ARTICLE

Runs of Homozygosity: Association with Coronary Artery Disease and Gene Expression in Monocytes and Macrophages

Paraskevi Christofidou,^{1,18} Christopher P. Nelson,^{1,2,18} Majid Nikpay,^{3,4} Liming Qu,⁵ Mingyao Li,⁵ Christina Loley,⁶ Radoslaw Debiec,¹ Peter S. Braund,¹ Matthew Denniff,¹ Fadi J. Charchar,⁷ Ares Rocanin Arjo,^{8,9,10} David-Alexandre Trégouët,^{8,9,10} Alison H. Goodall,^{1,2} Francois Cambien,^{8,9,10} Willem H. Ouwehand,^{11,12} Robert Roberts,^{3,4} Heribert Schunkert,^{13,14} Christian Hengstenberg,^{13,14} Muredach P. Reilly,¹⁵ Jeanette Erdmann,¹⁶ Ruth McPherson,^{3,4} Inke R. König,⁶ John R. Thompson,¹⁷ Nilesh J. Samani,^{1,2} and Maciej Tomaszewski^{1,2,*}

Runs of homozygosity (ROHs) are recognized signature of recessive inheritance. Contributions of ROHs to the genetic architecture of coronary artery disease and regulation of gene expression in cells relevant to atherosclerosis are not known. Our combined analysis of 24,320 individuals from 11 populations of white European ethnicity showed an association between coronary artery disease and both the count and the size of ROHs. Individuals with coronary artery disease had approximately 0.63 (95% CI: 0.4–0.8) excess of ROHs when compared to coronary-artery-disease-free control subjects ($p = 1.49 \times 10^{-9}$). The average total length of ROHs was approximately 1,046.92 (95% CI: 634.4–1,459.5) kb greater in individuals with coronary artery disease than control subjects ($p = 6.61 \times 10^{-7}$). None of the identified individual ROHs was associated with coronary artery disease were much more common than those showing the opposite direction of association with coronary artery disease ($p = 2.69 \times 10^{-33}$). Individual ROHs showed significant associations with monocyte and macrophage expression of genes in their close proximity—subjects with several individual ROHs showed significant differences in the expression of 44 mRNAs in monocytes and 17 mRNAs in macrophages when compared to subjects without those ROHs. This study provides evidence for an excess of homozygosity in coronary artery disease in outbred populations and suggest the potential biological relevance of ROHs in cells of importance to the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis.

Introduction

Coronary artery disease (CAD) is a complex, heterogeneous polygenic disorder. The largest genome-wide association (GWA) meta-analysis conducted to date reported 46 variants associated with risk of CAD.¹ All these variants were identified assuming an additive mode of inheritance for CAD. It is increasingly recognized that the genetic architecture of complex disorders, including CAD, is not a simple composite of variants that operate exclusively under an additive mode of inheritance and that both dominant and recessive components might make important contributions overseen by conventional GWA studies (GWASs).

The potential importance of recessively inherited variants to cardiovascular disease was suggested by several previous investigations. First, history of parental consanguinity (and thus increased homozygosity) was associated with increased risk of premature myocardial infarction, independent of conventional CAD risk factors in a population of young adults of South Asian ethnicity.² Second, studies in isolated populations with increased parental relatedness suggested possible associations between homozygosity or its proxies and the risk of both CAD^{3–5} and other cardiovascular phenotypes.^{5,6} These associations were attributed to the increased levels of homozygosity and inbreeding depression (reduced biological fitness) in these populations.⁷

Homozygosity mapping is a strategy with a potential to identify and quantify the recessive component of inheritance—long stretches (usually >1 Mb) of consecutive homozygous genotypes are known as runs of homozygosity (ROHs).⁸ In the human genome, ROHs represent "reunion" of pieces of DNA from common ancestors in their

¹Department of Cardiovascular Sciences, University of Leicester, Leicester LE3 9QP, UK; ²NIHR Biomedical Research Unit in Cardiovascular Disease, Leicester LE3 9QP, UK; ³Ruddy Cardiovascular Genetics Centre, University of Ottawa Heart Institute, Ottawa, ON K1Y 4W7, Canada; ⁴Atherogenomics Laboratory, University of Ottawa Heart Institute, Ottawa, ON K1Y 3V5, Canada; ⁵Department of Biostatistics and Epidemiology, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA; ⁶Institute of Medical Biometry and Statistics, University of Lübeck, Lübeck 23562, Germany; ⁷Faculty of Science and Technology, School of Applied and Biomedical Sciences, Federation University Australia, Ballarat, VIC 3350, Australia; ⁸ICAN Institute for Cardiometabolism and Nutrition, Paris 75013, France; ⁹INSERM, UMR_S 1166, Team Genomics & Pathophysiology of Cardiovascular Diseases, Paris 75013, France; ¹⁰Sorbonne Universités, UPMC University, Paris 06, UMR_S 1166, Paris 75013, France; ¹¹Department of Haematology, Cambridge Biomedical Campus, University of Cambridge and NHS Blood and Transplant, Cambridge CB2 0PT, UK; ¹²Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute, Wellcome Trust Genome Campus, Hinxton, Cambridge CB10 1HH, UK; ¹³Deutsches Herzzentrum München, Technische Universität München, Munich 80636, Germany; ¹⁴Deutsches Zentrum für Herz- und Kreislauf-Forschung (DZHK), Munich 80636, Germany; ¹⁵Cardiovascular Institute, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19148, USA; ¹⁶Institute for Integrative and Experimental Genomics, University of Lübeck, Lübeck 23562, Germany; ¹⁷Department of Health Sciences, University of Leicester, Leicester LE1 7RH, UK

¹⁸These authors contributed equally to this work

*Correspondence: mt142@le.ac.uk

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2015.06.001. ©2015 by The American Society of Human Genetics. All rights reserved.



Association between consensus ROHs and gene expression in human monocytes and macrophages (ROH carriers vs. non-carriers)

descendants.⁸ Identical by descent, ROHs arise from background relatedness promoted by demographic processes that increase homozygosity and reduce population size (for example, cultural and/or social factors that favor consanguinity and natural selection).⁹ A number of studies clearly demonstrated the presence of relatively frequent ROHs in outbred populations.^{8,10–12} However, only a few studies successfully used the GWA-derived homozygosity measures to examine their role in the genetic architecture of complex disorders in outbred populations.^{13–15} To the best of our knowledge, there is no study that examined whether homozygosity is associated with CAD in such populations and whether individual ROHs might play a role in regulation of gene expression within cells of key importance to atherosclerosis.

The primary goal of this project was a comprehensive analysis of association between genome-wide homozygosity measures and CAD in individuals of white European ancestry. A secondary analysis was undertaken to identify and quantify consensus ROHs overlapping across studies and explore their potential relevance to CAD individually and at the aggregate level. Finally, we explored the association of consensus ROHs and gene Figure 1. Overview of the Project Strategy

expression in human monocytes and macrophages. The overview of the strategy used is included in Figure 1.

Subjects and Methods

Study Cohorts

Genetic information on 24,320 biologically unrelated individuals (all of white European ancestry) was collected from 11 previous GWASs.¹⁶ A total of 12,123 individuals with CAD and 12.197 CAD-free control subjects from the Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium (WTCCC),¹⁷ the German Myocardial Infarction Family Studies (GerMIFSI, II, and III),^{17–19} Inter-Heart Study (ITH),²⁰ the Ottawa Heart Genomics Studies (OHGS-A, B, and C),²¹ PennCATH,²² Cleveland Clinic Gene Bank (CCGB), and Duke Cathgen Study (DUKE) were included in the analysis. In brief, six studies (GerMIFSI, GerMIFSII, GerMIFSIII, OHGS-A, PennCATH, and WTCCC) were derived from the original CARDIoGRAM Consortium.¹⁶ Five additional studies (CCGB, DUKE, ITH, OHGS-B, and OHGS-C), not originally a part of the Consortium,16 agreed to participate, bringing a total number of examined populations to 11. Further information on the

recruitment and phenotyping of the studies is available in the Supplemental Data including Table S1.

Genotyping and Imputation

DNA was extracted from peripheral blood in all studies except British 1958 Birth Cohort (58BC), which contributed control subjects to WTCCC.²³ Indeed, in these subjects DNA was extracted from cell lines.²³ Information on SNPs included in the analysis is shown in Table S2. Only imputed genotypes that could be called with a posterior probability of \geq 90% were included in the analysis. SNPs were removed from further analysis if their minor allele frequency (MAF) was <1%, their genotype distribution deviated from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium with p < 0.001, or the genotype post-imputation call rate was \leq 95%. Individual samples were removed from further analysis if the sample call rate was \leq 95%. All quality-control filters were applied individually at the cohort level.

ROH Identification

A number of ROH definitions and methods of their detection have been proposed.^{12,24–26} In this project ROHs were identified via the "Runs of Homozygosity" program, implemented in PLINK (v.1.07).²⁷ The adopted PLINK parameters are similar to the ones used in previous publications.^{28,29} A sliding window of 50 SNPs in 5,000 kb length region was used to scan the genome. To prevent underestimating the number and size of ROHs, one heterozygote and two missing calls in each window were permitted to allow for possible genotyping errors within a stretch of truly homozygous SNPs or other sources of artificial heterozygosity. A SNP was counted as a part of a ROH if >5% of windows spanning it were homozygous. These parameters were selected to minimize the probability of a window being called homozygous by chance. The existence of linkage disequilibrium (LD) blocks in DNA means that relatively short ROHs (those spanning from tens to hundreds of kilobases) are very prevalent across the genome.^{30–33} In order to exclude these very common short tracts of homozygous SNPs, the minimum length for a ROH was set at 1 Mb, as used by several other studies.^{13,28} Two additional parameters were added to ensure that estimates were not artificially inflated by apparently homozygous tracts in sparsely covered genomic regions. First, the required minimum SNP density was set to 50, meaning at least 1 SNP had to be present per 50 kb of DNA, and second, the maximum distance between two consecutive homozygous SNPs was set to 100 kb. To ensure that the analysis captures only regions that are entirely homozygous between the first and the last SNP, a threshold for the minimum number of SNPs constituting a ROH was selected. In line with previous studies on homozygosity of complex disorders, the minimum number of homozygous SNPs to qualify as a ROH in this project was set to 100.¹³ There were no major differences in the results of ROH analyses conducted under different thresholds of ROH calculation parameters in our pilot sensitivity analyses in WTCCC (data not shown).

Calculation of Homozygosity Measures

The following measures of homozygosity were calculated in each study: (1) the average number of ROHs, (2) the total and average length of ROHs, and (3) the proportion of the autosomal genome covered by ROHs (FROH).³⁴ The total number of ROHs was defined as the sum of all ROHs per individual. The average ROH number was calculated as the total number of runs divided by the total number of subjects. The average total ROH length is the sum of the length of each individual ROH per participant and was calculated by dividing the total ROH length by the number of individuals. The average ROH length was calculated by dividing the total genomic length of the ROHs by the total number of ROHs per individual. To calculate FROH, a percentage of homozygosity was calculated by summing ROHs >1 Mb across the covered autosomal genome and dividing by the total autosomal base pairs represented in the SNP data.⁸ Specifically, the summed length of identified ROHs were divided by a factor of 2,772.7 and subsequently converted to a percent by multiplying the dividend by 100. A factor of 2,772.7 is the number of megabases covered by SNPs after imputation, which was calculated by summing the distance between the first and the last available consecutive SNP on each chromosomal arm for each of the 22 autosomes. Examination of the FROH distribution revealed that it was highly right-skewed. To facilitate the analysis, data were transformed via a rank-based inverse normal transformation.

Assuming the dispersion of general homozygosity indices similar to the observed measures, a study with 24,320 subjects including 12,123 individuals with CAD and 12,197 CAD-free control subjects has ~80% power to detect a case-control difference of ~0.25 in ROH number, ~4.7 kb in average ROH length, and ~520 kb in average total ROH length.

Definition of Consensus ROH

It is not expected that a ROH will start and end at the same base pair positions for each individual, so we needed to define the size of the overlapping ROHs. For each study, the size of a ROH was determined as the consensus region of a homozygous run of SNPs (>1 Mb in length) overlapping between at least five individuals within a cohort. Consensus ROHs were then separated into groups and the numbers of case and control subjects with the ROH were counted via PLINK in each cohort. This ROH definition was applied to each study and provided a set of consensus ROHs. Information on the size, location (start/end of the consensus ROH), and the number of SNPs in each consensus ROH were calculated for each study.

