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Genome-wide association meta-analysis highlights light-induced signaling as a driver for refractive error

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1 Large genome-wide meta-analysis highlights 2 light-induced signaling as a driver for 3 refractive error

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162 Abstract

163 Refractive errors, including myopia, are the most frequent eye disorders worldwide and an increasingly
164 common cause of blindness. Through a genome-wide association meta-analysis in 160,420 participants of
165 mixed ancestry from CREAM and 23andMe and replication in 95,505 participants from the UK Biobank,
166 we increased the number of significant independent signals from 37 to 161 and found a high genetic
167 correlation between Europeans and Asians (>0.78). Enrichment analysis identified retinal cell physiology
168 and light processing as the most prominent mechanisms. Expression experiments and comprehensive *in*
169 *silico* analyses of the novel genes showed functional contribution of all cell types in the neurosensory
170 retina (*GNB3*, *DRD1*, *AKAP6*, *ZEB2*, *TFAP2B*, *CA8*, *EDN2*), the retinal pigment epithelium (*EFEMP1*,
171 *ANO2*), vascular endothelium (*CD34*, *FLT1*), and extracellular matrix (*VIPR2*, *ANTXR2*, *TCF7L2*,
172 *COL10A1*) to refractive error development. The newly identified genes also elicited novel mechanisms
173 such as rod as well as cone bipolar synaptic neurotransmission (rod: *CLU*; cone: *GNB3*), anterior segment
174 morphology (*TCF7L2*, *VIPR2*, *MAF*), and angiogenesis (*FLT1*). Twenty eight SNPs resided in or near
175 DNA structures transcribing small RNAs (non-coding, tRNAs, snoRNAs, rRNAs, miRNA), suggesting a
176 role for post-transcriptional regulation. Our results support the notion that refractive errors are caused by a
177 light-dependent retina-to-sclera signaling cascade, and delineate potential molecular drivers defining the
178 pathobiology of refractive errors and myopia.

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181 Introduction

182 Refractive errors are common optical aberrations determined by mismatches in the focusing power of the
183 cornea, lens and axial length of the eye. Their distribution is rapidly shifting towards myopia, or
184 nearsightedness, all over the world. The myopia boom is particularly prominent in urban East Asia where
185 up to 95% of twenty-year-olds in cities such as Seoul and Singapore have this refractive error¹⁻⁴. Myopia
186 prevalence is also rising throughout Western Europe and the USA, affecting ~50% of young adults in
187 these regions^{5,6}. While refractive errors can be optically corrected, even at moderate values they carry a
188 significant risk of ocular complications with a high economic burden⁷⁻⁹. One in three individuals with
189 high myopia (-6 diopters or worse) will develop irreversible visual impairment or blindness, mostly due
190 to myopic macular degeneration, retinal detachment, or glaucoma^{10,11}. At the other extreme, high
191 hyperopia predisposes to strabismus, amblyopia and angle-closure glaucoma^{10,12}.

192 Refractive errors result from a complex interplay of lifestyle and genetic factors. Most established
193 lifestyle factors for myopia are high education, lack of outdoor exposure, and excessive near work³.
194 Recent research has identified many genetic variants for refractive errors, myopia, and axial length¹³⁻²⁵.
195 Two large studies, the international Consortium for Refractive Error and Myopia (CREAM)²⁶ and the
196 personal genomics company 23andMe, Inc.^{17,27} have provided the most comprehensive results. Despite
197 differences in design and methodology, 37 associated genetic loci were identified in common, and most
198 strikingly, there was a near-linear relationship in genetic effect sizes of the associated variants²⁸.

199 Given that only 3.6% of the variance of the refractive error trait was explained by the identified
200 genetic variants²⁶, we presumed a high missing heritability. We therefore combined CREAM and
201 23andMe, and expanded the study sample to 160,420 individuals from a mixed ancestry population with
202 quantitative information on refraction for a genome-wide association (GWA) meta-analysis. Significant
203 variants were tested for replication in an independent cohort consisting of 95,505 individuals from the UK
204 Biobank. We conducted systematic comparisons to assess differences in genetic inheritance and

205 distribution of risk variants between Europeans and Asians. Polygenic risk analyses were performed to
206 evaluate the contribution of the identified variants to the risk of myopia and hyperopia. Finally, we
207 integrated expression data and bioinformatics on the identified genes to gain insight into the possible
208 mechanisms underlying the genetic associations.

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212 RESULTS

213 Susceptibility loci for refractive error

214 We performed a GWAS meta-analysis on adult refractive error using summary statistics from 37 studies
215 from the Consortium for Refractive Error and Myopia (CREAM) and two cohorts from the personal
216 genomics company 23andMe (Supplementary Figure 1). Analyses were based on ~11 million genetic
217 variants (SNPs, insertions and deletions) genotyped or imputed to 1000 Genomes Project Phase I
218 reference panel (version 3, March 2012 release²⁹) that passed extensive quality control (Supplementary
219 Figures 2-5, Supplementary Table 1a) and were represented by at least half of the entire study population
220 and by > 13 cohorts from CREAM and both cohorts from 23andMe.

221 Meta-analyses were conducted in three stages. *Stage 1* focused on CREAM and included a fixed
222 effects inverse variance-weighted meta-analysis on 44,192 individuals of European descent (CREAM-
223 EUR) and 11,935 participants of East or South Asian ancestry (CREAM-ASN) using untransformed
224 spherical equivalent (SphE) as the dependent variable representing refractive error (Supplementary Table
225 1b). 1,063 variants clustering in 24 loci (Supplementary Excel File 1) were genome-wide significant ($P < 5$
226 $\times 10^{-8}$). *Stage 2* consisted of a fixed effects inverted variance-weighted meta-analysis of the two European
227 23andMe cohorts ($N_{23andMe_V2} = 12,128$; $N_{23andMe_V3} = 92,165$) using age of diagnosis of myopia (AODM) as
228 outcome²⁷. A total of 5,205 genome-wide significant variants clustered in 112 loci (Supplementary Excel
229 File 1). All 25 loci identified at Stage 1 replicated in Stage 2 ($p_{Bonferroni} 2.00 \times 10^{-3}$). Vice versa, 29
230 (26%) of the loci identified at Stage 2 replicated in Stage 1 ($p_{Bonferroni} 4.46 \times 10^{-4}$), an expected
231 proportion given the lower statistical power in CREAM. *Stage 3* was the joint meta-analysis of Stage 1
232 and Stage 2. As CREAM and 23andMe applied different phenotype measures, we used signed Z-scores as
233 the mean per-allele effect size and assigned equal weights to CREAM and 23andMe. We identified 7,967
234 genome-wide significant genetic variants clustering in 140 loci (Figure 1a; Supplementary Figure 5-6,

235 Supplementary Excel File 1 – 3, Supplementary PDF File 1 and 2) of which 104 were novel. All 37 loci
236 that were found previously by CREAM and 23andMe using genotype data imputed to the HapMap II
237 reference panel were replicated ($p_{Bonferroni} 1.85 \times 10^{-3}$), and 36 of the 37 were genome-wide significant
238 (Supplementary Table 2)^{26,27}. We applied genomic control at each stage and checked for population
239 stratification using LD score regression³⁰ (Supplementary Table 3). At Stage 1 and 2, population
240 stratification was unlikely as inflation factors (λ_{GC}) were < 1.1 (Supplementary Figure 7), and LD score
241 regression intercepts ($LDSC_{intercept}$) ranged from 0.892 to 1.023 (Supplementary Figure 8). At Stage 3, we
242 observed an inflation of the median test statistic ($\lambda_{GC}=1.129$; Supplementary Figure 6), probably due to
243 true polygenicity rather than bias (i.e. population stratification or cryptic relatedness)³¹. The mixed
244 ancestry did not allow for calculation of $LDSC_{intercept}$.

245 To detect the presence of multiple independent signals at the discovered loci, a stepwise
246 conditional analysis was performed with GCTA-COJO³² on meta-analysis summary statistics from all
247 European cohorts ($N=148,485$) using the Rotterdam Study I-III (RS I-III) as a reference panel for LD
248 structure ($N_{RSI-III}= 10,775$). This analysis yielded 27 additional independent variants, resulting in a total of
249 167 loci (Supplementary Excel File 1). The lead variants at the newly-discovered loci were mainly of
250 lower minor allele frequencies (MAFs) than those reported in previous refractive error GWAS studies
251 with lower samples, reflecting the increased statistical power of the current analysis (Figure 1b).

252 We advanced these loci for replication analysis in a GWAS of refractive error carried out by the
253 UK Eye & Vision (UKEV) Consortium in 95,505 participants of European ancestry from the UK
254 BioBank.³³ 16 variants were not present in UKEV, and were represented by a surrogate variant in high
255 LD ($r^2 > 0.8$ LD; Supplementary Excel File 1). Six out of the 167 variants were not considered for
256 replication analysis: one variant (rs188159083) was not present on the array nor a surrogate was available
257 in UKEV and five variants showed evidence of departure from HWE (HWE exact test $P < 3.0 \times 10^{-4}$,
258 where $3.0 \times 10^{-4} = 0.05/167$). One of these five variants (rs3138141, *RDH5*) was identified previously and
259 therefore still considered as a refractive error risk variant^{26,27}. The remaining 161 genetic variants were
260 tested for replication. 86% (138/161) of the candidate variants replicated significantly: 104 (65%)

261 replicated surpassing genome wide significance; 34 replicated surpassing Bonferroni correction ($P < 3.0 \times$
262 10^{-4} ; 21.1%); and, 12 showed nominal evidence for replication ($0.05 < P < 3.0 \times 10^{-4}$; 7.5%). Of the total,
263 only 11 (7%) did not replicate (Table 1 and Supplementary Excel File 1).

264 As CREAM and 23andMe employed different phenotypic outcomes, we evaluated consistency of
265 genotypic effects by comparing marker-wise additive genetic effect sizes (in units diopters per copy of the
266 risk allele) for SphE from CREAM-EUR against those (in units log(HR) per copy of the risk allele) for
267 AODM from 23andMe. All variants strongly associated with either outcome ($P < 0.001$), were
268 concordant in direction-of-effect, and had highly correlated effect sizes (Figure 2 a,b; Supplementary
269 Figure 9). For these variants, a 10% decrease in the log(HR) for AODM, indicating an earlier age-at-
270 myopia onset, was associated with a decrease of 0.15 diopters in SphE. A quantitative analysis for all
271 common SNPs ($MAF > 0.01$; HapMap3) using LD score regression yielded a genetic correlation of 0.93
272 (95% CI 0.86 to 0.99; $P = 2.1 \times 10^{-159}$), confirming that effect sizes for both phenotypic outcomes were
273 closely related.

274

275 **Gene annotation of susceptibility loci**

276 We annotated all genetic variants with wANNOVAR using the University of California Santa Cruz
277 (UCSC) Known Gene database^{34,35}. The identified 139 genetic loci were annotated to 208 genetic
278 structures (i.e. genes and known transcribed RNA genes, Table 1, Supplementary Excel file 1, Online
279 Methods). The physical positions of the lead genetic variants relative to protein-coding genes are shown
280 in Figure 1c. 86% of the identified variants were either intragenic or less than 50 kb from the 5' or 3' end
281 of the transcription start site. We found seven exonic variants (Supplementary Table 4) of which two had
282 $MAF \leq 0.05$: rs5442 (*GNB3*) and rs17400325 (*PDE11A*). The index SNP in the *GNB3* locus with MAF
283 0.05 in Europeans is a highly conserved missense variant (G272S) predicted to be damaging by
284 PolyPhen-2³⁶ and SIFT³⁷. *PDE11A* is presumed to play a role in tumorigenesis, brain function, and
285 inflammation³⁸. The index SNP in the *PDE11A* locus with MAF 0.03 in Europeans is also a highly

286 conserved missense variant (Y727C); this variant was predicted to be damaging by PolyPhen³⁶, SIFT³⁹
287 and align GVGD^{40,41}. The other exonic variants, rs1064583 (*COL10A1*), rs807037 (*KAZALD1*), rs1550094
288 (*PRSS56*), rs35337422 (*RD3L*) and rs6420484 (*TSPAN10*), were not predicted to be damaging.

