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### **Monogenic causes of chronic kidney disease in adults**

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DISCLOSURE

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#### **Abstract**

Approximately 500 monogenic causes of chronic kidney disease (CKD) have been identified, mainly in pediatric populations. The frequency of monogenic causes among adults with CKD has been less extensively studied. To determine the likelihood of detecting monogenic causes of CKD in adults presenting to nephrology services in Ireland, we conducted whole exome sequencing (WES) in a multi-centre cohort of 114 families including 138 affected individuals with CKD. Affected adults were recruited from 78 families with a positive family history, 16 families with extra-renal features, and 20 families with neither a family history nor extra-renal features. We detected a pathogenic mutation in a known CKD gene in 42 of 114 families (37%). A monogenic cause was identified in 36% of affected families with a positive family history of CKD, 69% of those with extra-renal features, and only 15% of those without a family history or extra-renal features. There was no difference in the rate of genetic diagnosis in individuals with childhood versus adult onset CKD. Among the 42 families in whom a monogenic cause was identified, WES confirmed the clinical diagnosis in 17 (40%), corrected the clinical diagnosis in 9 (22%), and established a diagnosis for the first time in 16 families referred with CKD of unknown etiology (38%). In this multi-centre study of adults with CKD, a molecular genetic diagnosis was established in over one-third of families. In the evolving era of precision medicine, WES may be an important tool to identify the cause of CKD in adults.

#### **Abstract**



#### **Keywords**

chronic kidney disease; genetic kidney disease; whole exome sequencing

#### **INTRODUCTION**

The estimated global prevalence of chronic kidney disease (CKD) is 11 to  $13\%$ .<sup>1</sup> CKD is associated with high morbidity and resource utilisation.<sup>2</sup> Mounting evidence highlights the urgency for early diagnosis and intervention, to stem the sequelae of elevated cardiovascular risk and to delay progression to end stage kidney disease  $(ESKD)$ .<sup>3</sup> Monogenic causes of  $CKD$  in childhood are well established<sup>4</sup>, whereas very little data exists on monogenic causation of CKD in adults. In 34% of adults with CKD a positive family history is reported which suggests genetic causation.<sup>5–7</sup> However, genetic testing for adults is still not routinely performed in clinical practice. Panel sequencing of CKD genes directed towards specific diagnostic groups has revealed a genetic disorder in up to 43% of patients.<sup>8</sup> Using whole exome sequencing (WES), a single centre study demonstrated that a monogenic diseasecausing gene can be identified in 24% of adults with CKD.<sup>9</sup>

In this study, we aim to determine the contribution of monogenic CKD genes in an Irish adult cohort with CKD. We hypothesise that genetic causes of CKD in adults are underrecognised, particularly in patients with a positive family history of CKD or presence of extra-renal features. Employing WES in patients with familial nephropathy or extra-renal features may therefore reveal monogenic aetiologic diagnoses in a high percentage of patients.

The estimated prevalence of  $CKD$  – aetiology unknown (CKDU) is 10-36% in adults.<sup>7, 10</sup> In this setting, patients often present late with bilateral small kidneys that are not amenable to kidney biopsy. Even if a kidney biopsy is obtained, histological examination can still be uninformative, as advanced CKD can result in histological findings that are indistinguishable between multiple diseases.<sup>11</sup> We also hypothesise that WES may be especially useful in patients with CKDU. Establishing a molecular diagnosis in patients with CKDU can therefore have resulting consequences for adequate clinical management particularly in the era of "precision medicine".

#### **RESULTS**

#### **A molecular genetic diagnosis was established in 37% of families using WES**

We performed WES in 114 families with CKD (138 affected individuals). The median age at time of recruitment was 48 years [range 180-85 years], with a slight male predominance (70/138, 51%, Table 1). We detected a molecular genetic diagnosis in 42 of the 114 families (37%) (Figure 1 A, navy blue segment). The genetic diagnostic rate varied by recruitment group (Figure 2). We detected mutations across a diverse spectrum of known monogenic CKD genes encompassing mutations in 29 different genes (Table 2, Figure 3). These categories included cystic kidney disease genes (8/42 families, Figure 1 B, red segment), syndromic congenital anomalies of the kidney and urinary tract (CAKUT) genes (8/42 families, Figure 1 B, light blue segment), isolated CAKUT genes (6/42 families, Figure 1 B, dark blue segment), chronic glomerulonephritis (GN) genes (5/42 families, Figure 1 B, orange segment), tubulo-interstitial kidney disease (TIKD) genes (4/42 families, Figure 1 B, brown segment), renal tubulopathy genes (4/42, Figure 1 B, purple segment), nephrolithiasis/ nephrocalcinosis (NLNC) genes (4/42 families, Figure 1 B, pink segment),

steroid resistant nephrotic syndrome (SRNS) genes (2/42 families, Figure 1 B, green segment), and Fabry disease genes (1/42 families, Figure 1 B, cream segment).

