Supporting Information Appendix

High impact rare genetic variants in severe schizophrenia

Authors: Anthony W. Zoghbi, $MD^{1, 2, 3, 4, 5*}$, Ryan S. Dhindsa, $PhD^{2, 4, 6, 7}$, Terry E. Goldberg, PhD^{3,5,8}, Aydan Mehralizade, MPH^{3,5}, Joshua E. Motelow, MD, PhD,^{4,7,9} Xinchen Wang, PhD^{4,7,10}, Anna Alkelai, PhD^{4,7}, Matthew B. Harms, MD^{4,11,12}, Jeffrey A. Lieberman, MD^{3,5}, Sander Markx, MD^{3,5†}, David B. Goldstein, PhD^{4,7*†}

Affiliations:

¹Menninger Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas, USA.

²Department of Molecular and Human Genetics, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas, USA.

³Department of Psychiatry, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New York, New York; New York State Psychiatric Institute, New York, NY, USA.

⁴Institute of Genomic Medicine, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New York, NY, USA.

5 New York State Psychiatric Institute, Office of Mental Health, New York, NY, USA.

6 Jan and Dan Duncan Neurological Research Institute, Houston, TX, USA.

⁷Department of Genetics and Development, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New York, NY, USA.

⁸Department of Anesthesiology, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New York, NY, USA.

⁹Department of Pediatrics, Division of Critical Care and Hospital Medicine, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New York-Presbyterian Morgan Stanley Children's Hospital of New York, New York, NY, USA.

 10 Waypoint Bio, 180 Varick St, 6th Floor, New York, NY, USA.

¹¹Department of Neurology, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New York, NY, USA.

 12 Center for Motor Neuron Biology and Disease, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New York, NY, USA.

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Methods

Severe, extremely treatment-resistant schizophrenia (SETRS) participant inclusion criteria

1. Provision of informed consent or assent with informed consent from a legally authorized representative. 2. Structured Clinical Interview for DSM-5 (SCID-5) diagnosis of schizophrenia. 3. Continuous residence in a New York State Office of Mental Health inpatient facility for ≥ 5 years. 4. Treatment resistance as defined by continued psychotic symptoms despite adequate trials of two or more antipsychotic medications for ≥ 6 weeks(48).

SETRS participant exclusion criteria

1. Patients hospitalized under Criminal Procedure Law (i.e. Not Guilty by Reason of Insanity). 2. Medical or neurologic disorder (e.g. stroke, traumatic brain injury) that predates schizophrenia onset and better explains symptomatology. 3. Greater than five-year length of stay primarily due to discharge refusal or high risk of violence, suicide, or sexual offense.

Diagnostic methods and phenotypic assessment

For SETRS participants, a psychiatrist (A.Z.) diagnosed schizophrenia using the psychosis module from the Structural Clinical Interview for DSM-5 based on a combination of interviews with the participant, collateral informants (primary clinical team and involved family members), and lifetime medical record review by a psychiatrist (A.Z.) and study coordinator (A.M.). Consensus diagnoses with a second psychiatrist (S.M.) was made for each participant.

We define severe, extremely treatment-resistant schizophrenia (SETRS) individuals as those whose severity of schizophrenia has required continuous hospitalization for at least 5 years. This 5-year cut off is based on prior research on "Kraepelinian" or "Very Poor Outcome" schizophrenia, which differs from typical schizophrenia in that it is characterized by worse

cognitive impairment, treatment resistance, stronger family history of schizophrenia spectrum disorders, and imaging abnormalities(56, 57). We elected not to assess for the presence of schizoaffective disorder (SAD) given the substantial genetic overlap between schizophrenia and schizoaffective disorder(58), low interrater reliability of SAD(59), and difficulty obtaining an accurate retrospective mood and neurovegetative symptom history from severely affected individuals. We calculated total duration of hospitalization in New York State Office of Mental Health state inpatient facilities using the New York State Facilities Enterprise Reporting system. We estimated age of onset of psychosis based on a combination of participant interview, collateral from family and clinical team, first documented hospitalization, and detailed medical record review.