289 The most significant variant (Stage 3; rs12193446, $P = 4.21 \times 10^{-84}$) resides on chromosome 6
290 within a non-coding RNA, *BC035400*, in an intron of the *LAMA2* gene. This locus had been identified
291 previously, but our current fine mapping redefined the most associated variant. The function and potential
292 downstream target sites for BC035400 are currently unknown. The previously most strongly associated
293 variant, rs524952 on chromosome 15 near *GJD2*, was the second most significant variant ($P = 2.28 \times 10^{-}$
294 ⁶⁵).

295 **Post-GWAS analyses identify 22 additional novel candidate loci**

296 We performed two gene-based tests, fastBAT⁴² and EUGENE⁴³, and applied a functional enrichment
297 approach using fgwas⁴⁴ (Online Methods). Fgwas incorporates functional annotation (eg. DNase I
298 hypersensitive sites in various tissues and 3'UTR regions) to reweight data from GWAS, and uses a
299 Bayesian model to calculate a posterior probability of association. With fastBAT, we identified 13 genes
300 at P value $< 2.0 \times 10^{-6}$, one of which (*CHD7*) had been identified previously^{26,27}. Using EUGENE, we
301 found 7 genes at P value $< 2.0 \times 10^{-6}$ after incorporation of blood eQTLs. With fgwas, we identified 6
302 loci, which could be annotated to 9 genes, at posterior probability > 0.9 . Two genes (*HMGN4* and *TLXI*)
303 showed significant associations in two or more approaches. Taken together, these post-GWAS approaches
304 resulted in a total of **22 additional candidate loci for refractive error, annotated to 25 genes**
305 **(Supplementary Table 5). This increases the overall number of significant genetic associations to 161**
306 **candidate loci.**

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309 **Polygenic risk scores**

310 We calculated polygenic risk scores (PGRS)⁴⁵ per individual at various *P* value thresholds (Online
311 Methods) for Rotterdam Study I-III (RS I-III; *N*=10,792) after recalculating *P* values and *Z*-scores of
312 variants from Stage 3 excluding RS I-III. We found the highest fraction of phenotypic variance (7.8%)
313 explained with 7,307 variants at *P* value threshold 0.005 (Supplementary Table 6). A PGRS based on
314 these variants distinguished well between individuals with hyperopia and myopia at the lower and higher
315 deciles (Figure 3); those in the highest decile had a 40-fold increased risk of myopia. When the PGRS
316 was stratified for the median age (< 63 or > 63+ yrs), we found a significant difference in the variance
317 explained (<63 yrs 8.9%; 63+ yrs 7.4%; *P* value 0.0038). The variance explained by PGRS was not
318 significantly different between males and females (8.3% vs 7.5%; *P* value 0.13). The predictive value
319 (area under the receiver operating characteristic curve, AUC) of the PGRS for myopia versus hyperopia
320 adjusted for age and gender was 0.77 (95% CI = 0.75–0.79), a 10% increase compared to previous
321 estimations⁴⁶.

322 **Trans-ethnic comparison of genotypic effects**

323 To explore potential ancestry differences in the identified refractive error loci, we calculated the
324 heritability explained by common genetic variants (SNP-*h*²) for Europeans and Asians using LD score
325 regression⁴⁷. SNP-*h*² was 0.214 (95% CI 0.185 to 0.243) and 0.172 (95% CI 0.154 to 0.190) in the
326 European samples (CREAM-EUR and 23andMe), while it was only 0.053 (95% CI -0.025 to 0.131) in
327 the Asian sample (CREAM-EAS). Next, we estimated the genetic correlation between Europeans and
328 Asians by comparing variant effect size for common variants using the novel statistical program
329 Popcorn⁴⁸. Popcorn takes summary GWAS statistics from two populations and LD information from
330 ancestry-matched reference panels, and computes genetic correlations by implementing a weighted
331 likelihood function that accounts for the inflation of *Z* scores due to LD (Online Methods). Two genetic
332 correlation metrics were calculated (Table 2); first, a genetic effect correlation (ρ_{ge}) that quantifies the

333 correlation in SNP effect sizes between Europeans and Asians without taking into account ancestry-
334 related differences in allele frequency; and second, a genetic impact correlation (ρ_{gi}) that estimates the
335 correlation in variance-normalized SNP effect sizes between the two ancestry groups. Estimates of the
336 genetic effect correlation ρ_{ge} were high between Europeans and Asians, but significantly different from 1
337 (0.79 and 0.80 respectively at $P < 1.9 \times 10^{-6}$; Table 2), indicating a clear genetic overlap but a difference in
338 per allele effect size. Estimates of the genetic impact correlation ρ_{gi} were similarly high (> 0.8), but not
339 significantly different from 1 for the correlation between CREAM-EUR and CREAM-ASN ($P = 0.065$),
340 indicating that the genetic impact of these alleles may still be similar.

341

342 **In silico pathway analysis**

343 **We used an array of bioinformatics tools** to investigate potential functions and pathways of the associated
344 genes. We first employed DEPICT⁴⁹ to perform a gene set enrichment **analysis**, a tissue type enrichment,
345 and a gene prioritization analysis, on all variants with P value $< 1.00 \times 10^{-5}$ from Stage 3. The gene set
346 enrichment analysis resulted in 66 reconstituted gene sets, of which 55 (83%) were eye-related. To reduce
347 redundancies between pathways, we clustered the significant pathways into 13 meta gene sets (false
348 discovery rate (FDR) $< 5\%$ and a P value < 0.05) (Supplementary Methods 1, Figure 4, **Supplementary**
349 **Excel File 4**). The most significant gene set was the ‘abnormal photoreceptor inner segment morphology’
350 (MP:0003730; P value = 1.79×10^{-7}). The eye-related meta gene sets consisted of the ‘thin retinal outer
351 nuclear layer’ (MP:0008515; 27 (55%) gene sets), ‘detection of light stimulus’ (GO:0009583; 13 (24%)
352 gene sets), ‘nonmotile primary cilium’ (GO:0031513; 4 (6%) gene sets), and ‘abnormal anterior eye
353 segment morphology’ (MP:0005193; 4 (6%) gene sets). The first three meta gene sets had a Pearson’s
354 correlation > 0.6 . Interestingly, *RGR*, *RP1L1*, *RORB* and *GNB3* were present in all of these meta gene
355 sets. Retina was the most significant tissue of expression according to the tissue enrichment analysis (P
356 value = 1.11×10^{-4} , FDR < 0.01). From the gene prioritization according to DEPICT, 7 genes were

357 highlighted as the most likely causal genes at P value $< 7.62 \times 10^{-6}$ and FDR < 0.05 : *ANO2*, *RP1L1*,
358 *GNB3*, *EDN2*, *RORB* and *CABP4*.

359 Next, we performed a canonical pathway analysis on all genes annotated to the variants of Stage
360 3 using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA; <http://www.ingenuity.com/index.html>). All genes were run
361 against the IPA database incorporating functional biological evidence on genomic and proteomic
362 expression based on regulation or binding studies. IPA identified “Glutamate Receptor Signaling” with
363 central player *Nf-kB* gene as the most significant pathway after correction for multiple testing (ratio of the
364 number of molecules 8.8% and Fisher's Exact test P value = 1.56×10^{-4} ; Figure 5, Supplementary Figure
365 10).

366

367 **From disease associated loci to biological mechanisms**

368 We adapted the scoring scheme designed by Fritsche et al.⁵⁰ to highlight genes for which there is
369 biological plausibility for a role in eye growth. We used 10 equally rated categories (maximum score 10;
370 genes with score ≥ 5 Table 3; all genes [Supplementary Excel File 5](#); Online Methods, Supplementary
371 Methods 1): internal replication of index genetic variants in the individual cohort GWAS (CREAM-ASN,
372 CREAM-EUR and 23andMe), evidence for an eQTL [effect](#) in at least four tissue or cell types, annotation
373 to altered genomic function, ocular phenotype in humans and in mice, expression in human adult and fetal
374 ocular tissue, the presence of genes in the gene set enrichment, the presence of genes in the prioritization
375 analysis of DEPICT, and the presence of genes in the top 5 canonical pathway analysis of IPA. [Sixty-five](#)
376 index variants replicated in two or more individual cohorts; we found evidence for seven genetic variants
377 with eQTL [effects](#) in multiple tissue types; [nine](#) exonic variants, of which [seven](#) predicted protein-
378 alterations ([Supplementary Table 4](#)); [27](#) RNA genes, six located in the 3' or 5'UTR ([Supplementary Table](#)
379 [7](#), [Supplementary Figure 11](#)), [84](#) genes resulting in an ocular phenotype in humans ([Supplementary Excel](#)
380 [File 6](#)) and [28](#) in mice ([Supplementary Excel File 7](#)); [169/212 \(79%\) genes](#) expressed in human ocular
381 tissue (Supplementary Methods 1, [Supplementary Excel File 8](#)); [42](#) genes identified by DEPICT at P

382 value $< 5.4 \times 10^{-4}$ and FDR < 0.05 and 45 genes contributed to the most significant canonical pathways of
383 IPA. Notably, 48 of the associated genes encode known drug targets (Supplementary Excel File 9).

384 The gene with the highest biological plausibility score (score = 8) was *GNB3*, a highly conserved
385 gene encoding a guanine nucleotide-binding protein expressed in rod and cone photoreceptors and ON-
386 bipolar cells⁵¹. *GNB3* participates in signal transduction through G-protein coupled receptors and
387 enhances the temporal accuracy of phototransduction and ON-center signaling in the retina⁵¹. As
388 described above, the index SNP harbors a missense variant associated with refractive errors. Non-
389 synonymous mutations within *GNB3* are known to cause syndromic congenital stationary night
390 blindness⁵² in humans, progressive retinopathy and globe enlargement in chickens⁵¹, and abnormal
391 development of the photoreceptor-bipolar synapse in knock-out mice^{53,54}.

392 Other genes highly ranked (score = 7) include *CYP26A1*, *GRIA4*, *RDH5*, *RORB* and *RGR*, all
393 previously associated with refractive error, and one newly identified gene: *EFEMP1*. *EFEMP1* encodes a
394 member of the fibulin family of extracellular matrix glycoproteins, and is found pan-ocularly including in
395 the inner nuclear layer and Bruch's membrane. Mutations in this gene lead to specific macular
396 dystrophies⁵⁵, while variants have also been shown to co-segregate with primary open-angle glaucoma⁵⁶
397 and associate with optic disc cup area⁵⁷.

398 Several other genes from our analysis are noteworthy for their function. *CABP4*, a calcium
399 binding protein expressed in cone and rod photoreceptor cells, mediates Ca^{2+} influx and glutamate release
400 in the photoreceptor-bipolar synapse⁵⁸. Mutations in this gene have been described in congenital cone-rod
401 synaptic disorder⁵⁹, a retinal dystrophy associated with nystagmus, photophobia, and, remarkably, high
402 hyperopia. *KCNMA1* encodes pore forming alpha subunits of Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ (BK) channels. These
403 channels regulate synaptic transmission exclusively in the rod pathway⁶⁰. A striking function of the other
404 previously identified genes is retinoic acid signaling and metabolism⁶¹⁻⁶³. *ANO2* is a Ca^{2+} -activated Cl^-
405 channel recently reported to regulate retinal pigment epithelial (RPE) cell volume in a light-dependent
406 manner⁶⁴. *EDN2* is a potent vasoconstrictor that binds to two G-protein-coupled receptors, *EDNRA*, which
407 resides on bipolar dendrites, and *EDNRB*, which is present on Mueller and horizontal cells. Both receptors

408 are also present on choroidal vessels⁶⁵, implying that the choroid as well as retinal cells are target sites for
409 this gene. *RPILI* is expressed in cone and rod photoreceptors where it is involved in the maintenance of
410 microtubules in the connecting cilium⁶⁶. Mutations in this gene cause dominant macular dystrophy and
411 retinitis pigmentosa⁶⁷. We replicated two genes known to cause myopia in family studies. *FBNI* harbors
412 mutations causing with Marfan ([OMIM #154700](#)) and Weil Marchesani ([OMIM #608328](#)) syndrome;
413 *PTPRR* was one of the candidates in the MYP3 locus, which was found by linkage in families with high
414 myopia⁶⁸.