#### **Detection of a molecular genetic diagnosis in families with an a priori clinical diagnosis of cystic kidney disease**

In families with a priori clinical diagnosis of cystic kidney disease (12/114), we detected a pathogenic mutation in ten of 12 families (83%). In six families, the molecular genetic diagnosis confirmed the pre-WES clinical diagnosis, with detection of mutations in cystic kidney disease or nephronophthisis (NPHP) genes (Table 2 red segment, P13, IFT140, P80 and P389, NPHP1; P324, BBS9, P231and P317, PKHD1). In four families, we detected mutations in CKD genes known to phenocopy cystic kidney disease. This pertained mostly to bilateral small kidneys that were thought to represent the phenotype of small cystic kidneys, but in fact represented the CAKUT phenotype of renal hypodysplasia (Table 2, light blue segment, B2328, GLI3; B2454, TBX1; P320, MAP2K2). In one family, WES identified a likely pathogenic mutation in the gene GLA, previously reported in patients with Fabry disease (Table 2, B2327, cream segment).<sup>12</sup>

#### **Detection of a molecular genetic diagnosis in families with an a priori clinical diagnosis of CAKUT**

For families with CAKUT (45/114 families), we detected mutations in ten of 45 families (22%). Five families had mutations in isolated CAKUT genes (Table 2, dark blue segment, P306, HNF1B; B2482, UPK3A; P69 and P307, PAX2; P162, FREM2), while three families had mutations in syndromic CAKUT genes (Table 2, light blue segment, B2330, PROKR2; B2481, TBX3; B2463, FBNI). In three of the families in whom we detected mutations in syndromic CAKUT genes, extra-renal features were present on clinical review that were concordant with the corresponding molecular genetic diagnosis (Table 2, column 5). In two families, we identified mutations in non-CAKUT genes (Table. 2 B2457, AQP2, purple segment and B2427, COL4A3, orange segment). The molecular genetic diagnosis in these two families was discordant with the clinical diagnosis.

#### **Detection of a molecular genetic diagnosis in families with an a priori clinical diagnosis of chronic glomerulonephritis (GN)**

In two of the seven families referred with chronic GN (7/114), we detected mutations in genes known to be causative of focal segmental glomerulosclerosis (FSGS) (Table 2, green segment). In both families (KF4 and P640), identification of a pathogenic mutation in the INF2 gene, resulted in the correction of the clinical diagnosis from GN to FSGS.

#### **Detection of a molecular genetic diagnosis in families with an a priori clinical diagnosis of tubulo-interstitial kidney disease (TIKD)**

Within the TIKD cohort (7/114), we established a molecular genetic diagnosis in two of seven families (29%). In family B2337, both siblings presented with CKD and gout at 42 years. Examination of renal biopsy specimens in both showed evidence of tubulo-interstitial nephritis. The molecular genetic diagnosis confirmed hyperuricaemic nephropathy with detection of a causative mutation in UMOD (Table 2 B2337, brown segment). In family

B2342, the molecular genetic diagnosis facilitated a clinical review of two siblings presenting with CKD and diabetes mellitus in adulthood. Both affected siblings had renal biopsy findings of tubulo-interstitial nephritis, while one sibling (B2342\_44) had evidence of pancreatic exocrine dysfunction. Detection of a mutation in the gene HNF1B therefore facilitated reclassification of the clinical diagnosis to renal cyst and diabetes syndrome (Table 2 B2342, dark blue segment).

#### **No molecular genetic diagnosis established in families with an a priori clinical diagnosis of nephrotic syndrome**

Of the seven of 114 families referred with nephrotic syndrome, no molecular genetic diagnosis could be established post WES.

#### **Detection of a molecular genetic diagnosis in families with an a priori clinical diagnosis of renal tubulopathy**

In two unrelated families with renal tubulopathies (Table 2, purple segment, B2350 and B2453), we detected a pathogenic homozygous mutation in CLCNKB, previously reported as being causative of Bartter syndrome.<sup>13</sup> Interestingly, B2453  $\,80$  presented both with features of Bartter syndrome and microscopic hematuria. Following WES, we detected a second mutation in the Alport gene COL4A5 (Table 2, purple and orange segment). Patients with this exact mutation are reported to develop late onset microscopic hematuria and renal impairment.<sup>14</sup>

In summary, in 17 of the 42 solved families (40%), the molecular genetic diagnosis post-WES confirmed the *a priori* clinical diagnosis. The diagnostic yield varied depending on the a priori clinical diagnosis (Figure 2). In nine of the 42 families (22%), the molecular genetic diagnosis resulted in correction of the clinical diagnosis, while in 16 families with CKD – aetiology unknown" (38%), WES established a new molecular genetic diagnosis (Table 3).