For the typical schizophrenia analysis, we only selected individuals with a diagnosis of schizophrenia from the Genomic Psychiatry Cohort. Diagnostic and phenotyping methods for this cohort have been described in detail elsewhere(53). Thirty samples were ascertained as part of an exome sequencing study of schizophrenia and schizoaffective disorder that has been previously described in detail(54). For individuals ascertained as part of the whole-genome sequencing in psychiatric genetics at Massachusetts General and McLean Hospitals in Boston, the diagnostic process differed slightly for single proband samples versus samples recruited as part of a trio. For single probands, the clinical assessment was based on a review of all hospital records by two independent senior clinicians, which was then used to provide a consensus diagnosis of schizophrenia or schizoaffective disorder based on DSM-5 criteria. For participants enrolled as part of a trio, probands were assessed based on a SCID interview and a review of all hospital records (where applicable). Then, a consensus Axis I DSM-IV diagnoses of schizophrenia or schizoaffective disorder was assigned by a group of four senior clinicians based

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on a review of all material. Of note, each of the typical schizophrenia cohorts include some individuals who are treatment resistant. However, given that 30% of all individuals with schizophrenia experience treatment resistance(48), this is not inconsistent with a typically ascertained cohort.

Whole genome/exome sequencing and variant calling

Samples of blood-extracted SETRS individuals and whole genome controls were sequenced according to standard protocols on Illumina's NovaSeq 6000 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) platform with 150 base pair paired-end reads at Columbia's Institute for Genomic Medicine (IGM) and New York Genome Center (NYGC). Typical schizophrenia individuals' whole genome samples were sequenced on a combination of NovaSeq 6000 or HiSeq2500 at the IGM or the HiSeq X at the NYGC. Whole genome typical schizophrenia samples from dbGaP were sequenced at the Broad Institute on Illumina HiSeq2500. Exome samples were sequenced with IDT Exome Research Panel Version 1, Roche NimbleGen EZCap Version 3, Illumina TruSeq 65MB, or Agilent SureSelect Human All Exon V5 capture kits using Illumina GAIIx, HiSeq 2000, or HiSeq 2500 sequencers following standard protocols.

We aligned reads to human reference GRCh37 using DRAGEN (Edico Genome, San Diego, CA, USA)(61) and duplicates were marked and removed using Picard tools (Broad Institute, Boston, MA, USA). Variants were called as per the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK - Broad Institute, Boston, MA, USA) Best Practices recommendations v3.6(62). Variant type/function were annotated with ClinEff(63) and the IGM's in-house Analysis Tool for Annotated Variants(64) was used to add custom annotations including gnomAD $v2.1$ frequencies, regional-intolerance metrics, and clinical annotations provided by the Human Gene

Mutation Database (HGMD)(65), ClinVar(66), and Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM)(29).

Sample and variant quality control and filtering

The initial samples included 116 SETRS individuals, 230 typical schizophrenia individuals, and 5,950 controls for the combined whole exome and genome analysis. For the genome-only analysis, we included 116 SETRS individuals, 200 typical schizophrenia, and 4,817 controls. We removed samples with a discordance between sequence-derived X:Y coverage ratio and their self-reported gender and >5% contamination according to VerifyBamID(67). Case and control cohorts were screened for cryptic relatedness with KING to remove related individuals (second-degree relatives or closer in relatedness) electing to retain cases over controls in each pair. Samples were also removed if they had less than 90% 10-fold coverage of the consensus coding sequence (CCDS) regions (release 20). SETRS (97.6%), typical schizophrenia (97.2%), and whole exome/genome controls (95.6%) genome-only controls (97.5%) were similar in the percentage of CCDS bases with 10-fold coverage. Control samples were also removed if they were included in the gnomAD database or were sequenced using a capture kit with insufficient coverage of the exome. The final SETRS cohort included 112 SETRS individuals, 218 typical schizophrenia individuals, and 4,929 controls. The final genomeonly cohort included 114 SETRS individuals, 198 typical schizophrenia individuals, and 4,146 controls.

Variant calls were required to have at least 10-fold coverage, quality-by-depth score $(QD) \ge 5$, quality score $(QUAL) \ge 50$, mapping quality score $(MQ) \ge 40$, genotype quality score $(GQ) \ge 20$, read position rank sum (RPRS) \ge -3, mapping quality rank sum (MQRS) \ge -10. Single nucleotide variants $(SNVs)$ were required to have Fisher's strand bias (FS) of <60 and

Strand Odds Ratio (SOR) < 3. Indels were required to have FS < 200 and SOR < 10. Variants were removed if they did not pass GATK's standard variant quality score recalibration (VQSR) threshold. We also removed known sequencing artifacts as described in Petrovski et al. 2017(51) and variants previously identified as problematic by ExAC(69), gnomAD(21), or EVS [\(http://evs.gs.washington.edu/EVS/HelpDescriptions.jsp\)](http://evs.gs.washington.edu/EVS/HelpDescriptions.jsp). For heterozygous genotypes, the alternative allele ratio (allelic balance) was required to be \geq 30%. We restricted the analyses to variants within the CCDS or the 2 base pair canonical splice sites.

