et al. 2001), Autism (Toma, Hervas et al. 2011), ADHD (Ribases, Bosch et al. 2009) | 3.8077398 |
| CACNA2D3 | 20:9816249 | rs3773574 | Cardiovascular muscle contraction | | -3.7897615 |
| 63 | | | | | |
| ACTB | 7:5567112 | rs7612 | Neuronal cell migration and development | Baraitser-Winter syndrome (Eker, Derinkuyu et al. 2013), amphetamine dependence (Shibasaki, Mizuno et al. 2011) | 4.5488757 |
| CDKL1 | 14:50799126 | rs7161563 | Cell growth | | -3.8761389 |
| MAPT | 17:44005821 | rs1001945 | Neuronal protein folding | Neurodegenerative disease (Di Battista, Pascale et al. 2013) | -3.7863989 |
| NCOR2 | 12:125033338 | rs10773092 | | | -3.6777492 |
| C7 | 5:40980807 | rs971077 | | | 3.6414519 |
| ORC3 | 6.88343318 | rs9444530 | Neuronal development | | -3.5746469 |
| WASF3 | 13:27186242 | rs9507747 | Neuronal development | | -3.5607125 |
| B3GALTL | 13:31838688 | rs1912795 | Neuronal development | Peter's syndrome (Schoner, Kohlhase et al. 2013) | 3.5330929 |
| РАН | 12:103298517 | rs1522307 | | Mental retardation, seizure (Alibakhshi, Moradi et al. 2013) | -3.5131514 |
| ATP6V0A4 | 7:138419932 | rs2353841 | Vibrio cholerae infection | Renal tubular acidosis (Elhayek, Perez de Nanclares et al. 2013) | 3.4916802 |
| KCNK10 | 14:88727363 | rs724612 | Potassium channel function | Learning deficits (Deng, Xiao et al. 2009) | -3.4080874 |
| OXTR | 3:8796547 | rs11706648 | Calcium signaling | | 3.3958792 |
| RORB | 9:77281536 | rs7033059 | DA/GLU signaling, circadian rhythms | Bipolar disorder (McGrath, Glatt et al. 2009) | 3.3911085 |
| PRKCQ | 7:138424046 | rs4620621 | Vascular smooth muscle contraction | | 3.3772692 |
| GXYLT1 | 10:6616336 | rs7971943 | | | 3.357371 |
| - | | | | | - |

| Gene | Chromosome/Position | SNP | Pathway/Function | Disease association | Z score |
|-------------|----------------------------|------------------|--|--|------------|
| DAPK1 | 12:42529472 | rs11141918 | Cell death protein | Alzheimer's disease (Hainsworth, Allsopp et al. 2010) | 3.3554198 |
| KCNMA1 | 9:90246382 | rs10437394 | Vascular smooth muscle contraction | | 3.354954 |
| PIK3C2B | 10:78651927 | rs6594014 | Vascular smooth muscle contraction | Infarcted myocardium (Eun, Song et al. 2010) | -3.2890792 |
| PRKCE | 1:204449434 | rs4953247 | Vascular smooth muscle contraction | Substance use and cardiovascular stress (Nikpay, Seda et al. 2012) | -3.280417 |
| ST6GALNA | C32:45985386 | rs407271 | Cardiovascular function (Hodgkinson, Enoch et al. 2010) | | 3.2732021 |
| G1 G2 G3=00 | netic components: SNP=sing | ole nucleotide r | olymomhism: | | |

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