#### **WES corrected the a priori clinical diagnosis**

In nine of 42 solved families (22%), WES corrected the clinical diagnosis (Table 3). As an example, patient B2457\_78, with an a priori clinical diagnosis of CAKUT, presented with ESKD and a renal ultrasound showing bilateral small kidneys presumed to be due to bilateral renal hypodysplasia. Following WES, we detected a heterozygous AQP2 mutation (Table 2, purple segment). On review post WES, the patient had initially presented as an infant in the 1970s with polyuria, vomiting and hypernatremia and subsequent bilateral renal vein thrombosis. This reverse phenotyping confirmed the molecular genetic diagnosis of nephrogenic diabetes insipidus by WES.

In patient B2427\_56, with an a priori clinical diagnosis of CAKUT, we detected a heterozygous mutation in the  $COL4A3$  gene<sup>11</sup> (Table 2, orange segment). Due to the lack of a family history and absence of a renal biopsy specimen, the clinical diagnosis of autosomal dominant Alport syndrome had not been suspected initially. This demonstrates the utility of WES in establishing a definitive clinical diagnosis in patients with atypical or indistinct phenotypes.

Family P640 had an initial diagnosis of C3 glomerulonephritis (Table 2, green and orange segment, Supplementary Figure S1). Both affected individuals (P640\_82 and P640\_83) presented with advanced proteinuric CKD in their twenties. Multiple family members were noted to have low C3 levels but all had normal renal function. Following WES, the molecular genetic diagnosis of FSGS due to a dominant heterozygous mutation in *INF2* was established in P640\_82 and P640\_83. Interestingly, an additional finding of a dominant heterozygous variant in C3 was also identified in P640  $82$  with ESKD and P640  $2008$ without ESKD, both of whom were hypocomplementaemic. Mutations in this gene can result in complement dysregulation characterised by low C3 levels thereby increasing susceptibility to atypical haemolytic uraemic syndrome.<sup>15</sup>

#### **WES established a new clinical diagnosis families with "CKD – aetiology unknown"**

In families referred with CKDU (34 of 114 families, 30%), we detected a pathogenic mutation in 16 of 34 families (47%). This represents 38% of the solved cohort (16 of 42 solved families) (Table 4). The molecular genetic diagnoses in these families included cystic kidney disease or NPHP (P322, DYNC2H1; P105, NPHP1; Table 2, red segment), syndromic CAKUT (P198, WFS1 and B2479, FANC1, Table 2, light blue segment), Alport syndrome (B2347 COL4A3, and P241, P58, P100, COL4A5, Table 2, orange segment), TIKD (P193 & P232, UMOD; P88, FAN1, Table 2, brown segment), hypertensive renal disease (B2467, WNK4, Table 2, purple segment), and nephrocalcinosis/nephrolithiasis (B2344, SLC3A1; P318, OCRL; P182 and B2340, CLCN5, Table 2, pink segment). None of the above disease–causing mutations were suspected on clinical grounds before this study, and affected patients were not clinically distinguished from other patients with CKDU. WES therefore facilitated establishment of a molecular genetic diagnosis in families who otherwise would have remained without a formal diagnosis.

#### **Identification of variants of uncertain significance (VUS)**

In 12% of families (14/114) we detected a potentially pathogenic mutation in a gene known to cause CKD (Figure 1, light blue segment, Supplementary Table S1), however the identified variants did not meet our a priori criteria for definite confirmation of pathogenicity, either due to lack of clinical evidence to perform adequate genotypephenotype correlation or lack of additional familial DNA to perform segregation analysis.

#### **Factors associated with obtaining genetic diagnosis**

The highest yield in terms of establishing a molecular genetic diagnosis was in families with CKD and extra-renal features (11/16 families, 69%). In families with a positive family history, we obtained a molecular genetic diagnosis in 36% (28/78 families). In families with a negative family history and no extra-renal features, monogenic causation was observed in 15% (3/20 families) (Figure 2). No significant difference was observed in the median age of reaching ESKD in individuals in whom we established a molecular diagnosis (33 years, range 6-78 years, Table 4) versus individuals in whom no molecular diagnosis was established (31 years, range 5-68 years, p=0.955).