To remove confounding due to differential coverage between cases and controls, we used site-coverage harmonization as previously described(51). Briefly, we removed any bases that had a greater than 7% absolute difference in 10-fold coverage between cases and controls as coverage differences between cases and controls could potentially introduce bias. This coverage harmonization technique reduces potential bias that can stem from differences in sequencing depth, coverage between sequencers, and differential coverage between whole genome sequencing and whole exome sequencing capture kits.

We externally filtered for variants with a minor allele frequency (MAF) $\leq 1 \times 10^{-4}$ in each represented ancestral population in the non-psychiatric ("non-neuro") subset of gnomAD. We then filtered using internal minor allele frequency of 0.0005 to control for site and sequencerspecific artifacts as previously described(52). We only included SNVs and indels receiving "PASS" for the gnomAD random forest filter. We then removed variants falling under the recommended cutoffs for the gnomAD random forest true probability for SNVs: 0.1 (exome)/0.4 (genome) and indels: 0.2 (exome)/0.4 (genome). We removed loss-of-function variants flagged as low confidence by LOFTEE and those falling in low complexity, segmental duplication, and decoy regions as defined by gnomAD(21). We filtered out loss-of-function variants expressed in

less than 10% of transcripts using the proportion expressed across transcripts (PEXT) score(70) with the recommended cutoff of 0.1. To normalize PEXT values across a gene, we divided each base pair's PEXT score by the maximum PEXT value for that gene to create a PEXT ratio. This procedure accounts for the spuriously low PEXT values across certain genes in gnomAD (e.g. *CNTNAP2*). Qualifying loss-of-function variants included rare variants that passed the above quality control metrics and were annotated by ClinEff as stop gain, canonical splice donor/acceptor, or frameshift variants.

Missense variants were filtered for pathogenicity/deleteriousness using the rare exome variant ensemble learner (REVEL) tool(23). We used the recommended cutoff of > 0.5 to classify variants as "damaging." We selected a cutoff of < 0.15 to classify variants as "benign," corresponding to a false-positive rate of 5%. We further filtered missense variants using the missense tolerance ratio (MTR) tool(25). MTR identifies regional intolerance to missense variation, thereby highlighting functionally important genic sub-regions. We used the most conservative estimate of regional intolerance, MTR FDR, with the authors' recommended cutoff of MTR FDR < 0.1(25). Qualifying missense variants for gene set burden analyses were rare variants that passed the above quality control metrics with $REVEL > 0.5$ and MTR FDR < 0.1.

Gene set curation

To create the missense and loss-of-function intolerant gene sets, we used the recommended cutoffs of pLI > 0.9 and missense Z score > 3.09 based on constraint metrics from gnomAD v2.1 [\(https://storage.googleapis.com/gnomad-](https://storage.googleapis.com/gnomad-public/release/2.1.1/constraint/gnomad.v2.1.1.lof_metrics.by_gene.txt.bgz)

[public/release/2.1.1/constraint/gnomad.v2.1.1.lof_metrics.by_gene.txt.bgz\)](https://storage.googleapis.com/gnomad-public/release/2.1.1/constraint/gnomad.v2.1.1.lof_metrics.by_gene.txt.bgz). Our missense and

loss-of-function tolerant gene sets included genes with missense $Z < 1$ and $pLI < 0.001$, respectively.

We created our OMIM gene set based on OMIM data downloaded on November 21^{st} , 2019. We began with a list of all protein-coding OMIM genes (4,231 genes) and removed any gene with an "equivocal," "non-disease," or "susceptibility" tag, which resulted in an established disease gene set of 3,509 genes. Of these 3,509 genes, 3,114 have a detailed clinical synopsis with phenotypic annotations across organ systems in OMIM. To create our OMIM "behavioral" gene set, we took the subset of established disease genes that had the requisite annotation in OMIM: "neurologicBehavioralPsychiatricManifestations." We reviewed all phenotypic annotations in this list and removed any non-behavioral annotations including "ALDH2*2 carriers suffer more severe hangovers | Increased intoxicating symptoms after alcohol consumption", and "No behavior problems." This filtering produced a list of 498 behaviorallyannotated OMIM genes. The remaining 2616 phenotypically annotated genes in OMIM were used to create our "Non-Behavioral OMIM" gene set.