Identification of Overlapping Consensus ROHs

We combined these consensus ROHs from individual studies to identify regions overlapping between studies. This was achieved by comparing the positions of the consensus ROHs from each study against those from all other cohorts; this was repeated until we had identified how many studies overlapped for each individual consensus ROH. We allowed each individual study consensus ROH to overlap with more than one consensus ROH from another individual study to allow longer ROHs to be included in multiple overlapping consensus ROHs. We then combined the numbers of case and control subjects across studies with the overlapping consensus ROH.

Statistical Analysis

Genetic Architecture of Homozygosity Measures

We generated QQ plots to assess the quality of the data in each individual study. A regression analysis using individual level participant data adjusting for cohort, sex, and age where possible was performed for the homozygosity measures. Age and sex were the only additional variables available in all studies. Additional sensitivity analyses using a rank-based inverse normal transformation of general homozygosity measures was performed to assess the influence of outliers. Further sensitivity analyses were conducted to exclude the effect of a cohort with different cell sources of DNA in case and control subjects. Finally, to account for potential heterogeneity between individual studies in the combined analysis of data, we first fitted a mixed model with cohort as a random effect in the analysis of association between CAD and four homozygosity measures. Second, we introduced a term of interaction between cohort and the outcome (CADxcohort or FROHxcohort) into the regression models that examined association between CAD and each of four homozygosity measures. Further sensitivity association analyses were conducted for those measures of homozygosity that showed some evidence of heterogeneity between populations (defined as significance of interaction term at p < 0.05). These sensitivity analyses examined the magnitude and the significance of association between homozygosity measures and CAD after exclusion of cohorts with statistically significant interaction terms. Each of the sensitivity analyses was conducted via regression models fitted with cohort as both fixed and random effect.

Association Analysis between Overlapping Consensus ROHs and CAD Overlapping consensus ROHs across populations were analyzed via logistic regression with CAD as the response with adjustment for sex, age where possible, study, and ROH (presence or absence) status (as the predictor of interest). To account for multiple testing, we used a Bonferroni correction in this analysis ($p = 2.94 \times 10^{-6}$). A binomial test was used to examine whether there was a deviation from the expected distribution (50/50) of overlapping

Table 1. Differences in Homozygosity Measures between Individuals with Coronary Artery Disease and Control Subjects: Combined
Analysis

| Measure | Un-adjusted Analysis | | | Age-Adjusted Analysis | | | Age- and Sex-Adjusted Analysis | | |
|---|----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| | β-coefficient/OR | 95% CI | p Value | β- coefficient/OR | 95% CI | p Value | β- coefficient/OR | 95% CI | p Value |
| Average ROH number | 0.39 | 0.20, 0.57 | 3.92×10^{-5} | 0.67 | 0.47, 0.86 | 4.12×10^{-11} | 0.63 | 0.42, 0.83 | 1.49×10^{-9} |
| Average ROH length (kb) | 2.51 | -0.80, 5.82 | 0.14 | 5.19 | 1.64, 8.75 | 0.004 | 4.50 | 0.85, 8.15 | 0.016 |
| Average total length of ROHs (kb) | 688.11 | 314.44, 1,061.78 | 3.08×10^{-4} | 1,145.15 | 743.95, 1,546.35 | 2.24×10^{-8} | 1,046.92 | 634.37, 1,459.48 | 6.61×10^{-7} |
| FROH | 1.07 | 1.03, 1.10 | 8.63×10^{-5} | 1.14 | 1.10, 1.18 | 2.21×10^{-13} | 1.13 | 1.09, 1.17 | 1.57×10^{-11} |

Data for number, average length, and total length of homozygosity runs (ROHs) are β -coefficients (with respective confidence intervals and level of statistical significance [p value] from regressing homozygosity measures on case-control status with adjustment for cohort, age, and sex, where appropriate); data on FROH (proportion of autosomal genome in ROHs) are expressed as odds ratios (OR) of coronary artery disease risk (with confidence intervals and level of statistical significance) with adjustment for cohort, age, and sex (where appropriate). 95% CI indicates 95% confidence intervals.

consensus ROHs showing increased (OR > 1) and decreased (OR < 1) risk of CAD.

Gene Expression Analysis and ROHs

Approximately 600,000 directly genotyped SNPs were available in the Cardiogenics Study. For the sake of consistency with the other examined studies, imputation was performed based on HapMapII CEU build 36. The ROH definitions and the principles of genomewide homozygosity analysis were similar to the one conducted in Stage A of this project (Figure 1).

Information on gene probes underneath consensus ROHs in monocytes (758 individuals) and macrophages (614 individuals) was extracted in silico from the microarray-based experiment conducted in the Cardiogenics Study reported previously.^{35,36} The comparative analysis was conducted at the probe level in cis, assessing only genes within 500 kb of a ROH, by using linear regression adjusted for age, sex, recruitment center, and the status (presence or absence) of consensus ROHs. After quality-control filters, information on 11,336 gene probes was available to examine differences in expression of genes in monocytes and macrophages between individuals with ROHs versus those without ROHs. Results were first adjusted by genomic control. We then calculated false discovery rate (FDR) q values for all identified ROH-mRNA associations using a method by Storey and Tibshirani appropriate for correlated gene expression data.³⁷ Associations with a FDR q value of < 0.01 were considered statistically significant.

All statistical analyses were undertaken in STATA v.12.

Results

General Characteristics of the Study Cohorts

A total of 24,320 individuals of European ancestry from 11 populations were included. The key characteristics of the cohorts (including definition of CAD in each study) used in the homozygosity analysis are summarized in Table S1.

General Characteristics of Homozygosity Measures

The summary and distribution of homozygosity measures in each population are shown in Table S3 and Figure S1. A joint analysis of all subjects revealed on average 31.84 \pm 8.44 ROHs in autosomal DNA. The stretches of homozygous SNPs had an average length of 1,360.58 \pm 127.19 kb and they covered on average a total length of 43.67 \pm 15.59 Mb. The number and length of ROHs per individual were in the range of 4–276 (number) and 1–29.4 Mb (length) in the overall sample.

Comparison of Homozygosity Measures between Individuals with CAD and CAD-Free Control Subjects

The distribution of average ROH number, average ROH length, and average total ROH length for case and control subjects in each population are shown in Figure S2. As a general trend, the distributions of homozygosity measures were comparable between case and control subjects from the same populations.

The combined analysis of 11 populations revealed statistically significant differences in homozygosity levels between individuals with CAD and control subjects after adjustment for study, sex, and age (Table 1). On average, individuals with CAD had 0.63 ROHs more than control subjects ($\beta = 0.63$, 95% CI: 0.42–0.83, p = 1.49 × 10⁻⁹). The length of ROHs in individuals with CAD was on average 4.50 kb longer compared to control subjects $(\beta = 4.50, 95\% \text{ CI: } 0.85\text{--}8.15, p = 0.016)$. The average total length of ROHs in the autosomal genome was 1,046.92 kb greater in individuals with CAD than control subjects ($\beta = 1,046.92, 95\%$ CI: 634.37–1,459.48, p = 6.61 \times 10⁻⁷). Logistic regression analysis revealed that every 1 SD increase in FROH was associated with a 13% increase in CAD risk (OR = 1.13, 95% CI: 1.09-1.17, $p = 1.57 \times 10^{-11}$). The association results were similar using cohort as both fixed (Table 1) and random (Table S4) effect.

We have conducted a number of further sensitivity analyses to confirm robustness of our findings. First, by using a rank-based inverse normal transformation for

| Table 2. | Frequency of Overlapping Consensus ROHs with a Potentially Increasing or Decreasing Risk of Coronary Artery Disease: Anal | lysis |
|------------|---|-------|
| Stratified | on Number of SNPs in Overlapping Consensus ROHs | - |

| | Overlapping Consensus ROHs | Expected | Observed | p Value |
|------------|----------------------------|---------------|---------------|------------------------|
| Overall | ↑ CAD risk | 50% (8,494.5) | 54.6% (9,278) | 2.69×10^{-33} |
| | ↓ CAD risk | 50% (8,494.5) | 45.4% (7,711) | |
| Group 0 | ↑ CAD risk | 50% (926) | 55.1% (1,020) | 1.37×10^{-5} |
| 2–9 SNPs | ↓ CAD risk | 50% (926) | 44.9% (832) | |
| Group 1 | ↑ CAD risk | 50% (3,009) | 53.4% (3,214) | 1.33×10^{-7} |
| 10-49 SNPs | ↓ CAD risk | 50% (3,009) | 46.6% (2,804) | |
| Group 2 | ↑ CAD risk | 50% (1,704) | 55.0% (1,876) | 4.09×10^{-9} |
| 50–99 SNPs | ↓ CAD risk | 50% (1,704) | 45.0% (1,532) | |
| Group 3 | ↑ CAD risk | 50% (2,855.5) | 55.5% (3,168) | 1.39×10^{-16} |
| 100+ SNPs | ↓ CAD risk | 50% (2,855.5) | 44.6% (2,543) | |

Data are counts and percentages. Overlapping consensus ROHs were classified as increasing (\uparrow) and decreasing (\downarrow) risk of coronary artery disease (CAD) based on the magnitude of their odds ratio (OR) for CAD; OR > 1.0 indicates increasing risk of CAD and OR < 1.0 indicates decreasing risk of CAD. p value indicates level of statistical significance from binomial test, and the size (and thus the number of SNPs) in each overlapping consensus ROH depends on the length of the consensus sequence common for the studies: from 2 to 100+ SNPs were identified in these regions.

ROH number, average, and total length, we confirmed that outliers had no noticeable influence on the estimates of association between CAD and these homozygosity measures (data not shown). Second, exclusion of a proportion of WTCCC controls whose DNA was extracted from cell lines (the British 1958 Birth Cohort) rather than peripheral blood (like the rest of case and control subjects) had no major impact on the significance of our data (Table S5). Third, accounting for some heterogeneity between populations in the analysis of association between CAD and average ROH number and FROH did not affect the significance of our findings. Indeed, exclusion of cohorts with significant interaction terms did not reduce the magnitude or statistical significance of association between CAD and average ROH number or FROH (Table S6). In fact, correcting for the residual heterogeneity has increased the statistical significance of the findings.

Identification and Characterization of the Overlapping Consensus ROHs

A joint analysis of all consensus ROHs identified across 11 examined populations revealed a total of 16,989 overlapping consensus ROHs shared by at least two populations. An example of an overlapping consensus ROH segment is illustrated in Figure S3. These overlapping consensus ROHs were further classified into four groups based on their SNP enrichment (Table S7).

Association between Individual Overlapping Consensus ROHs and CAD

After correction for multiple testing calculated at $p = 2.94 \times 10^{-6}$, none of the 16,989 identified overlapping consensus ROHs were associated with CAD. The most significant association between an overlapping consensus ROH on chromosome 3 (present in 138 subjects from 7

populations) was assigned a nominal level of statistical significance of $p = 1.99 \times 10^{-4}$. Details of the ten most statistically significant overlapping consensus ROHs are listed in Table S8.

Overlapping Consensus ROHs and CAD: Aggregate Burden Analysis

Based on the magnitude of crude OR from the analysis of association with CAD, each of 16,989 overlapping consensus ROHs was classified as potentially increasing (OR > 1.0) or decreasing (OR < 1.0) risk of CAD. Under a null hypothesis of no association between overlapping consensus ROHs and CAD, the distribution of overlapping consensus ROHs between both categories should be even (50/50). However, a clear deviation from this expected distribution was apparent: there was an excess of overlapping consensus ROHs increasing risk of CAD over those classified as potentially protective (55/45), a difference inconsistent with chance (p = 2.69×10^{-33}) (Table 2). The same over-representation of ROHs increasing the risk of CAD was apparent in each category of overlapping consensus ROHs after stratification based on number of SNPs in each consensus segment (Table 2).

Association between Consensus ROHs and Gene Expression Measures in Human Monocytes and Macrophages

To explore whether the presence of individual consensus ROHs is related to expression of genes that map onto or near specific ROHs, we combined genome-wide consensus ROHs with data from monocyte and macrophage transcriptome profiling in the Cardiogenics Study. In brief, 11,336 gene probes were expressed in human monocytes and macrophages. A total of 3,223 consensus ROHs were identified in the genome-wide homozygosity



Figure 2. Analysis of Association between the Presence of Consensus ROHs and Gene Expression in the Cardiogenics Study: Genomewide Signal-Intensity Plot

(A) Human monocytes.

(B) Human macrophages.

