



Evaluation of reported pathogenic variants and their frequencies in a Japanese population based on a whole-genome reference panel of 2049 individuals

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Abstract

Clarifying allele frequencies of disease-related genetic variants in a population is important in genomic medicine; however, such data is not yet available for the Japanese population. To estimate frequencies of actionable pathogenic variants in the Japanese population, we examined the reported pathological variants in genes recommended by the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics (ACMG) in our reference panel of genomic variations, 2KJPN, which was created by whole-genome sequencing of 2049 individuals of the resident cohort of the Tohoku Medical Megabank Project. We searched for pathogenic variants in 2KJPN for 57 autosomal ACMG-recommended genes responsible for 26 diseases and then examined their frequencies. By referring to public databases of pathogenic variations, we identified 143 reported pathogenic variants in 2KJPN for the 57 ACMG recommended genes based on a classification system. At the individual level, 21% of the individuals were found to have at least one reported pathogenic allele. We then conducted a literature survey to review the variants and to check for evidence of pathogenicity. Our results suggest that a substantial number of people have reported pathogenic alleles for the ACMG genes, and reviewing variants is indispensable for constructing the information infrastructure of genomic medicine for the Japanese population.

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Introduction

One of the main goals of medical genomics is the development of personalized medicine and personalized health-care based on individual genomes. Large-scale sequencing of individual genomes from cohort participants [1–3] provides us with a catalog of numerous genomic variants

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whose frequencies range from rare to common, as well as a set of phased variants in individual haplotypes. Such genomic variation data of local populations are valuable resources. Thus, this data allows for genome-wide association studies aimed at finding disease-related variants by using phased variants for genotype imputation [4]. In addition to binary phenotypic traits, studying association with quantitative traits, such as metabolomics in plasma, is also valuable to reveal genetic susceptibility to proximal phenotypes at the molecular level [5]. Another important use of this data is to allow for detection of rare and pathogenic variants, and to estimate their population frequencies.

Large-scale genome sequencing of volunteers from general residents provides valuable data for the field of medical genomics; however, whole genome sequencing (WGS) or whole exome sequencing (WES) [6, 7] may uncover other clinically relevant variants in addition to specific findings intended by a particular project. Therefore, it raises an important problem: how can researchers use and manage secondary findings, which may be deliberately sought, or incidental findings (accidental discoveries) from WGS or WES studies? In this situation, the American Colleges of Medical Genetics and Genomics (ACMG) recommends that clinical sequencing laboratories return pathogenic variants of 24 conditions (56 genes) in 2013, and recently updated this list to include 26 diseases (59 genes) [8, 9] as a minimum set for returning secondary findings, which were selected from the viewpoint of medical actionability. Although medical actionability depends on the clinical systems in the society, it is important to estimate population frequencies of the genetic variants in the ACMG gene list to improve social welfare.

Since the ACMG released their recommendations, several groups have tried to estimate frequencies of actionable variants in 56 genes for diverse samples and by using different methods [10–15]. Using WGS or WES data, some studies [15, 16] tried to estimate the frequencies of pathogenic variants in the recommended genes for European and African ancestries, and target populations of the 1000 Genomes Project. Although East Asian populations were analyzed in the 1000 Genomes Project, the number of individuals for each population was not significant enough to detect rare pathogenic variants and frequency estimations. Therefore, the frequencies of low-frequency pathogenic variants in the Japanese population have not been characterized well.

Tohoku University Tohoku Medical Megabank Organization (ToMMo) initiated genome cohort studies [17] along with Iwate Medical University to promote research in medical genomics aiming to realize personalized healthcare. As the first step towards our goal, deep WGS of more than 2000 cohort participants was performed, and the reference

panel for the Japanese population, 2KJPN, was constructed [18, 19]. In this study, we report the first examination of population frequencies of the responsible genomic variants in the actionable ACMG genes by using 2KJPN and public annotations in the Human Gene Mutation Database (HGMD) [20] and ClinVar [21]. We found that 21% of the individuals had at least one reported pathogenic variant for the 57 autosomal ACMG genes, suggesting that not a small proportion of individuals may have some risk allele for the actionable genes. In addition, we performed manual inspections of some variants through extensive literature surveys, and found that there were many discrepancies between the two public annotations. Some reported disease mutations can be benign variants, and a few variants were lacking enough evidence for the Japanese population. These results indicate that we need to construct an information infrastructure of pathogenic variants for the Japanese population through appropriate variant review and interpretations, ultimately allowing for personalized healthcare for the Japanese population.

Materials and Methods

Subjects and data for single nucleotide variation

We used the 2KJPN whole genome reference panel (2049 individuals) of the Tohoku Medical Megabank Project, which was created using the approach same as that used for the 1KJPN panel (1070 individuals) [18]. Briefly, the subjects were selected from the participants of the resident cohort study [17], and then the genomic DNA of the 2049 individuals obtained from peripheral blood samples was subjected to paired-end sequencing using the Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform (see details in Nagasaki et al. [18]).

This project was performed as a part of prospective cohort studies at ToMMo with the approval of the Ethical Committee of the Tohoku University School of Medicine and ToMMo. The samples used here were obtained from the cohort participants, all of whom gave their written consent. Under the terms of the informed consent provided by the participants in our cohort project, whole genome data including sequenced data, variant calls, and inferred genotypes are securely controlled under the Materials and Information Distribution Review Committee of Tohoku Medical Megabank Project, and the sharing of data with other researchers was discussed in each research proposal by the review committee.

There are two sets of variants in 2KJPN—a high confidence variant set and a high sensitivity variant set. The former set was created with high precision and the latter set was created by maximizing sensitivity. The allele frequency of the high confidence variant set is publicly available

through a portal site, the integrative Japanese Genome Variation Database (iJGVD; <http://ijgvd.megabank.tohoku.ac.jp/>) [19]. In this study, we used both the variant sets (high confidence single nucleotide variations (SNVs) and high sensitive SNVs) for analyses, and the results from the high confidence set were primarily used for subsequent manual inspection. The results of the high sensitive set were also used when additional existing SNVs were suspected. We also used variant frequency data for di-allelic SNVs for 4300 European Americans (EAs) and 2203 African Americans (AAs) from the Exome Sequencing Project (ESP) [22] to compare the allele frequency of each SNV with the corresponding SNV in 2KJPN.

Variant annotation

SnEff software (ver. 3.3c), which is based on the gene annotation model of GENCODE version 17, was used to predict the effects of a variant on its gene product. SNVs were classified into functional categories, such as synonymous, missense, nonsense, intron, 5'-untranslated region (UTR), and 3'-UTR. As a measure to predict pathogenicity, the combined annotation-dependent depletion (CADD) scores [23] were added to each SNV by intersecting the list of the precomputed scores with all possible SNVs. In addition, for low-frequency missense SNVs, the Mendelian Clinically Applicable Pathogenicity (M-CAP) scores [24] were annotated similarly. To identify which SNV is a reported pathogenic variant, we used the Human Gene Mutation Database (HGMD) Professional (2016.2) [20] and ClinVar (2016 September) [21] (Fig. 1). With the ClinVar database, we used entries that included annotations as “pathogenic” or “likely pathogenic.” Overlaps between the SNVs of 2KJPN and the reported pathological variants in HGMD and ClinVar were extracted. Possible pathological SNVs were identified based on the genomic coordinates and the consistency of the allele bases. We identified 6862 pathological SNVs that overlapped with HGMD or ClinVar variants that were annotated as “pathogenic” or “likely pathogenic.” Then we selected the variants for 57 autosomal genes (except for two X-linked genes: *GLA* and *OTC*) recommended by ACMG for the return of genomic results [8] with modifications in 2016 [9].

