ARTICLE

Combined linkage and association analysis identifies rare and low frequency variants for blood pressure at 1q31

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Received: 14 November 2017 / Revised: 12 July 2018 / Accepted: 28 August 2018 / Published online: 27 September 2018
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Abstract

High blood pressure (BP) is a major risk factor for cardiovascular disease (CVD) and is more prevalent in African Americans as compared to other US groups. Although large, population-based genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified over 300 common polymorphisms modulating inter-individual BP variation, largely in European ancestry subjects, most of them do not localize to regions previously identified through family-based linkage studies. This discrepancy has remained unexplained despite the statistical power differences between current GWAS and prior linkage studies. To address this issue, we performed genome-wide linkage analysis of BP traits in African-American families from the Family Blood Pressure Program (FBPP) and genotyped on the Illumina Human Exome BeadChip v1.1. We identified a genomic region on chromosome 1q31 with LOD score 3.8 for pulse pressure (PP), a region we previously implicated in DBP studies of European ancestry families. Although no reported GWAS variants map to this region, combined linkage and association analysis of PP identified 81 rare and low frequency exonic variants accounting for the linkage evidence. Replication analysis in eight independent African ancestry cohorts ($N = 16,968$) supports this specific association with PP ($P = 0.0509$). Additional association and network analyses identified multiple potential candidate genes in this region expressed in multiple tissues and with a strong biological support for a role in BP. In conclusion, multiple genes and rare variants on 1q31 contribute to PP variation. Beyond producing new insights into PP, we demonstrate how family-based linkage and association studies can implicate specific rare and low frequency variants for complex traits.

Introduction

Elevated blood pressure (BP), or hypertension (HTN), through systolic (SBP) and/or diastolic (DBP) BP, is the most common cardiovascular condition across the global population, and the major risk factor for stroke, cardiovascular disease (CVD), renal failure, and congestive heart failure [1, 2]. Susceptibility to HTN varies considerably by age, sex, body mass index

(BMI), ancestry, sodium intake, endothelial and vascular changes, stress, alcohol consumption, to name a few. However, the biological routes to subsequent disease through these risk factors remain obscure [3]. Moreover, there are significant population differences in HTN prevalence and risk, as exemplified by African Americans displaying the highest prevalence, and consequently, experiencing greater risk of CVD and end-stage renal disease as compared to their European Americans counterparts [1, 4]. BP is also a classic quantitative trait with an estimated heritability from family data that ranges from 30 to 40% [5]. There is currently optimism that identification of BP genes and their pathways will illuminate HTN and target organ damage causes, irrespective of whether these pathways are perturbed by genetic, lifestyle and/or environmental factors [6, 7]. Moreover, these BP pathways are expected to enable the targeted development of therapeutics.

Recent well-powered multi-ancestry GWAS or gene-centric studies have shed considerable insight into the

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41431-018-0277-1>) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

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underlying genetic basis of BP by identify several susceptibility loci [8–11]. However, the variance explained by the detected loci is less than 3.5% [8, 9, 11] of inter-individual variation in BP, supporting the hypothesis that rare and low frequency variants may contribute to BP variation. Multiple statistical methods for testing rare variant association have been developed for population-based samples [12–16] and family data [17–20]. It has long been known that family-based designs have an advantage in detecting rare variants [17, 19]. In the past two decades, before GWAS became popular, numerous large-scale genome-wide linkage studies on BP and HTN have been reported, including the well-designed studies by the NHLBI-supported Family Blood Pressure Program (FBPP) and the UK Medical Research Council British Genetics of Hypertension (BRIGHT) study [5, 21–23]. However, the linkage findings were few, often not having appropriate replication samples, and the observed linked loci did not, for the most part, overlap the subsequent GWAS-derived association loci. This has led to the view that while common variants are responsible for GWAS findings, the findings of linkage mostly arose from rare and low frequency variants. We sought to test this hypothesis directly using data on SBP and DBP variation.