The y axis shows the logarithmic level of statistical significance (p value) for association of each consensus ROH with expression. The x axis shows 22 autosomal chromosomes in numerical order.

analysis of Cardiogenics. After FDR-based correction for multiple testing (q value < 0.01), 44 consensus ROH-mRNA associations retained their statistical significance in monocytes (Figure 2, Table S9). The most significant association was identified between ROH on chromosome 16 and expression of dihydrouridine synthase 2 (*DUS2L* [MIM: 609707])—subjects with this consensus ROH had on average 0.23 (95% CI: 0.19– 0.26) lower expression of *DUSL2* in monocytes when compared to those without this ROH after adjustment for age, sex, and center of recruitment ($p = 5.74 \times 10^{-30}$, $q = 6.51 \times 10^{-26}$). After the correction for multiple testing, 17 consensus ROH-mRNA associations retained their statistical significance in macrophages (Figure 2, Table S10). The most significant association was identified on chromosome 3 with the expression of WD repeat domain 6 (*WDR6* [MIM: 606031])—subjects with this consensus ROH had on average 0.19 (95% CI: 0.14–0.25) lower expression of *WDR6* in macrophages when compared to those without this ROH after

adjustment for age, sex, and center of recruitment (p = 4.57×10^{-10} , q = 5.18×10^{-6}).

Discussion

Our analysis of homozygosity produced several important findings. First, we provided evidence for enrichment of homozygosity in individuals with CAD when compared to CAD-free control subjects. Second, although none of the identified overlapping consensus ROHs was associated with CAD individually, their aggregate burden analysis showed over-representation of overlapping consensus ROHs favoring increased risk of CAD when compared to those showing the opposite direction of association with CAD. Taken together, these data indicate that homozygosity might be an important risk factor for CAD and suggest that the accumulation of multiple recessive variants might be an important component of the genetic architecture of CAD. Finally, the analysis of human monocyte and macrophage transcriptomes suggested that many individual consensus ROHs might carry biologically active variants with a potential to affect expression of genes located either within these ROHs or in their close proximity.

Our analysis of homozygosity measures provided further evidence for the presence of common ROHs in outbred populations.^{8,11,12} Detection of ROHs in homozygosity mapping tends to vary along the genome due to differences in informativeness of haplotypes and differences in haplotype genealogies.³⁸ The relative performance of homozygosity mapping is influenced by population demographic processes and the extent of selection against causal variants.³⁸ ROHs were widely distributed across the entire genome and were present on each human autosome. The number of ROHs was a function of chromosomal length, and the average ROH number and average total length of ROHs were dependent on chromosomal size, showing good agreement with previous studies in populations of European ancestry.²⁹

Inbred individuals tend to have higher rates of congenital disorders and lower survival and fertility rates (inbreeding depression).^{7,39} FROH is a measure of inbreeding effects and correlates most highly with the homozygous mutational load, the putative causal mechanism underlying inbreeding depression.³⁴ This homozygosity measure has low prediction error variance, especially when SNP density is high.¹⁴ However, given the small variation in genomewide FROH in unrelated individuals, large sample sizes are necessary to detect inbreeding depression for likely effect sizes.¹⁴ Previous studies investigating the effects of FROH on human complex traits with relatively small sample sizes have failed to find significant inbreeding effects, ^{28,34,40–43} most probably because they were underpowered. Furthermore, very small studies (n < 1,000) that did find significant inbreeding depression effects using FROH¹³ might greatly overestimate the size of effects. The sample size of this study provides a well-powered tool for finding signatures of homozygosity on CAD risk. As a result, we were able to quantify a measure of global homozygosity in relation to CAD—an estimated 13% increase in CAD risk per 1 SD increase in FROH.

We appreciate that our analysis did not reveal statistically significant associations between individual overlapping consensus ROHs and CAD, possibly because many of them have low population frequency and this can affect the power of the analysis. Indeed, although some overlapping consensus homozygous sequences are common and might coincide with previously identified ROH islands²⁹ or long haplotypes, a majority of the consensus regions overlapping across populations occur in low frequencies (<5%) or indeed are very rare (<1%).

However, overlapping consensus ROH-based analysis provided several important insights into the genetic architecture of CAD. First, it revealed that none of the identified overlapping consensus regions were exclusive to CAD case subjects. Second, it showed that none of the identified overlapping consensus regions have been implicated in previous CAD GWASs. This is perhaps not surprising given that GWASs have analyzed data under an additive model of inheritance, whereas ROH analysis assumes recessive mode of inheritance. Third, the aggregate burden analysis of overlapping consensus ROHs showed an excess of the regions favoring increased risk of CAD over those that tend to protect against it, supporting the hypothesis that individuals with CAD might have accumulated more recessive variants than controls. This cumulative excess of ROHs with dispersed distribution across the genome rather than effects of specific variants recessively inherited by a subset of affected individuals⁴⁴ appears a more likely driver for the increased homozygosity in CAD. Additional work is needed to unravel the exact synergistic effects of multiple recessive variants on global homozygosity levels and their relevance to CAD. Finally, within the constraints of interpretational limitations discussed above, the overlapping consensus ROH-based analysis provides a useful example of comparing individual ROHs across studies.

Our study also examined the effects of consensus ROHs on the expression of genes in human cells relevant to atherosclerosis. One of the most obvious explanations for the biological meaning of the associations between consensus ROHs and the expression of genes underneath them or in close proximity to them is that they are signatures of functionally active recessive variants with a potential to affect transcription in monocytes and macrophages. Neither of the identified genes showed the immediately obvious biological relevance to atherosclerosis or CAD. Indeed, the most significant association in monocytes was identified with the expression of DUS2L. This gene encodes a cytoplasmic protein that catalyzes the conversion of uridine residues to dihydrouridine in the D-loop of tRNA. The encoded protein might affect the rate of translation by inhibiting an interferon-induced protein kinase.45 The most significant association in macrophages was with the expression of WDR6. This gene encodes a member of the WD repeat protein family implicated in regulation of cell growth arrest.⁴⁶ Future studies will be necessary to elucidate the molecular and clinical mechanisms of these associations.

We should mention that definition of ROHs varies across studies in the published literature, which makes their comparisons difficult.⁴⁷ In order to combine the ROH information across several studies, we made use of both directly genotyped and imputed SNPs to increase the coverage of the genome and extract the maximum possible information. The use of imputed SNPs helped to increase similarity of genomic coverage across studies and made the data more comparable because ROHs were defined based on similar SNP sets. We applied a requirement that a genotype could be called only if the posterior probability was >90% and then applied call rate filters to remove SNPs, which were called in <95% of individuals. This has an effect of thinning the imputed data but is not equivalent to having the same effect as LD pruning. We chose not to use LDdriven elimination of SNPs from our datasets because such pruning might act as a potential confounder in comparative ROH analyses of different populations-the local level of LD determines the effective number of SNPs used for ROH definition.²⁹ Although LD pruning brings the benefit of selecting independent SNPs, previous studies have shown that LD-based pruning can reduce informativeness of datasets and lead to a loss in power to detect ROHs.⁴⁸ Many recently published studies defined a ROH to include a minimum of 50-65 SNPs for pruned and unpruned data.^{44,49–53} Therefore, we have accounted for imputation-driven increase in SNP density by extension of the minimal number of SNPs that define a ROH to 100.

We acknowledge the potential confounding of undetected clonal mosaicism manifesting as chromosomal abnormalities (i.e., uniparental disomy) that might mirror runs of homozygosity in GWASs based on DNA extracted from peripheral blood. Indeed, both Laurie et al.⁵⁴ and Jacobs et al.⁵⁵ revealed that clones of cells with such chromosomal anomalies are present in free-of-cancer (apparently healthy) individuals included in GWASs and that increasing age is associated with augmented risk of clonal mosaicism in the human genome.^{54–56} This in essence means that comparative analysis of homozygosity in DNA extracted from peripheral blood between case and control subjects that differ in age might be potentially affected by increased rates of such clonal chromosomal abnormalities (and thus inflated homozygosity measures) in the older group. Although we were not able to directly quantify the prevalence of such abnormalities in the populations included in this project, we reason that a correction for such a potential confounding would further increase rather than reduce the significance of our association findings. Indeed, CAD-free control subjects were generally much older than individuals with CAD in a majority of studies included in this project. Thus, a correction for age-driven clonal mosaicism-related chromosomal abnormalities interpreted as ROHs in genome-wide analysis would reduce the rates of homozygosity in the older groups (mostly CAD-free control subjects), further increasing the case-control difference. To this end, we also acknowledge the different cell types as a source of DNA for experiments in one of 11 cohorts included in this project. Indeed, a part of control group in WTCCC (58BC cohort) was genotyped using DNA extracted from cell lines.²³ DNA extracted from cell lines might be associated with higher rates of chromosomal aberrations that might resemble ROHs in GWASs. However, we confirmed that exclusion of those subjects had no major effect on findings from our analysis of association between CAD and homozygosity measures.

Conclusions

Genome-wide homozygosity analysis revealed statistically significant differences in the genome-wide homozygosity levels between individuals with CAD and CAD-free control subjects. The aggregate burden analysis of overlapping consensus ROHs showed their over-representation among subjects with CAD, suggesting that accumulation of recessive variants might increase the risk of CAD. Finally, the presence of associations between consensus ROHs and gene expression in human monocytes and macrophages suggest that many individual ROHs might be signatures of biologically active recessive variants with a potential to regulate transcription.

Supplemental Data

Supplemental Data include consortia member list, three figures, and ten tables and can be found with this article online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2015.06.001.

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by the Alumni Association of University of Leicester PhD studentship and International Mentoring Travel Award by American Heart Association (to P.C.). M.T. is supported by the British Heart Foundation. N.J.S. holds a personal chair supported by the British Heart Foundation and is a UK NIHR senior investigator. C.P.N. is funded by the British Heart Foundation. The Cardiogenics project was supported by the European Union 6th Framework Program (LSHM-CT-2006-037593). The UKBS collection of Common Controls has been funded by the Wellcome Trust grant 084183/Z/07/Z and by NIHR programme grant to NHSBT (RP-PG-0310-1002). The collection was established as part of the WTCCC. We would like to thank the participants and members of the CARDIOGRAM and the Cardiogenics consortia. Members of the Cardiogenics Consortium are listed in the Supplemental Data.

Received: December 24, 2014 Accepted: June 4, 2015 Published: July 9, 2015

References

1. Deloukas, P., Kanoni, S., Willenborg, C., Farrall, M., Assimes, T.L., Thompson, J.R., Ingelsson, E., Saleheen, D., Erdmann, J., Goldstein, B.A., et al.; CARDIOGRAMplusC4D Consortium; DIAGRAM Consortium; CARDIOGENICS Consortium; MuTHER Consortium; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium (2013). Large-scale association analysis identifies new risk loci for coronary artery disease. Nat. Genet. 45, 25–33.

- 2. Ismail, J., Jafar, T.H., Jafary, F.H., White, F., Faruqui, A.M., and Chaturvedi, N. (2004). Risk factors for non-fatal myocardial infarction in young South Asian adults. Heart *90*, 259–263.
- **3.** Shami, S.A., Qaisar, R., and Bittles, A.H. (1991). Consanguinity and adult morbidity in Pakistan. Lancet *338*, 954.
- 4. Puzyrev, V.P., Lemza, S.V., Nazarenko, L.P., and Panphilov, V.I. (1992). Influence of genetic and demographic factors on etiology and pathogenesis of chronic disease in north Siberian aborigines. Arctic Med. Res. *51*, 136–142.
- Rudan, I., Rudan, D., Campbell, H., Carothers, A., Wright, A., Smolej-Narancic, N., Janicijevic, B., Jin, L., Chakraborty, R., Deka, R., and Rudan, P. (2003). Inbreeding and risk of late onset complex disease. J. Med. Genet. 40, 925–932.
- 6. Campbell, H., Carothers, A.D., Rudan, I., Hayward, C., Biloglav, Z., Barac, L., Pericic, M., Janicijevic, B., Smolej-Narancic, N., Polasek, O., et al. (2007). Effects of genome-wide heterozygosity on a range of biomedically relevant human quantitative traits. Hum. Mol. Genet. *16*, 233–241.
- 7. Charlesworth, D., and Willis, J.H. (2009). The genetics of inbreeding depression. Nat. Rev. Genet. *10*, 783–796.
- 8. McQuillan, R., Leutenegger, A.L., Abdel-Rahman, R., Franklin, C.S., Pericic, M., Barac-Lauc, L., Smolej-Narancic, N., Janicijevic, B., Polasek, O., Tenesa, A., et al. (2008). Runs of homozygosity in European populations. Am. J. Hum. Genet. *83*, 359–372.
- **9.** Szpiech, Z.A., Xu, J., Pemberton, T.J., Peng, W., Zöllner, S., Rosenberg, N.A., and Li, J.Z. (2013). Long runs of homozygosity are enriched for deleterious variation. Am. J. Hum. Genet. *93*, 90–102.
- **10.** Broman, K.W., and Weber, J.L. (1999). Long homozygous chromosomal segments in reference families from the centre d'Etude du polymorphisme humain. Am. J. Hum. Genet. *65*, 1493–1500.
- 11. Li, L.H., Ho, S.F., Chen, C.H., Wei, C.Y., Wong, W.C., Li, L.Y., Hung, S.I., Chung, W.H., Pan, W.H., Lee, M.T., et al. (2006). Long contiguous stretches of homozygosity in the human genome. Hum. Mutat. *27*, 1115–1121.
- **12.** Gibson, J., Morton, N.E., and Collins, A. (2006). Extended tracts of homozygosity in outbred human populations. Hum. Mol. Genet. *15*, 789–795.
- **13.** Lencz, T., Lambert, C., DeRosse, P., Burdick, K.E., Morgan, T.V., Kane, J.M., Kucherlapati, R., and Malhotra, A.K. (2007). Runs of homozygosity reveal highly penetrant recessive loci in schizophrenia. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *104*, 19942–19947.
- 14. Keller, M.C., Simonson, M.A., Ripke, S., Neale, B.M., Gejman, P.V., Howrigan, D.P., Lee, S.H., Lencz, T., Levinson, D.F., and Sullivan, P.F.; Schizophrenia Psychiatric Genome-Wide Association Study Consortium (2012). Runs of homozygosity implicate autozygosity as a schizophrenia risk factor. PLoS Genet. *8*, e1002656.
- **15.** Power, R.A., Keller, M.C., Ripke, S., Abdellaoui, A., Wray, N.R., Sullivan, P.F., and Breen, G.; MDD PGC Working Group (2014). A recessive genetic model and runs of homozygosity in major depressive disorder. Am. J. Med. Genet. B. Neuropsychiatr. Genet. *165B*, 157–166.
- Schunkert, H., König, I.R., Kathiresan, S., Reilly, M.P., Assimes, T.L., Holm, H., Preuss, M., Stewart, A.F., Barbalic, M.,

Gieger, C., et al.; Cardiogenics; CARDIoGRAM Consortium (2011). Large-scale association analysis identifies 13 new susceptibility loci for coronary artery disease. Nat. Genet. *43*, 333–338.