#### **DISCUSSION**

In this large multicentre study, we systematically evaluated the utility of WES in a cohort of adults with CKD. We established a molecular genetic diagnosis following WES in 42 of 114 (37%) families with CKD attending nephrology services in Ireland. A genetic diagnosis was established in 69% (11/16) of families with extra-renal features, 36% (28/78) of families with familial nephropathy, while in families negative for both family history and extra-renal features, monogenic causation was observed in 15% (3/20). It has previously been estimated that  $\sim$ 10% of all adults with CKD have an underlying genetic aetiology.<sup>16</sup> Recently, a higher prevalence of 24% for monogenic causation was reported following WES.<sup>9</sup> In this single centre study, Lata et al. recruited 92 patients with either a family history of CKD, undiagnosed CKD or a clinical suspicion of genetic kidney disease due to childhood onset CKD. We observed comparable rates of confirmation, correction, and establishment of a new clinical diagnosis post WES (Table 3). More recently, Mallett demonstrated, using targeted exomic sequencing, a genetic diagnostic rate of 43% in patients with familial renal disease.<sup>8</sup> Akin to our findings, the genetic diagnostic rate was similar in those with pediatric onset disease and adult onset disease (Supplementary Table S2). Together, these data provide compelling evidence that monogenic disease causation is under-recognised in adults with CKD, and WES can be utilised to provide a monogenic aetiologic diagnosis in adults with CKD.

Our data highlights that mutations in genes classically described as "childhood" CKD genes can also be identified in adults. We hypothesise that later onset disease is due to allelic heterogeneity with "milder" phenotypes likely attributable to "milder" missense mutations. <sup>17</sup> For example, autosomal recessive polycystic kidney disease (ARPKD) has classically been characterised as a childhood onset nephropathy, with few cases of ESKD observed beyond 40 years.<sup>18</sup> We identified recessive missense mutations in the *PKHD1* gene in two unrelated families with onset of ESKD >40 years (Table 2, red segment, P231 and P317). Patient P317\_48, presented with "CKD – aetiology unknown" age 46 years, progressing to ESKD at 52 years. A compound heterozygous missense mutation in PKHD1 was identified by WES (a novel c.2702A>C, p.Asn901Thr variant and a previously reported c.107C>T p. Thr36Met variant<sup>18</sup>). Recently, it has been shown that compound heterozygous mutations that involve at least one missense mutation of *PKHD1* can lead to adult onset disease.<sup>19, 20</sup> These data add to the mounting evidence supporting a monogenic causation hypothesis in adults and highlight the utility of WES in the investigation of adults with CKD.

The estimated prevalence of CKDU is 10-36% in adults,  $^{7, 10}$  with a prevalence of 30% (34/114) in the current cohort. By employing WES, we were able to establish a molecular genetic diagnosis in almost half of families with CKDU (16/34, 47%), confirming our hypothesis that CKDU may have a monogenic component. These data are consistent with findings from other groups (Table 3). By employing WES in cases where renal ultrasound and kidney biopsies were uninformative, we detected pathogenic mutations across a diverse spectrum of known monogenic causes of CKD including cystic kidney disease (2/16 families, Table 2, red segment), CAKUT (2/16 families, Table 2, blue segment), chronic GN (4/16 families, Table 2, orange segment), TIKD (3/16 families, Table 2, brown segment), renal tubulopathy (1/16, Table 2, purple segment), and nephrolithiasis/nephrocalcinosis

(4/16 families, Table 2, pink segment) (Figure 3). Given that all these patients would have remained without a clinical diagnosis, these findings are significant.

Consistent with prior literature on genetic CKD in childhood, we demonstrated that the likelihood of obtaining a molecular genetic diagnosis in adults increased with the recognition of extra-renal manifestations  $(69\%)$ .<sup>21</sup> As demonstrated in our cohort, mild extra-renal features are commonly unrecognised until clinical re-review is performed in full cognizance of the molecular genetic diagnosis (Table 2, Supplementary Table  $S1$ ).<sup>22</sup> This strategy of "reverse phenotyping" has been described extensively in childhood cohorts $^{23}$ , and our data shows that this holds relevance in adults with CKD. Identification of specific pathogenic mutations can also facilitate screening for otherwise undetected extra-renal features. For example, identifications of mutations in the gene HNF1B, has allowed for screening for associated extra-renal features such as diabetes, facilitating early lifestyle intervention strategies and avoidance of pro-diabetic medications in the post-transplant period (P306 and B2342, Table 2, blue segment).

Unnecessary diagnostic interventions can, in certain cases, be avoided following establishment of a molecular genetic diagnosis. This was particularly evident in cases where the pre-test probability of obtaining a diagnosis is low such as occurs in patients presenting with bilateral small kidneys not amenable to biopsy. This was the case for family P88 in whom we detected a pathogenic mutation in the gene FAN1, where multiple attempts to obtain a kidney biopsy were futile (Table 2 brown segment). On retrospective review, WES could have provided an earlier, more precise molecular diagnosis thereby facilitating early institution of anti-proteinuric medication, avoidance of systemic immunosuppression and negate the need for a non-diagnostic kidney biopsy.