Materials and methods

Our analysis flow chart is presented in Fig. 1. We first used primary exome array data on 1802 African American families from the Family Blood Pressure Program (FBPP) for linkage

analysis (described in Supplementary Methods). The BP outcomes include the residues of SBP, DBP, and pulse pressure (PP), imputed for anti-hypertension medication, and adjusted for age and BMI. Population structure and family structure were modeled by the first ten principal components (PC) of genome and the kinship matrix (Supplementary Methods). Linkage analysis was performed on 20,791 Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) (minor allele frequency > 0.2 and linkage disequilibrium $r^2 < 0.1$) using Merlin [24]. Significant linkage evidence was defined as LOD > 3 corresponding to a principled posterior probability of linkage of 95 percent [25, 26].

In order to testify that our observed linkage evidence was driven by multiple low frequency/rare variants but not common variants, we performed a series of diagnoses and simulations including: (1) estimated the heritability attributable to common variants using 6194 unrelated African Americans from the Candidate Gene Association Resource (CARE) consortium (Supplementary Methods); (2) estimated the regional heritability attributable to common variants in every 40 cM under the linkage peak and calculated its correlation with LOD score in the same region; and (3) simulated a quantitative trait influenced by single common variant (minor allele frequency [MAF] = 0.1 or 0.4 and accounting for 1% phenotypic variation) under the FBPP pedigree structure and perform linkage analysis using Merlin [24] for 100 times (Supplementary Methods).

We next examined all SNPs in the candidate linkage interval specified with boundary LOD > 1 and harboring the linkage peak. Risk variants were selected in three steps. In step 1, we performed family-based association analysis

Fig. 1 Analysis flow chart

using a linear mixed model using ASSOC in S.A.G.E [27]. SNPs with association evidence were selected with either $P \leq 0.1$ (marginal significance) or absolute regression coefficient $\beta \geq 5$ (large allelic effect). In step 2, we filtered the SNPs from step 1 for linkage contribution by presenting at least twice in a family with family-specific $\text{LOD} \geq 0.1$. In step 3, we excluded intergenic and intronic SNPs, and SNPs in complete LD. We then defined a risk score for those risk SNPs as $r_i = x_i^T \beta$, where β is the estimated regression coefficients of SNPs, and x_i^T is a (transposed) vector of the number of risk alleles carried by individual i . Linkage analysis was further performed conditional on this risk score.

Finally, we performed a family-based SKAT-O[28] test to investigate the cumulative effect of risk variants in FBPP. Variants were pooled together and grouped into non-overlapping windows in SKAT-O. Genetic pathway enrichment analysis of genes harboring risk variants was performed using the software package STRING [29], which implements a prediction pipeline for inferring protein-protein interactions (PPI). We reported gene sets that were either significantly co-expressed or involved in experimentally validated PPI with a medium score or higher (score ≥ 0.4). The enriched pathways and their involved genes were followed-up to group variants for SKAT-O test. SNP-set replication analysis was performed using 16,968 individuals with African ancestries collected from eight independent cohorts: the African American Diabetes Mellitus Study (AADM), the Atherosclerotic Risk in Communities Study (ARIC), the Mt. Sinai BioMe Biobank (BioMe), the Vanderbilt University Medical Center Biobank (BioVU), the Health and Retirement Study (HRS), the Howard University Family Study (HUFs), the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis (MESA), and the southwest Nigeria cohort collected by Loyola University at Chicago (Nigeria) (Supplementary Methods). Replication analysis was conducted in individual cohorts and meta-analyzed using Fisher's method.

Results

Supplementary Table 1 presents the characteristics of the FBPP samples included. The residuals of SBP, DBP, and PP are all approximately normally distributed and required no further transformations (Supplementary Fig. 1). Linkage analysis demonstrated three significant linkage peaks with $\text{LOD} > 3$ on chromosomes 1, 17, and 19, all observed with PP. The largest linkage peak was at chromosome 1q31 ($\text{LOD} = 3.8$). Additional linkage evidence ($\text{LOD} > 2$) was observed on chromosomes 5, 19, and 20 for all three BP traits (Table 1, Supplementary Fig. 2).