Filtering variants

To search for disease-causing variants for the 57 autosomal ACMG recommended genes, 2KJPN SNVs that matched the HGMD or ClinVar variants were extracted. Next, we defined the following three categories for these potentially pathogenic variants (Table 1): i) reported pathogenic (RP) variants that were already annotated as “disease-causing mutation (DM)” in HGMD or “pathogenic” in ClinVar; ii)

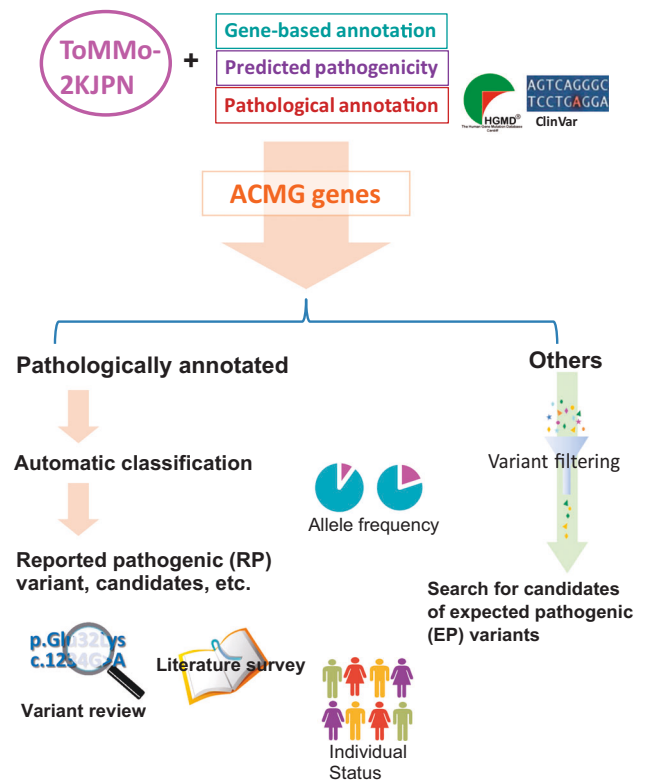


Fig. 1 Scheme of analysis pipeline for identifying reported pathogenic variants for the ACMG genes in 2KJPN. About 28 M SNVs in 2KJPN were annotated with functional and pathological information by using SnEff, HGMD, ClinVar, and CADD. Then variants for the 57 autosomal ACMG genes were selected and used for analysis. For comparison with other ethnic populations, allele frequency of autosomal bi-allelic SNVs for EAs ($n = 4,300$) and AAs ($n = 2,203$) were used

candidates of pathogenic variants (canP) that were already annotated as “DM? (likely disease-causing mutation)” in HGMD or “likely pathogenic” in ClinVar; and iii) disease-associated variants and other types (assoV, etc.). RP and canP variants were filtered by minor allele frequency (MAF) $< 0.5\%$ in 2KJPN, and the pathologically annotated SNVs that existed at the higher frequency ($\geq 0.5\%$) were classified in the third group (assoV, etc.).

Results

A total of 46,822 SNVs, including 1317 with protein-altering mutations and 386 that were identified in HGMD or ClinVar as “pathogenic” or “likely pathogenic”, in the 57 ACMG genes in 2KJPN were selected based on the genomic coordinates of the genes (see Table 2 for statistics, and a whole list of the variants is shown in Supplementary Table 1). After automatically classifying variants as either RP or canP, 143 SNVs with RP variants were detected with the MAF threshold of $< 0.5\%$ (156 RP variants when MAF $<$

Table 1 Automatic classification of pathogenically annotated variants

		HGMD (The Human Gene Mutation Database)			
		DM	DM?	DP, DFP, FP	No overlap
ClinVar	Pathogenic	RP	RP	RP	RP
	Likely pathogenic	RP	canP	canP	canP
	VUS, Benign, other category or no overlap	RP	canP	AssoV, etc.	Disease-relation is unknown.

Pathologically annotated variants were automatically classified into three groups; 1) reported pathogenic variants (RP), 2) candidates of pathogenic variants (CanP), and 3) disease-associated variants and others (AssoV, etc.), based on annotations in HGMD and ClinVar and MAF threshold of 0.5% (see Methods)

DM disease-causing mutation, *DM?* likely disease-causing mutation, *DP* disease-associated polymorphism, *DFP* disease-associated polymorphism with functional support, *FP* functional polymorphism, *VUS* variant of uncertain significance

1%) (Table 2). RP or canP variants were found in 47 genes, but not in *PSM2*, *VHL*, *PTEN*, *SDHAF2*, *SDHC*, *TGFBR1*, *SMAD3*, *TNNI3*, *TPM1*, *MYL3*, *ACTC1*, *PRKAG2*, *MYL2*, *DSC2*, and *AMAD4*. Using the allele frequencies of the RP variants, population frequencies of potential risk alleles were estimated (Table 2). Genes that showed relatively higher population frequencies were *RYR2*, *MSH2*, *MYBPC3*, *ATP7B*, *APC*, and *BRCA2*.

At the individual level, 431 of the 2049 individuals had at least one RP variant for the 26 diseases (Fig. 2). This was based on the automatic classification, which may be overestimated in a proportion of individuals having a real risk allele. We then focused on several diseases, and the reported pathogenic variants were manually inspected through a literature survey. We manually reviewed the detected pathogenic variants that have been previously reported by focusing on the distinct phenotypic effects of variants in a single gene (if any), the allele frequencies, and incidence rates. In addition to the pathogenic variants that were previously reported, we also searched for candidates of expected pathogenic variants based on gene-based annotations and predicted scores of pathogenicity. With thresholds of CADD score >20 or M-CAP [24] score >0.025, 815 SNVs (including 709 missense SNVs) were detected as variants which satisfy a recommended threshold of pathogenicity but lack any pathological annotations in HGMD and ClinVar (Supplementary Table 2). For example, we found three nonsense variants and 37 missense variants in apolipoprotein B gene (*APOB*) that were not pathogenically annotated in HGMD and ClinVar. The three nonsense variants of *APOB* were p.Tyr1578*, p.Ser2128*, and p.Lys2376*, and were all found as singletons. Twenty-three of the 37 missense variants of *APOB* were also found as singletons.

Hereditary breast and ovarian cancer (HBOC)

BRCA1 and *BRCA2* are the major susceptibility genes for HBOC. HBOC has been thought to be less prevalent in the

East Asian countries, including Japan [25]. However, reports of germline genetic variations among patients with breast and ovarian cancers indicated that the population frequency of susceptible genetic variants of HBOC may be higher than that previously thought in the Japanese population [26, 27].

In 2KJPN, we identified three nonsense variants (one in *BRCA1* and two in *BRCA2*) that were reported as responsible variants (Table 3). A nonsense variant, *BRCA1* p.Leu63*, was found in a heterozygous individual in 2KJPN [28]. Interestingly, the *BRCA1* p.Arg1699Gln variant is known to be one of the genetic risk factors for intermediate breast and ovarian cancers [29], and this variant was found in three heterozygous individuals in 2KJPN (MAF = 0.07%). A missense variant, *BRCA1* p.Val271Met (rs80357244), was classified as DM in HGMD and was found in 27 heterozygous individuals (MAF = 0.7%) in 2KJPN. However, this variant was categorized as variant of uncertain significance (VUS) in ClinVar, and was also classified as “polymorphic” by FALCO biosynthesis [26], a private genetic testing company. Therefore, this allele may not have a strong effect on HBOC susceptibility. This allele was found only in East Asians (in the ExAC database) and not in EAs and AAs.