- 17. Samani, N.J., Erdmann, J., Hall, A.S., Hengstenberg, C., Mangino, M., Mayer, B., Dixon, R.J., Meitinger, T., Braund, P., Wichmann, H.E., et al.; WTCCC and the Cardiogenics Consortium (2007). Genomewide association analysis of coronary artery disease. N. Engl. J. Med. 357, 443–453.
- 18. Erdmann, J., Grosshennig, A., Braund, P.S., König, I.R., Hengstenberg, C., Hall, A.S., Linsel-Nitschke, P., Kathiresan, S., Wright, B., Trégouët, D.A., et al.; Italian Atherosclerosis, Thrombosis, and Vascular Biology Working Group; Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium; Cardiogenics Consortium (2009). New susceptibility locus for coronary artery disease on chromosome 3q22.3. Nat. Genet. *41*, 280–282.
- Erdmann, J., Willenborg, C., Nahrstaedt, J., Preuss, M., König, I.R., Baumert, J., Linsel-Nitschke, P., Gieger, C., Tennstedt, S., Belcredi, P., et al. (2011). Genome-wide association study identifies a new locus for coronary artery disease on chromosome 10p11.23. Eur. Heart J. *32*, 158–168.
- 20. Yusuf, S., Hawken, S., Ounpuu, S., Dans, T., Avezum, A., Lanas, F., McQueen, M., Budaj, A., Pais, P., Varigos, J., and Lisheng, L.; INTERHEART Study Investigators (2004). Effect of potentially modifiable risk factors associated with myocardial infarction in 52 countries (the INTERHEART study): case-control study. Lancet *364*, 937–952.
- **21.** McPherson, R., Pertsemlidis, A., Kavaslar, N., Stewart, A., Roberts, R., Cox, D.R., Hinds, D.A., Pennacchio, L.A., Tybjaerg-Hansen, A., Folsom, A.R., et al. (2007). A common allele on chromosome 9 associated with coronary heart disease. Science *316*, 1488–1491.
- 22. Lehrke, M., Millington, S.C., Lefterova, M., Cumaranatunge, R.G., Szapary, P., Wilensky, R., Rader, D.J., Lazar, M.A., and Reilly, M.P. (2007). CXCL16 is a marker of inflammation, atherosclerosis, and acute coronary syndromes in humans. J. Am. Coll. Cardiol. *49*, 442–449.
- 23. Burton, P.R., Clayton, D.G., Cardon, L.R., Craddock, N., Deloukas, P., Duncanson, A., Kwiatkowski, D.P., McCarthy, M.I., Ouwehand, W.H., Samani, N.J., et al.; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium (2007). Genome-wide association study of 14,000 cases of seven common diseases and 3,000 shared controls. Nature 447, 661–678.
- 24. Auton, A., Bryc, K., Boyko, A.R., Lohmueller, K.E., Novembre, J., Reynolds, A., Indap, A., Wright, M.H., Degenhardt, J.D., Gutenkunst, R.N., et al. (2009). Global distribution of genomic diversity underscores rich complex history of continental human populations. Genome Res. 19, 795–803.
- **25.** Curtis, D., Vine, A.E., and Knight, J. (2008). Study of regions of extended homozygosity provides a powerful method to explore haplotype structure of human populations. Ann. Hum. Genet. *72*, 261–278.
- **26.** MacLeod, I.M., Meuwissen, T.H., Hayes, B.J., and Goddard, M.E. (2009). A novel predictor of multilocus haplotype homozygosity: comparison with existing predictors. Genet. Res. *91*, 413–426.
- 27. Purcell, S., Neale, B., Todd-Brown, K., Thomas, L., Ferreira, M.A., Bender, D., Maller, J., Sklar, P., de Bakker, P.I., Daly, M.J., and Sham, P.C. (2007). PLINK: a tool set for wholegenome association and population-based linkage analyses. Am. J. Hum. Genet. *81*, 559–575.

- 28. Nalls, M.A., Simon-Sanchez, J., Gibbs, J.R., Paisan-Ruiz, C., Bras, J.T., Tanaka, T., Matarin, M., Scholz, S., Weitz, C., Harris, T.B., et al. (2009). Measures of autozygosity in decline: globalization, urbanization, and its implications for medical genetics. PLoS Genet. *5*, e1000415.
- Nothnagel, M., Lu, T.T., Kayser, M., and Krawczak, M. (2010). Genomic and geographic distribution of SNP-defined runs of homozygosity in Europeans. Hum. Mol. Genet. *19*, 2927–2935.
- **30.** Abecasis, G.R., Ghosh, D., and Nichols, T.E. (2005). Linkage disequilibrium: ancient history drives the new genetics. Hum. Hered. *59*, 118–124.
- **31.** Wall, J.D., and Pritchard, J.K. (2003). Haplotype blocks and linkage disequilibrium in the human genome. Nat. Rev. Genet. *4*, 587–597.
- **32.** Abecasis, G.R., Noguchi, E., Heinzmann, A., Traherne, J.A., Bhattacharyya, S., Leaves, N.I., Anderson, G.G., Zhang, Y., Lench, N.J., Carey, A., et al. (2001). Extent and distribution of linkage disequilibrium in three genomic regions. Am. J. Hum. Genet. *68*, 191–197.
- **33.** Reich, D.E., Cargill, M., Bolk, S., Ireland, J., Sabeti, P.C., Richter, D.J., Lavery, T., Kouyoumjian, R., Farhadian, S.F., Ward, R., and Lander, E.S. (2001). Linkage disequilibrium in the human genome. Nature *411*, 199–204.
- McQuillan, R., Eklund, N., Pirastu, N., Kuningas, M., McEvoy, B.P., Esko, T., Corre, T., Davies, G., Kaakinen, M., Lyytikäinen, L.P., et al.; ROHgen Consortium (2012). Evidence of inbreeding depression on human height. PLoS Genet. *8*, e1002655.
- **35.** Heinig, M., Petretto, E., Wallace, C., Bottolo, L., Rotival, M., Lu, H., Li, Y., Sarwar, R., Langley, S.R., Bauerfeind, A., et al.; Cardiogenics Consortium (2010). A trans-acting locus regulates an anti-viral expression network and type 1 diabetes risk. Nature *467*, 460–464.
- 36. Rotival, M., Zeller, T., Wild, P.S., Maouche, S., Szymczak, S., Schillert, A., Castagné, R., Deiseroth, A., Proust, C., Brocheton, J., et al.; Cardiogenics Consortium (2011). Integrating genome-wide genetic variations and monocyte expression data reveals trans-regulated gene modules in humans. PLoS Genet. 7, e1002367.
- Storey, J.D., and Tibshirani, R. (2003). Statistical significance for genomewide studies. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *100*, 9440–9445.
- Browning, S.R., and Thompson, E.A. (2012). Detecting rare variant associations by identity-by-descent mapping in casecontrol studies. Genetics 190, 1521–1531.
- **39.** Keller, M.C., Visscher, P.M., and Goddard, M.E. (2011). Quantification of inbreeding due to distant ancestors and its detection using dense single nucleotide polymorphism data. Genetics *189*, 237–249.
- **40.** Spain, S.L., Cazier, J.B., Houlston, R., Carvajal-Carmona, L., and Tomlinson, I.; CORGI Consortium (2009). Colorectal cancer risk is not associated with increased levels of homozygosity in a population from the United Kingdom. Cancer Res. *69*, 7422–7429.
- Vine, A.E., McQuillin, A., Bass, N.J., Pereira, A., Kandaswamy, R., Robinson, M., Lawrence, J., Anjorin, A., Sklar, P., Gurling, H.M., and Curtis, D. (2009). No evidence for excess runs of homozygosity in bipolar disorder. Psychiatr. Genet. 19, 165–170.
- **42.** Enciso-Mora, V., Hosking, F.J., and Houlston, R.S. (2010). Risk of breast and prostate cancer is not associated with increased homozygosity in outbred populations. Eur. J. Hum. Genet. *18*, 909–914.

- **43.** Hosking, FJ., Papaemmanuil, E., Sheridan, E., Kinsey, S.E., Lightfoot, T., Roman, E., Irving, J.A., Allan, J.M., Taylor, M., Tomlinson, I.P., et al. (2010). Genome-wide homozygosity signatures and childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia risk. Blood *115*, 4472–4477.
- 44. Ghani, M., Sato, C., Lee, J.H., Reitz, C., Moreno, D., Mayeux, R., St George-Hyslop, P., and Rogaeva, E. (2013). Evidence of recessive Alzheimer disease loci in a Caribbean Hispanic data set: genome-wide survey of runs of homozygosity. JAMA Neurol. 70, 1261–1267.
- **45.** Mittelstadt, M., Frump, A., Khuu, T., Fowlkes, V., Handy, I., Patel, C.V., and Patel, R.C. (2008). Interaction of human tRNA-dihydrouridine synthase-2 with interferon-induced protein kinase PKR. Nucleic Acids Res. *36*, 998–1008.
- **46.** Xie, X., Wang, Z., and Chen, Y. (2007). Association of LKB1 with a WD-repeat protein WDR6 is implicated in cell growth arrest and p27(Kip1) induction. Mol. Cell. Biochem. *301*, 115–122.
- **47.** Howrigan, D.P., Simonson, M.A., and Keller, M.C. (2011). Detecting autozygosity through runs of homozygosity: a comparison of three autozygosity detection algorithms. BMC Genomics *12*, 460.
- **48.** Ku, C.S., Naidoo, N., Teo, S.M., and Pawitan, Y. (2011). Regions of homozygosity and their impact on complex diseases and traits. Hum. Genet. *129*, 1–15.
- **49.** Di Gaetano, C., Fiorito, G., Ortu, M.F., Rosa, F., Guarrera, S., Pardini, B., Cusi, D., Frau, F., Barlassina, C., Troffa, C., et al. (2014). Sardinians genetic background explained by runs of homozygosity and genomic regions under positive selection. PLoS ONE *9*, e91237.
- 50. Heron, E.A., Cormican, P., Donohoe, G., O'Neill, F.A., Kendler, K.S., Riley, B.P., Gill, M., Corvin, A.P., and Morris, D.W.; Well-come Trust Case Control Consortium 2 (2014). No evidence that runs of homozygosity are associated with schizophrenia in an Irish genome-wide association dataset. Schizophr. Res. 154, 79–82.
- **51.** Lin, P.I., Kuo, P.H., Chen, C.H., Wu, J.Y., Gau, S.S., Wu, Y.Y., and Liu, S.K. (2013). Runs of homozygosity associated with speech delay in autism in a taiwanese han population: evidence for the recessive model. PLoS ONE *8*, e72056.
- 52. McWhirter, R.E., Thomson, R.J., Marthick, J.R., Rumbold, A.R., Brown, M.A., Taylor-Thomson, D., Maypilama, E.L., Condon, J.R., and Dickinson, J.L. (2014). Runs of homozygosity and a cluster of vulvar cancer in young Australian Aboriginal women. Gynecol. Oncol. *133*, 421–426.
- 53. Wang, C., Xu, Z., Jin, G., Hu, Z., Dai, J., Ma, H., Jiang, Y., Hu, L., Chu, M., Cao, S., and Shen, H. (2013). Genome-wide analysis of runs of homozygosity identifies new susceptibility regions of lung cancer in Han Chinese. J. Biomed. Res. *27*, 208–214.
- 54. Laurie, C.C., Laurie, C.A., Rice, K., Doheny, K.F., Zelnick, L.R., McHugh, C.P., Ling, H., Hetrick, K.N., Pugh, E.W., Amos, C., et al. (2012). Detectable clonal mosaicism from birth to old age and its relationship to cancer. Nat. Genet. 44, 642–650.
- 55. Jacobs, K.B., Yeager, M., Zhou, W., Wacholder, S., Wang, Z., Rodriguez-Santiago, B., Hutchinson, A., Deng, X., Liu, C., Horner, M.J., et al. (2012). Detectable clonal mosaicism and its relationship to aging and cancer. Nat. Genet. 44, 651–658.
- **56.** Machiela, M.J., and Chanock, S.J. (2013). Detectable clonal mosaicism in the human genome. Semin. Hematol. *50*, 348–359.