Table 1 Summary of all maximum LOD scores exceeding 2 (max LOD), their corresponding locations on the genetic map (in centiMorgans, cM) and the BP trait involved (SBP, DBP, PP) using FBPP data

Chr	Max LOD	Location (cM)	Trait
1	3.80	200.11	PP
5	2.19	68.23	PP
17	3.16	99.36	PP
19	2.42	106.56	SBP
19	3.21	58.13	PP
20	2.11	12.26	SBP
20	2.17	5.70	DBP

We followed-up on the largest linkage peak at 1q31, which reached genome-wide statistical significance and overlaps with a linkage region already implicated in prior BP studies in the FBPP European ancestry families, and in other studies [30–33]. However, existing BP GWAS loci do not overlap with this region. We estimated the heritability attributable to common variants in every 40 cM across the genome in unrelated samples from CARE. The correlations between LOD scores and estimated regional heritabilities were consistently low and negative for all three BP traits ($\rho = -0.021, -0.098$ and -0.211 in SBP, DBP and PP; Supplementary Fig. 3). In particular, the estimated heritability at 1q31 was not statistically significant ($h^2 = 0.01\% \pm 0.44\%$) for PP. Our analysis consistently suggests that common variants do not account for observed linkage evidence for BP, including at 1q31 (Supplementary Table 2). Additionally, the heritability estimates are essentially unchanged for all BP traits on chromosome 1 with or without including the SNPs in the linkage region. Furthermore, we used simulations of a single common variant (Materials and Methods) to demonstrate that the observed linkage evidence could not be due to common variants. Among the 100 simulations, the maximum LOD scores were 2.31 and 2.28 for MAF 0.1 and 0.4, respectively, suggesting the common variants cannot explain the linkage evidence observed on 1q31.

Informed by the linkage evidence, we focus on PP trait in the following analysis. To search for specific variants that can explain the linkage evidence, we considered the region with boundaries $\text{LOD} > 1$ harboring the linkage peak (171.1–203.9 Mb; Fig. 2), a region that contained 2533 variants on the exome array. A total of 81 exonic SNPs were left after filtering by association evidence and linkage contribution (Materials and Methods; Supplementary Table 3). Linkage analysis conditional on the risk score defined by these 81 SNPs did not change the linkage peak location but reduced the LOD score from 3.8 to 1.2 (Fig. 2), strongly suggesting that these variants do explain a majority of the original PP linkage evidence.

We next performed family-based SKAT-O [28] tests for the pooled 81 exonic variants in FBPP samples. The

Fig. 2 Significant evidence for linkage of PP to human chromosome 1 from the FBPP study. The linkage evidence is plotted conditional on, or not, with respect to the risk score calculated by the 81 variants within the region. The 81 variants within 54 genes are also shown

observed P value is small for PP, as well as for SBP and DBP, which is not surprising because of selected SNPs (Table 2). We then performed SKAT-O analysis for PP with the same 81 SNPs in eight replication samples separately and the results then meta-analyzed (Table 2). We observed a marginally significant association for PP ($P = 0.0509$) and the corresponding association evidence of SBP, DBP was marginal ($P = 6.41 \times 10^{-2}$ and 9.11×10^{-2} , respectively).

The 81 variants within the linkage interval are spread out across numerous genes and, so for genetic specificity, we divided the variants into 20 non-overlapping windows of four variants each (the last window has five variants) (Supplementary Table 3). SKAT-O tests were performed for each window (Supplementary Table 4), and the most significant window for PP consists of four variants (rs148482637:C>T, rs35946265:T>C, rs77277070:T>C, and rs112997656:G>A) on three genes: *ASTN1* (MIM:600904), *SEC16B* (MIM:612855) and *C1orf49* (MIM:611154), with P value 2.43×10^{-4} in FBPP, and this window was significant in the meta-analysis of the replication cohorts ($P = 4.16 \times 10^{-2}$, Table 3). The corresponding results for SBP and DBP were also presented in Table 3.