As most of the rare variant burden in schizophrenia and our sample lies in intolerant genes, we restricted our OMIM and behavioral OMIM analyses to our previously described intolerant gene sets of $pL1 > 0.9$ and missense Z score > 3.09 . This resulted in final gene sets of OMIM loss-of-function intolerant: 805 genes, OMIM Missense Intolerant: 350 genes, OMIM Behavioral loss-of-function Intolerant: 226 genes, Non-Behavioral OMIM loss-of-function intolerant: 511 genes, OMIM Behavioral Missense Intolerant: 127 genes, Non-Behavioral OMIM missense intolerant: 201 genes.

To create the autism spectrum disorder and developmental delay gene set, we combined the most recently published genome-wide significant autism spectrum disorder $(n=102)$ and

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developmental delay ($n=299$) genes for a total of 340 unique genes in the gene set(6, 7). We tested for a case-control burden of qualifying missense and loss-of-function variants in this combined gene set. To create the gene set of genes previously implicated in typical schizophrenia, we used data from (accessed October $7th$, 2019) the Schizophrenia Exome Meta-Analysis Consortium (SCHEMA) browser [\(https://schema.broadinstitute.org/\)](https://schema.broadinstitute.org/) (accessed October $7th$, 2019), which published specific *p* values for missense and loss-of-function enrichment in nearly 25,000 typical schizophrenia cases and 100,000 controls. We used these variant specific *p* values from SCHEMA rather than the meta-analysis *p* values (which combine counts of missense and loss-of-function variants) because of importance matching variant type with the genetic mechanism (e.g. analyzing missense variants in missense-driven gene). As there are only 10 genome-wide significant genes in schizophrenia, we elected to use *p* values of nominal significance for missense-driven ($p < 0.05$, n=144) and loss-of-function-driven ($p < 0.01$, n=198) SCHEMA genes to create roughly equivalently sized gene sets. We also filtered this list by removing any genes that reached nominal significance due to enrichment in controls as opposed to cases. As previously described, we further restricted these two gene sets to their respective intolerant subset with $pLI > 0.9$ for loss-of-function-driven SCHEMA genes (n=94) and missense $Z > 3.09$ for missense-driven SCHEMA genes (n=45).

Quantile-quantile plots and Genomic Inflation Factor (λ)

Quantile-quantile (QQ) plots were generated using a previously described method (19, 51). Observed *p* values were generated for each gene for each model using the Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel test as described above (see Gene-based rare variant collapsing analysis). Expected *p* values and 95% confidence intervals were generated in the following manner. Briefly, for each collapsing model within each cluster, case and control labels were randomly permuted while keeping the qualifying variant gene-by-sample matrix fixed. We then used the CMH test to compare the new case and controls with and without qualifying variants in each gene to test for an association for case vs. control status. We repeated this process 1,000 times and used the mean rank-ordered *p* values as empirical estimates of the expected *p* values. We then generated QQ plots using the negative logarithm of the permutation-based expected vs. observed distribution of the *p* values. The genomic inflation factor (λ) was estimated from the permutation-based expected *p* values using a regression method previously described (19, 51).

Clinical diagnostic analysis

For our diagnostic analysis, we analyzed single nucleotide and insertion/deletion variants within the CCDS and 2 base pair splice sites in SETRS individuals only. Variant quality control was as described above with several exceptions. We allowed a lower allelic balance (25%) and did not perform site coverage harmonization as it is irrelevant for diagnostic analysis. Variants were filtered for frequency with allele counts of less than five in gnomAD. We also analyzed all variants annotated as potentially damaging as defined by ClinEff as opposed to only missense and loss-of-function variants.

We then prioritized variants that have previously been reported as pathogenic/likely pathogenic or affect the same amino acid as a pathogenic variant. Our pipeline incorporates curated data from ClinVar(66), Human Gene Mutation Database (HGMD), and internal IGM cases to annotate all variants previously reported as pathogenic. We also prioritize loss-offunction variants (stop gain/lost, start lost, splice site acceptor/donors, frameshift indels) in genes with known pathogenic loss-of-function variants or reported as haploinsufficient in ClinGen(71).

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We also individually reviewed all qualifying missense and loss-of-function variants in OMIM disease genes (Table S5 and S6). We then evaluated each candidate variant using ACMG guidelines(30) with respect to their schizophrenia diagnosis only. As such, we did not report pathogenic variants for unrelated conditions (e.g. carrier for Cystic Fibrosis) for this manuscript.