The American Journal of Human Genetics Supplemental Data

Runs of Homozygosity: Association

with Coronary Artery Disease and Gene Expression

in Monocytes and Macrophages

Paraskevi Christofidou, Christopher P. Nelson, Majid Nikpay, Liming Qu, Mingyao Li, Christina Loley, Radoslaw Debiec, Peter S. Braund, Matthew Denniff, Fadi J. Charchar, Ares Rocanin Arjo, David-Alexandre Trégouët, Alison H. Goodall, Francois Cambien, Willem H. Ouwehand, Robert Roberts, Heribert Schunkert, Christian Hengstenberg, Muredach P. Reilly, Jeanette Erdmann, Ruth McPherson, Inke R. König, John R. Thompson, Nilesh J. Samani, and Maciej Tomaszewski

Supplemental text

Characteristics of study cohorts

A total of 24,320 individuals recruited from 11 populations of white European ancestry were included in this project (1). All the studies included biologically unrelated individuals. Further details for each cohort used are given below.

Wellcome Trust Case-Control Consortium Study (WTCCC)

<u>WTCCC cases</u>: This British population includes 1,988 individuals with a validated history of either myocardial infarction (MI) or coronary revascularization (coronary artery bypass surgery - CABG or percutaneous coronary angioplasty - PCA) before the age of 66 years. Recruitment was carried out on a national basis and lasted 5 years (April 1998 – November 2003). A major proportion of biologically unrelated individuals with coronary artery disease (CAD) in this study come from families with two or more affected siblings conducted in UK - British Heart Foundation Family Heart Study (BHF-FHS) (2). Some individuals in this resource come from GRACE Study (3) that recruited individuals with CAD and familial history of premature CAD (in parents or sibling) but in whom an affected sibling was not available for recruitment.

In the WTCCC study, subjects from both BHF-FHS and GRACE cohorts were used together totalling 2,000 unrelated cases affected by premature CAD. 1,518 of those subjects were derived from BHF-FHS (2) and 470 subjects were from families included in GRACE study (3).

<u>WTCCC controls</u>: A population of 3,004 control subjects was derived from two independent publicly accessible sources: the British 1958 Birth Cohort (58BC) and a sample of blood donors from UK Blood Services (UKBS).

The 58BC, also known as the National Child Development Study (4), includes all births in England, Wales and Scotland during one week in 1958. From an original sample of over 17,000 births, survivors were followed up at ages 7, 11, 16, 23, 33 and 42 years. In a biomedical examination at 44-45 years, 9,377 cohort members were visited at home providing 7,692 blood samples. DNA was extracted from 1,500 cell lines (5) of subjects with self-reported white ethnicity and representative of gender and each geographical region were selected for use as controls.

The UKBS provided 1,500 controls from a sample of healthy blood donors recruited as a part of the WTCCC project (6). WTCCC in collaboration with UKBS set up a UK national repository of anonymised samples of DNA and viable mononuclear cells form 3,622 consenting blood donors (age range: 18-69 years, majority of them between 40-59 years). DNA used in this project was extracted from the leukocyte fraction retrieved from the standard blood sample. A set of 1,564 samples was selected from the total number of samples based on sex and geographical region to reproduce the distribution of the samples of the 1958 Birth Cohort for use as common controls in the WTCCC study. The subjects were about equally divided into males and females and both control groups were geographically widely distributed across the UK. Except from gender information and 10 year age-band, additional phenotypic information was not available on the control cohorts (5-6).

German Myocardial Infarction Family Study I (GerMIFSI)

<u>GerMIFSI cases</u>: This population consists of 875 biologically unrelated individuals with a validated history of MI before the age of 60 years. The recruitment was carried out after screening >200,000 clinical charts in 17 cardiac in-hospital rehabilitation centres. The majority (>70%) of individuals were recruited in the surrounding area of Augsburg and the Southern part of Germany between 1997 and 2002. All individuals were of white German origin. If at least one additional first-degree family member (preferentially a sibling) had suffered from MI or had severe CAD (history of PCA or CABG), the family (index patient, available parents and all siblings) was approached and asked to join the study (7-8). All events in index cases and family members were validated through inspection of hospital charts.

<u>GerMIFSI controls:</u> All 1,644 CAD-free controls had German descent and were collected for the MONICA/KORA Augsburg population study in the years 1994/1995 and a follow up of this project in the years 2004/2005 that was undertaken as part of the German National Genome

Research Network (NGFN) (9). This population represents a gender- and age- stratified random sample of all German residents of the Augsburg area and consists of individuals 25 to 74 years of age, with about 300 subjects for each 10-year age band. These individuals were studied by physical examination, blood testing, and a standardized interview including medical history, physical activity, medication and personal habits.

German Myocardial Infarction Family Study II (GerMIFSII)

<u>GerMIFSII cases</u>: This population consists of 1,222 individuals with a validated history of MI before the age of 60 years for both men and women (10). A positive family history for CAD was documented in 726 (59.4%) of individuals. Individuals were identified following their admission for acute treatment of MI or in cardiac rehabilitation clinics.

<u>GerMIFSII controls</u>: A total of 820 CAD-free controls were derived from the MONICA/KORA Augsburg survey S4 (11). A sample of 478 controls was taken from PopGen blood donor sample 2 (PopGen-DSP) (12).

German Myocardial Infarction Family Study III (GerMIFSIII - KORA)

<u>GerMIFSIII cases:</u> A total of 1,157 subjects with available DNA were derived from individuals with non-fatal MI in the KORA registry (13). Hospitalised survivors of MI aged 26-74 years are routinely entered into this registry (14). The diagnosis of MI was made with the use of algorithm of the World Health Organization's Multinational Monitoring of Trends and Determinants in Cardiovascular Disease (MONICA) project (15).

<u>GerMIFSIII controls</u>: A total of 996 and 752 CAD-free controls were derived from the population-based Augsburg KORA S4/F4 study (16) and PopGen respectively (12).

Ottawa Heart Genomics Study (OHGS)

The OHGS is a hospital-based study of CAD conducted at the Ottawa Heart Institute in Ottawa, Canada. Individuals who underwent CABG, coronary artery angiography, or receive treatment for MI were invited to participate in the study (17-18). Three independent samples (OHGS-A, OHGS-B and OHGS-C) were ascertained consecutively for this study.

<u>OHGS cases:</u> Individuals with documented CAD (stenosis in a major epicardial vessel of at least 50%; PCA; CABG or MI before the age of 55 years in men and 65 years in women) were recruited for OHGS as cases. Individuals with history of diabetes mellitus of severe dyslipidemia were excluded.

<u>OHGS controls:</u> Healthy elderly controls (men aged >65 years and women aged >70 years) were recruited via an extensive newspaper and television advertising campaign in the Ottawa community. Controls were carefully interviewed by a physician or nurse to ascertain that they were free of symptoms of possible ischemic arterial disease and had no past history of cardiovascular symptoms, a positive stress test, coronary angiography demonstrating stenosis (>50%) in any artery or clinical cardiovascular events. Individuals with the same ethnic background as the cases were included in this study. Controls for all three studies were collected consecutively as described for cases.

Cleveland Clinic Gene Bank (CCGB)

All cases in CCGB study were recruited using the same criteria as in OHGS (18). Individuals were included if they had at least one of the following before the age of 55 years (men) or 65 years (women): angiographically documented stenosis in a major epicardial artery of at least 50%; history of MI, PCA or CABG. Diabetes was an exclusion criterion.

The Duke Cathgen Study (DUKE)

Subjects were recruited from the cardiac centre at Duke, Canada. Cases had at least one epicardial coronary vessel with \geq 50% stenosis documented before age of 55 years (men) or 65 years (women). Controls (\geq 50 years of age) were recruited from amongst individuals who underwent coronary angiography and had no more than 30% stenosis in maximally oneepicardial coronary artery. Any subject with diabetes mellitus, severe pulmonary hypertension or congenital heart disease was excluded from DUKE Study.

PennCATH

PennCATH is a university of Pennsylvania Medical Center based coronary angiographic study. Briefly, between July 1998 and March 2003, PennCATH recruited a consecutive cohort of individuals undergoing cardiac catheterization and coronary angiography (19-20). Cases were required to have at least one stenosis of \geq 50% in at least one of major epicardial arteries before the age of 60 for males and 65 for women. In contrast, CAD-free controls (aged >40 years /men/ and >45 years /women/) had no stenosis exceeding 10% in any major epicardial artery.

INTERHEART study

The INTERHEART study used worldwide cases and controls of European ethnicity (21). Study participants were recruited from 262 centres from 52 countries in Asia, Europe, the Middle East, Africa, Australia, North America, and South America. In this project only a small subset of Canadian individuals (848) of European ancestry was used. Briefly, all individuals (irrespective of age) admitted to the coronary care unit presenting within 24 hours of symptom onset, were screened. Cases were eligible if they had characteristic symptoms plus electrocardiogram changes indicative of a new MI. At least one age-matched (up to 5 years older or younger) and sex-matched control (no previous diagnosis of heart disease or history of exertional chest pain) was recruited per case, using specific criteria.

Members of the Cardiogenics Consortium: Tony Attwood¹, Stephanie Belz², Peter Braund³, Jessy Brocheton⁴, Jason Cooper⁵, Abi Crisp-Hihn¹, Patrick Diemert (formerly Linsel-Nitschke)², Jeanette Erdmann², Nicola Foad¹, Tiphaine Godefroy⁴, Jay Gracey³, Emma Gray⁶, Rhian Gwilliams⁶, Susanne Heimerl⁷, Christian Hengstenberg⁷, Jennifer Jolley¹, Unni Krishnan³, Heather Lloyd-Jones¹, Ulrika Liljedahl⁸, Ingrid Lugauer⁷, Seraya Maouche^{2,4}, Jasbir S Moore³, Gilles Montalescot⁴, David Muir¹, Elizabeth Murray¹, Chris P Nelson³, Jessica Neudert⁹, David Niblett⁶, Karen O'Leary¹, Helen Pollard³, Carole Proust⁴, Angela Rankin¹, Augusto Rendon¹⁰, Catherine M Rice⁶, Hendrik Sager², Nilesh J Samani^{3,11}, Jennifer Sambrook¹, Heribert Schunkert², Gerd Schmitz¹², Michael Scholz⁹, Laura Schroeder², Jonathan Stephens¹, Stefanie Tennstedt (formerly Gulde)², Chris Wallace^{5.}

¹Department of Haematology, University of Cambridge, Long Road, Cambridge, CB2 2PT, UK and National Health Service Blood and Transplant, Cambridge Centre, Long Road, Cambridge, CB2 2PT, UK; ²Medizinische Klinik II, UniversitätzuLübeck, Lübeck Germany; ³Department of Cardiovascular Sciences, University of Leicester, Glenfield Hospital, Groby Road, Leicester, LE3 9QP, UK; ⁴ INSERM UMRS 937, Pierre and Marie Curie University (UPMC, Paris 6) and Medical School, 91 Bd de l'Hôpital 75013, Paris, France; ⁵Juvenile Diabetes Research Foundation/Wellcome Trust Diabetes and Inflammation Laboratory, Department of Medical Genetics, Cambridge Institute for Medical Research, University of Cambridge, Wellcome Trust/MRC Building, Cambridge, CB2 0XY, UK; ⁶The Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute, Wellcome Trust Genome Campus, Hinxton, Cambridge CB10 1SA, UK; ⁷Klinik und Poliklinik für Innere Medizin II, Universität Regensburg, Germany; ⁸Molecular Medicine, Department of Medical Sciences, Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden; ⁹Trium, Analysis Online GmbH, Hohenlindenerstr. 1, 81677, München, Germany; ¹⁰European Bioinformatics Institute, Wellcome Trust Genome Campus, Hinxton, Cambridge, CB10 1SD, UK; ¹¹Leicester NIHR Biomedical Research Unit in Cardiovascular Disease, Glenfield Hospital, Leicester, LE3 90P, UK; ¹²Institut für Klinische Chemie und Laboratoriumsmedizin, Universität, Regensburg, D-93053 Regensburg, Germany.