A second approach to assess the veracity of the linkage evidence is to assess the functions encoded by the 54 genes with the 81 variants. The overall protein-protein interaction (PPI) enrichment P value for the 54 genes is 1.27×10^{-7} . We identified one GO biological process, one GO molecular function and one Kegg pathway that were significantly enriched (Table 4). The GO biological pathways “termination of G-protein coupled receptor signaling” (GO:0038032) involves four regulators of G-Protein Signaling: *RGS1* (MIM:611012), *RGS21* (MIM:612407), *RGS1* (MIM:600323), *RGS13* (MIM:607190). The four variants in these four genes (rs7535533:A>G, rs77664911:C>T, rs144803737:T>A, and rs143481310:C>T) are associated with PP in FBPP (SKAT-O $P = 0.018$) but could not be replicated (Table 4, $P = 0.659$). The GO molecular functions “N,N-dimethylaniline monooxygenase activity” (GO:0004499) involves flavin-containing monooxygenases: *FMO1* (MIM:136130), *FMO2* (MIM:603955), and *FMO3* (MIM:136132). The four variants in these three genes (rs2266782:G>A, rs200985584:G>A, rs2020866:C>T, and rs149030329:G>A) are associated with PP in FBPP (SKAT-O $P = 0.026$) and the association is significant in the

Table 2 *P* values of rare variant SKAT-O tests of 81 chromosome 1 SNPs in the discovery sample (FBPP) and in eight replication cohorts

Test	Cohort	<i>N</i> _sample	<i>n</i> _variant	SBP	DBP	PP ^a
Discovery	FBPP	4394	81	4.56×10^{-10b}	1.86×10^{-1}	5.14×10^{-16b}
Replication	AADM	2019	59	5.08×10^{-1}	4.37×10^{-2}	5.49×10^{-3}
	ARIC	2031	72	7.20×10^{-2}	1.57×10^{-1}	3.16×10^{-1}
	BioMe	2835	75	8.81×10^{-1}	5.02×10^{-1}	6.16×10^{-1}
	BioVU	2018	74	2.94×10^{-1}	3.69×10^{-1}	5.49×10^{-1}
	HRS	2025	77	9.1×10^{-1}	7.72×10^{-1}	8.17×10^{-1}
	HUFS	1727	70	3.12×10^{-1}	3.62×10^{-1}	6.56×10^{-1}
	MESA	1624	75	1.2×10^{-2}	2.19×10^{-1}	1.85×10^{-2}
	Nigeria	2689	56	9.68×10^{-2}	8.22×10^{-2}	3.47×10^{-1}
	Meta analysis of replication cohorts			6.41×10^{-2}	9.11×10^{-2}	5.09×10^{-2}

^aAlthough the primary trait is PP, which has significant linkage evidence (LOD score = 3.8), we also reported the results for both SBP and DBP

^bThese *P* values are biased because of SNP selection

replication cohorts ($P = 0.027$). The extracellular matrix (ECM) receptor interaction (hsa4512) enriched in KEGG includes four genes: *TNN*, *TNR* (*MIM*:601995), *LAMC1* (*MIM*:150290), *LAMC2* (*MIM*:150292). The six variants in these four genes (rs143192203:G>T, rs859427:T>C, rs148657090:A>T, rs141408335:C>T, rs143817389:A>G, and rs35281117:T>A) are associated with PP in FBPP (SKAT-O $P = 0.022$) but fails to replicate ($P = 0.459$). Again we also reported the corresponding association evidence for SBP and DBP in Table 4.

Gene expression analyses of multiple tissues [34] on genes of interests in the most significant window and significant pathways are shown in Supplementary Figs. 4–7 by looking at the GTEx database.

Discussion

As GWAS have become a popular approach to detect genetic variants underlying complex traits, linkage analysis has become less popular, even ignored, since it is considered to be of low statistical power. However, the genetic variants identified by BP GWAS do not always localize to the genomic regions identified in previous linkage studies [21–23, 35–38], suggesting that the latter might provide novel clues to BP genetic susceptibility. A possible explanation for these discrepant findings is that GWAS are targeting common variants but have little power when multiple rare variants in a region (gene) contribute to trait variation, as can be detected with family-based linkage studies [17]. Thus, a search for multiple rare or low frequency BP variants in linkage regions may be fruitful. The success rate of this general strategy is, however, unknown.