Additionally, two nonsense variants in *BRCA2* were reported as pathogenic and were found in 2KJPN (Table 3). *BRCA2* p.Arg2318* is also one of the known mutations of HBOC in Japan [30], and a heterozygous individual was identified in 2KJPN. The other nonsense variant (p.Arg3384*) in *BRCA2* was identified in two heterozygous individuals. In a previous study [31], this variant (p.Arg3384*) did not result in any cancer predisposition and was classified as a possibly benign variation, probably because this nonsense variant is located at the C-terminus end of the gene product. On the contrary, a missense variant of *BRCA2*, p.Ile2675Val, was detected in a heterozygous individual in 2KJPN and is considered to be a pathogenic variant affecting splicing [32]. Additionally, *BRCA2*

Table 2 Filtering candidate variants and total frequency of RP variants in 2KJPN for 57 autosomal ACMG genes

Condition	Gene	Candidate variants in 2KJPN (2049 individuals)				Sum of Frequency of RP
		All SNV*	Coding effect**	Pathologically annotated***	RP variants	
Hereditary breast and ovarian cancer	<i>BRCA1</i>	414	42	20	5	0.0029
	<i>BRCA2</i>	686	67	31	5	0.0054
Li–Fraumeni syndrome	<i>TP53</i>	95	8	3	2	0.0027
Peutz–Jeghers syndrome	<i>STK11</i>	254	14	2	1	0.0005
Lynch syndrome	<i>MLH1</i>	447	22	11	6	0.0049
	<i>MSH2</i>	721	31	17	6	0.0108
	<i>MSH6</i>	178	29	5	1	0.0005
	<i>PMS2</i>	193	19	4	0	0.0000
Familial adenomatous polyposis	<i>APC</i>	1364	61	11	8	0.0063
MYH-associated polyposis; adenomas, multiple colorectal, FAP type 2; colorectal adenomatous polyposis, autosomal recessive, with pilomatricomas	<i>MUTYH</i>	75	12	7	2	0.0005
Von Hippel–Lindau syndrome	<i>VHL</i>	68	4	1	0	0.0000
Multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1	<i>MEN1</i>	64	9	3	0	0.0000
Multiple endocrine neoplasia type 2; Familial medullary thyroid cancer	<i>RET</i>	741	27	25	3	0.0022
PTEN hamartoma tumor syndrome	<i>PTEN</i>	955	5	1	0	0.0000
Retinoblastoma	<i>RB1</i>	1433	22	3	0	0.0000
Hereditary paraganglioma-pheochromocytoma syndrome	<i>SDHD</i>	68	4	1	1	0.0032
	<i>SDHAF2</i>	112	2	0	0	0.0000
	<i>SDHC</i>	357	4	0	0	0.0000
	<i>SDHB</i>	284	7	2	0	0.0000
Tuberous sclerosis complex	<i>TSC1</i>	423	19	5	0	0.0000
	<i>TSC2</i>	519	44	8	7	0.0020
WT1-related Wilms tumor	<i>WT1</i>	506	11	1	1	0.0029
Neurofibromatosis type 2	<i>NF2</i>	668	8	1	1	0.0015
Ehlers–Danlos syndrome, vascular type	<i>COL3A1</i>	389	27	4	1	0.0041
Marfan syndrome, Loeys–Dietz syndromes, and familial thoracic aortic aneurysms and dissections	<i>FBN1</i>	2453	36	16	4	0.0039
	<i>TGFBR1</i>	469	2	2	0	0.0000
	<i>TGFBR2</i>	1004	10	4	0	0.0000
	<i>SMAD3</i>	1447	15	1	0	0.0000
	<i>ACTA2</i>	597	1	3	0	0.0000
	<i>MYH11</i>	1328	45	4	1	0.0002
Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, dilated cardiomyopathy	<i>MYBPC3</i>	219	26	17	10	0.0107
	<i>MYH7</i>	193	17	7	6	0.0052
	<i>TNNT2</i>	249	6	5	2	0.0010
	<i>TNNI3</i>	23	0	0	0	0.0000
	<i>TPM1</i>	355	6	0	0	0.0000
	<i>MYL3</i>	53	2	0	0	0.0000
	<i>ACTC1</i>	74	2	0	0	0.0000
	<i>PRKAG2</i>	3738	20	4	0	0.0000
	<i>MYL2</i>	73	0	0	0	0.0000
	<i>LMNA</i>	348	13	1	1	0.0003
Catecholaminergic polymorphic ventricular tachycardia	<i>RYR2</i>	8352	55	7	5	0.0130

Table 2 continued

Condition	Gene	Candidate variants in 2KJPN (2049 individuals)				Sum of Frequency of RP
		All SNV*	Coding effect**	Pathologically annotated***	RP variants	
Arrhythmogenic right-ventricular cardiomyopathy	<i>PKP2</i>	904	24	10	2	0.0032
	<i>DSP</i>	450	57	13	5	0.0051
	<i>DSC2</i>	321	16	1	0	0.0000
	<i>TMEM43</i>	216	17	5	0	0.0000
	<i>DSG2</i>	461	36	4	1	0.0012
Romano-Ward long QT syndrome types 1, 2, and 3, Brugada syndrome	<i>KCNQ1</i>	5473	14	14	7	0.0032
	<i>KCNH2</i>	337	27	9	7	0.0035
	<i>SCN5A</i>	1092	39	22	14	0.0052
Familial hypercholesterolemia	<i>LDLR</i>	244	22	10	4	0.0046
	<i>APOB</i>	407	103	10	2	0.0005
	<i>PCSK9</i>	343	34	15	6	0.0017
Malignant hyperthermia	<i>RYR1</i>	994	71	6	3	0.0015
	<i>CACNA1S</i>	875	49	3	1	0.0008
Juvenile polyposis	<i>BMPRIA</i>	1385	8	1	0	0.0000
	<i>SMAD4</i>	493	5	0	0	0.0000
Wilson disease	<i>ATP7B</i>	838	41	26	12	0.0071
Total		46822	1317	386	143	

MAF threshold was set to be <0.5% for selecting RP (reported pathogenic) variants (see Methods and Table 1)

*Selected by genomic map of cDNA region of the gene

**Missense or nonsense variants, and SNVs at splice sites

***SNVs registered in HGMD or ClinVar ("Pathogenic" or "Likely pathogenic")

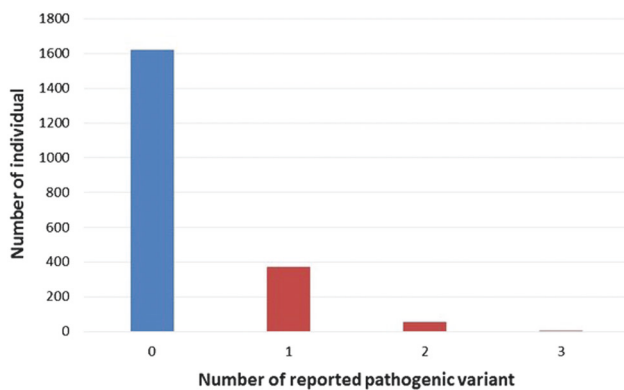


Fig. 2 Statistics of individual status of reported pathogenic variants in 2KJPN. The proportion of individuals who had at least one reported pathogenic variant was 21% (431 of 2049). The MAF threshold of selecting reported pathogenic (RP) variant was <0.5%

p.Gly2044Val, also registered as DM in HGMD, was found in 59 heterozygous individuals in 2KJPN (MAF = 1.4%), and has been classified as "polymorphic" by FALCO biosynthesis [26].