415 The location of rs7449443 (P value 3.58×10^{-8}) is **notable** as it resides in between *DRD1* and
416 *FLJI6171*. *DRD1* encodes dopamine receptor 1 and is known to modulate dopamine receptor 2-mediated
417 events^{69,70}. The dopamine pathway has been implicated in myopia pathogenesis in many studies^{69,71}. SNPs
418 in and near other genes involved in the dopamine pathway (dopamine receptors, synthesis, degradation,
419 and transporters)⁷²⁻⁷⁴ did not reveal genome-wide significant associations (Supplementary Methods 2,
420 **Supplementary Table 8; Supplementary Figure 12**).

421 There were twenty-eight genetic variants in or near DNA structures transcribing RNA genes (non
422 coding RNA, linc RNAs, tRNAs, snoRNAs, rRNAs). Notably, five were in the transcription region and
423 thirteen were in the vicinity (>0 kb and ≤ 50 kb) of start or end of the RNA gene transcription region.
424 They received low scores, since many have no reported function or disease association **to date** (Table 3,
425 Supplementary Excel File 10, **Supplementary Figure 11, Supplementary Table 7**). Our ranking of genes
426 based on functional information existing in the public domain does not necessarily represent the true
427 order of importance for refractive error pathogenesis. The observation that genes with strong statistical
428 association were distributed over all scores supports this concept. Nevertheless, this list may help to select
429 genes for subsequent functional studies.

430 Finally, integration of all aforementioned data with findings from literature allowed us to annotate
431 a large number of genes to ocular cell types (Figure 6). Remarkably, all cell types of the retina harbored
432 refractive error genes, as well as the RPE, vascular endothelium, and extracellular matrix.

433

434 **Genetic pleiotropy**

435 We performed a GWAS catalogue look up using FUMA to investigate overlap of genes with other
436 common traits (Supplementary Figure 13)⁷⁵. Refractive error and hyperopia were replicated significantly
437 after correcting for multiple testing (adjusted P value 1.44×10^{-52} and 9.34×10^{-9} , respectively). We found
438 significant overlap with 74 other traits, of which height (adjusted P value 1.11×10^{-10}), obesity (adjusted
439 P value 1.38×10^{-10}), and BMI (adjusted P value 4.05×10^{-7}) were most important. Ocular traits
440 significantly associated were glaucoma (optic cup area, intraocular pressure; adjusted P values 2.69×10^{-5}
441 and 3.01×10^{-5} , respectively) and age-related macular degeneration (adjusted P value 1.27×10^{-3}).

442

443

444 **DISCUSSION**

445 Myopia may become the leading cause of world blindness in the near future, a grim outlook for which
446 current counteractions are still insufficient^{11,76}. To improve understanding of the genetic landscape and
447 biology of the refractive error trait, we conducted a large GWAS meta-analysis in 160,420 participants of
448 mixed ancestry and replicated in 95,505 participants. This led to the identification of 139 independent
449 susceptibility loci by single variant analysis and 22 additional loci through post-GWAS methods, a four-
450 fold increase in refractive error genes. The majority of annotated genes were found to be expressed in the
451 human posterior segment of the eye. Using in silico analysis, we identified significant biological
452 pathways, of which retinal cell physiology, light processing, and specifically glutamate receptor signaling
453 were the most prominent mechanisms. Our integrated bio-informatic approach highlighted known ocular
454 functionality for many genes.

455 To ensure robustness of our genetic associations, we included studies of various designs and
456 populations, sought replication in an independent cohort of significant sample size, and stringently
457 accounted for population stratification by performing genomic control at all stages of the meta-analysis⁷⁷.

458 With this approach, we internally replicated all loci from CREAM in 23andMe, and replicated a
459 considerable proportion of the 23andMe loci in CREAM. We combined studies with outcomes based on
460 actual refractive error measurements as well as on self-reported age-of-myopia-onset, and found the
461 direction-of-effect of the associated variants, as well as their effect size, to be remarkably consistent.
462 Combining two different outcome measures may appear unconventional, but age of onset and refractive
463 error have been shown to be very tightly correlated^{11,28}. Each year of earlier onset leads to a higher degree
464 of myopia^{78,79}. Moreover, the high genetic correlation of common SNPs between the two phenotypes
465 underscores their similarity. Most compelling evidence was provided by replication of 86% of the
466 discovered variants in the independent UKEV cohort which also used conventional refractive error
467 measurements. This robustness indicates that both phenotypic outcomes (SphE and AODM) can be used
468 to capture a shared source of genetic variation. In addition, we found trans-ethnic replication of
469 significant loci, and a high per-allele correlation of genetic effects of common variants in the Europeans
470 and Asians. Our findings support a largely shared genetic predisposition to refractive error and myopia in
471 the two ethnicities, although ancestry-specific allelic effects may exist. The low heritability estimate in
472 Asians may, in part, be explained by the low representation of this ethnicity in our study sample.
473 Alternatively, it may imply that environmental factors explain a greater proportion of the phenotypic risk
474 and recent rise in myopia prevalence in this ancestry group⁸⁰.

475 Limitations of our study were the possibility of false negative findings due to genomic control,
476 and underrepresentation of studies with Asian ancestry. Heterogeneity of observed effect estimates was
477 large for several associated variants, but not unexpected given the large number of collaborating studies
478 with varying methodology.

479 Although neurotransmission was already a suggested pathway in our previous studies^{26,27}, our
480 current pathway analyses provide more in depth insights into the retinal circuitry driving refractive error.
481 DEPICT identified ‘thin retinal outer nuclear layer’, ‘detection of light stimulus’, and ‘nonmotile primary
482 cilium’ as the most important meta-gene sets. These are the main characteristics of photoreceptors, which
483 are located in the outer retina and contain cilia. These photosensitive cells drive the phototransduction

484 cascade in response to light, which in turn induces visual information processing. IPA pointed towards
485 glutamate receptor signaling as the most significant pathway. Glutamate is released by photoreceptors and
486 determines conductance of retinal signaling to the ON and OFF bipolar cells⁸¹. Our functional gene look
487 ups provide evidence that rod as well as cone bipolar cells play a role (rod: *CLU*; cone: *GNB3*). Taken
488 together, these findings strongly suggest that light response and light processing in the retina are initiating
489 factors leading to refractive error.

490 The genetic association with light dependent pathways may also link to the well-established
491 protective effect of outdoor exposure on myopia. We found suggestive evidence for a genetic association
492 with *DRD1*, the dopamine receptor D1 gene. The dopaminergic pathway has been studied extensively in
493 animal models for its role in controlling eye growth in response to light^{69,71,82-91}. *DRD1* was found to be a
494 mediator in this process, as bright light increased DRD1 activity in the bipolar ON-pathway, and
495 diminished form deprivation myopia in mice. Blockage of DRD1 reversed this inhibitory effect⁹². We did
496 not find evidence for direct involvement of other genes in the dopamine pathway, but *GNB3* may be an
497 indirect modifier as it is a downstream signaling molecule of dopamine and has been shown to influence
498 availability of the dopamine transporter DAT⁹³. Although a promising target for therapy, further evidence
499 of *DRD1* in human myopiagenesis is warranted.

500 Novel pathways elicited by the newly identified genes are anterior segment morphology
501 (*TCF7L2*, *VIPR2*, *MAF*) and angiogenesis (*FLT1*). In addition, the high number of variants residing near
502 small RNA genes suggests that post-transcriptional regulation is an important mechanism, as these RNAs
503 are known to play a distinct and central regulatory role in cells⁹⁴. These findings will serve as leads for
504 future studies performing detailed mapping of cellular networks, and functional studies into genes
505 implicated in ocular phenotypes, harboring protein-altering variants, and proven drug targets.

506 Our evaluation of shared genetics between refractive error and other disease-relevant phenotypes
507 highlighted overlap with anthropometric traits such as height, obesity, and BMI. This could give valuable
508 additional clues as to the phenotypic outcomes of perturbations of some of the networks identified.

509 Our genetic observations add credence to the current notion that refractive errors are caused by a
510 retina-to-sclera signaling cascade that induces scleral remodeling in response to light stimuli. The concept
511 of this cascade originates from various animal models showing that form deprivation, retinal defocus and
512 contrast, ambient light, and wavelength can influence eye growth in young animals⁹⁵⁻⁹⁷. Cell-specific
513 moieties in this putative signaling cascade in humans were largely unknown, although animal models
514 implicated GABA, dopamine, all-trans-retinoic acid and TGF- β ^{69,91,98,99}. Our study provides a large
515 number of new molecular candidates for this cascade, and clearly shows that a wide range of neuronal cell
516 types in the retina, the RPE, the vascular endothelium, as well as components of the extracellular matrix
517 are implicated (Figure 6). The many interprotein relationships (Figure 4) exemplify the complexity of eye
518 growth, and provide a challenge to develop strategies to prevent pathological eye elongation.

519 **In conclusion, by using a cross-ancestry design in the largest study population on common**
520 **refractive errors to date,** we uncovered numerous novel loci and pathways involved in eye growth. Our
521 multi-disciplinary approach incorporating GWAS data with *in silico* analyses and expression experiments
522 provides an example for the design of future genetic studies for complex traits. Additional genetic insights
523 into refractive errors will be gained by increasing sample size, greater genotyping depth, family studies
524 for identifying rare alleles of large effect, and by evaluating population extremes. Our list of plausible
525 genes and pathways provide a plethora of data for future studies focusing on gene-environment
526 interaction, and on translation of GWAS findings into starting points for therapy.

527

528

529 ONLINE METHODS

530 Ethics Statement

531 All human research was approved by the relevant institutional review boards and conducted according to
532 the Declaration of Helsinki. All CREAM participants provided written informed consent; all 23andMe
533 applicants provided informed consent online, and answered surveys according to 23andMe's human
534 subjects protocol, which was reviewed and approved by Ethical & Independent Review Services, an
535 AAHRPP-accredited institutional review board.

536 Study data

537 The study populations were participants of the Consortium for Refractive Error and Myopia (CREAM)
538 comprising of 41,793 individuals with European ancestry from 26 cohorts (CREAM-EUR) and 11,935
539 individuals with Asian ancestry from 8 studies (CREAM-ASN); and customers of the 23andMe genetic
540 testing company who gave informed consent for inclusion in research studies consisting of 104,293
541 individuals (2 cohorts of individuals with European ancestry, $N=12,128$ and $N=92,165$, respectively).
542 All participants included in this analysis from CREAM and 23andMe were aged 25 years or older.
543 Participants with conditions that could alter refraction, such as cataract surgery, laser
544 refractive procedures, retinal detachment surgery, keratoconus as well as ocular or systemic syndromes
545 were excluded from the analyses. Recruitment and ascertainment strategies varied per study
546 (Supplementary Table 1a,b, and Supplementary Methods 3). Refractive error represented by
547 measurements of refraction and analyzed as spherical equivalent (SphE =spherical refractive error + 1/2
548 cylinder refractive error) was the outcome variable for CREAM; myopic refractive error represented by
549 self-reported age of diagnosis of myopia (AODM) for 23andMe²⁷.

550

551 **Genotype calling and imputation**

552 Samples were genotyped on different platforms and study specific quality control measures of the
553 genotyped variants were implemented before association analysis (Supplementary Table 1a). Genotypes
554 were imputed using the appropriate ancestry-matched reference panel for all cohorts from the 1000
555 Genomes Project (Phase I version 3, March 2012 release) with either minimac¹⁰⁰ or IMPUTE^{101,102}. The
556 metrics for pre-imputation quality control varied amongst studies, but genotype call rate thresholds were
557 set at high level (≥ 0.95 for both CREAM and 23andMe). These metrics were similar to our previous
558 GWAS analyses^{26,27}; details per cohort can be found in Supplementary Table 1a.