Employing WES can allow for establishment of a more precise molecular genetic diagnosis in families with complex clinical presentations. As seen in family P640, with a presumed diagnosis of C3 glomerulonephritis, identification of a pathogenic mutation in INF2 permitted the diagnosis of FSGS (Table 2, P640\_83, P640\_82, Supplementary Figure S1), while detection of a second variant in the gene  $C_3$  may explain the observation of complement dysregulation in other family members (Table 2, P640\_2008 and P640\_82). In patient B2453\_80 with Bartter syndrome, clinical heterogeneity was evident at clinical presentation which remained unresolved prior to WES. This patient presented with microscopic hematuria, a finding which was resolved following identification of a hemizygous mutation in the Alport gene COL4A5 (Table 2, orange segment). Patients with this exact mutation are reported to develop late onset microscopic hematuria and renal impairment.14 Findings such as these can facilitate early intervention with anti-proteinuric medication to stem the progression of CKD. Additionally, given the emerging evidence of increased risk of ESKD in both donors and recipients in families with Alport syndrome<sup>24</sup>, a molecular genetic diagnosis can help guide physicians when performing risk stratification of potential related donors at live donor assessment.

This study is not without limitations. First, the study was performed on a select population of predominantly Irish ethnicity, thereby reducing generalisability to other populations. Second, our cohort had a higher prevalence of familial CKD (78/114, 68%, Figure 2)

compared to the reported prevalence in the general Irish CKD population (629/1840, 34%).<sup>7</sup> Finally, although all patients were recruited as adults (median age of recruitment 48 years [range 18-85 years]), some patients developed ESKD in childhood (21/138, 15%, Table 1). Since prior reports suggest a higher prevalence of monogenic causation in childhood<sup>4</sup>, these findings should be considered when extrapolating to the general CKD population. Interestingly, when comparing the rate of molecular genetic diagnosis in childhood onset CKD versus adult onset CKD, no significant difference was observed in the rate of obtaining a genetic diagnosis (20/50, 40% with childhood onset CKD versus 35/85, 41% with adult onset disease, p=0.893, Supplementary Table S3). Equally, no significant difference in the median age of onset of ESKD was observed in patients, in whom we established a genetic diagnosis (median 33 years, range 6-78 years, Table 4) versus those who remained genetically unsolved following WES  $(31 \text{ years}, \text{range } 5.68 \text{ years}, \text{p} = 0.651)$ . These findings are further supported by other groups, who have demonstrated no significant difference in genetic diagnosis rates in those with peadiatric versus adult onset disease (46% versus 40%, Supplementary Table S2).<sup>8</sup>

In 58 of 114 families (51%) no molecular genetic diagnosis was established following WES (Supplementary Table S4). In monogenic diseases about 85% of all causative mutations are located within the coding sequence or the adjacent splice sites.<sup>25</sup> The remaining 15% are complex deletion-insertion, copy-number variants, or reside within a promotor or other intronic region. As none of these variants can be detected by WES, this technical limitation might explain why some remain without a molecular diagnosis. Furthermore, WES might miss a subset of causative variants due to low coverage in the respective target region. In the current cohort, a mean depth of coverage of 48× was achieved. Specific exonic regions in the 478 known CKD genes, which did not reach this depth of coverage are outlined in Supplementary Table S5. Mutations in these regions may have been missed by WES analysis.

#### **CONCLUSION**

In a select patient cohort presenting with CKD in adulthood, we detected pathogenic mutations in known monogenic CKD genes in over one third of families. Detection of monogenic causes of CKD permit molecular genetic diagnosis for patients and families, and open avenues for personalised treatment strategies for CKD.

#### **METHODS**

#### **Human subjects**

This multi-centre study enroled adult patients with CKD presenting to nephrology services in Ireland in a consecutive manner from January 2014 to July 2017, as previously described.  $7$  Consent for WES was obtained from each individual recruited and approved by the medical ethics boards at each recruitment site in Ireland. Patients with CKD who had either a positive family history of CKD (Supplementary Figure S2 A, 78/114 families) or extrarenal features (Supplementary Figure S2 B, 16/114 families) were recruited. To assess the effect of familial diagnosis and extra-renal features on detection rate of a molecular genetic diagnosis, families with CKD with a negative family history and no extra-renal features were

also recruited (Supplementary Figure S2 C, 20/114 families). The clinical diagnosis of CKD was defined pre-WES as per the primary nephrologist's referral into one of the following a *priori* clinical diagnoses $26$ :