These results suggest that the population frequencies of susceptible variants of HBOC might be much higher in the Japanese population than previously thought, even though we have not included insertions and deletions in our analysis. Because multiple structural variants of *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* associated with HBOC are reported [33], checking for the presence or absence of these variations is essential. Several missense variants with high scores of pathogenicity, such as *BRCA2* p.Gly2508Ser (CADD phred = 35 and M-CAP score [24] = 0.204), would require further studies to determine its association with HBOC, although most of the reported variants with strong effects in the two genes are nonsense or frame-shifting variants.

Lynch syndrome genes

Lynch syndrome (LS) is known to have a familial predisposition of colon cancer accompanied with stomach and endometrial cancers; 3% of newly diagnosed colorectal cancers develop due to LS [34]. Most of the genes responsible for LS are related to the DNA mismatch repair function and are inherited in an autosomal dominant manner

Table 3 Reported pathogenic variants for selected genes

Gene	Classification	Genomic location (hg19)	SNP	Alleles (Ref/Alt)	Frequency	Genotype count		Predicted pathogenicity (CADD)	Variation		ClinVar		HGMD		
						Ref/Ref	Het Alt/Alt		DNA	Prot.	Allele ID	Clinical Significance		Category	Condition
<i>BRCA1</i>	canP	chr17:41197729	rs80357258	T/C	0.0003	1907	1	0	19.80	c.5558 A > G	p.Tyr1853Cys		DM?	Breast and/or ovarian cancer	
<i>BRCA1</i>	RP	chr17:41215947	rs41293459	C/T	0.0007	2044	3	0	29.50	c.5096 G > A	p.Arg1699Gln	46192	DM	Breast and/or ovarian cancer	
<i>BRCA1</i>	RP	chr17:41244100	rs80357272	G/A	0.0005	2044	0	1	17.08	c.3448 C > T	p.Pro1150Ser		DM	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA1</i>	RP	chr17:41244822	rs80357127	T/A	0.0005	2046	2	0	16.13	c.2726 A > T	p.Asn909Ile		DM	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA1</i>	RP	chr17:41246724	rs397509327	C/T	0.0010	2041	4	0	17.66	c.824 G > A	p.Gly275Asp		DM	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA1</i>	canP	chr17:41246753	rs201441987	A/G	0.0007	2044	3	0	12.40	c.795 T > C	p.Ser265Ser		DM?	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA1</i>	RP	chr17:41258497	rs80357086	A/T	0.0002	2047	1	0	34.00	c.188 T > A	p.Leu63*	69048	DM	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	canP	chr13:32893198	rs397507882	T/A	0.0002	2048	1	0	8.87	c.68-16 T > A			DM?	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	canP	chr13:32900706	G/T	G/T	0.0002	2043	1	0	24.40	c.587 G > T	p.Ser196Ile		DM?	Breast and/or ovarian cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	canP	chr13:32906558	rs79483201	T/A	0.0010	2041	4	0	1.33	c.943 T > A	p.Cys315Ser		DM?	Esophageal carcinoma	
<i>BRCA2</i>	canP	chr13:32907183	A/G	A/G	0.0002	2048	1	0	3.58	c.1568 A > G	p.His523Arg		DM?	Esophageal carcinoma	
<i>BRCA2</i>	RP	chr13:32907359	rs80358457	A/C	0.0039	2033	16	0	12.52	c.1744A > C	p.Thr52Pro		DM	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	canP	chr13:32912553	rs80358656	C/T	0.0007	2046	3	0	5.73	c.4061 C > T	p.Thr1354Met		DM?	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	canP	chr13:32914461	rs148618542	A/C	0.0015	2040	6	0	14.62	c.5969 A > C	p.Asp1990Ala		DM?	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	RP	chr13:32920978	rs80358920	C/T	0.0002	2038	1	0	49.00	c.6952 C > T	p.Arg2318*	46632	DM	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	canP	chr13:32929042	rs80358932	C/T	0.0007	2046	3	0	13.14	c.7052 C > G	p.Ala2351Gly		DM?	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	canP	chr13:32930598	rs11571707	T/C	0.0037	2034	15	0	15.18	c.7469 T > C	p.Ile2490Thr		DM?	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	RP	chr13:32930651	rs80358978	G/A	0.0005	2045	2	0	35.00	c.7522 G > A	p.Gly2508Ser		DM	Ovarian cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	RP	chr13:32937362	rs397507954	A/G	0.0002	2040	1	0	20.90	c.8023 A > G	p.Ile2675Val	67143	DM	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	canP	chr13:32972525	rs56121817	C/T	0.0002	2047	1	0	21.90	c.9875 C > T	p.Pro3292Leu		DM?	Breast cancer	
<i>BRCA2</i>	RP	chr13:32972800	rs397507568	C/T	0.0005	2047	2	0	51.00	c.10150 C > T	p.Arg3384*		DM	Breast cancer	
<i>MSH2</i>	RP	chr2:47630106	rs138068023	G/C	0.0034	2016	14	0	8.98				DM	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis	
<i>MSH2</i>	RP	chr2:47630150	G/A	G/A	0.0034	2021	14	0	15.49				DM	Colorectal / endometrial cancer	
<i>MSH2</i>	RP	chr2:47630344	rs56170584	C/A	0.0008	1994	3	0	27.20	c.14 C > A	p.Pro5Gln		DM	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis	
<i>MSH2</i>	canP	chr2:47637246	rs17217772	A/G	0.0005	2046	2	0	15.07	c.380 A > G	p.Asn127Ser		DM?	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis	
<i>MSH2</i>	canP	chr2:47637371	rs63750716	A/G	0.0034	2031	12	1	10.05	c.505 A > G	p.Ile169Val		DM?	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis	
<i>MSH2</i>	canP	chr2:47703564	rs63750790	G/A	0.0032	2036	13	0	34.00	c.2064 G > A	p.Met688Ile		DM?	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis	
<i>MSH2</i>	canP	chr2:47703687	G/T	G/T	0.0002	2048	1	0	35.00	c.2187 G > T	p.Met729Ile		DM?	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis	