559 **GWAS per study**

560 For each CREAM cohort, a single marker analysis for the SphE (in diopters) phenotype was carried out
561 using linear regression adjusting for age, sex and up to the first five principal components. All non-
562 family-based cohorts removed one of each pair of relatives (after detection using either GCTA or
563 IBS/IBD analysis). In family-based cohorts, a score test-based association was used to adjust for within-
564 family relatedness^{103,104}. For the 23andMe participants, Cox proportional hazards analysis testing AODM
565 as the dependent variable were performed as previously described²⁷, with *P* values calculated using a
566 likelihood ratio test for the single marker genotype term. We used an additive SNP allelic effect model for
567 all analyses.

568

569 **Centralized quality control per study**

570 After individual GWAS, all studies underwent a second round of quality control (QC). Quantile-quantile,
571 effect allele frequency, *P* – *Z* test, standard error – sample size, and genomic control inflation factor plots
572 were generated for each individual cohort using EasyQC¹⁰⁵ (Supplementary Figure 2.1, 2.2, 2.3). All
573 analytical issues discovered during this QC step were resolved per individual cohort.

574

575 **GWAS meta-analyses**

576 The GWAS meta-analyses were performed in three stages (Supplementary Figure 1). In Stage 1,
577 European (CREAM-EUR) and Asian (CREAM-ASN) participants from the CREAM cohort were meta-
578 analysed separately. Subsequently, all CREAM cohorts (CREAM-ALL) were meta-analysed. Variants
579 with MAF < 1% or imputation quality score < 0.3 (info metric of IMPUTE) or Rsq < 0.3 (minimac) were
580 excluded. A fixed effects inverse variance-weighted meta-analysis was performed using METAL¹⁰⁶. In all
581 stages, each genetic variant had to be represented by at least half of the entire study population **and at**
582 **least represented by 13 cohorts in CREAM and one cohort in 23andMe**. For SNPs with high
583 heterogeneity (at $P < 0.05$), we also performed a random effects meta-analysis using METASOFT⁵⁰. In
584 Stage 2, a meta-analysis of the two 23andMe cohorts was performed, using similar filtering but a lower
585 MAF threshold (< 0.5%). In Stage 3, CREAM-ALL and 23andMe samples were combined using a fixed
586 effects meta-analysis based on P values and direction of effect.

587 In Stage 3, we chose a different weighting scheme due to the differences in effect size scaling; 23andMe
588 used a less accurate phenotype variable (AODM); i.e. the *effective* sample size of the 23andMe was
589 approximately equivalent to the *effective* sample size of CREAM-ALL (Figure 2b), thus weighting by
590 $(1/\sqrt{n_{\text{effective}}})$ yielded a final weighting ratio of 1:1^{107,108}. Genome-wide statistical significance was defined
591 at $P < 5.0 \times 10^{-8}$ ¹⁰⁹. All three meta-analysis stages were performed under genomic control. Study specific
592 and meta-analysis lambda (λ) estimates are shown in **Supplementary Figure 7**; to check for confounding
593 biases (e.g. cryptic relatedness and population stratification), LD score intercepts from LD score
594 regressions per ancestry were constructed (**Supplementary Figure 8**)³⁰. To check the robustness of signals,
595 we performed a conventional random effects models using METASOFT, fixed effects models weighted
596 on sample size and on weights estimated from standard error per allele tested using METAL
597 (**Supplementary Excel Files 1 and Supplementary Excel Files 2**).

598 Manhattan (modified version of package ‘qqman’), regional, box, and forest plots were made using R
599 version 3.2.3 and LocusZoom¹¹⁰. An overview of the Hardy Weinberg P values of all index variants per

600 cohort can be found in [Supplementary Excel File 3](#). The comparison between refractive error and age-of-
601 onset was performed using the LDSC program³⁰.

602

603 **Population stratification and heritability calculations**

604 Each study assessed the degree of genetic admixture and stratification in their study participants through
605 the use of principal components. Homogeneity of participants was assured by removal of all individuals
606 whose ancestry did not match the prevailing ancestral group. We used genomic inflation factors to control
607 for admixture and stratification, and performed genomic-controlled meta-analysis to account for the
608 effects of any residual heterogeneity. To further distinguish between inflation from a true polygenic signal
609 and population stratification, we examined the relationship between test statistics and linkage
610 disequilibrium (LD) with LDSC. CREAM-EUR, CREAM-ASN and 23andMe were evaluated separately;
611 variants not present in HapMap3 and MAF < 1% were excluded. SNP heritability estimates were
612 calculated using LDSC for the same set of genetic variants.

613 **Locus definition and annotation**

614 All study effect size estimates were oriented to the positive strand of the NCBI Build 37 reference
615 sequence of the human genome. The index variant of a locus was defined as the variant with the lowest *P*
616 value in a region spanning a 100 kb window of the most outer genome wide significant variant of that
617 same region. We annotated all index variants using the web-based version of ANNOVAR¹¹¹ based on
618 UCSC Known Gene Database³⁵. For variants within the coding sequence or 5' or 3' untranslated regions
619 of a gene, that gene was assigned to the index variant (note that this led to more than 1 gene being
620 assigned to variants located within the transcription units of multiple, overlapping genes). For variants in
621 intergenic regions, the nearest 5' gene and the nearest 3' gene were assigned to the variant. Index variants
622 were annotated to functional RNA elements when described as such in the UCSC Known Gene Database.

623 We used conservation (PhyloP¹¹²) and prediction tools (SIFT³⁹, Mutation Taster¹¹³, align GVGD^{40,41},
624 PolyPhen-2³⁶) to predict the pathogenicity of protein-altering exonic variants.

625

626 **Conditional signal analysis**

627

628 We performed conditional analysis to identify additional independent signals nearby the index variant at
629 each locus, using GCTA-COJO³². We transformed the Z-scores of the summary statistics to beta's using
630 the following formula: $\text{Standard Error} = \sqrt{1/2 * N * MAF(1 - MAF)}$. We performed the GCTA-COJO
631 analysis³², utilizing summary-level statistics from the meta-analysis on all cohorts. Linkage
632 disequilibrium (LD) between variants was estimated from the Rotterdam Study I-III.

633

634 **Replication in UK Biobank**

635 The UK Biobank Eye & Vision (UKEV) Consortium performed a GWAS of refractive error in 95,505
636 participants of European ancestry aged 37-73 year with no history of eye disorders³³. Refractive error was
637 measured using an autorefractor; SphE was calculated per eye and averaged between the two eyes. To
638 account for relatedness a mixed model analysis with BOLT-LMM was used¹¹⁴, including age, gender,
639 genotyping array, and the first 10 principal components as covariates. Analysis was restricted to markers
640 present on the HRC reference panel¹¹⁵. We performed lookups for all independent genetic variants
641 identified in our Stage 3 meta-analysis and conditional analysis. For variants not present in UKEV, we
642 performed lookups for a surrogate variant in high LD ($r^2 > 0.8$). When more than one potential surrogate
643 variant was available, the variant in strongest LD with the index variant was selected.

644

645 **Post-GWAS analyses**

646 We performed two gene-based tests to identify additional significant genes not found in the single variant
647 analysis. First, we applied the gene-based test implemented in fastBAT⁴² to the per-variant summary
648 statistics of the meta-analysis of all European cohorts (23andMe and CREAM-EUR). We used the default

649 parameters (all variants in or within 50kb of a gene) and focused on variants with a gene-based P value
650 $<2 \times 10^{-6}$ (Bonferroni correction based on 25,000 genes) and the per-variant P value $>5 \times 10^{-8}$. Secondly,
651 we applied another gene-based test in EUGENE⁴³ which only includes variants which are eQTLs (GTex,
652 blood¹¹⁶). EUGENE tests an hypothesis predicated on eQTLs as key drivers of the association signal.
653 eQTLs within 50kb of a gene were included in the test. Genes with EUGENE P value $<2 \times 10^{-6}$ (and not
654 found in the single variant analysis) were considered to be significant. Finally, we used functional
655 annotation information from genome-wide significant loci to reweigh results using fgwas (version
656 0.3.64⁴⁴). This approach is able to identify risk loci that otherwise might not reach the genome-wide
657 significance threshold in standard GWAS. Details about this approach can be found in Supplementary
658 Methods 4.

659

660 **Refractive errors and myopia risk prediction**

661 To assess the risk of the entire range of refractive errors, we computed polygenic risk scores (PGRS) for
662 the population-based Rotterdam Studies (RS) I, RS-II and RS-III using the P values and Z scores from a
663 meta-analysis on CREAM-ALL and 23andMe, excluding the RS I-III cohorts. Only variants with high
664 imputation quality (IMPUTE info score > 0.5 or minimac Rsq > 0.8) and MAF $> 1\%$ were considered. P
665 value-based clumping was performed with PLINK¹¹⁷, using an r^2 threshold of 0.2 and a physical distance
666 threshold of 500 kb, excluding the MHC region. This resulted in a total of 243,938 variants. For each
667 individual in RS-I, RS-II and RS-III ($N = 10,792$), PGRS were calculated using the --score command in
668 PLINK across strata of P value thresholds: 5.0×10^{-8} , 5.0×10^{-7} , 5.0×10^{-6} , 5.0×10^{-5} , 5.0×10^{-4} , 0.005,
669 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.5, 0.8 and 1.0. The proportion of variance explained by each PGRS model was
670 calculated as the difference in the R^2 between two regression models; one where SphE was regressed on
671 age, sex, the first five principal components, and the other also including the PGRS as an additional

672 covariate. Subsequently, AUCs were calculated for myopia ($\text{SphE} \leq -3 \text{ SD}$) versus hyperopia ($\text{SphE} \geq +3$
673 SD).

674

675 **Genetic correlation between ancestries**

676 We used Popcorn⁴⁸ to investigate ancestry-related differences in the genetic architecture of refractive
677 error and myopia. Pairwise analyses were carried out using the GWAS summary statistics from 23andMe
678 ($N = 104,292$), CREAM-EUR ($N = 44,192$) and CREAM-EAS ($N = 9,826$) meta-analyses. Only SNPs
679 with $\text{MAF} \geq 5\%$ were included, resulting in a final set of 3,625,602 SNPs for analyses involving
680 23andMe and 3,642,928 SNPs for the CREAM-EUR versus CREAM-EAS analysis. Reference panels
681 were constructed using genotype data from 503 European and 504 East Asian individuals sequenced as
682 part of the 1000 Genomes Project (release 2013-05-02 downloaded from: [ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk](ftp://1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk)).
683 The reference panel VCF files were filtered using PLINK¹¹⁷ to remove indels, strand-ambiguous variants,
684 variants without an “rs” id prefix, and variants located in the MHC region on chromosome 6
685 (chr6:25,000,000-33,500,000; Build 37).

686

687 **Analysis between phenotypes**

688 To evaluate consistency of genotypic effects across studies that employed different phenotype definitions,
689 we compared effect sizes from GWAS studies of either SphE or AODM in Europeans, i.e. CREAM-EUR
690 ($N = 44,192$) or 23andMe ($N = 104,293$) respectively. Marker-wise additive genetic effect sizes (in units
691 diopters per copy of the risk allele) for SphE were compared against those (in units $\log(\text{HR})$ per copy of
692 the risk allele) for AODM. Data was visualised using R. Genetic correlation between the two phenotypes
693 SphE and AODM was calculated using LD score regression. This analysis included all common SNPs
694 ($\text{MAF} > 0.01$) present in HapMap3.