- **•** Cystic kidney disease including nephronophthisis (NPHP), medullary cystic disease, or other renal cystic ciliopathies (12/114 families). Patients with autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease (ADPKD) were excluded.
- **•** Congenital anomalies of the kidney and urinary tract (CAKUT) (45/114 families) defined as any abnormality of number, size, shape, or anatomical position within the kidneys or urinary tract.
- **•** Chronic glomerulonephritis (GN) encompassing membranoproliferative GN (MPGN), crescentic GN, and haemolytic uraemic syndrome (7/114 families). Patients with genetically confirmed Alport syndrome and CKD due to systemic vasculitis were excluded.
- **•** Tubulo-interstitial kidney disease (TIKD) with biopsy findings of chronic tubulointersitital nephritis without an obvious precipitating cause (7/114 families). Patients with confirmed mutations in MUC1 and UMOD were excluded.
- **•** Steroid resistant nephrotic syndrome (SRNS), or nephrotic syndrome with biopsy findings of focal segmental glomerulosclerosis (FSGS) (7/114 families).
- **•** Renal tubulopathies (2/114 families)
- **•** "CKD aetiology unknown" (CKDU) (34/114 families) where patients had small kidneys bilaterally and/or lacked an informative kidney biopsy.

#### **Whole exome sequencing and variant calling**

WES was performed as previously described.<sup>23, 27</sup> Genomic DNA was isolated from blood lymphocytes or saliva samples as per standard protocols and subjected to exome capture using Agilent SureSelect™ human exome capture arrays (Life technologies™) followed by next generation sequencing on the Illumina HiSeq™ sequencing platform. Sequence reads were mapped to the human reference genome assembly (NCBI build 37/hg19) using CLC Genomics Workbench™ (version 6.5.2, CLC bio, Aarhus, Denmark). Variants with minor allele frequencies >1% in either dbSNP (version 147), 1,000 Genomes Project, EVS and gnomAD databases were excluded. For patients referred with an a priori clinical diagnosis of nephrotic syndrome, we manually searched for the p.Arg229Gln mutation in the NPHS2 gene, since this allele occurs at a frequency of  $>1\%$ .<sup>28</sup> Synonymous and intronic variants not located within splice site regions were excluded. Retained variants, which included nonsynonymous and splice site variants, were then analysed (Supplementary Figure S3 and S4).

Depending on the *a priori* clinical diagnosis we evaluated WES data for mutations in known CKD genes in the matching disease category (i.e. a priori clinical diagnosis of chronic GN, we examined for mutations in known chronic GN genes, Supplementary Table S6–S13). If the family remained unsolved or the a priori clinical diagnosis was CKDU, we evaluated for mutations in all 478 known CKD genes (Supplementary Figure S5, Supplementary Tables S6–S13). Remaining variants were ranked based on their probable impact on the function of

the encoded protein considering evolutionary conservation among orthologues across phylogeny using ENSEMBL Genome Browser and assembled using Clustal Omega, as well as the web-based prediction programmes PolyPhen-2, SIFT, and MutationTaster (Supplementary Table S14). Following filtering using our a priori criteria (Supplementary Figure S3 and S4), each mutation was then classified as per the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics (ACMG) guidelines.29 In each family in whom we identified a likely causative monogenic mutation, clinical review with the referring physician was conducted to confirm that the phenotype was concordant with previously reported phenotypes, so called "reverse phenotyping". Each likely causative monogenic mutation was classified as per the ACMG guidelines as pathogenic or likely pathogenic. Variants were classified as variants of uncertain significance (VUS) if there was discordance with previously published phenotypes, the exact variant was not previously reported and additional familial DNA was not available to perform segregation analysis. Remaining mutations were confirmed in original patient DNA by Sanger, with segregation whenever familial DNA was available.

#### **Statistical Analysis**

Descriptive statistics were expressed using frequencies and proportions. Age at diagnosis of CKD was defined as age of 1st presentation to a nephrology service with CKD, while age at ESKD was defined as age of commencement of renal replacement therapy (i.e. date of receipt of 1<sup>st</sup> kidney transplant or date of commencement of dialysis).

#### **Supplementary Material**

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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**Figure 1. Percentage of the 114 families in Ireland with CKD in whom whole exome sequencing (WES) established a molecular genetic diagnosis (i.e. a pathogenic or likely pathogenic monogenic mutation in a known CKD gene was detected following WES)**

(A) The 37% of families (42/114) in whom a pathogenic or likely pathogenic mutation in a known CKD disease gene was detected (i.e. molecular genetic diagnosis established following WES) is denoted by a navy blue colour. The 12% of families (14/114) in whom a variant of uncertain significance (VUS) in a known CKD gene was detected, is denoted by the light blue colour. Yellow colour indicates that no meaningful genetic variant could be detected in a known CKD gene following WES (i.e. no molecular genetic diagnosis established following WES).