In this study, we assessed such a BP linkage region using African American families from the FBPP study and who have been genotyped using the exome array, a platform specifically designed for examining functional variants with

variants enriched for many cardiovascular traits including BP. We identified seven genomic regions linked to BP traits (Table 1) with LOD score > 2 and three with significant linkage signals (LOD > 3). Interestingly, the most significant evidence came from a locus for PP on human chromosome 1q31 (LOD score = 3.8), previously observed for SBP and DBP in European Americans [30, 32, 33, 39] but not enriched for BP GWAS signals [35–38, 40, 41]. Since this locus has shown significant linkage evidence in multiple studies of multiple ancestries it remains as a credible BP locus whose genetics need to be dissected. The heritability analysis in 6194 unrelated African American subjects also concluded that common variants in this region are unlikely to account for BP variation (Supplementary Table 2). Our computer simulations corroborated that even a common variant accounting for 1% phenotypic variation is unable to produce the observed linkage evidence (Materials and Methods), suggesting that multiple rare and low frequency variants are likely to be the causes of the linkage evidence. Our association analysis was focus on PP because of the observed linkage evidence in the chromosome 1 region and identified 81 exonic variants (Supplementary Table 3) that explained most of the observed PP linkage evidence (Fig. 1). Not surprisingly, most of these 81 variants are low frequency or rare functional variants. Nevertheless, we were able to replicate the association evidence for these 81 variants in the meta-analysis of eight additional African ancestry cohorts with marginally significance ($P = 0.0509$, Table 2). Because we tested the 81 variants together in replication cohorts, there was no need to adjust for multiple comparisons. Using the genetic score defined by the 81 variants, we observed a substantial drop of LOD score (from 3.8 to 1.2), indicating that the selected variants explained substantial linkage evidence on chromosome 1. This study included the largest exome-array replication analysis in African Americans. Although the replication sample size ($N = 16,968$) was still much smaller than the

Table 3 Association of the most significant 4-SNP window results, containing the genes *ASTN1*, *SEC16B*, and *C1orf49*, in the discovery sample (FBPP) and in eight replication cohorts

Test	Data	SBP	DBP	PP ^a
Discovery	FBPP	5.46×10^{-3}	5.71×10^{-1}	2.43×10^{-4}
Replication	AADM	1.19×10^{-2}	1.52×10^{-1}	1.74×10^{-2}
	ARIC	1.50×10^{-2}	4.85×10^{-2}	9.48×10^{-2}
	BioMe	2.61×10^{-1}	7.19×10^{-1}	1.24×10^{-1}
	BioVU	7.02×10^{-1}	8.25×10^{-1}	7.34×10^{-1}
	HRS	2.66×10^{-1}	6.69×10^{-1}	1.8×10^{-1}
	HUFS	5.25×10^{-1}	2.15×10^{-2}	3.55×10^{-1}
	MESA	6.87×10^{-2}	3.67×10^{-2}	4.66×10^{-2}
	Nigeria	2.08×10^{-1}	4.50×10^{-1}	3.08×10^{-1}
	Meta analysis of replication cohorts	7.18×10^{-3}	3.57×10^{-2}	4.16×10^{-2}

^aAlthough the primary trait is PP, which has significant linkage evidence (LOD score = 3.8), we also reported the results for both SBP and DBP

large exome-array study of adult height ($N = 59,804$) [42], we observed the same degree of replication evidence (P values were between 0.05 and 0.01 without adjusting for multiple tests). Our and other's studies clearly suggest that the replication analyses for rare variant associations are facing a big challenge.