695

696 **Evidence for functional involvement**

697 In order to rank genes according to biological plausibility, we scored annotated genes based on our own
698 findings and published reports for a potential functional role in refractive error. Points were assigned for
699 each gene on the basis of 10 categories (details on the methodology per category are provided in
700 Supplementary Methods 3): internal replication of index genetic variants in the individual cohort GWAS
701 analyses through Bonferroni corrections (CREAM-ASN, CREAM-EUR and 23andMe; $p_{Bonferroni}$ 1.10
702 $\times 10^{-4}$), evidence for eQTL using the FUMA³² and extensive look-ups in GtEx, evidence of expression in
703 the eye in developmental and adult ocular tissues, presence of an eye phenotype in knock-out mice (MGI
704 and IMPC database), presence of an eye phenotype in humans (OMIM¹¹⁸ (<http://omim.org>),
705 DisGeNET¹¹⁹), location in a functional region of a gene (wANNOVAR), presence of the gene in a
706 significant enriched functional pathway with false discovery rate < 0.05 (DEPICT⁴⁹), presence of the gene
707 in the gene priority analysis of DEPICT with false discovery rate < 0.05 and the presence of the gene in
708 the canonical pathway analysis of Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA;
709 <http://www.ingenuity.com/index.html>). Furthermore, we performed a systematic search for each gene to
710 assess its potential as a drug target (SuperTarget¹²⁰, STITCH¹²¹, DrugBank¹²², PharmaGkb¹²³). All
711 information derived from this study and literature were used to annotate genes to retinal cell types.

712

713 **Genetic pleiotropy**

714 To investigate overlap of genes with other common traits, we performed a look-up in the GWAS catalog
715 using FUMA. Multiple testing correction (i.e. Benjamini-Hochberg) was performed. Traits were
716 significantly associated when adjusted P value ≤ 0.05 and the number of genes that overlap with the
717 GWAS catalog gene sets was ≥ 2 .

718

719 **Data availability statement**

720 The summary statistics of the Stage 3 meta-analysis are included in supplementary information files of
721 this published article. In order to protect the privacy of the participants in our cohorts, further summary
722 statistics of Stage 1 (CREAM) and Stage 2 (23andMe) will be available upon request. Please contact

723 c.c.w.klaver@erasmusmc.nl (CREAM) and/or apply.research@23andMe.com (23andMe) for more
724 information and to access the data.

725

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729 **Supplementary Note.**

730

731

732 **Author contributions**

733 M.S.T., V.J.M.V., S.M., J.A.G., A.I.I.G., R.W., P.G.H., A.I.I.G., and E.M.v.L. performed the analyses.
734 C.C.W.K., V.J.M.V., M.S.T., R.W., J.A.G., and S.M. drafted the manuscript, and C.J.H., P.G.H., A.P.K.,
735 C.M.v.D., D.S., E.M.v.L., J.E.B.W., J.T., N.A.F., Q.F., S.M.S., and V.V. critically reviewed the
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738 R.P.I., R.W., T.H., T.H.S.A., T.Z., V.V., W.Y.S., W.Z., X.L.S., Y.C.H., Y.S., and Y.Y.T. performed data
739 analysis for the individual studies; and A.D.P., A.G.U., A.T., A.W.H., B.E.K.K., C.C.W.K., C.D., C.H.,
740 C.J.H., C.W., C.Y.C., D.A.M., F.R., G.Be., H.M.H., J.A.G., J.B.J., J.E.B.W., J.E.C., J.F.W., J.H.L.,
741 J.R.V., J.S.Ra., J.S.Ri., J.T., K.Y., M.A.M.S., N.G.M., N.P., O.Po., O.Pa., O.T.R., P.Gu., P.J.F., P.M.,
742 P.N.B., R.K., S.K.I., S.M.S., T.L., T.M., W.Z., Y.C.H., and Y.X.W. contributed to data assembly.
743 A.A.B.B., A.W., C.Gr., D.S., K.N.W., S.W.J.T., and T.Y. performed expression experiments, and M.S.T.,
744 A.A.B.B., P.J.v.d.S., and R.Ha. performed in silico pathway analyses. C.C.W.K. and C.J.H. conceived
745 and designed the outline of the current report, and jointly with A.M., A.H., A.W.H., C.D., C.H., C.J.H.,
746 C.M.v.D., C.W., C.Y.C., D.A.M., D.S., E.S.T., F.M., G.Bi., I.R., J.A.G., J.B.J., J.E.B.W., J.E.C., J.F.W.,
747 J.H.L., J.R.V., J.T., N.A., N.A.F., N.P., O.Pa., O.T.R., P.J.F., P.N.B., S.K.I., S.M.S., T.L., T.Y.W., T.Y.,
748 V.V., Y.X.W., and Y.Y.T. supervised conduction of experiments and analyses.

749

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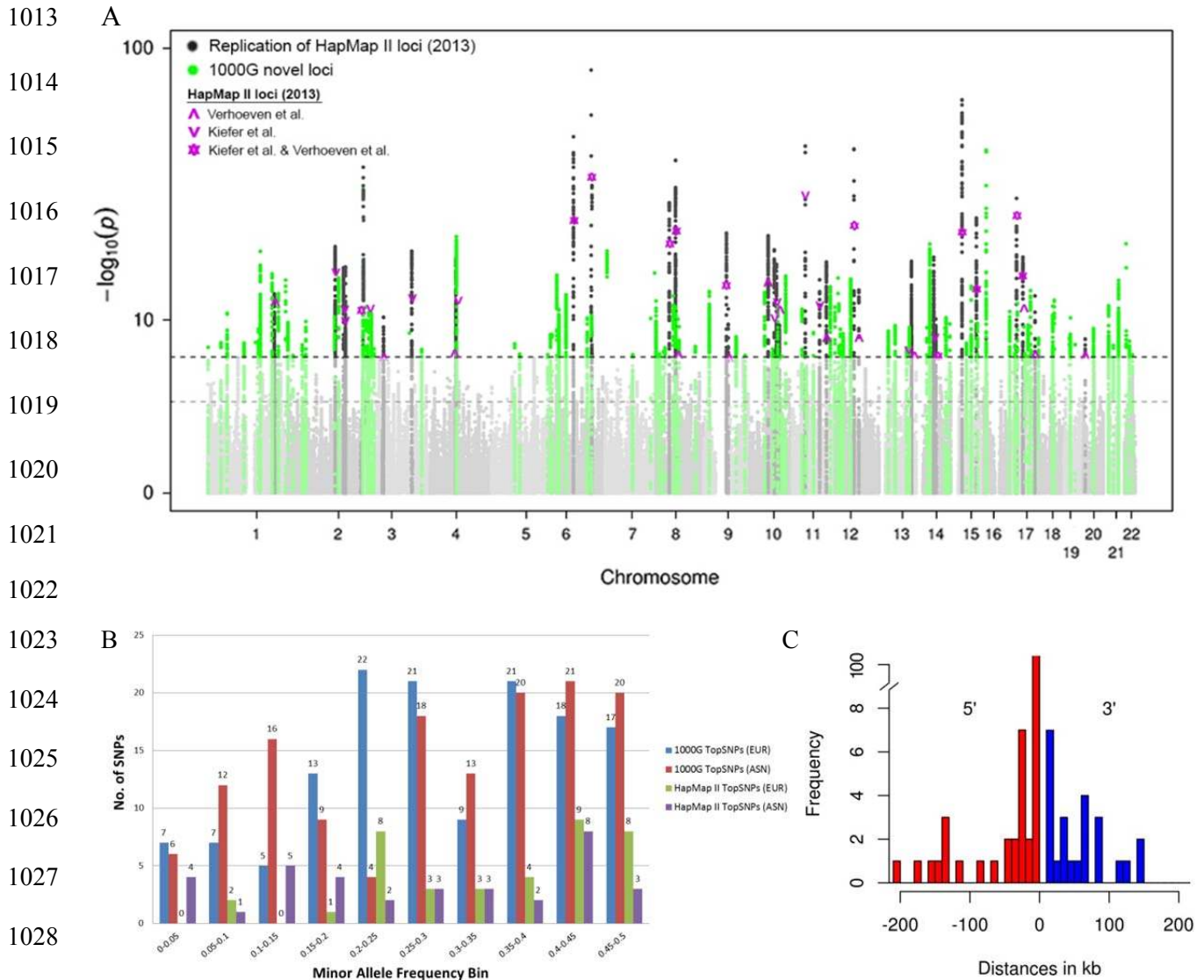
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1012 **Figure 1. GWAS meta-analysis identifies 140 loci for refractive error (Stage 3)**



1030 (a) We conducted a meta-analysis of genome-wide single-variant analyses for >10 million variants in
1031 160,420 participants of CREAM and 23andMe (Stage 3). Shown is the Manhattan plot depicting P values
1032 for association, highlighting new ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ for the first time; green) and known (dark grey) refractive
1033 error loci previously found using HapMap II imputations from Kiefer et al.²⁷ and Verhoeven et al.²⁶
1034 (Table 1). The horizontal lines indicate suggestive significance ($P = 1 \times 10^{-5}$) or genome-wide

1035 significance ($P = 5 \times 10^{-8}$). **(b)** We compared the minor allele frequencies of the 140 discovered index
1036 variants based on 1000G (blue: Europeans; red: Asians) to the minor allele frequencies of the previously
1037 found genetic variants based on HapMap II (green: Europeans; purple: Asians). Observed are an increase
1038 in genetic variants found across all minor allele frequency bins increase, including the lower minor allele
1039 frequency bins. **(c)** We annotated the 167 loci to genes using wANNOVAR. Shown are the distances
1040 between index variants from the nearest gene and its gene on the 5' and/or 3' site. The majority of index
1041 variants (84%) were at a distance of less than 50 kb up- or downstream from the annotated gene.
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Table 1. Results of the meta-analysis of CREAM and 23andMe for the previously-identified loci and a subset of the newly-identified loci, and replication in UK Biobank

Table 1a Replication of the HapMap II index variants for refractive error per locus in the Stage 3 meta-analysis