(B) The category and percentage of monogenic mutations detected in the 42 families in whom we identified a pathogenic or likely pathogenic mutation in a known CKD gene (i.e. families in whom we established a molecular genetic diagnosis). Each colour represents a different molecular genetic diagnostic group.

i) Mutations in known cystic kidney disease including nephronophthisis genes (red)

ii) Mutations in known syndromic CAKUT genes (light blue)

iii) Mutations in known isolated CAKUT genes (dark blue)

iv) Mutations in known chronic glomerulonephritis (GN) genes (orange)

v) Mutations in known tubulo-interstitial kidney disease (TIKD) genes (brown)

vi) Mutations in known renal tubulopathy genes (purple)

vii) Mutations in known nephrolithiasis/nephrocalcinosis (NLNC) genes (pink)

viii) Mutations in known steroid resistant nephrotic syndrome (SRNS) genes (green)

ix) Mutations in known rare chronic kidney disease genes (miscellaneous category) (cream) identified



**Figure 2. Percentage of the 114 families in Ireland with CKD in whom whole exome sequencing established a molecular genetic diagnosis (i.e. a pathogenic or likely pathogenic monogenic mutation in a known CKD gene was detected following WES) stratified by recruitment group** Navy blue colour denotes families in whom a pathogenic or likely pathogenic mutation in a known CKD gene was detected (i.e. molecular genetic diagnosis established following WES). Light blue colour denotes families in whom we identified a variant of uncertain significance (VUS) in a known CKD gene following WES. Yellow colour indicates that no meaningful genetic variant could be detected in a known CKD gene following WES (i.e. no molecular genetic diagnosis established following WES).

A) Positive family history cohort denotes families with CKD who report CKD in either a 1st

or 2nd degree relative (78/144 families)

B) Negative family history but extra-renal features cohort (16/114 families)

C) Negative family history and no extra-renal features cohort (20/114 families)



#### **Figure 3. Specific mutation category identified by whole exome sequencing in 114 families with chronic kidney disease**

The X-axis displays the 7 *a priori* clinical diagnostic groups listed horizontally and includes cystic kidney disease (KD), congenital anomalies of the kidney and urinary tract (CAKUT), chronic glomerulonephritis (GN), tubulo-interstitial kidney disease (TIKD), steroid resistant nephrotic syndrome (SRNS), renal tubulopathy (tubulopathy) and CKD - aetiology unknown. The Y-axis displays the molecular genetic diagnosis established following whole exome sequencing and includes the following:

i) Mutations in known cystic kidney disease including nephronophthisis genes (red) identified

ii) Mutations in known syndromic CAKUT genes (light blue) identified

iii) Mutations in known isolated CAKUT genes (dark blue) identified

iv) Mutations in known chronic glomerulonephritis (GN) genes (orange) identified

v) Mutations in known tubulo-interstitial kidney disease (TIKD) genes (brown) identified

vi) Mutations in known renal tubulopathy genes (purple) identified

vii) Mutations in known steroid resistant nephrotic syndrome (SRNS) genes (green) identified

viii) Mutations in known nephrolithiasis/nephrocalcinosis (NLNC) genes (pink) identified

ix) Mutations in known rare chronic kidney disease genes (miscellaneous category) (cream) identified

x) No molecular genetic diagnosis established following WES (yellow)

#### **Table 1.**

Clinical characteristics of the 138 affected individuals (114 families) with chronic kidney disease that were submitted for whole exome sequencing analysis



*A priori* **clinical diagnosis,** the clinical diagnosis of chronic kidney disease defined pre-WES as per the primary nephrologist's referral; **CAKUT**, congenital anomalies of the kidney and urinary tract; **CKD**, chronic kidney disease; **ESKD**, End Stage Kidney Disease; **GN**, glomerulonephritis; **SRNS**, steroid resistant nephrotic syndrome; **TIKD**, tubulo-interstitial kidney disease

 $a$  age of 1<sup>st</sup> presentation to medical services with evidence of CKD

b age at commencement of renal replacement therapy i.e. dialysis or kidney transplant

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# **Table 2.**

Information on pre-whole exome sequencing a priori clinical diagnosis and post- whole exome sequencing molecular genetic diagnosis in the 42 families in whom pathogenic or likely pathogenic mutations in Information on pre-whole exome sequencing a priori clinical diagnosis and post- whole exome sequencing molecular genetic diagnosis in the 42 families in whom pathogenic or likely pathogenic mutations in known monogenic chronic kidney disease genes were identified post WES. All families with a molecular genetic diagnosis were classified as pathogenic or likely pathogenic as per the ACMG guidelines (last known monogenic chronic kidney disease genes were identified post WES. All families with a molecular genetic diagnosis were classified as pathogenic or likely pathogenic as per the ACMG guidelines (last column). In families in whom segregation was not possible (column 12) AND the exact mutation was not previously described (last column), the variant was considered a variant of uncertain significance column). In families in whom segregation was not possible (column 12) AND the exact mutation was not previously described (last column), the variant was considered a variant of uncertain significance (Supplementary Table S1). In the case of a compound heterozygous mutation, at least one of the alleles were classified as either pathogenic or likely pathogeni (Supplementary Table S1). In the case of a compound heterozygous mutation, at least one of the alleles were classified as either pathogenic or likely pathogeni