Table 3 continued

Gene	Classification	Genomic location (hg19)	SNP	Alleles (Ref/Alt)	Frequency	Genotype count		Predicted pathogenicity (CADD)	Variation		ClimVar	HGMD	
						Ref	Het		DNA	Prot.			Allele ID
<i>MSH2</i>	RP	chr2:47703703	rs2229061	A/G	0.0002	2048	1	0	19.42	c.2203 A > G	p.Ile735Val	DM	Ovarian cancer
<i>MSH2</i>	canP	chr2:47705625	rs202145681	G/A	0.0002	2046	1	0	5.79	c.2425 G > A	p.Glu809Lys	DM?	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis
<i>MSH2</i>	RP	chr2:47705632	rs63751018	T/G	0.0002	2048	1	0	39.00	c.2432 T > G	p.Leu811*	DM	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis
<i>MSH2</i>	RP	chr2:47707909	rs63750571	A/G	0.0027	2036	11	0	22.60	c.2533 A > G	p.Lys845Glu	DM	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis
<i>MLH1</i>	RP	chr3:37034932		C/G	0.0015	2039	6	0	8.14			DM	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis
<i>MLH1</i>	canP	chr3:37053562	rs4986984	C/T	0.0029	2036	12	0	25.10	c.649 C > T	p.Arg217Cys	DM?	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis
<i>MLH1</i>	RP	chr3:37067242	rs63750760	C/T	0.0012	2001	5	0	27.40	c.1153 C > T	p.Arg385Cys	DM	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis
<i>MLH1</i>	RP	chr3:37083758	rs267607845	G/A	0.0002	2048	1	0	26.10	c.1668-1 G > A		DM	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis
<i>MLH1</i>	RP	chr3:37089022	rs63751713	C/G	0.0015	2041	6	0	17.11	c.1744C > G	p.Leu582Val	DM	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis
<i>MLH1</i>	RP	chr3:37090464	rs63751275	C/T	0.0002	2047	1	0	26.00	c.2059 C > T	p.Arg687Trp	DM	Colorectal cancer, non-polyposis
<i>MLH1</i>	RP	chr3:37090506	rs63750114	C/A	0.0002	2047	1	0	10.84	c.2101 C > A	p.Gln701Lys	DM	Gastric cancer
<i>RBI</i>	canP	chr13:49030386	rs367578442	C/A	0.0005	2047	2	0	12.50	c.1861C > A	Arg621Ser	DM?	Retinoblastoma
<i>RBI</i>	canP	chr13:49039470		C/G	0.0003	1988	1	0	15.26	c.2455 C > G	Leu819Val	DM?	Retinoblastoma
<i>RET</i>	RP	chr10:43572670		G/C	0.0002	2045	1	0	0.95			DM	Hirschsprung disease
<i>RET</i>	canP	chr10:43596033	rs192489011	G/A	0.0047	2016	19	0	7.17	c.200 G > A	p.Arg67His	DM?	Autonomic control, congenital failure of
<i>RET</i>	RP	chr10:43601830	rs34682185	G/A	0.0015	2027	6	0	14.52	c.874 G > A	p.Val292Met	DM	Phaeochromocytoma & medullary thyroid carcinoma
<i>RET</i>	RP	chr10:43601917	rs377767388	G/A	0.0005	2030	2	0	11.54	c.961 G > A	p.Gly321Arg	DM	Thyroid carcinoma, medullary
<i>RET</i>	canP	chr10:43613884		A/G	0.0002	2046	1	0	17.66	c.2348 A > G	p.Asn783Ser	DM?	Hirschsprung disease
<i>RET</i>	canP	chr10:43615109	rs56195026	G/A	0.0029	2030	12	0	6.60	c.2523 G > A	p.Pro841Pro	DM?	Hirschsprung disease
<i>RET</i>	canP	chr10:43620335	rs17158558	C/T	0.0044	2026	18	0	19.09	c.2944 C > T	p.Arg982Cys	DM?	Autonomic control, congenital failure of
<i>LDLR</i>	RP	chr19:11215926	rs201102461	G/A	0.0036	1956	14	0	10.84	c.344 G > A	p.Arg115His	DM	Hypercholesterolemia
<i>LDLR</i>	RP	chr19:11217315	rs200990725	C/T	0.0005	2031	2	0	13.79	c.769 C > T	p.Arg257Trp	DM	Hypercholesterolemia
<i>LDLR</i>	canP	chr19:11224233		G/A	0.0005	1945	2	0	8.13	c.1381 G > A	p.Gly461Ser	DM	Hypercholesterolemia
<i>LDLR</i>	canP	chr19:11224398	rs141673997	G/A	0.0005	1938	2	0	12.34	c.1546 G > A	p.Gly516Ser	DM?	Hypercholesterolemia

Table 3 continued

Gene	Classification	Genomic location (hg19)	SNP	Alleles (Ref/Alt)	Frequency	Genotype count		Predicted pathogenicity (CADD)	Variation		ClinVar	HGMD			
						Ref/Ref	Het		Alt/Alt	DNA			Prot.	Allele ID	Clinical Significance
<i>LDLR</i>	RP	chr19:11226885		C/G	0.0003	1987	1	0	13.97	c.1702C>G	p.Leu568Val	246280	Likely pathogenic	DM	Hypercholesterolemia
<i>LDLR</i>	RP	chr19:11231154	rs201573863	C/T	0.0003	1943	1	0	19.47	c.2096C>T	p.Pro699Leu	246513	Likely pathogenic	DM	Hypercholesterolemia
<i>LDLR</i>	canP	chr19:11238695	rs199766976	G/A	0.0003	1954	1	0	6.96	c.2323G>A	p.Val775Ile			DM?	Myocardial infarction
<i>APOB</i>	RP	chr2:21228437	rs376825639	A/G	0.0002	2048	1	0	17.27	c.11303T>C	p.Ile3768Thr			DM	Hypertriglyceridaemia
<i>APOB</i>	RP	chr2:21229160	rs5742904	C/T	0.0002	2047	1	0	19.81	c.10580G>A	p.Arg3527Gln	32929	Likely pathogenic;	DM	Apolipoprotein B deficiency
<i>APOB</i>	canP	chr2:21234086		T/C	0.0002	2048	1	0	12.22	c.5654A>G	p.Tyr1885Cys			DM?	Hypercholesterolemia
<i>PCSK9</i>	RP	chr1:55505671		A/C	0.0002	2036	1	0	9.47	c.161A>C	p.Glu54Ala			DM	High LDL cholesterol
<i>PCSK9</i>	RP	chr1:55509618	rs369067856	C/T	0.0002	2040	1	0	17.45	c.310C>T	p.Arg104Cys			DM	High LDL cholesterol
<i>PCSK9</i>	RP	chr1:55518071		G/A	0.0002	2019	1	0	20.50	c.644G>A	p.Arg215His	196754	Pathogenic	DM	Hypercholesterolemia, autosomal dominant
<i>PCSK9</i>	RP	chr1:55523812		G/A	0.0002	2010	1	0	37.00	c.1284G>A	p.Trp428*			DM	Low LDL cholesterol
<i>PCSK9</i>	RP	chr1:55525195		G/A	0.0002	2044	1	0	17.56	c.1540G>A	p.Ala514Thr			DM	High LDL cholesterol
<i>PCSK9</i>	canP	chr1:55527235	rs568853401	G/A	0.0012	2025	5	0	6.35	c.1863+6G>A				DM?	High LDL cholesterol
<i>PCSK9</i>	RP	chr1:55529182		C/A	0.0005	2001	2	0	5.98	c.2004C>A	p.Ser668Arg			DM	Low LDL cholesterol

Pathologically annotated SNVs were automatically classified into i) reported pathogenic (RP) variants, ii) candidates of pathogenic (canP) variants, and iii) associated variants and others (AssoV, etc.) (see Methods and Table 1). RP and canP variants are shown in this table, and see Supplementary Table 1 for the whole list of pathologically annotated SNVs in the 57 ACMG genes.