SNP	Chr.	Position	Nearest Loci And Gene(s)	Effect Allele	Other Allele	EAf EUR	EAf ASN	Z-score	Direction	P value	HetISq	HetPVal	Sample Size (N)	HapMap II Discovery (2013)	Category (I=both GWS in Stage 1 and 2, 2=one of two cohorts (CREAM or 23andMe) GWS, 3= both not GWS in Stage 1 or 2)	P value Replication UKBB
rs10500355	16	7459347	RBFOX1	A	T	0.354	0.1334	-13.73	--	6.49E-43	9.1	2.93E-07	160139	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al.	I	2.50E-48
rs11145465	9	71766593	TJP2	A	C	0.212	NA	-9.55	--	1.35E-21	46.3	0.1722	153174	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al.	I	1.00E-10
rs11178469	12	71275137	PTPRR	T	C	0.752	0.6384	-7.40	--	1.33E-13	0	0.6989	160139	Verhoeven et al.	II (CREAM)	2.60E-04
rs11602008	11	40149305	LRRRC4C	A	T	0.822	0.7488	13.98	++	2.12E-44	22.5	1.56E-10	157505	Kiefer et al.	II (23andMe)	2.90E-47
rs12193446	6	129820038	BC035400, LAMA2	A	G	0.906	NA	-19.43	--	4.21E-84	16.8	5.72E-15	150269	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al.	I	4.60E-106
rs1550094	2	233385396	CHRNA1, PRSS56	A	G	0.701	0.705	12.74	++	3.64E-37	26.3	0.002705	159422	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al., Kiefer et al.	I	4.10E-59
rs1649068	10	60304864	BICC1	A	C	0.475	0.5044	-9.44	--	3.77E-21	0	0.7118	160144	Verhoeven et al.	I	7.50E-11
rs17382981	10	94953258	CYP26A1, MYOF	T	C	0.417	0.1901	-6.31	--	2.72E-10	67.9	0.07737	155332	Verhoeven et al.	II (CREAM)	4.10E-07
rs17428076	2	172851936	HAT1, METAP1D	C	G	0.768	0.8542	-8.18	--	2.77E-16	0	0.002854	160151	Kiefer et al.	II (23andMe)	7.50E-08
rs1858001	1	207488004	C4BPA, CD55	C	G	0.676	0.4151	7.28	++	3.45E-13	59.6	0.02007	160149	Verhoeven et al.	II (CREAM)	6.70E-20
rs1954761	11	105596885	GRIA4	T	C	0.371	0.3772	-8.40	--	4.57E-17	0	0.911	160122	Verhoeven et al.	I	1.20E-16
rs2155413	11	84634790	DLG2	A	C	0.482	0.6549	-7.76	--	8.85E-15	0	0.0002987	159504	Kiefer et al.	II (23andMe)	1.10E-17
rs235770	20	6761765	BMP2	T	C	0.372	0.3875	-5.93	--	3.11E-09	0	0.5474	157521	Verhoeven et al.	II (23andMe)	4.80E-11
rs2573081	2	178828507	PDE11A	C	G	0.524	0.5378	8.21	++	2.18E-16	47.6	0.1672	160126	Kiefer et al.	II (23andMe)	1.60E-29
rs2753462	14	60850703	JB175233, C14orf39	C	G	0.296	0.5679	-6.49	--	8.37E-11	73.9	0.05032	157352	Verhoeven et al.	II (CREAM)	2.00E-15
rs2855530	14	54421917	BMP4	C	G	0.507	0.4736	-8.58	--	9.87E-18	41.7	0.1904	160092	Kiefer et al.	I	4.80E-22
rs2908972	17	11407259	SHISA6	A	T	0.415	0.4879	-11.13	--	9.46E-29	23	0.2544	160123	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al.	I	6.10E-29
rs3138141	12	56115778	BLOC1S1-RDHS, RDHS	A	C	0.214	0.1472	13.80	++	2.46E-43	3.2	5.05E-07	157531	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al.	I	2.30E-56
rs4687586	3	53837971	CACNA1D	C	G	0.691	NA	-6.55	--	5.86E-11	0	0.6046	150217	Verhoeven et al.	III	1.60E-08
rs4793501	17	68718734	KCNJ2, BC039327	T	C	0.575	0.444	-7.21	--	5.53E-13	0	0.5917	160150	Verhoeven et al.	II (CREAM)	3.70E-12
rs524952	15	35005886	GOLGA8B, GJD2	A	T	0.475	0.5077	-17.08	--	2.28E-65	67.2	0.01544	160150	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al.	I	1.60E-103
rs56075542	2	146882415	BC040861, PABPC1P2	T	G	0.552	0.4726	-8.99	--	2.39E-19	13.9	0.001284	159478	Kiefer et al.	II (23andMe)	1.30E-18
rs62070229	17	31227593	MYO1D, TMEM98	A	G	0.807	0.8747	8.58	++	9.64E-18	0	0.4158	156570	Verhoeven et al.	I	1.30E-18
rs6495367	15	79375347	RASGRF1	A	G	0.408	0.3988	-10.20	--	1.95E-24	0	0.667	160144	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al.	I	7.20E-37
rs7042950	9	77149837	RORB	A	G	0.732	0.3924	6.80	++	1.07E-11	0	0.9122	160153	Verhoeven et al.	III	2.90E-18
rs72621438	8	60178580	SNORA51, CA8	C	G	0.642	0.6089	-13.14	--	2.03E-39	38.4	0.00559	160128	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al.	I	1.80E-49
rs745480	10	85986554	LRRRC4C	C	G	0.511	0.4182	8.31	++	9.26E-17	67.3	0.0805	159504	Kiefer et al.	II (23andMe)	8.20E-18
rs7624084	3	141093285	ZBTB38	T	C	0.568	0.6332	-8.81	--	1.24E-18	18.5	0.01802	160151	Kiefer et al.	II (23andMe)	6.50E-17
rs7662551	4	80537638	LOC100506035, PCAT4	A	G	0.723	0.5577	8.53	++	1.47E-17	19.4	0.2653	160147	Verhoeven et al.	I	6.00E-12
rs7692381	4	81903049	C4orf22, BMP3	A	G	0.763	0.6308	9.40	++	5.55E-21	0	0.01253	160134	Kiefer et al.	I	7.50E-13
rs7744813	6	73643289	KCNQ5	A	C	0.591	0.6017	-14.56	--	5.43E-48	35	0.001132	160091	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al.	I	1.00E-75
rs7829127	8	40726394	ZMAT4	A	G	0.792	0.8974	-10.91	--	1.02E-27	15.9	0.0002774	160132	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al.	II (23andMe)	3.10E-22
rs7895108	10	79061458	KCNMA1	T	G	0.351	0.1182	-8.87	--	7.56E-19	32.8	0.02115	160140	Kiefer et al.	II (23andMe)	1.10E-27
rs79266634	16	7309047	RBFOX1	C	G	0.093	0.1151	-5.93	--	3.00E-09	0	0.5614	156268	Kiefer et al. & Verhoeven et al.	III	1.50E-08
rs837323	13	101175664	PCCA	T	C	0.512	0.7625	6.32	++	2.65E-10	35.6	0.2129	160142	Verhoeven et al.	II (23andMe)	5.30E-16
rs9517964	13	100717833	ZIC2, PCCA	T	C	0.589	0.786	8.42	++	3.68E-17	0	0.01962	160121	Kiefer et al.	II (23andMe)	3.40E-20

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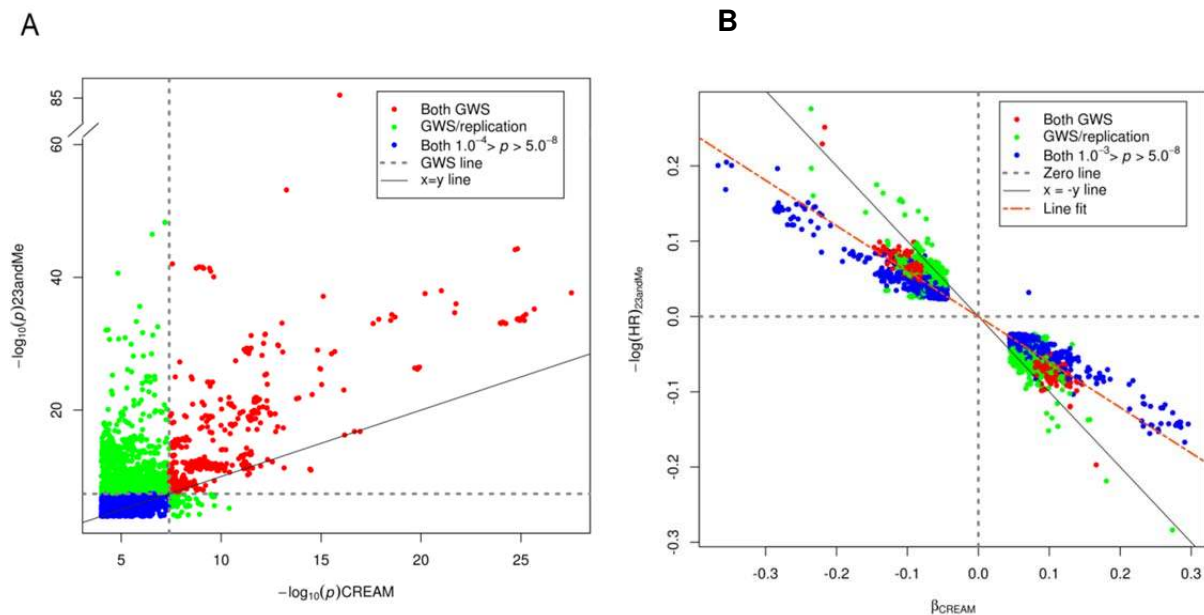
Table 1b Subset of the new loci harboring the smallest p-values for refractive error in the Stage 3 meta-analysis

SNP	Chr.	Position	Nearest Loci And Gene(s)	Effect Allele	Other Allele	EAF EUR	EAF ASN	Z-score	Direction	P value	Het1Sq	HetPval	Sample Size (N)	Category (I=both GWS in Stage 1 and 2, 2=one of two cohorts (CREAM or 23andMe) GWS, 3=not GWS in Stage 1 or 2)	P value Replication UKBB
rs36024104	14	42294993	LRFN5	A	G	0.823	NA	9.09	++	9.86E-20	15.9	0.01414	152585	II (23andMe)	2.20E-12
rs7456039	7	6901710	CCZ1B,LOC100131257	C	G	0.183	NA	8.82	++	1.18E-18	42.1	3.79E-12	121337	II (23andMe)	6.50E-01
rs1556867	1	164213686	5S_rRNA,PBX1	T	C	0.264	0.494	-8.81	--	1.29E-18	71.1	0.06266	160155	II (23andMe)	4.20E-17
rs12667032	7	154406581	DPP6	A	G	0.152	0.317	7.99	++	1.31E-15	82.3	1.02E-11	130790	II (23andMe)	2.10E-01
rs2225986	1	200311910	LINC00862	A	T	0.381	0.169	-7.96	--	1.68E-15	40.2	0.196	160152	II (23andMe)	7.50E-17
rs1207782	6	22059967	LINC00340	T	C	0.577	0.265	-7.92	--	2.47E-15	0	0.8946	160149	I	4.90E-13
rs72826094	10	114801488	TCF7L2	A	T	0.799	0.838	7.88	++	3.20E-15	64.5	0.09323	156825	II (23andMe)	4.90E-02
rs297593	2	157363743	GPD2	T	C	0.286	0.257	-7.82	--	5.45E-15	0	0.5285	159461	II (23andMe)	7.80E-11
rs5442	12	6954864	GNB3	A	G	0.068	NA	-7.82	--	5.48E-15	8.8	0.03693	146217	II (23andMe)	1.20E-33
rs10880855	12	46144855	ARID2	T	C	0.507	0.464	-7.78	--	7.35E-15	0	0.9683	160144	I	4.80E-08
rs12405776	1	242431557	PLD5	T	C	0.220	0.521	7.75	++	9.52E-15	64.9	3.56E-10	153784	II (23andMe)	1.50E-01
rs2150458	21	47377296	PCBP3,COL6A1	A	G	0.455	0.641	7.74	++	1.04E-14	55.7	0.1329	160151	II (23andMe)	1.80E-13
rs12898755	15	63574641	APH1B	A	G	0.245	0.456	7.53	++	4.98E-14	7.9	0.2974	159506	II (23andMe)	1.40E-16
rs7122817	11	117657679	DSCAML1	A	G	0.507	0.662	7.51	++	5.73E-14	73.8	0.05077	160147	II (23andMe)	1.10E-10
rs10511652	9	18362865	SH3GL2,ADAMTSL1	A	G	0.416	0.445	7.36	++	1.91E-13	44.8	0.1782	160149	II (23andMe)	3.50E-18
rs11101263	10	49414181	FRMPD2	T	C	0.258	0.105	-7.33	--	2.33E-13	0	0.3477	160155	II (23andMe)	2.20E-13
rs11118367	1	219790221	LYPLAL1	T	C	0.482	0.630	-7.29	--	3.16E-13	0	0.8576	160141	III	1.20E-13
rs9395623	6	50757699	TFAP2D,TFAP2B	A	T	0.315	0.381	7.25	++	4.16E-13	0	0.9579	160151	III	2.20E-10
rs284816	8	53362145	ST18,FAM150A	A	G	0.163	0.198	-7.21	--	5.52E-13	0	0.9242	160140	III	1.60E-08
rs12965607	18	47391025	MYO5B	T	G	0.857	0.923	7.07	++	1.52E-12	20.8	0.01674	157604	II (23andMe)	8.10E-16
rs7747	4	80827062	ANTXR2	T	C	0.202	0.093	7.03	++	2.05E-12	5.4	0.01267	150327	II (23andMe)	7.70E-16
rs12451582	17	54734643	NOG,C17orf67	A	G	0.369	0.308	7.02	++	2.22E-12	0	0.5925	160155	II (23andMe)	8.80E-18
rs80253120	17	14138507	CDRT15	T	C	0.626	0.723	6.97	++	3.25E-12	58.6	0.12	156054	II (23andMe)	7.20E-11
22:23069851:1	22	23069851	DKFZp667J0810,abParts	ATG	A	0.084	0.1582	6.95	--	3.56E-12	98.5	4.80E-16	120481	II (23andMe)	9.30E-01
rs7968679	12	9313304	PZP	A	G	0.700	0.894	6.95	++	3.65E-12	0	0.01951	160076	II (23andMe)	4.20E-10
rs11202736	10	90142203	RNLS	A	T	0.717	0.762	-6.92	--	4.53E-12	0	0.4007	160150	II (23andMe)	9.40E-07
rs11088317	21	16574122	NRIP1,USP25	T	C	0.287	0.299	-6.90	--	5.38E-12	72.5	0.05657	160116	II (23andMe)	6.50E-06
rs10853531	18	42824449	SLC14A2	A	G	0.200	0.182	6.88	++	5.89E-12	0	0.6755	160104	III	2.60E-10
rs72655575	8	60556509	SNORA51,CA8	A	C	0.201	0.124	6.87	++	6.54E-12	0	0.8811	156566	I	7.10E-07
rs12998513	2	242879499	CXXC11,AK097934	A	G	0.880	0.676	-6.86	+-	7.15E-12	65.2	4.51E-14	117611	II (23andMe)	7.80E-01
rs1790165	11	131928971	NTM	A	C	0.411	0.283	6.85	++	7.17E-12	0	0.003708	160131	II (23andMe)	1.80E-10
rs511217	11	30029948	METTL15,KCNA4	A	T	0.738	0.729	-6.79	--	1.10E-11	0	0.3626	160143	II (23andMe)	1.40E-17
rs1150687	6	28162469	ZNF192P1,TRNA_Ser	T	C	0.619	0.504	6.78	++	1.17E-11	56.2	0.131	159448	II (23andMe)	3.10E-10
rs56055503	16	80532694	MAF,DYNLRB2	A	G	0.751	0.539	-6.72	--	1.83E-11	0	0.8407	160145	II (23andMe)	8.00E-06
rs9681162	3	8194734	AK124857,LMCD1-AS1	T	C	0.680	0.437	6.70	++	2.10E-11	63	0.1002	160152	II (23andMe)	6.30E-13
rs11589487	1	61342229	AK097193,BC030753	A	G	0.445	0.089	6.67	++	2.64E-11	34.6	0.2163	160143	II (23andMe)	2.20E-10