Fig. S1. UMAP and cluster assignment of SETRS and controls

UMAP and cluster assignments with genetically determined ancestry of SETRS cases and controls. Clusters highlighted in red were excluded from the analysis due to insufficient sample size.

Fig. S2. UMAP and cluster assignment of typical schizophrenia and controls

UMAP and cluster assignments with genetically determined ancestry of typical schizophrenia cases and controls. Clusters highlighted in red were excluded from the analysis due to insufficient sample size and lack of corresponding SETRS cluster.

Fig. S3. Burden of rare variants in tolerant genes

The burden of rare variants in missense and loss-of-function (LoF) tolerant genes in 112 SETRS cases and 4,929 controls. **A.** Missense tolerant genes were those with missense Z < 1 and **B.** LoF tolerant genes were those with probability of being loss-of-function intolerant (pLI) score <

0.001 in gnomAD. Missense benign: REVEL score < 0.15, Missense damaging: REVEL score > 0.5, Missense damaging MTR: REVEL score > 0.5 and missense tolerance ratio false discovery rate (MTR FDR) < 0.1. Unadjusted two-sided Cochran–Mantel–Haenszel exact *p* values and horizontal bars indicating 95% confidence intervals are shown.

Damaging Missense (REVEL>0.5) Model Damaging Missense + LoF Model

Fig. S4. SETRS gene-based rare variant collapsing analysis Q-Q plots

Fig. S5. UMAP and Cluster Assignment of SETRS and controls for genome-only analysis UMAP and cluster assignments with genetically determined ancestry of SETRS cases and whole genome sequenced controls. Clusters highlighted in red were excluded from the analysis due to insufficient sample size.

Fig. S6. UMAP and Cluster Assignment of typical schizophrenia and controls for genomeonly analysis

UMAP and cluster assignments with genetically determined ancestry of typical schizophrenia cases and whole genome sequenced controls. Clusters highlighted in red were excluded from the analysis due to insufficient sample size.

Fig. S7 Burden of rare variants in intolerant genes for genome-only analysis

The burden of rare variants in missense and loss-of-function intolerant genes in 114 SETRS cases and 4,146 whole genome sequenced controls. (**A**) Missense intolerant genes were those with missense $Z > 3.09$ and (**B**) loss-of-function intolerant genes were those with probability of being loss-of-function intolerant (pLI) score > 0.9 as per gnomAD. Missense benign: REVEL score < 0.15, Missense damaging: REVEL score > 0.5, Missense damaging MTR: REVEL score > 0.5 and missense tolerance ratio false discovery rate (MTR FDR) < 0.1. Unadjusted two-sided Cochran–Mantel–Haenszel exact *p* values and horizontal bars indicating 95% confidence intervals are shown. *: FDR < 0.1

Fig. S8. Burden of rare variants in tolerant genes for genome-only analysis

The burden of rare variants in missense and loss-of-function (LoF) tolerant genes in 114 SETRS cases and 4,146 whole genome sequenced controls. **A.** Missense tolerant genes were those with missense Z < 1 and **B.** LoF tolerant genes were those with probability of being loss-of-function intolerant (pLI) score < 0.001 in gnomAD. Missense benign: REVEL score < 0.15, Missense damaging: REVEL score > 0.5 , Missense damaging MTR: REVEL score > 0.5 and missense tolerance ratio false discovery rate (MTR FDR) < 0.1. Unadjusted two-sided Cochran–Mantel– Haenszel exact *p* values and horizontal bars indicating 95% confidence intervals are shown.

Damaging Missense (REVEL>0.5) Model Damaging Missense + LoF Model

Fig. S9. SETRS gene-based rare variant collapsing analysis Q-Q plots for genome-only analysis

Fig. S10. Synonymous Q-Q plot for typical schizophrenia vs. controls

Fig. S11. Burden of rare variants in SETRS compared to typical schizophrenia and control individuals for genome-only analysis

(**A**) No difference observed between SETRS, typical SCZ, and controls for benign missense variants. (**B)** Increased burden of damaging missense MTR variants in SETRS compared to typical SCZ in missense intolerant genes. (**C**) Increased burden of loss-of-function variants in SETRS compared to typical SCZ in loss-of-function intolerant genes. (**D**) Increased burden of damaging missense MTR variants in SETRS compared to typical SCZ in missense intolerant SCHEMA genes. (**E**) Nonsignificant increase in burden of loss-of-function variants in SETRS compared to typical SCZ in loss-of-function intolerant SCHEMA genes. (**F**) Increased burden of damaging missense MTR and loss-of-function in SETRS compared to typical SCZ in intolerant