The main challenge is to identify which of the 54 genes, and their corresponding variants, within the linkage interval are responsible for inter-individual PP variation. Because the 81 variants are sparsely located in 54 genes, we performed non-overlapping window SKAT-O analysis to reduce the number of comparisons although a sliding window analysis had essentially the same result. We demonstrated that one interval of four variants with the genes *ASTN1*, *SEC16B*, and *C1orf49* is the most significantly associated in our discovery with PP and is also replicated (Table 3). However further data on new samples are needed to be assured of their significance. These three genes harbor four non-synonymous variants and demonstrate a consistent protective effect on PP in the FBPP. *ASTN1* and its two upstream genes *RFWD2* and *PAPPA2* have been shown to be strongly expressed in the renal outer medulla and show protective effects on HTN in Dahl S rats [43, 44], consistent with what we observed with humans in this study. This effect may be mediated through pathways that affect BP via renal transcellular Na and K electrochemical gradients and tubular Na transport, mitochondrial TCA cycle and cell energetics, and circadian rhythms [43]. For humans, we used the GTEx database [34] to search for the expression domains of the four genes: *ASTN1* is mainly expressed in the brain; and, *SEC16B* is highly expressed in the kidney and liver (Supplementary Fig. 4). Therefore, these four genes are highly relevant candidate BP genes. However, functional tests are needed to confirm these findings.

To assess function, we also examined protein-protein interaction data for the 54 genes using STRING [29] and observed significant enrichment in two GO and one Kegg

pathways (Table 4). The GO molecular function pathway “N, N-dimethylaniline monooxygenase activity” (GO:004499) involves flavin-containing monooxygenases (FMOs) genes: *FMO1*, *FMO2* and *FMO3* (Table 4). The four exonic variants in these genes are associated with PP in both FBPP and replication cohorts (Table 4). *FMO3* is involved in the formation of trimethylamine (TMA) N-oxides (TMAO) [45]. Organic osmolytes (i.e., TMAO) can counteract an increase in osmotic pressure and peripheral resistance, and hypertension can develop when there are no organic osmolytes [46]. Individuals with deficient *FMO3* activity have a higher prevalence of HTN and other CVD, because of a decrease in formation of TMAO to counterbalance the effects of a higher osmotic pressure and peripheral resistance [47]. *FMO1* is highly expressed in kidney, *FMO2* is highly expressed in lung, aorta and adipose and *FMO3* is highly expressed in liver and adipose (Supplementary Fig. 5). Therefore, the *FMO* family may regulate BP through these pathways but the specific functional deficits remain unknown.

These results, taken together, support the hypothesis that multiple rare and low frequency variants may underlie linkage peaks. If so, these regions represent new opportunities for gene discovery. This hypothesis immediately suggests many corollaries that can be tested: (1) rare functional variants can also have small-to-modest genetic effects and behave in a non-Mendelian manner, (2) the clustering of variants within the linkage region can occur from diverse genetic effects at a single gene (intragenic allelic heterogeneity) or from the effects of multiple variants in different genes (intergenic allelic heterogeneity), and (3) when different genes are implicated, as in here, they do not necessarily have to have the same function but need to perturb the trait through different pathways. These predictions depend on how gene function is distributed in the human genome. In contrast, it is surprising that the allelic effects are small to modest as for GWAS rather than being large as for coding variants in rare disease. This aspect may simply reflect the biology of a synthetic trait like BP that represents the effects

Table 4 STRING analysis of pathways within the 58 genes and their associations with BP. All the numbers refer *P* values

Pathway	Enrichment (P)	Genes in pathway	Association of genes with BP in FBPP ^a			Association of genes with BP in eight replication cohorts ^a		
			SBP	DBP	PP ^b	SBP	DBP	PP ^b
GO biological processes								
GO:0038032: termination of G-protein coupled receptor signaling pathway	0.0311	RGSL1 RGS21 RGS1 RGS13	0.028	0.148	0.018	0.449	0.700	0.659
GO molecular functions								
GO:0004499: N,N-dimethylaniline monooxygenase activity	0.00142	FMO1 FMO2 FMO3	0.333	0.712	0.026	0.052	0.286	0.027
Kegg pathways								
hsa4512: ECM-receptor interaction	0.0215	TNN TNR LAMC1 LAMC2	0.067	0.338	0.022	0.178	0.339	0.459

^a*P* values were calculated using the SKAT-O test^bAlthough the primary trait is PP, which has significant linkage evidence (LOD score = 3.8), we also reported the results for both SBP and DBP

of many genes and numerous independent pathways, but none with overwhelming importance. Perhaps, major physiological traits under homeostatic control have complex distributed regulation so that there is no single point of vulnerability. Consistent with this evidence, to date, variants in Mendelian HTN syndromes, do not explain the variance of BP in the general population.