[34]. Molecular diagnoses of LS would contribute to the early diagnosis of cancers in multiple organs, and are critical for the treatment of cancers in patients with LS. *MSH2* and *MLH1* are the major susceptible genes for LS; around 70% of the reported mutations for LS were found in these genes [35]. Most of the reported susceptible variants of LS are nonsense mutations, out-of-frame indels, or splicing error-causing variants. One important feature of the mutations found in LS-susceptible variants is that most of them are unique for each family [35].

There are six RP variants in *MSH2* in 2KJPN (Table 3). An RP variant, p. Leu811*, has been reported in a few Japanese families with LS [36–38]. The other five variants labeled as RP, such as rs138068023 (c.-68-157G > C) and p.Pro5Gln, are not listed in either ClinVar or InSiGHT databases (see review by Chao et al. 2008 [39]); many of them are not rare in 2KJPN so that most of them would not be pathogenic.

In *MLH1*, there are six RP variants in 2KJPN (Table 3). An intronic variant, c.1668-1 G > A, found in a heterozygous individual in 2KJPN, may cause exon skipping and is considered to be pathogenic [40]. Another missense variant, p.Arg687Trp, found in a heterozygous individual, was previously reported in two Japanese families with LS [41]. Other RP variants are considered to be not pathogenic or of unknown significance in other databases. For example, a missense variant, p.Arg385Cys, is annotated as “likely pathogenic” in the ClinVar database and a report shows cosegregation with cancer phenotype [42]. However, the same research group later stated that the variant was a “missense variant of unreported pathogenicity” [43]. This variant was found in five individuals in 2KJPN, and further studies are needed to clarify the pathogenic roles of this variant. Similarly, p. Leu582Val is classified as “reported pathogenic” but Takahashi et al. (2007) reported that this variant, which was found in six individuals in 2KJPN, had no functional significance [44]. Another missense variant, p. Gln701Lys, was classified as an RP variant, which is a rare variant, but is considered “likely benign” by InSiGHT database [45].

Retinoblastoma

Retinoblastoma (Rb) is the most frequent intraocular malignant tumor in children, with an incidence rate ranging from 1/15,000 to 1/18,000 live births [46]. Rb is caused by bi-allelic inactivation of *RBI* located on chromosome 13q14 that encodes RB protein. In the dominantly inherited form, one mutation is inherited through the germline and the secondary mutation occurs in the somatic cells [47]. The Rb protein acts as a tumor suppressor, which regulates cell growth and stops cells from undergoing uncontrolled proliferation.

In 2KJPN, we found two missense variants of *RBI*, p. Arg621Ser (rs367578442, CADD phred score = 12.5) and p.Leu819Val (CADD phred score = 15.26) as canP variants, which are registered in HGMD in the “DM?” category (Table 3), and were originally reported by a previous study on Chinese patients with Rb [48]. The p.Arg621Ser variant was found in two heterozygous individuals, and p. Leu819Val was found in a heterozygous individual.

Furthermore, p.Arg621Ser is located between two RB1 pocket-domains, which feature an additional protein-binding site [49], and p.Leu819Val is located in the RB1 C-terminus region, which is involved in association with the dimer surface resulting from an association of the E2 factors (E2Fs) [50]. The p.Arg621Ser variant was also found in an AA subject in an ancestrally diverse cohort of 681 healthy individuals [51]. A previous study involving Japanese patients with Rb found that a majority of the somatic mutations were found in the adenovirus early region 1A (E1A) binding sites [52]; however, the p.Arg621Ser and p. Leu819Val variants have not been reported in any domestic report in patients with Rb. Further examination of genetic variants in the germline may be needed to assess the frequency of the risk variants in *RBI* in the Japanese population. In addition to inactivation of Rb1 itself, deregulation of Rb1-related biological pathways has critical roles in most types of human cancer. A more precise annotation and identification of *RBI* mutations could play a pivotal role in enhancing the clinical management of the risks for Rb.

Multiple endocrine neoplasia type 2 and familial medullary thyroid cancer (FMTC)

RET is an important gene related to several clinically distinct diseases. Gain-of-function mutations in *RET* cause multiple endocrine neoplasia (MEN) type 2 and FMTC [53]. On the contrary, loss-of-function mutations in *RET* are known to be risk factors for Hirschsprung disease (HSCR), which is caused by the congenital absence of parasympathetic ganglion cells in the intestinal tissues [54]. Furthermore, several mutations of this gene have also been reported in patients with congenital hypoventilation syndrome (CCHS) [55]. In 2KJPN, known missense variants, p.Val292Met, for MEN type 2 (MAF = 0.0015), and p.Gly321Arg, for FMTC (MAF = 0.00049), were found as variants causing genetically dominant effects (Table 3). Our results suggest that screening the sequence of *RET* may be beneficial for early recognition of patients with MEN type 2 and FMTC in the Japanese population.

In addition, we found one missense variant, p. Arg114His, classified as DM in HGMD for CCHS as variants with loss-of-function effects. The allele frequency of this variant (MAF = 0.0056) in 2KJPN was higher than that of EAs ($p < 0.00001$) (see Supplementary Table 3 for inter-

Table 4 Review of pathologically annotated variants in *LDLR*, *APOB*, and *PCSK9* for FH

Gene	Classification	Genomic position (hg19)	Alleles (Ref/Alt)	SNP	Frequency			Genotype count	Variation		Prot.	ClinVar		HGMD	MAF in ExAC	Predicted pathogenicity (CADD)	Previous report and frequency*	Evidence Level
					Ref	Het	Alt		Allele ID	Clinical significance**		Category***	Condition					
<i>LDLR</i>	RP	Chr19:11215926	G/A	rs201102461	0.00390	2033	16	0	c.344 G>A	p.Arg115His	227401	LP	DM	0.000200	10.84	Hypercholesterolemia	Chang 2003 J Lipid Res: 1/172 (AF: 0.0029) Taiwan Chou 2010 Am J Cardiol: 1/102 (AF: 0.0049) Taiwan Kim 2004 Mol Cells: 1/31 (AF: 0.016) Korea Yu 2002 Atherosclerosis: 3/200 (AF: 0.0075) Japan Khoo 2000 Clin Genet: 2/86 (AF: 0.012) Malaysia Miyake 2009 Atherosclerosis: 2/205 (AF: 0.0049) Japan Mabuchi 2014 Atherosclerosis: 5/489 (AF: 0.0051) Japan Chou 2011 Atherosclerosis: 1/125 (AF: 0.004) Taiwan Nauck 2001 Hum Mutat: 1/100 (AF: 0.005) Germany	Low
					0.00049	2047	2	0	c.769 C>T	p.Arg257Trp	251446	LB	DM	0.000070	13.79	Hypercholesterolemia	Salazar 2002 Hum Mutat: 1/35 (AF: 0.014) Brazil (European) Chang 2006 Eur J Clin Invest: 1/51 (AF: 0.0098) Taiwan Chou 2010 Am J Cardiol: 2/102 (AF: 0.0098) Taiwan Shin 2015 Atherosclerosis: 1/97 (AF: 0.0052) Korea Foucher 2005 Hum Mutat: 1/1177 (AF: 0.00042) Netherlands Santos 2014 Atherosclerosis: 1/156 (AF: 0.0032) Brazil Han 2015 PLoS One: 1/69 (AF: 0.014) Korea Chou 2011 Atherosclerosis: 3/125 (AF: 0.012) Taiwan	High
<i>RP</i>	RP	Chr19:11226885	C/G	rs746959386	0.00024	2048	1	0	c.1702C>G	p.Leu568Val	246280	LP	DM	0.000020	13.97	Hypercholesterolemia	Hattori 1999 Hum Mutat: 1/120 (AF: 0.0042) Japan Shin 2015 Atherosclerosis: 1/97 (AF: 0.0052) Korea Miyake 2009 Atherosclerosis: (7het + 1hom)/205 (AF: 0.022) Japan Mabuchi 2014 Atherosclerosis: 4/489 (AF: 0.0041) Japan Han 2015 PLoS One: 1/69 (AF: 0.0072) Korea Schuster 1995 Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol: 1/10 (AF: 0.05) Germany Thiart 2000 J Med Genet: 1/16 (AF: 0.031) South Africa Van Gaal 2001 Mol Cell Probes: 1/98 (AF: 0.0051) Belgium	High
					0.00024	2048	1	0	c.2096 C>T	p.Proc699Leu	246513	LP	DM	0.000020	19.47	Hypercholesterolemia		