We identified 140 loci for refractive error with genome-wide significance ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) on the basis of the meta-analyses of the genome-wide single-variant linear regressions performed in 160,420 participants of mixed ancestries (CREAM-ASN, CREAM-EUR and 23andMe). Shown are the replication of the previously found loci from HapMap II and a subset of the new loci harboring the smallest p-values. For each locus, represented by an index variant (the variant with smallest p-value in that locus), Effect Allele, Other Allele, effect allele frequencies per ancestry (EAF AZN and EAF EUR), effect size (Z-score), direction of the effect (Direction), the P value, heterogeneity I square (Het1Sq), heterogeneity P value (HetPval), Sample Size (N), Category and P value of the replication in UK Biobank are shown (Full table: Supplementary Excel Table 1). Chr., chromosome; EAF, effect allele frequency; ASN, Asian; EUR, European; GWS, genome wide significant; UKBB, United Kingdom Biobank.

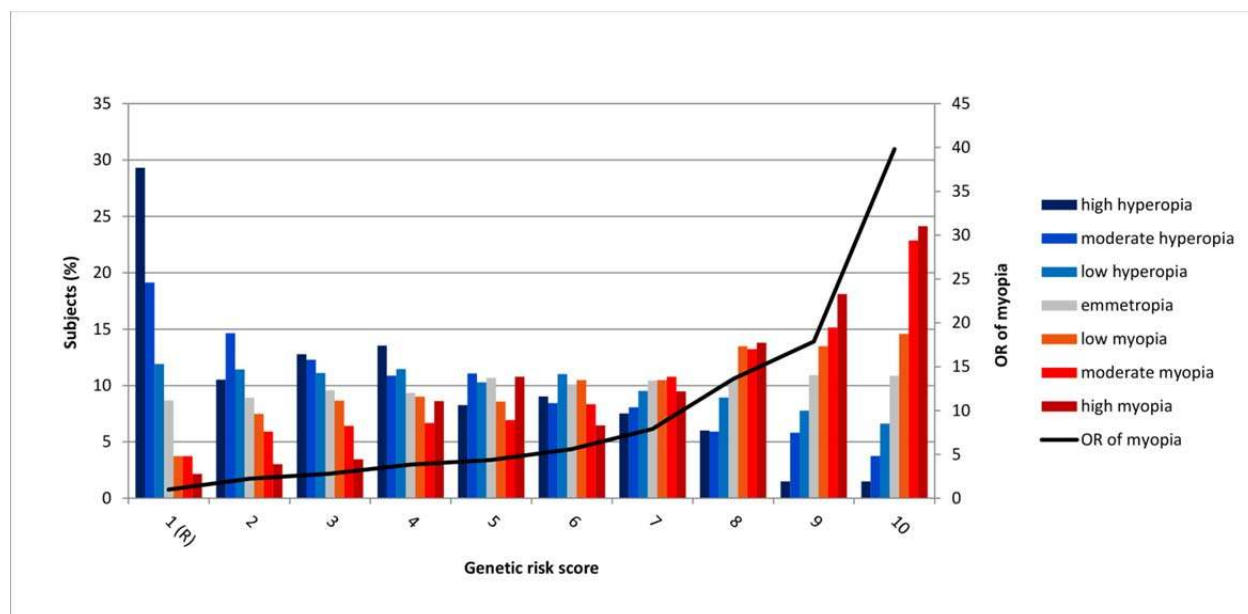
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 1054 **Figure 2. Correlation of statistical significance and effect size of SNPs based on spherical equivalent**
 1055 **(SphE) in diopters and age of diagnosis of myopia (AODM) in years.**



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 1058 **(a)** *P* value per genetic variant comparison between CREAM meta-analysis (Stage 1) and 23andMe
 1059 (Stage 2) meta-analysis. Shown is the overlap (red) and the difference (green) in *P* value signals per
 1060 cohort for genetic variants. Green genetic variants are only genome wide significant in either CREAM or
 1061 23andMe. Blue: genetic variants with *P* value between 5.0×10^{-8} and 1.0×10^{-3} in both CREAM and
 1062 23andMe. **(b)** Comparison of effects (SphE and logHR of AODM in years) between CREAM and
 1063 23andMe. Same color code was applied as in (a). The effects were concordant in their direction of effect
 1064 on refractive error. The regression slope is -0.15 diopters per logHR of AODM in years.

1065 **Figure 3. Risk of refractive error per decile of polygenic risk score (Rotterdam Study I-III, N =**
 1066 **10,792)**



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 1068 Distribution of refractive error in subjects from Rotterdam Study I–III ($N = 10,792$) as a function
 1069 of the optimal polygenic risk score (including 7,303 variants at P value ≤ 0.005 explaining 7.8% of the
 1070 variance of SphE; Supplementary Table 9). Mean OR of myopia (black line) was calculated per polygenic
 1071 risk score category using the lowest category as a reference. High myopia (SphE ≤ -6 D), moderate
 1072 myopia (SphE > -6 D & ≤ -3 D), low myopia (SphE > -3 D & < -1.5 D), emmetropia (SphE ≥ -1.5 D and
 1073 ≤ 1.5 D), low hyperopia (SphE > 1.5 D & < 3 D), moderate hyperopia (SphE ≥ 3 D & < 6 D), high
 1074 hyperopia (SphE ≥ 6 D).
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1076 **Table 1. Genetic correlation for refractive error between Europeans and East Asians**

Sample 1	Sample 2	Genetic effect correlation (<i>pge</i>) a	Genetic impact correlation (<i>pgi</i>) ^a
EUR CREAM	EAS CREAM	0.804 (se=0.041) $P = 1.83 \times 10^{-6}$	0.888 (se=0.061) $P = 0.065$
EUR 23andMe	EAS CREAM	0.788 (se=0.041) $P = 2.48 \times 10^{-7}$	0.865 (se=0.054) $P = 0.014$
Abbreviations: EUR, European; EAS, East Asian.			
^a P-value relates to a test of the null hypothesis that $pge=1$ or $pgi=1$.			

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1078 We calculated the genetic correlation of effect (*pge*) and impact (*pgi*) using Popcorn to compare the

1079 genetic associations between Europeans (CREAM-EUR, N= 44,192; 23andMe, N=104,292) and East

1080 Asians (CREAM-ASN, N= 9,826). Reference panels for Popcorn were constructed using genotype data

1081 for 503 EUR and 504 EAS individuals sequenced as part of the 1000 Genomes Project. SNPs used had a

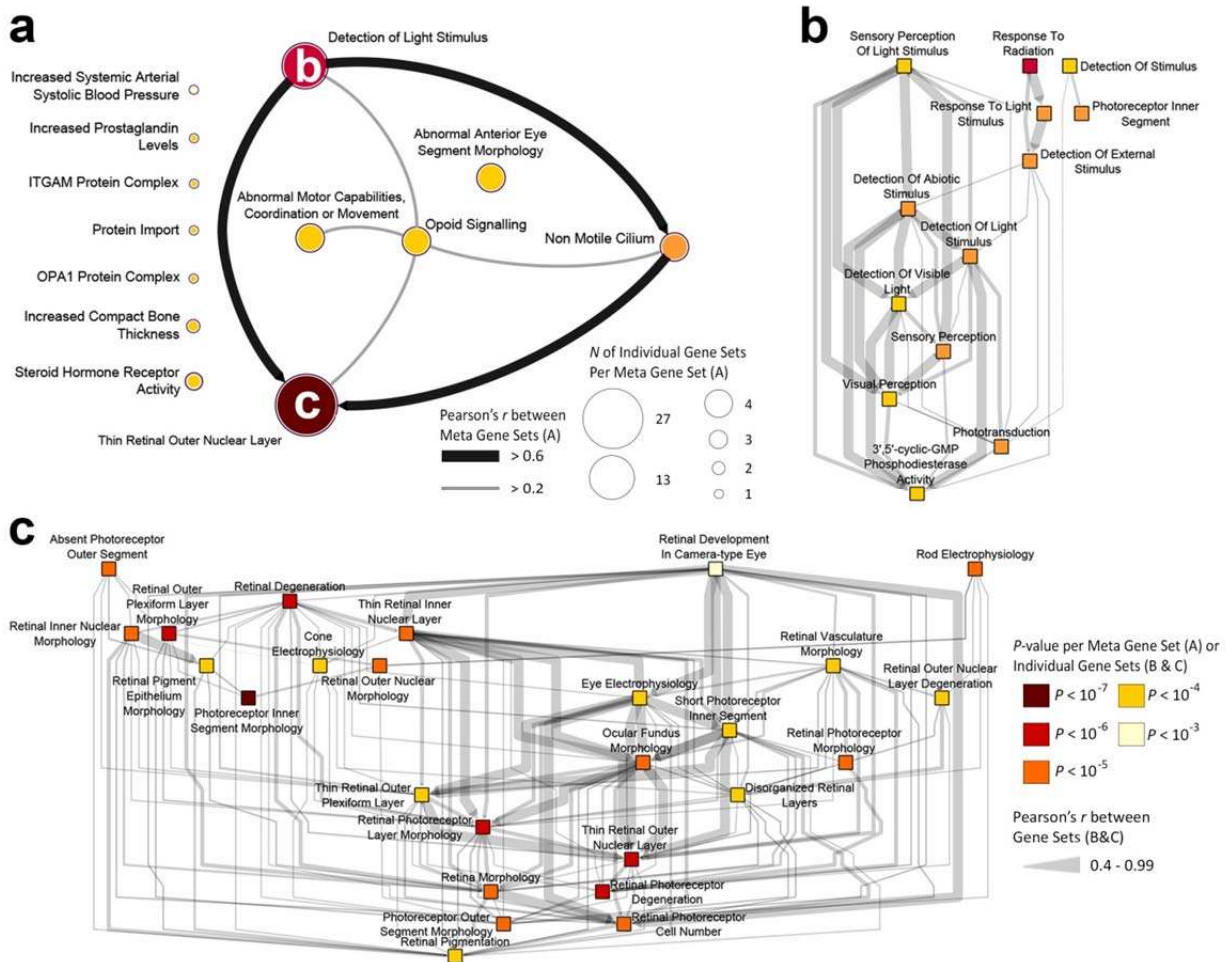
1082 MAF of at least 5% in both populations, resulting in a final set of 3,625,602 SNPs for the analyses using

1083 the 23andMe GWAS sample and 3,642,928 SNPs for those using the CREAM-EUR sample. These

1084 findings support a largely common genetic predisposition to refractive error and myopia in Europeans and

1085 Asians, although ancestry-specific risk alleles may exist.

1086 **Figure 4. Visualization of the DEPICT gene-set enrichment analysis based on loci associated with**
 1087 **refractive error and the correlation between the (meta)gene sets**



1088
 1089 **(a)** Shown are the 66 gene sets clustered into thirteen meta gene sets based on the gene set enrichment
 1090 analysis of DEPICT (P value $< 1 \times 10^{-5}$ in the GWAS, $FDR < 0.05$). **(b)** Visualization of the
 1091 interconnectivity between gene sets ($n=13$) of the meta gene set ‘Detection of Light Stimulus’
 1092 (GO:0009583). **(c)** Visualization of the interconnectivity between gene sets ($n=27$) of the largest meta
 1093 gene set ‘Thin Retinal Outer Nuclear Layer’ (MP:0008515). In all panels, (meta)gene sets are represented
 1094 by nodes colored according to statistical significance, and similarities between them are indicated by
 1095 edges scaled according to their correlation; $r \geq 0.2$ are shown in panel **(a)** and $r \geq 0.4$ are shown in panel
 1096 **(b,c)**.