Supplemental Figures

Figure S1: Measures of homozygosity in each cohort. A - average run number, B - average run length, C - average total run length in the autosomal genome. The boxes are median values, the upper edge of the box - the 75^{th} percentile, the lower edge - the 25^{th} percentile of runs of homozygosity distribution.



Figure S2: Measures of homozygosity in each cohort split by case control status. A - average run number, B - average run length, C - average total run length in the autosomal genome. The boxes are median values, the upper edge of the box - the 75^{th} percentile, the lower edge - the 25^{th} percentile of runs of homozygosity distribution.



Figure S3: An example of overlapping consensus ROH on chromosome 1 shared by 9 populations. X axis - physical distance of the chromosome, Y axis - individual populations

A.



Supplemental Tables

| Table SI: Chai | acteristics o | i conorts u | sed in the analysis | • | | | | | |
|----------------|---------------|-------------|---------------------|------|------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| | | Number | | | | Cases | Controls | | |
| Study | Origin | of | Cases/Controls | %MI | % female | age | age | CAD definition | |
| | | subjects | | | (00505/00101015) | (years) | (years) | | |
| CCGB | Canadian | 1971 | 1607/364 | 60.3 | 24.2/46.7 | 48.5 (7.3) | 73.9 (5.2) | Angiographic (>50% stenosis) | |
| DUKE | Canadian | 1820 | 1180/640 | 48.1 | 30.7/57.8 | 56.6 (9.8) | 63.3 (8.7) | Angiographic (>50% stenosis) | |
| | | | | | | | | MI (<65 yrs) with >1 1^{st} degree | |
| GERMIFSI | German | 2486 | 882/1604 | 100 | 32.8/50.8 | 50.2 (7.9) | 62.6 (10.0) | sibling with severe CAD (PTCA; | |
| | | | | | | | | MI; CABG) | |
| GERMIESII | German | 2506 | 1222/1284 | 100 | 20 9/48 1 | 51 4 (7 5) | 51 1 (12 0) | MI (<60 yrs); 59.4% with family | |
| OLIUM DI | German | 2000 | 1222, 1201 | 100 | 20.9/40.1 | 51.4 (7.5) | 51.1 (12.0) | history of CAD | |
| GERMIESIII | German | 2900 | 1152/1748 | 100 | 20 2/48 9 | 58 6 (8 7) | 55 9 (10 7) | MI (<60 yrs); | |
| OLIGINI DIII | German | 2,00 | 1102, 17 10 | 100 | 20.2/40.9 | 50.0 (0.7) | 55.5 (10.7) | MONICA criteria | |
| ITH | Canadian | 848 | 402/446 | 64.0 | 29.1/33.0 | 63.1 (10.6) | 64.2 (10.3) | Angiographic (>50% stenosis) | |
| OHGS-A | Canadian | 1911 | 913/998 | 64.3 | 22.0/45.5 | 48.2 (6.9) | 74.9 (4.9) | Angiographic (>50% stenosis) | |
| OHGS-B | Canadian | 2778 | 1272/1506 | 55.6 | 26.8/52.8 | 49.3 (7.4) | 75.0 (5.3) | Angiographic (>50% stenosis) | |

Table S1: Characteristics of cohorts used in the analysis

| Canadian | 1152 | 835/317 | 44.3 | 6.2/64.7 | 56.1 (6.9) | 76.0 (6.3) | Angiographic (>50% stenosis) |
|----------|----------------------------|---|---|--|---|--|---|
| | | | | | | | Angiography (≥1 coronary vessel |
| | 1094 | 722/252 | 50.2 | 22.1/48.9 | 52.6 (7.6) | 61.3 (9.5) | with $>50\%$ stenosis); ≤ 60 for |
| USA | 1084 | 132/332 | 50.5 | | | | males and |
| | | | | | | | \leq 65 for females. |
| | | | | | | | Validated MI, CABG, PTCA or |
| British | 4864 | 1926/2938 | 71.5 | 20.7/50.8 | 49.8 (7.7) | 43.7 (8.7) | angina with positive non-invasive |
| | | | | | | | testing <66 yrs |
| | Canadian USA British | Canadian 1152 USA 1084 British 4864 | Canadian 1152 835/317 USA 1084 732/352 British 4864 1926/2938 | Canadian 1152 835/317 44.3 USA 1084 732/352 50.3 British 4864 1926/2938 71.5 | Canadian 1152 835/317 44.3 6.2/64.7 USA 1084 732/352 50.3 22.1/48.9 British 4864 1926/2938 71.5 20.7/50.8 | Canadian 1152 835/317 44.3 6.2/64.7 56.1 (6.9) USA 1084 732/352 50.3 22.1/48.9 52.6 (7.6) British 4864 1926/2938 71.5 20.7/50.8 49.8 (7.7) | Canadian 1152 835/317 44.3 6.2/64.7 56.1 (6.9) 76.0 (6.3) USA 1084 732/352 50.3 22.1/48.9 52.6 (7.6) 61.3 (9.5) British 4864 1926/2938 71.5 20.7/50.8 49.8 (7.7) 43.7 (8.7) |

Data are counts and percentages or means and standard deviations, CAD – coronary artery disease, MI – myocardial infarction, CABG – coronary artery bypass grafting, PTCA – percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty, CCGB – Cleveland Clinic Gene Bank, DUKE – Duke Cathgen Study, GERMIFSI, II, III – German Myocardial Infarction Family Studies, ITH – InterHeart Study, OHGS-A,B,C – Ottawa Heart Genomics Studies, WTCCC – Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium, yrs – years

Table S2: Genotyping information for each study.

| Study acronym | CCGB | DUKE | GerMIFSI | GerMIFSII | GerMIFSIII | ITH | OHGS-A | OHGS-B | OHGS-C | PennCATH | WTCCC |
|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|---|---|-------------------------------|---|---------------------|-------------------|--|
| Platform | Affymetrix 6.0 | Affymetrix Axiom | Affymetrix NSP and STY | Affymetrix 6.0 | Affymetrix Genome- Wide Human SNP Array 6.0 | Affymetrix Human SNP Array 6.0 | Affymetrix Mapping 500K | Affymetrix Human SNP Array 6.0 | Affymetrix Axiom | Affymetrix 6.0 | Affymetrix Mapping 500K Array Set |
| Calling algorithm | Birdseed | AxiomGT1 | Birdseed | BRLMM | Birdseed | Birdseed | BRLMM | Birdseed | AxiomGT1 | Birdseed | CHIAMO |
| Genotyped SNPs | 447,580 | 360,462 | 262,338(NSP)/ 238,378(STY) | 909,622 | 503,590 | 492,837 | 349,183 | 420,531 | 366,254 | 869,223 | 477,459 |
| Total SNPs | 1,779,828 | 1,999,530 | 2,543,887 | 2,543,887 | 2,536,369 | 2,004,234 | 1,688,980 | 1,756,731 | 1,990,154 | 2,749,197 | 2,614,446 |

SNP – single nucleotide polymorphism, CCGB – Cleveland Clinic Gene Bank, DUKE – Duke Cathgen Study, GERMIFSI, II, III – German Myocardial Infarction Family Studies, ITH – InterHeart Study, OHGS-A, B, C – Ottawa Heart Genomics Studies, WTCCC – Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium.

| Study | Number of subjects | Average ROH number | ROH number range | Average total ROH length (kb) | Average ROH length (kb) | FROH |
|------------|--------------------|--------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------|
| CCGB | 1971 | 25.92 (5.60) | 7-66 | 34885.64 (10257.83) | 1336.86 (122.87) | 1.26 (0.37) |
| DUKE | 1820 | 26.59 (9.54) | 8-276 | 36948.16 (22189.18) | 1359.07 (157.21) | 1.33 (0.80) |
| GERMIFSI | 2486 | 36.35 (7.40) | 11-145 | 49924.54 (15203.16) | 1362.30 (112.46) | 1.80 (0.55) |
| GERMIFSII | 2506 | 28.48 (6.09) | 12-81 | 39399.01 (11876.63) | 1372.28 (129.59) | 1.42 (0.43) |
| GERMIFSIII | 2900 | 31.79 (8.12) | 4-180 | 43538.19 (14700.81) | 1359.09 (106.40) | 1.57 (0.53) |
| ITH | 848 | 33.22 (8.37) | 13-106 | 47501.14 (19879.07) | 1404.99 (181.33) | 1.71 (0.72) |
| OHGS-A | 1911 | 36.70 (8.31) | 19-153 | 50399.93 (18662.56) | 1357.36 (126.61) | 1.82 (0.67) |
| OHGS-B | 2778 | 29.57 (6.31) | 13-90 | 40508.82 (13225.52) | 1357.49 (134.19) | 1.46 (0.48) |
| OHGS-C | 1152 | 26.43 (6.11) | 13-66 | 36155.99 (12257.42) | 1354.30 (137.87) | 1.30 (0.44) |
| PennCATH | 1084 | 24.32 (5.74) | 7-47 | 34093.18 (10505.12) | 1393.30 (198.39) | 1.23 (0.38) |
| WTCCC | 4864 | 37.78 (6.09) | 19-88 | 51250.29 (10376.44) | 1354.20 (84.65) | 1.85 (0.37) |

Table S3: Summary of homozygosity measures for each examined study.

Data are means and standard deviations or absolute values and percentages, ROH – run of homozygosity, FROH – proportion of autosomal genome in ROHs, CCGB – Cleveland Clinic Gene Bank, DUKE – Duke Cathgen Study, GERMIFSI, II, III – German Myocardial Infarction Family Studies, ITH – InterHeart Study, OHGS-A, B, C – Ottawa Heart Genomics Studies, WTCCC – Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium.

Table S4: Differences in homozygosity measures between individuals with coronary artery disease and controls – random effects model-based senistivity analysis.

| | Un-adjusted analysis | | | | Age-adjusted a | nalysis | Age- | Age- and sex-adjusted analysis | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------|--|
| Measure | β -coefficient/ | 95% CI | P-value | β -coefficient/ | 95% CI | P-value | β -coefficient/ | 95% CI | P-value | |
| | OR | | OR | | | | OR | OR | | |
| Average ROH number | 0.38 | 0.20, 0.57 | 5.21x10 ⁻⁵ | 0.66 | 0.46, 0.86 | 6.25×10^{-11} | 0.62 | 0.42, 0.83 | 2.08x10 ⁻⁹ | |
| Average ROH length (kb) | 2.47 | -0.84, 5.77 | 0.144 | 5.16 | 1.61, 8.71 | 0.004 | 4.46 | 0.81, 8.11 | 0.017 | |
| Average total length of ROHs (kb) | 668.01 | 294.31, 1041.70 | 4.59x10 ⁻⁴ | 1124.83 | 723.67, 1525.99 | 3.89x10 ⁻⁸ | 1028.30 | 615.78, 1440.83 | 1.03×10^{-6} | |
| FROH | 1.06 | 1.03, 1.10 | 1.46×10^{-4} | 1.13 | 1.10, 1.17 | 4.67×10^{-13} | 1.13 | 1.09, 1.17 | 3.24×10^{-11} | |

Data for number, average length and total length of ROHs are β -coefficients [with respective confidence intervals and level of statistical significance (P-value) from regressing homozygosity measures on case-control status with adjustment for cohort as a random effect, age and sex (where appropriate)]; data on FROH are expressed as odds ratios (OR) of coronary artery disease risk (with confidence intervals and level of statistical significance) with adjustment for cohort as a random effect, age and sex (where appropriate); 95% CI – 95% confidence intervals, ROH – run of homozygosity, FROH – proportion of autosomal genome in ROHs.