Table 4 continued

Gene	Classification	Genomic position (hg19)	Alleles (Ref/Alt)	SNP	Frequency		Genotype count		Variation	ClinVar	HGMD	MAF in ExAC	Predicted pathogenicity (CADD)	Previous report and frequency*	Evidence Level
					Ref/Ref	Het/Alt	Ref/Ref	Alt/Alt							
RP		Chr1:55505671	A/C		0.00024	2048	1	0	c.161A>C	p.Glu54Ala	DM	NA	9.47	Han 2015 PLoS One: 1/69 (AF: 0.0072) Korea	Low
RP		Chr1:55518071	G/A	rs794728683	0.00024	2048	1	0	c.644G>A	p.Arg215His	DM	NA	20.50	Miyake 2008 Atherosclerosis: 1/192 (AF: 0.0026) Japan	Low
RP		Chr1:55525195	G/A		0.00024	2048	1	0	c.1540G>A	p.Ala514Thr	DM	NA	17.56	Cameron 2008 Intern Med: 2/954 (AF: 0.0010) Norway Miyake 2008 Atherosclerosis: 1/192 (AF: 0.0026) Japan	Medium

*Citation, frequency in patients with allele frequency (AF), and study population

**P pathogenic, LP likely pathogenic, LB likely benign, VUS variant of uncertain significance, Conflict Conflicting interpretations of pathogenicity

***See footnote of Table 1 for HGMD category

ethnic comparisons), and this variant was originally reported in a domestic study [56]. In ClinVar, this variant was annotated with “conflicting interpretations of pathogenicity.” Further studies are needed to clarify the pathogenic role of this variant. We also found another missense variant, p. Thr278Asn, for HSCR (MAF = 0.012) that was registered as DM in HGMD. However, this variant was annotated with “conflicting interpretations of pathogenicity in the ClinVar database.” This variant was originally reported in Asia [56], and the allele frequency in people with European and African ancestries is very low (not detected in ESP EA and AA). Further studies are needed to clarify the clinical impact of this variant.

Familial hypercholesterolemia

Familial hypercholesterolemia (FH) is a relatively common genetic disorder with a prevalence of 1:200–500. Generally, people with untreated FH are at a higher risk of coronary heart disease [57]. Genetic variants in three genes—low-density lipoprotein receptor (*LDLR*) [58], *APOB*, and proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 9 (*PCSK9*) [59]—account for the majority of cases with autosomal dominant FH [60].

LDLR

The LDLR protein recognizes apolipoprotein B-100 (apo B-100) embedded in the outer phospholipid layer of low-density lipoproteins (LDLs), and mediates the endocytosis of LDL. After internalization of the LDLR-LDL complexes into the endosomes, the complexes dissociate and LDLR is either recycled or degraded, whereas LDL is taken into lysosomes where the protein moiety is degraded. LDLR variants that cause FH result in defective synthesis, assembly, LDL-binding, transport, or recycling of the protein, causing reduced clearance of LDL, the major plasma cholesterol-carrier, and thus, dramatically raising blood cholesterol levels.

In search for potentially pathological variants of FH in the 2KJPN reference panel, we identified four missense SNVs (p.Arg115His, p.Arg257Trp, p.Leu568Val, and p.Pro699Leu) classified as DM in HGMD (Table 3). Three of these variants, p.Arg115His, p.Leu568Val, and p.Pro699Leu, are classified as “likely pathogenic” in ClinVar. An additional missense SNV, p.Gly461Ser, was classified as “likely pathogenic” in ClinVar and was identified in 2KJPN, but no annotations were given to this variant in HGMD. Through a literature survey (Table 4), three of these variants (p.Arg257Trp, p.Leu568Val, and p.Pro699Leu found in two, one, and one heterozygous individuals, respectively) identified in 2KJPN were found to have strong evidence for the pathological significance for FH. This finding was based on multiple studies with patients of European or East Asian

origin, including the Japanese, and significantly higher allele frequencies in these patients were identified over the population controls, including those in 2KJPN. In regards to another missense variant, p.Gly461Ser (found in two heterozygous individuals in 2KJPN), only one report of two probands with this variant in 262 Greek families with FH was found [61], suggesting a higher allele frequency of this variant in patients over the general population, as this variant was not found in over 70,000 Europeans in the Exome Aggregation Consortium (ExAC) [62]. However, the pathological significance of this variant should be confirmed by further studies. As for another missense variant, p.Arg115His, the allele frequency in 2KJPN was 0.0039, which was greater than expected for causative variants of FH based on the estimated prevalence of 1 in 200–500 in Japan, hence suggesting that these variants are benign or have mild effects. These two variants showed a higher allele frequency in 2KJPN than that of EAs ($p < 0.00001$), and both of them were originally reported from domestic studies [63, 64]. Thus, these variants could be classified as benign evaluated solely from the viewpoint of their relatively high frequencies.

APOB

APOB mutations have been estimated to account for 1–5% of patients with FH, and are inherited in an autosomal dominant manner [65, 66]. From *APOB*, apo B-100 is synthesized exclusively in the liver as one of the two main protein isoforms, and is a major constituent of LDL and VLDL. Apo B-100 serves as a recognition signal for the LDL receptor to bind and internalize LDL particles. Furthermore, *APOB* pathogenic variants decrease the binding affinity of LDL particles for the LDL receptor, thus causing fewer LDL particles to be cleared from the blood, which then dramatically raises the plasma cholesterol levels.

In the 2KJPN reference panel, we identified two reported pathogenic missense variants (Table 3). One of the variants, p.Arg3527Gln, is a well-characterized pathogenic missense variant [67] in *APOB*, and was identified in only one heterozygous individual among the 2049 individuals (allele frequency = 0.0002). Another missense variant, p.Ile3768Thr [68], was registered as DM in HGMD, and was identified in 2KJPN in a heterozygous individual. However, no evidence for the pathogenicity of this variant has been presented; therefore, its clinical and functional significance must be scrutinized.

PCSK9

PCSK9 encodes neural apoptosis regulated convertase (NARC)-1, a 692 AA protein that is the ninth member of the secretory subtilase family [69]. The protein is

synthesized as a soluble zymogen that undergoes autocatalytic cleavage in the endoplasmic reticulum. The mature protein binds to the EGF-A domain of lipoprotein receptors [70, 71], abolishes their functions, and raises the level of cholesterol in the blood stream. Furthermore, some gain-of-function mutations increase the binding affinity of PCSK9 and lipoprotein receptors, thus resulting in the degradation of LDLR, inefficient incorporation of cholesterol in the liver cells, and higher cholesterol levels in the blood stream. On the contrary, individuals having loss-of-function variants showed lower levels of LDL cholesterol [72].