1097

Table 2. Genes ranked according to biological and statistical evidence

LOCUS	Score	Σ	1	ANNOTATION*				EXPRESSION			BIOLOGY		PATHWAYS			Known Drug Target	
				1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		
			Gene Priority Score	Internal Replication (≥2 cohorts)	Exonic: Protein Altering	Exonic: Non-Protein Altering	5' or 3' UTR	RNA (nc, sno, linc, other)	eQTL	Expression in human adult ocular tissue	Expression in human developing ocular tissue (fetal - 24 weeks)	Ocular phenotype in mice	Ocular phenotype in human	DEPICT gene-set enrichment	DEPICT gene prioritization	IPA Canonical Pathways	
GNB3	8																
RDH5	7																
CYP26A1	7																
EFEMP1	7																
GRIA4	7																
RGR	7																
RORB	7																
RCBTB1	6																
MAF	6																
ZEB2	6																
KCNMA1	6																
TJP2	6																
ST18	6																
FBN1	6																
KCNJ2	6																
GJD2	6																
CABP4	6																
TCF7L2	6																
PRSS56	6																

1098

1099

Genes were ranked (orange) based on 10 equal categories which can be divided in four categories:

1100

internal replication of genetic variant in more than two cohorts (purple; CREAM-EUR, CREAM-ASN

1101

and/or 23andMe), annotation (light blue; genetic variant harboring an exonic protein altering variant or

1102

non-protein altering variant, genetic variant residing in a 5' or 3' UTR region of a gene or transcribing an

1103

RNA structure), expression (yellow; eQTL, expression in adult human ocular tissue, expression in

1104

developing ocular tissue), biology (dark yellow; ocular phenotype in mice, ocular phenotype in humans),

1105

pathways (green; DEPICT gene-set enrichment, DEPICT gene prioritization analysis and canonical

1106

pathway analysis of IPA). We assessed genes harboring drug targets (salmon red), but did not assign a

1107

scoring point to this category.

1108

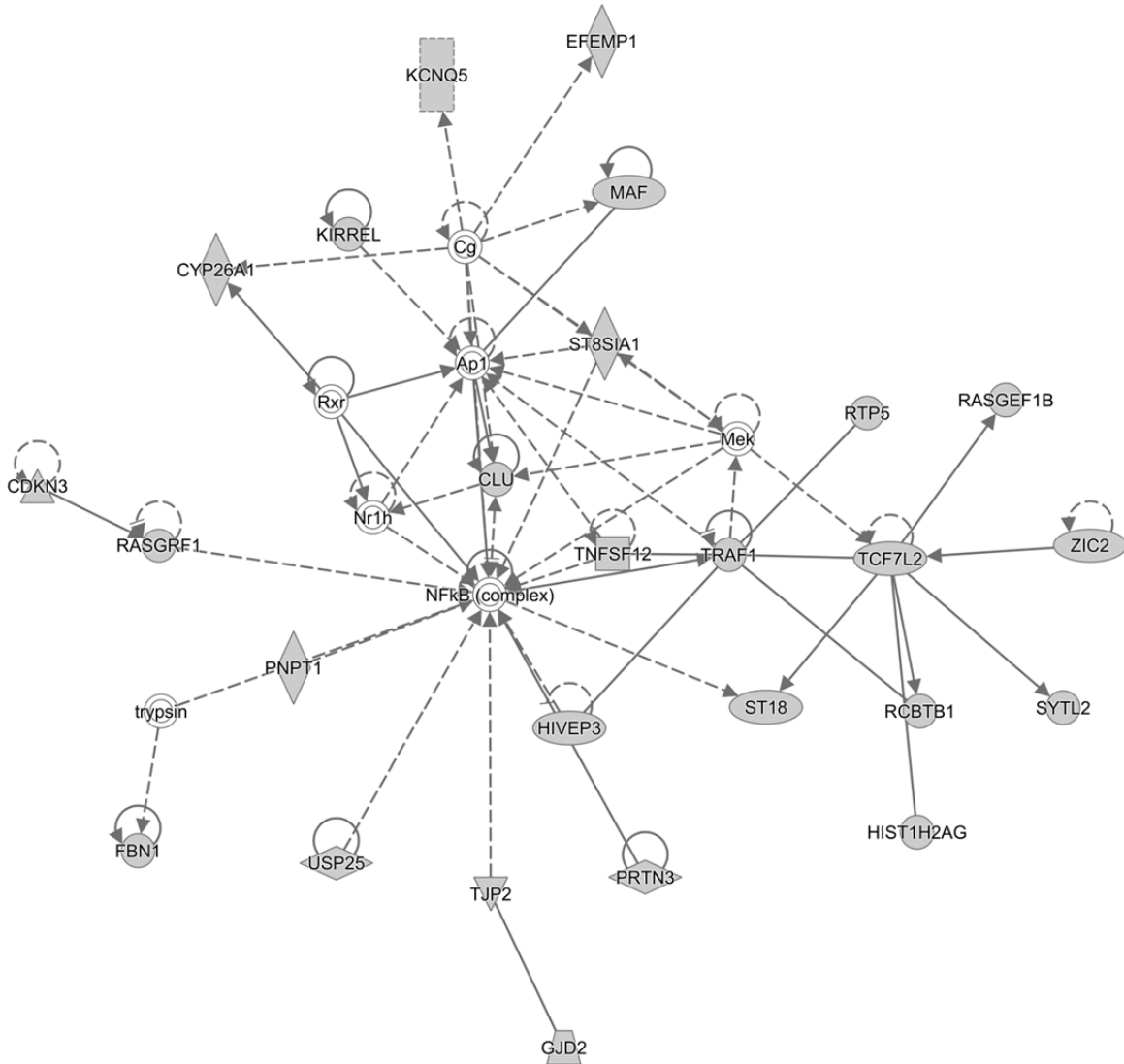
1109

*Only one point can be assigned in the category 'ANNOTATION', even though it has four columns (i.e.

1110

a genetic variant is located in only 1 of these four categories).

1111 **Figure 5. Top molecular network identified by Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA)**

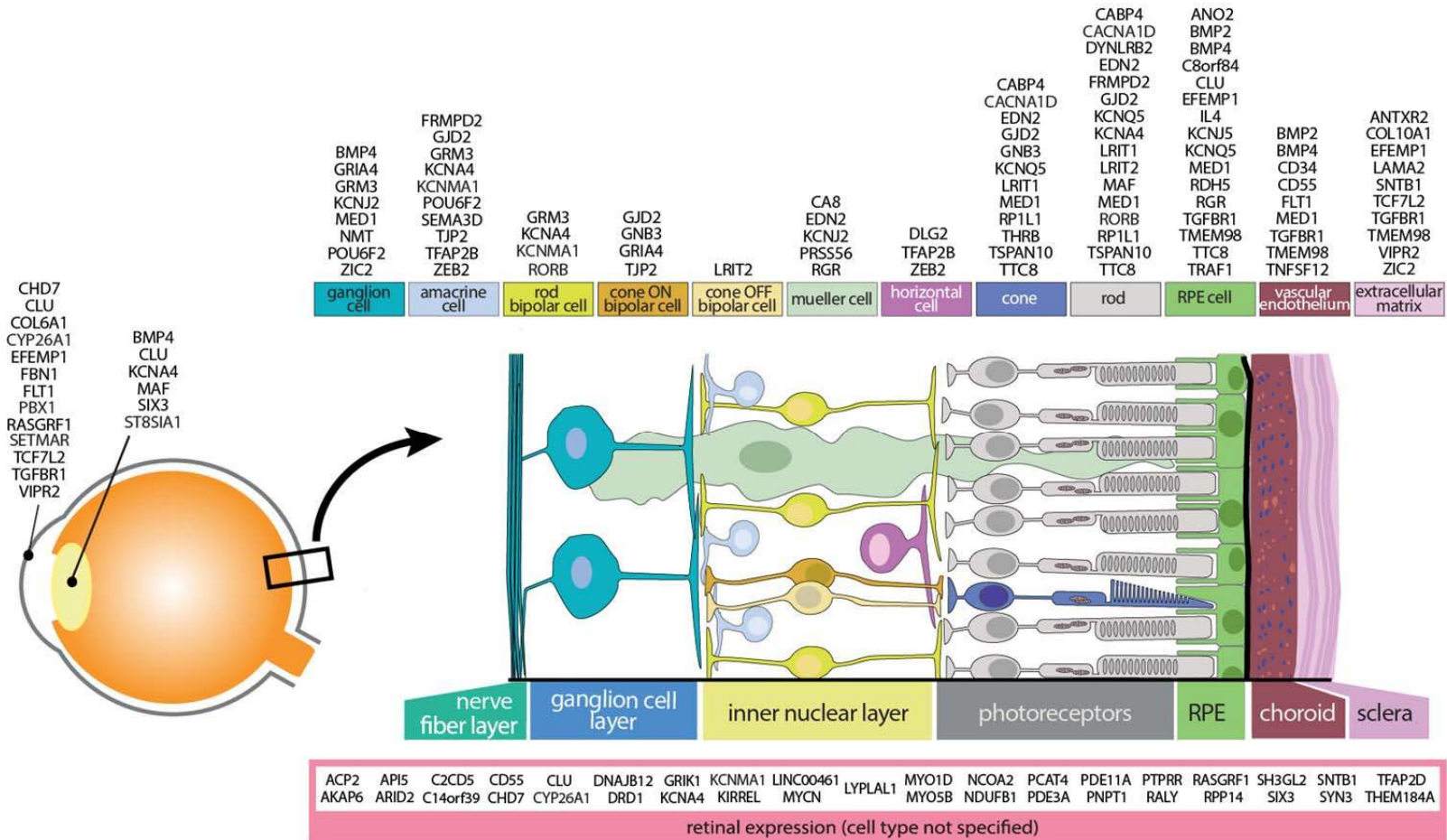


1112

1113

1114 The genes annotated to the top hits identified at Stage 3 were mapped to networks and pathways present
 1115 in the IPA database. The most significant network identified by Fisher's exact test was 'Glutamate
 1116 Receptor Signaling' (P value= 1.56×10^{-4}). Genes within the network indicated in grey are genes
 1117 associated with refractive error. Other significant pathways are depicted in Supplementary Figure 10.

1118 **Figure 6. Schematic representation of the human eye, retinal cell types, and functional sites of associated genes**



1119

1120 We assessed gene expression sites and/or functional target cells in the eye for all genes using our expression data and literature and data present in
 1121 the public domain. The genes appear to be distributed across virtually all cell types in the neurosensory retina, in the RPE, vascular endothelium
 1122 and extracellular matrix; i.e., the route of the myopic retina-to-sclera signalling cascade.

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