Although linkage studies are often considered to have low statistical power, many disease variants have been identified through linkage analysis, such as the *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* genes for breast cancer and *RBFOX1* for BP [48, 49]. We used LOD score > 3, the initial proposal by Morton [25], as our genome-wide significance level corresponding to a principled posterior probability of linkage of 95 percent (Ott 1991 [26], p.66). Our linkage peak on chromosome 1 with LOD = 3.8 is also well above the threshold of 3.3 suggested by Lander and Kruglyak [50]. The linkage evidence at this region has been replicated multiple times in independent studies [30, 32, 33, 39]. We further calculated statistical power. The power to achieve a LOD score of 3.0 is 49.5% for a multiple point linkage analysis assuming a model with 5% quantitative trait loci (QTL) additive variance, 60% residual shared variance, no recombination between marker and the QTL, and a sample size of 4394 with sibship size 3 (the average sibship size of FBPP). However, the FBPP study was designed to enrich for families with HTN genes by over-sampling high BP family members such that our power could be underestimated.

Linkage analysis is not affected by allelic heterogeneity but association analysis is. Thus a reasonable hypothesis is that the observed significant linkage evidence on chromosome 1 is driven by multiple low frequency or rare variants, which is the focus of our study. In addition, we calculated the BP variation

explained by common variants across the genome using the summary statistics from the large BP GWAS study in ICBP [36]. The estimated variation explained by common variants is between 11.62 and 12.13%, which is much lower than the heritability estimated from family data (~35% [5]). Thus, our hypothesis that the linkage peak is driven by multiple low frequency or rare variants is reasonable.

In conclusion, our linkage analysis identified a genome wide significant region on 1q31 harboring PP variants. Follow-up association revealed multiple exonic variants in this region contributing the observed linkage evidence and the association evidence was replicable in independent cohorts. Association analysis and pathway analysis further identified multiple genes, *ASTN1*, *SEC16B*, *C1orf49*, *FMO1*, *FMO2*, and *FMO3* are associated with PP. Beyond producing new insights into BP, we demonstrate how family-based linkage and association studies can implicate specific rare and low frequency variants for complex traits.

Funding This work was supported in part by NIH grants HL086694 to AC and HG003054 to XZ. TLE was supported by NIH/NHLBI grant HL121429, JNH was supported by T32CA160056, RJFL was support by NIH grants DK107786, DK110113, and U01HG007417. The GenNet study is funded by NIH grants HL086694. The Genetic Epidemiology Network of Arteriopathy (GENOA) was supported by the National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute (HL054464, HL054457, HL054481, HL087660, HL086694, HL119443) of the National Institutes of Health. Genotyping was performed at the Center for Inherited Disease Research (CIDR). The HyperGEN cohort study is funded by cooperative agreements (U10) with NHLBI: HL54471, HL54472, HL54473, HL54495, HL54496, HL54497, HL54509, HL54515, and 2 R01 HL55673-12. The study involves: University of Utah (Network Coordinating Center, Field Center, and Molecular Genetics Lab); University of Alabama at Birmingham (Field Center and Echo Coordinating and Analysis Center); Medical College of Wisconsin (Echo Genotyping Lab); Boston University (Field Center);

University of Minnesota (Field Center and Biochemistry Lab); University of North Carolina (Field Center); Washington University (Data Coordinating Center); Weil Cornell Medical College (Echo Reading Center); National Heart, Lung, & Blood Institute. For a complete list of HyperGEN Investigators: <http://www.biostat.wustl.edu/hypergen/Acknowledge.html>. The Supports for replication cohorts are shown in Supplementary.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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