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evolutionary conservation was assessed across phylogeny over eight species: M.m., Mus musculus; G.g., Gallus gallus; X.t., Xenopus tropicalis; D.r., Danio rerio; C.e., elegans; C.i., Ciona intestinalis; D.m., Drosphilia me evolutionary conservation was assessed across phylogeny over eight species: M.m., Mus musculus; G.g., Gallus; Al.t., Xenopus tropicalis; D.r., Danio rerio; C.e., elegans; C.i., Conna intestinalis; D.m., Drosphilia melanoga conservation is interrupted in one species but otherwise preserved across phylogeny a numerical reference is provided: <sup>1</sup>Valine in G. gallus; <sup>2</sup>Lysine in M. musculus.  $2_{\rm Ly sine}$  in M. musculus. <sup>1</sup>Valine in G. gallus; conservation is interrupted in one species but otherwise preserved across phylogeny a numerical reference is provided:

 $\mathcal{S}_{\text{PP2},\text{PolyPhen 2 (http://genetics.bwh.harvard.edu/pph2)}}$  ${}^E_{}$ PP2, PolyPhen 2 [\(http://genetics.bwh.harvard.edu/pph2](http://genetics.bwh.harvard.edu/pph2))

 $h_{\rm SIFI,$  Sorting intolerant from tolerant  $({\rm http://sit.jcvi.org/}$ SIFT, Sorting intolerant from tolerant (<http://sift.jcvi.org/>)

 $\mbox{M}$  Mutation Taster (http://www.mutation<br/>taster.org) MT, Mutation Taster [\(http://www.mutationtaster.org](http://www.mutationtaster.org/))

gnom AD, variant frequencies listed for homozygous/ hemizygous (if applicable)/ heterozygous/ total alleles(http://gnomad.broadinstitute.org/)  $j$ gnom AD, variant frequencies listed for homozygous/ hemizygous (if applicable)/ heterozygous/ total alleles(<http://gnomad.broadinstitute.org/>) ACMG, American College of Human Genetics Standards and Guidelines Classification as pathogenic, likely pathogenic or VUS (Richards Genet Med 17(5):405, 2015) ACMG, American College of Human Genetics Standards and Guidelines Classification as pathogenic, likely pathogenic or VUS (Richards Genet Med 17(5):405, 2015)

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HGMd, Human Gene Mutation Database; https://portal.biobaseinternational.com/hgmd, If the exact variant has previously been reported on HGMD Professional 2017.2 for the reported phenotype and classified as a pathogenic muta "DM". Variant denoted as "7DM" if the variant is a likely pathogenic mutation to be disease causing but where the author indicated some degree of doubt or subsequent evidence calls the deleterious nature of the variant int HGMd, Human Gene Mutation Database;<https://portal.biobaseinternational.com/hgmd>, If the exact variant has proviously been reported on HGMD Professional 2017.2 for the reported phenotype and classified as a pathogenic muta "DM". Variant denoted as "DM" if the variant is a likely pathogenic mutation to be disease causing but where the author indicated some degree of doubt or subsequent evidence calls the deleterious nature of the variant into reported for the corresponding phenotype "Gene" is indicated in this column. reported for the corresponding phenotype "Gene" is indicated in this column.

 $m_{\text{Clin\,}}$  Var, classification if variant has been submitted to the ClinVar database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/clinvar). Clin Var, classification if variant has been submitted to the ClinVar database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/clinvar>).

#### **Table 3.**

#### Comparison between the outcomes in the current study and a recent publication



**CKD**, chronic kidney disease; **WES**, whole exome sequencing; NA, not applicable.

1 Lata S et al. Whole-Exome Sequencing in Adults With Chronic Kidney Disease: A Pilot Study. Annals of Internal Medicine 2018; **168:** 100–109.

#### **Table 4.**

Comparison of the clinical characteristics of the 138 affected patients with chronic kidney disease by molecular genetic diagnostic category following whole exome sequencing



**CAKUT**, congenital anomalies of the kidney and urinary tract; **CKD**, chronic kidney disease; **ESKD**, End Stage Kidney Disease; **GN**, glomerulonephritis; **solved**, a pathogenic or likely pathogenic monogenic mutation in a known CKD gene was detected following WES; **TIKD**, tubulo-interstitial kidney disease.

 $^a$ Adult patients who had CKD at time of analysis (i.e. Not yet progressed to ESKD in adulthood i.e. 18 years)

b<br>Patients who developed ESKD 18 years of age

 $c$ Patients who developed ESKD < 18 years of age