SCHEMA genes. Odds ratios (OR) and *p* values shown are based on a comparison of typical SCZ individuals to controls and SETRS individuals to typical SCZ using one-sided Cochran– Mantel–Haenszel test. Benign missense: missense variants with REVEL score < 0.15, Missense damaging MTR: missense variants with REVEL score > 0.5 and missense tolerance ratio false discovery rate (MTR FDR) < 0.1.

Fig. S12. Synonymous Q-Q plot for typical schizophrenia vs. controls for genome only analysis

Table S1. Control and typical schizophrenia phenotypes and sequencing type

Cohort	Admixed	African	European	Latino	Middle Eastern
SETRS	15	39	50		
Typical Schizophrenia	13	10	189		
Controls	473	1590	1700	1121	45

Table S2. Case and control cohort ancestries

Table S3. C**ontrol phenotypes for genome-only analysis**

Phenotype	N
IgA nephropathy	247
Membranous Nephropathy	239
Nephritis	93
Parents of children with posterior urethral valves	161
Posterior Urethral valves	
Adults with HIV	118
Adults with amyotrophic lateral sclerosis	3,281
Total	4.146

Cohort	Admixed	African	European	Latino	Middle Eastern
SETRS	14	39	50		
Typical Schizophrenia	10	2	176		
Controls	272	145	3627	101	

Table S4. Case and control cohort ancestries for genome-only analysis

Table S5. Qualifying Loss-of-Function Variants in Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM) Genes

Table S6. Qualifying Missense Variants in Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM) Genes

Table S7. Qualifying missense and loss-of-function variants with reported genotype-phenotype associations

Qualifying missense and loss-of-function variants in intolerant genes (missense $Z > 3.09$ and $pLI > 0.9$, respectively) with known genotype-phenotype relationships. SCZ (Miss): Gene with evidence of enrichment for missense variation in the SCHEMA study of schizophrenia (n = 45 genes). SCZ (LoF): Gene with prior evidence of enrichment for loss-of-function variation in SCHEMA (n = 75 genes). DD: One of 299 genome-wide significant genes associated with developmental delay. ASD: One of 102 genome-wide significant genes associated with autism spectrum disorder. OMIM: Genes known to cause Mendelian disorders based on the Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man database. Of these qualifying variants in OMIM genes, only the loss-of-function variants in FOXP2 and WBP11 meet American College of Medical Genetics (ACMG) diagnostic criteria for a "pathogenic" or "likely pathogenic" variant. AR: Autosomal Recessive; AD: Autosomal Dominant

Rank	Gene	Case QV	Ctrl QV	Case QV Freq %	Ctrl QV Freq %	CMH Exact P Value
$\mathbf{1}$	'MTA1'	$\overline{2}$	θ	1.79	0.00	8.90E-04
2	'PDE1C'	3	5	2.68	0.10	9.64E-04
3	'NDUFAF4'	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	1.79	0.02	1.30E-03
$\overline{4}$	'HDAC6'	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	1.79	0.02	$2.62E-03$
5	'KCNJ2'	$\overline{2}$	1	1.79	0.02	2.64E-03
6	'MEOX2'	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{2}$	1.79	0.04	3.18E-03
τ	'CYP39A1'	$\overline{2}$	\mathfrak{D}	1.79	0.04	3.34E-03
8	'B4GALT2'	$\overline{2}$	3	1.79	0.06	3.97E-03
9	'HBP1'	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{4}$	1.79	0.08	4.58E-03
10	"ZDHHC5"	$\overline{2}$	3	1.79	0.06	5.50E-03

Table S8. Top ten genes from gene-based collapsing models

Top ten genes from qualifying missense ($REVEL > 0.5$) collapsing analysis

Top ten genes from qualifying missense ($REVEL > 0.5$) and LoF variant collapsing analysis

Top ten genes from qualifying LoF variant collapsing analysis

Top ten genes from qualifying synonymous variant collapsing analysis

QV: Qualifying variants that pass quality control and filtering

CMH: Cochran–Mantel–Haenszel Test

Table S9. Qualifying Missense and Loss-of-Function Variants in Intolerant Genes

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