In the 2KJPN reference panel, we identified six reported pathogenic SNVs for *PCSK9*—five missense variants (p.Glu54Ala, p.Arg104Cys, p.Arg215His, p.Ala514Thr, and p.Ser668Arg) and one nonsense variant (p.Trp428*) (Table 3). Since p.Ser668Arg and p.Trp428* were reported to be causative variants for low LDL cholesterol [63], we considered the other four missense variants (p.Glu54Ala, p.Arg104Cys, p.Arg215His, and p.Ala514Thr) as causative variants for hypercholesterolemia. The population frequency of the causative variants responsible for hypercholesterolemia in *PCSK9* was estimated to be 0.001 in 2KJPN, which was based on the allele frequencies of the four responsible variants, all of which were singletons. There was a missense variant, p.Glu32Lys (rs564427867), which was registered as DM in HGMD, and this variant was found in 2KJPN in 44 heterozygous and one homozygous individual. Although this variant was discarded during variant filtering due to its relatively higher frequency (0.011) for assigning RP variants, we further reviewed this variant because it was reported in a domestic study [73]. In ClinVar, this variant was annotated as “conflicting interpretations of pathogenicity.” Because it showed a higher allele frequency in 2KJPN than that in non-Asian populations ($p < 0.00001$), the variant might not have been detected or reported by DNA sequencing of the patient samples from non-Asian population (see Supplementary Table 3). The variant could be classified as benign based on its high frequency; however, it may have mild effects on FH. Our results showed that phenotypic variants responsible for high and low levels of LDL cholesterol were found in 2KJPN. Further careful examination may be needed to assess the proportion of risk variants in *LDLR*, *APOB*, and *PCSK9* in the Japanese population [74]. It is very important to know which genes have causative mutations in patients with FH to assess for appropriate therapeutic strategies [75] for personalized medicine.

Discussion

Here, we presented the estimation of pathogenic variant frequencies for actionable genes in the Japanese population

for the first time, and showed that a substantial number of people had reported pathogenic variants of the ACMG-recommended genes. Although there have been numerous domestic reports on pathogenic variants of diseases detected in patient groups, it was not clear in what proportion the responsible variants exist among healthy individuals. Identification of potential risk alleles and their frequency estimation among healthy individuals are, thus, highly important for public health.

We also found that manually checking and reviewing variants are very critical to interpreting variants for its pathogenicity, although it is needless to say about distinguishing distinct phenotypic effects by single genes, such as *RET* and *PCSK9*. In this study, for several diseases, we manually reviewed pathogenic variants annotated in public databases (HGMD and ClinVar). We conducted a careful review of the variants, especially for the three genes (*LDLR*, *APOB*, *PCSK9*) responsible for FH, and the allelic frequencies of the risk alleles were compared with the prevalence data in the Japanese population for each condition. We found that evidence of pathogenicity in the Japanese population was lacking for some variants, even if they were reported as DMs, such as in the case of genes responsible for FH. In addition, we observed that some of the reported pathogenic variants could be benign after a review of the variants. The insufficiencies in the data of reported pathogenic variants may be due to an insufficient examination of allele frequency in healthy controls in the original studies or an inappropriate curation in the public databases.

We found that some of HGMD-DM variants existed at higher frequencies in 2KJPN than in other ethnic groups. The examples were *RET* (p.Arg114His and p.Thr278Asn), *LDLR* (p.Arg115His), and *PCSK9* (p.Glu32Lys) among the genes in our variant review and inter-ethnic allele frequency comparison. These examples may suggest that protein-altering variants, such as missense or truncating variants, which exist in Asian populations, but are rarely detected in other ethnic populations, are more likely to be reported in the literature as novel DMs for Asians. Although these variants may have mild effects on phenotypes, we should re-review reported pathogenic variants to check whether protein-altering SNVs showing inter-ethnic frequency differences have been biasedly reported or registered in the databases as novel pathological variants.

Although public databases of pathogenic variants, such as HGMD and ClinVar, are useful as information resources, reviewing reported pathogenic variants for their pathogenicity in the target population is necessary and a challenging issue. In particular, this is critical for returning individual genomic results with clinical benefits and avoiding unnecessary psychosocial harm due to uncertain clinical validity. Our study suggested that some of the reported pathogenic variants should be re-reviewed, even

though they were designated as “disease-causing variants”, especially when they are used for the purposes of identification of secondary findings in clinical settings under the ACMG recommendations.

Several previous reports have tried to overcome this issue, and one of these studies estimated the frequency of actionable variants in the diverse 1000 genomes [15]. They conducted an extensive literature survey by checking the population frequency, evidence for pathogenicity, and evaluations by expert physicians with medical specialties relevant to the conditions. Although 237 variants were annotated as disease-causing variants by HGMD, only seven variants remained to be likely pathogenic after the variant review.

Information of individual status of risk variants should be utilized for public health. The participants in our cohort studies were very interested in individual genomic results [76]. However, in the present situation in Japan, actual attempts or trials of returning individual genomic results in the research context have been very limited. This may be due to a number of medical, psychosocial, ethical, and financial issues, as well as the lack of experiences. Such situations may vary among countries, and real actionability depends on the medical systems in the society. Considering the current situation in Japan, we have a plan of action to return individual genomic results to the participants of our cohort studies (will be described elsewhere). We may be able to follow their medical conditions in the long-term after the participants receive their genomic results [77]. We expect that this kind of practice would contribute to the accumulation of case information about dealing with genetic results from the standpoints of scientific and practical aspects.

Furthermore, there are limitations in this study because 1) insertions and deletions were not analyzed; 2) actionable genes in chromosome X (*GLA* and *OTC*) were not analyzed; and 3) reported pathogenic variants were not detected for 15 genes, which may be due to the limited number of individuals or very low allele frequencies in the Japanese population. Although we obtained variants as candidates of expected pathogenic variants, further analysis and evaluation through appropriate filtering and interpretations are needed for selecting strong candidates of pathogenic variants. We would overcome these limitations as much as possible by including other types of variants and extending our analysis in the near future.

It may be not surprising that about 21% people have reported pathogenic variants of the 57 ACMG genes. In our previous study with 1KJPN, we showed that one individual had 11.2 HGMD-DM variants (9.6 as heterozygous and 1.6 as homozygous) on average [18]. In this study, a small fraction of the low-frequency HGMD-DM variants in the limited set of disease genes may have been detected. Such

estimates may be lowered if variants were reviewed appropriately for all the target genes.

The recommended gene list for incidental findings, which were originally proposed by ACMG, may be modified by considering its practicality for East Asian populations. For example, a Korean group is considering inclusion of *CDHI* for the risk of hereditary diffuse gastric cancer [11], based on its high penetrance. This kind of consideration would improve the quality of genetic medicine in East Asian countries. Other phenotypes not listed in the recommendations by ACMG may be taken into consideration if they are important for healthcare in the Japanese population. Based on this study, we should construct an information infrastructure of pathogenic variants for the Japanese population. Through appropriate variant interpretations, updated information of pathogenic variants would be useful for diagnostic strategies and subsequent personalized healthcare for the Japanese population.

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Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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