Table S5. Differences in homozygosity measures between individuals with coronary artery disease and disease free controls after exclusion of WTCCC controls from the British 1958 Birth Cohort – sensitivity analysis.

| Maagura | | Fixed | | Random | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------|-----------------|------------------------|---------|--------------------|------------------------|--|--|
| Ivieasure — | β/OR | 95% CI | P-value | β/OR | 95% CI | P-value | | |
| Average ROH number | 0.73 | 0.52, 0.94 | 2.28×10^{-11} | 0.73 | 0.51, 0.94 | 2.76x10 ⁻¹¹ | | |
| Average ROH length (kb) | 4.83 | 0.95, 8.71 | 0.015 | 4.78 | 0.90, 8.65 | 0.016 | | |
| Average total length of ROHs (kb) | 1199.71 | 763.39, 1636.04 | 7.14x10 ⁻ 8 | 1188.71 | 752.43, 1624.99 | 9.28x10 ⁻⁸ | | |
| FROH | 1.15 | 1.11, 1.19 | 1.84×10^{-13} | 1.14 | 1.10, 1.19 | 4.27×10^{-13} | | |

Data for average number of homozygosity runs (ROH number), average ROH length and average total length of ROHs are β -coefficients [with respective confidence intervals and level of statistical significance (P-value) from regressing this homozygosity measure on case-control status with adjustment for cohort, age and sex (where appropriate)]; data on FROH (proportion of autosomal genome in ROHs) are expressed as odds ratios (OR) of coronary artery disease risk (with confidence intervals and corresponding level of statistical significance) with adjustment for cohort, age and sex (where appropriate); 95% CI – 95% confidence intervals, fixed – models with cohort as fixed effect, random – models with cohort as random effect

Table S6: Differences in average ROH number and FROH between individuals with coronary artery disease and controls after exclusion of cohorts with statistically significant CADxcohort or FROHxcohort interaction terms – sensitivity analysis

| Measure | | Fixed | | Random | | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|--|--|--|
| | β/OR (95% CI) | P-value | β/OR (95% CI) | P-value | | | |
| Average ROH Number | 1.06 (0.81, 1.31) | $1.04 \mathrm{x} 10^{-16}$ | 1.05 (0.80, 1.30) | 1.48×10^{-16} | | | |
| FROH | 1.14 (1.10, 1,18) | 2.01x10 ⁻¹² | 1.14 (1.10, 1.18) | 4.52×10^{-12} | | | |

Data for average number of homozygosity runs (ROH number) are β -coefficients [with respective confidence intervals and level of statistical significance (P-value) from regressing this homozygosity measure on case-control status with adjustment for cohort, age and sex (where appropriate)]; data on FROH (proportion of autosomal genome in ROHs) are expressed as odds ratios (OR) of coronary artery disease risk (with confidence intervals and level of statistical significance) with adjustment for cohort, age and sex (where appropriate); 95% CI – 95% confidence intervals, sensitivity analysis – analysis of association conducted after exclusion of studies with significant CADxcohortor FROHxcohort interaction terms (WTCCC for average ROH number, and CCGB, GERMIFSIII, OHGS-A and OHGS-B for FROH), fixed – models with cohort as fixed effect, random – models with cohort as random effect

| Number of SNPs in overlapping consensus ROH | Values |
|--|--------------|
| 2-9 | 1852 (10.90) |
| 10-49 | 6018 (35.42) |
| 50-99 | 3408 (20.06) |
| 100+ | 5711 (33.62) |
| Total | 16,989 |

Table S7: Single nucleotide polymorphism enrichment of identified overlapping consensus ROHs.

Data are counts and percentages, ROH – runs of homozygosity, SNP – single nucleotide polymorphism

| Reg | Chr | BP1 | BP2 | Studies | SNPs | Cases | Controls | OR (95% CI) | P-value |
|-----|-----|-------------|-------------|----------------------------|------|-------|----------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 | 3 | 34,972,502 | 34,973,514 | 7 (B, C, D, E, H, I, J) | 102 | 74 | 64 | 0.85 (0.40, 1.30) | 1.99x10 ⁻⁴ |
| 2 | 7 | 123,048,204 | 123,057,055 | 4 (C, D, I, J) | 55 | 42 | 80 | 0.83 (0.38, 1.28) | 2.74x10 ⁻⁴ |
| 3 | 5 | 151,895,125 | 152,036,927 | 3 (C, D, J) | 199 | 46 | 25 | 1.01 (0.46, 1.55) | 3.06x10 ⁻⁴ |
| 4 | 12 | 109,552,479 | 109,586,957 | 4 (A, E, G, I) | 98 | 499 | 513 | 0.34 (0.15, 0.53) | 4.22x10 ⁻⁴ |
| 5 | 2 | 197,612,440 | 197,618,211 | 2 (C, I) | 5 | 87 | 113 | 0.76 (0.34, 1.19) | 4.75×10^{-4} |
| 6 | 4 | 103,891,412 | 103,894,628 | 2 (E, J) | 29 | 148 | 114 | 0.48 (0.21, 0.75) | 4.93x10 ⁻⁴ |
| 7 | 2 | 197,110,028 | 197,111,431 | 2 (C, E) | 22 | 117 | 135 | 0.47 (0.21, 0.74) | 5.11x10 ⁻⁴ |
| 8 | 18 | 30,443,158 | 30,445,323 | 6 (A, B, D, E, I, K) | 192 | 137 | 132 | 0.48 (0.21, 0.76) | 5.96x10 ⁻⁴ |
| 9 | 5 | 32,901,811 | 32,998,002 | 6 (C, D, E, G, H, K) | 208 | 24 | 17 | 1.28 (0.54, 2.01) | 6.74×10^{-4} |
| 10 | 3 | 35,241,188 | 35,249,754 | 4 (D. E. G. J) | 43 | 46 | 21 | 0.99 (0.41, 1.57) | 8.18x10 ⁻⁴ |

Table S8: Top 10 overlapping consensus ROHs from analysis of association with coronary artery disease – age- and sex-adjusted analysis.

ROH – run of homozygosity, Reg – region, Chr – chromosome, BP1 – starting base pair position of the overlapping consensus ROH, BP2 – ending base pair position of the overlapping consensus ROH, OR – odds ratio of coronary artery disease after adjustment for age, sex, and study, P-value – level of statistical significance for case-control difference, A:CCGB, B:DUKE, C:GERMIFSI, D:GERMIFSII, E:GERMIFSIII, F:ITH, G:OHGS-A, H:OHGS-B, I:OHGS-C, J:PennCATH, K:WTCCC, SNPs – average number of SNPs that each study contributed in the overlapping consensus ROH.

Table S9. Average mRNA expression differences in human monocytes between individuals with and without consensus ROHs – Cardiogenics Study.

| Chr | Location (Mb) | SNPs | Individuals with consensus ROHs | Gene | β (95% CI) | P-value |
|-----|-------------------|------|--|----------|----------------------|----------------------------|
| 16 | 663.38-663.69 | 6 | 454 | DUS2L | -0.23 (-0.26, -0.19) | 5.74×10^{-30} |
| 16 | 669.09 669.17 | 4 | 228 | DUS2L | -0.16 (-0.20, -0.12) | $4.55 \mathrm{x10}^{-13}$ |
| 21 | 293.68-296.11 | 91 | 48 | C210RF7 | 0.70 (0.51, 0.89) | $1.33 x 10^{-11}$ |
| 3 | 491.91-492.85 | 28 | 225 | WDR6 | -0.15 (-0.20, -0.11) | $4.67 \mathrm{x10}^{-11}$ |
| 15 | 414.96-415.58 | 23 | 331 | ZSCAN29 | 0.07 (0.05, 0.09) | $1.81 \mathrm{x} 10^{-10}$ |
| 15 | 414.27-414.76 | 18 | 325 | ZSCAN29 | 0.07 (0.05, 0.09) | $1.93 \mathrm{x} 10^{-10}$ |
| 15 | 413.87-413.97 | 2 | 322 | ZSCAN29 | 0.07 (0.05, 0.09) | $4.22 \mathrm{x} 10^{-10}$ |
| 3 | 491.75-491.76 | 2 | 233 | WDR6 | -0.14 (-0.18, -0.10) | 5.27×10^{-10} |
| 15 | 416.22-416.83 | 6 | 352 | ZSCAN29 | 0.07 (0.05, 0.09) | $7.88 \mathrm{x10}^{-10}$ |
| 15 | 413.33-413.38 | 2 | 303 | ZSCAN29 | 0.07 (0.05, 0.09) | 1.34×10^{-9} |
| 3 | 491.14-491.38 | 10 | 227 | WDR6 | -0.14 (-0.18, -0.10) | 1.63×10^{-9} |
| 15 | 417.06-417.07 | 2 | 353 | ZSCAN29 | 0.06 (0.04, 0.08) | 3.62×10^{-9} |
| 3 | 487.46-490.15 | 50 | 227 | WDR6 | -0.14 (-0.18, -0.09) | 4.08×10^{-9} |
| 3 | 493.65 - 495.29 | 43 | 198 | WDR6 | -0.14 (-0.18, -0.09) | 1.53×10^{-8} |
| 16 | 660.34 - 660.47 | 3 | 467 | ATP6V0D1 | 0.10 (0.06, 0.13) | 6.41×10^{-8} |
| 16 | 663.38 - 663.69 | 6 | 454 | ATP6V0D1 | 0.09 (0.06, 0.13) | 8.29×10^{-8} |
| 3 | 486.37 - 486.47 | 8 | 242 | WDR6 | -0.12 (-0.16, -0.08) | $1.21 \mathrm{x} 10^{-7}$ |
| 6 | 286.55 - 287.10 | 10 | 200 | ZNF193 | 0.09 (0.06, 0.12) | $1.87 \mathrm{x} 10^{-7}$ |
| 15 | 411.65 - 411.82 | 4 | 271 | ZSCAN29 | 0.06 (0.04, 0.08) | $1.91 \mathrm{x} 10^{-7}$ |
| 6 | 286.02 - 286.23 | 11 | 200 | ZNF193 | 0.09 (0.06, 0.12) | 2.10×10^{-7} |
| 3 | 486.10 - 486.19 | 3 | 248 | WDR6 | -0.12 (-0.16, -0.07) | $3.37 \mathrm{x} 10^{-7}$ |
| 16 | 669.09 - 669.17 | 4 | 228 | SLC7A6 | 0.10 (0.06, 0.14) | $6.87 \mathrm{x} 10^{-7}$ |
| 6 | 288.03 - 288.04 | 2 | 200 | ZNF193 | 0.09 (0.06, 0.12) | 7.78×10^{-7} |
| 4 | 1037.94 - 1042.37 | 96 | 62 | MANBA | -0.15 (-0.21, -0.10) | $8.14 \mathrm{x} 10^{-7}$ |
| 16 | 658.30 - 658.86 | 10 | 452 | ATP6V0D1 | 0.09 (0.05, 0.12) | 1.25×10^{-6} |
| 10 | 756.07 - 757.01 | 17 | 177 | VCL | 0.10 (0.06, 0.13) | 2.22×10^{-6} |
| 13 | 956.09 - 958.69 | 101 | 71 | UGCGL2 | 0.11 (0.07, 0.15) | 2.49×10^{-6} |
| 6 | 284.18 - 284.55 | 14 | 212 | ZNF193 | 0.08 (0.05, 0.11) | 3.00×10^{-6} |
| 6 | 284.56 - 285.08 | 35 | 212 | ZNF193 | 0.08 (0.05, 0.11) | 3.96×10^{-6} |
| 16 | 670.10 - 670.32 | 10 | 138 | SLC7A6 | 0.12 (0.07, 0.17) | 3.98×10^{-6} |
| 6 | 308.72 - 308.75 | 6 | 45 | HLA-C | 0.26 (0.16, 0.37) | 4.35×10^{-6} |
| 16 | 670.10 - 670.32 | 10 | 138 | DUS2L | -0.12 (-0.17, -0.07) | $5.55 \text{ x} 10^{-6}$ |
| 6 | 282.81 - 283.17 | 18 | 197 | ZNF193 | 0.08 (0.05, 0.11) | $7.49 \text{ x} 10^{-6}$ |
| 10 | 759.90 - 760.13 | 3 | 168 | VCL | 0.09 (0.05, 0.13) | $7.62 \text{ x} 10^{-6}$ |
| 10 | 755.26 - 755.30 | 2 | 177 | VCL | 0.09 (0.05, 0.13) | $1.20 \mathrm{x} 10^{-5}$ |
| 3 | 1592.98 - 1599.09 | 187 | 19 | RARRES1 | 0.14 (0.08, 0.20) | $1.24 \mathrm{x} 10^{-5}$ |
| 2 | 1354.79 – 1362.11 | 139 | 378 | МСМ6 | -0.08 (-0.12, -0.05) | $1.67 \mathrm{x} 10^{-5}$ |
| 20 | 332.89 - 333.03 | 3 | 204 | UQCC | 0.08 (0.05, 0.12) | 2.05×10^{-5} |
| 6 | 279.79 - 280.41 | 21 | 194 | ZNF193 | 0.07 (0.04, 0.11) | 2.41×10^{-5} |
| 16 | 669.09 - 669.17 | 4 | 228 | SLC7A6 | 0.09 (0.05, 0.13) | 2.68×10^{-5} |

| 16 | 663.38 - 663.69 | 6 | 454 | DPEP3 | 0.07 (0.04, 0.10) | $2.70 \mathrm{x} 10^{-5}$ |
|----|-----------------|----|-----|---------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| 10 | 761.02 - 761.36 | 8 | 144 | ADK | -0.15 (-0.22, -0.09) | 3.19×10^{-5} |
| 16 | 670.10 - 670.32 | 10 | 138 | SLC7A6 | 0.10 (0.06, 0.15) | 3.20×10^{-5} |
| 15 | 419.40 - 419.56 | 3 | 400 | ZSCAN29 | 0.04 (0.02, 0.06) | 3.47×10^{-5} |

Chr – chromosome, SNPs – number of SNPs in overlapping consensus region, β – regression coefficient, 95% CI – 95% confidence intervals, P-value – level of statistical significance for difference in gene expression between individuals with and without consensus ROHs adjusted for demographic parameters and genomic control. All identified associations have a false discovery rate q-value < 0.01. *DUS2L* – dihydrouridine synthase 2, *C21orf7* [MIM 611110] – MAP3K7 C-Terminal like, *WDR6* – WD repeat domain 6, *ZSCAN29* – zinc finger and SCAN domain containing 29, *ATP6V0D1* [MIM 607028] – ATPase, H⁺ transporting, lysosomal 38kDa V0 subunit d1, *ZNF193* [MIM 602246] – zinc finger and SCAN domain containing 9, *SLC7A6* [MIM 605641] – solute carrier family 7 member 6, *MANBA* [MIM 609489] – mannosidase beta a, lysosomal, *VCL* [MIM 193065] – vinculin, *UGCGL2* [MIM 605898] – UDP-Glucose ceramide glucosyltransferase-like 2, *HLA-C* [MIM 142840] – major histocompatibility complex, class I, C, *RARRES1* [MIM 605090] – retinoic acid receptor responder (tazarotene induced) 1, *MCM6* [MIM 601806] – minichromosome maintenance complex component 6, *UQCC* [MIM 611797] – ubiquinol-cytochrome c reductase complex assembly factor 3, *DPEP3* [MIM 609926] – dipeptidase 3, *ADK* [MIM 102750] – adenosine kinase. Gene symbols appear more than once in the table because different consensus ROHs can be mapped onto the same gene array probe if there is more than one ROH within 100kb of the probe.

| Chr | Location (Mb) | SNPs | Individuals with Consensus ROHs | Gene | β (95% CI) | p Value |
|-----|---------------|------|--|---------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 3 | 491.91-492.85 | 28 | 225 | WDR6 | -0.19 (-0.25, -0.14) | 4.57×10^{-10} |
| 3 | 491.14 491.38 | 10 | 227 | WDR6 | -0.19 (-0.24, -0.13) | 1.61×10^{-9} |
| 3 | 491.75-491.76 | 2 | 233 | WDR6 | -0.17 (-0.23, -0.12) | $1.86 	imes 10^{-8}$ |
| 15 | 414.96-415.58 | 23 | 331 | ZSCAN29 | 0.08 (0.05, 0.10) | 2.02×10^{-8} |
| 15 | 414.27-414.76 | 18 | 325 | ZSCAN29 | 0.07 (0.05, 0.10) | 2.34×10^{-8} |
| 3 | 487.46-490.15 | 50 | 227 | WDR6 | -0.17 (-0.23, -0.11) | 3.90×10^{-8} |
| 15 | 413.87-413.97 | 2 | 322 | ZSCAN29 | 0.07 (0.05, 0.10) | $4.85 	imes 10^{-8}$ |
| 15 | 413.33-413.38 | 2 | 303 | ZSCAN29 | 0.07 (0.05, 0.09) | 3.02×10^{-7} |
| 15 | 417.06-417.07 | 2 | 353 | ZSCAN29 | 0.07 (0.04, 0.09) | 3.46×10^{-7} |
| 15 | 416.22-416.83 | 6 | 352 | ZSCAN29 | 0.07 (0.04, 0.09) | 3.71×10^{-7} |
| 3 | 486.37-486.47 | 8 | 242 | WDR6 | -0.15 (-0.21, -0.10) | $7.81 	imes 10^{-7}$ |
| 3 | 493.65-495.29 | 43 | 198 | WDR6 | -0.16 (-0.22, -0.10) | $7.91 	imes 10^{-7}$ |
| 3 | 486.10-486.19 | 3 | 248 | WDR6 | -0.15 (-0.20, -0.09) | 1.49×10^{-6} |
| 17 | 264.48-265.34 | 25 | 106 | EVI2A | -0.24 (-0.33, -0.14) | 5.22×10^{-6} |
| 15 | 413.33-413.38 | 2 | 303 | ADAL | 0.04 (0.02, 0.06) | $5.75 	imes 10^{-6}$ |
| 15 | 413.87-413.97 | 2 | 322 | ADAL | 0.04 (0.02, 0.05) | 1.04×10^{-5} |
| 16 | 663.38-663.69 | 6 | 454 | DUS2L | -0.10 (-0.15, -0.06) | $1.50 	imes 10^{-5}$ |

Table S10. Average mRNA Expression Differences in Human Macrophages between Individuals with and without Consensus ROHs: Cardiogenics Study

All identified associations have a false discovery rate q value < 0.01. Gene symbols appear more than once in the table because different consensus ROHs can be mapped onto the same gene array probe if there is more than one ROH within 100 kb of the probe.

Abbreviations are as follows: Chr, chromosome; SNPs, number of SNPs in overlapping consensus region; β , regression coefficient; 95% CI, 95% confidence intervals; p value, level of statistical significance for difference in gene expression between individuals with and without consensus ROHs adjusted for demographic parameters and genomic control; *WDR6*, WD repeat domain 6; *ZSCAN29*, zinc finger and SCAN domain containing 29; *EVI2A* (MIM: 158380), ecotropic viral integration site 2A; *ADAL*, adenosine deaminase-like; *DUS2L*, dihydrouridine synthase 2.

Supplemental references

- 1. Schunkert, H., König, I.R., Kathiresan, S., Reilly, M.P., Assimes, T.L., Holm, H., Preuss, M., Stewart, A.F., Barbalic, M., Gieger, C., et al. (2011). Large-scale association analysis identifies 13 new susceptibility loci for coronary artery disease. Nat Genet. *43*, 333-8.
- Samani, N.J., Burton, P., Mangino, M., Ball, S.G., Balmforth, A.J., Barrett, J., Bishop, T., Hall, A., BHF Family Heart Study Research Group. (2005). A genomewide linkage study of 1,933 families affected by premature coronary artery disease: The British Heart Foundation (BHF) Family Heart Study. Am J Hum Genet. 77, 1011-20.
- Alfakih, K., Brown, B., Lawrance, R.A., Warburton, P., Maqbool, A., Walters, K., Samani, N.J., Ball, S.G., Balmforth, A.J., Hall, A.S. (2007). Effect of a common Xlinked angiotensin II type 2-receptor gene polymorphism (-1332 G/A) on the occurrence of premature myocardial infarction and stenotic atherosclerosis requiring revascularization. Atherosclerosis. 195, e32-8.
- 4. Power, C., Elliott, J. (2006). Cohort profile: 1958 British birth cohort (National Child Development Study). Int J Epidemiol. *35*, 34-41.
- Burton, P.R., Clayton, D.G., Cardon, L.R., Craddock, N., Deloukas, P., Duncanson, A., Kwiatkowski, D.P., McCarthy, M.I., Ouwehand, W.H., Samani, N.J., et al. (2007). Genome-wide association study of 14,000 cases of seven common diseases and 3,000 shared controls. Nature. 447, 661-78.
- Samani, N.J., Erdmann, J., Hall, A.S., Hengstenberg, C., Mangino, M., Mayer, B., Dixon, R.J., Meitinger, T., Braund, P., Wichmann, H.E., et al. (2007). Genomewide association analysis of coronary artery disease. N Engl J Med. *357*, 443-53.
- Broeckel, U., Hengstenberg, C., Mayer, B., Holmer, S., Martin, L.J., Comuzzie, A.G., Blangero, J., Nürnberg, P., Reis, A., Riegger, G.A., et al. (2002). A comprehensive linkage analysis for myocardial infarction and its related risk factors. Nat Genet. 30, 210-4.
- Fischer, M., Broeckel, U., Holmer, S., Baessler, A., Hengstenberg, C., Mayer, B., Erdmann, J., Klein, G., Riegger, G., Jacob, H.J., et al. (2005). Distinct heritable patterns of angiographic coronary artery disease in families with myoca rdial infarction. Circulation. 111, 855-62.
- 9. Wichmann, H.E., Gieger, C., Illig, T., MONICA/KORA Study Group. (2005). KORAgen--resource for population genetics, controls and a broad spectrum of disease phenotypes. Gesundheitswesen. 67 *Suppl 1*, S26-30.
- Erdmann, J., Grosshennig, A., Braund, P.S., König, I.R., Hengstenberg, C., Hall, A.S., Linsel-Nitschke, P., Kathiresan, S., Wright, B., Trégouët, D.A., et al. (2009). New susceptibility locus for coronary artery disease on chromosome 3q22.3. Nat Genet. 41, 280-2.

- 11. Holle, R., Happich, M., Löwel, H., Wichmann, H.E., MONICA/KORA Study Group. (2005). KORA-a research platform for population based health research. Gesundheitswesen. 67 *Suppl 1*, S19-25.
- Krawczak, M., Nikolaus, S., von Eberstein, H., Croucher, P.J., El Mokhtari, N.E., Schreiber, S. (2006). PopGen: population-based recruitment of patients and controls for the analysis of complex genotype-phenotype relationships. Community Genet. 9, 55-61.
- Erdmann, J., Willenborg, C., Nahrstaedt, J., Preuss, M., König, I.R., Baumert, J., Linsel-Nitschke, P., Gieger, C., Tennstedt, S., Belcredi, P., et al. (2011). Genome-wide association study identifies a new locus for coronary artery disease on chromosome 10p11.23. Eur Heart J. 32, 158-68.
- 14. Löwel, H., Meisinger, C., Heier, M., Hörmann, A. (2005). The population-based acute myocardial infarction (AMI) registry of the MONICA/KORA study region of Augsburg. Gesundheitswesen. 67 Suppl 1, S31–7.
- Peters, A., von Klot, S., Heier, M., Trentinaglia, I., Hörmann, A., Wichmann, H.E., Löwel, H., Cooperative Health Research in the Region of Augsburg Study Group. (2004). Exposure to traffic and the onset of myocardial infarction. N Engl J Med. 351, 1721-30.
- Kolz, M., Baumert, J., Gohlke, H., Grallert, H., Döring, A., Peters, A., Wichmann, H.E., Koenig, W., Illig, T. (2009). Association study between variants in the fibrinogen gene cluster, fibrinogen levels and hypertension: results from the MONICA/KORA study. Thromb Haemost. 101,317-24.
- McPherson, R., Pertsemlidis, A., Kavaslar, N., Stewart, A., Roberts, R., Cox, D.R., Hinds, D.A., Pennacchio, L.A., Tybjaerg-Hansen, A., Folsom, A.R., et al. (2007). A common allele on chromosome 9 associated with coronary heart disease. Science. *316*, 1488-1491.
- Davies, R.W., Dandona, S., Stewart, A.F., Chen, L., Ellis, S.G., Tang, W.H., Hazen, S.L., Roberts, R., McPherson, R., Wells, G.A. (2010). Improved prediction of cardiovascular disease based on a panel of single nucleotide polymorphisms identified through genome-wide association studies. Circ Cardiovasc Genet.3, 468-74.
- Grant, S.F., Thorleifsson, G., Reynisdottir, I., Benediktsson, R., Manolescu, A., Sainz, J., Helgason, A., Stefansson, H., Emilsson, V., Helgadottir, A., et al. (2006). Variant of transcription factor 7-like 2 (TCF7L2) gene confers risk of type 2 diabetes. Nat Genet. 38, 320-3.
- Kathiresan, S., Voight, B.F., Purcell, S., Musunuru, K., Ardissino, D., Mannucci, P.M., Anand, S., Engert, J.C., Samani, N.J., Schunkert, H., et al. (2009). Genome-wide association of early-onset myocardial infarction with single nucleotide polymorphisms and copy number variants. Nat Genet. 41,334-341.
- 21. Yusuf, S., Hawken, S., Ounpuu, S., Dans, T., Avezum, A., Lanas, F., McQueen, M., Budaj, A., Pais, P., Varigos, J., et al. (2004). Effect of potentially modifiable risk factors

associated with myocardial infarction in 52 countries (the INTERHEART study): case-control study. Lancet. *364*, 937-52.