Accepted Manuscript



Diagnostic Yield of Sequencing Familial Hypercholesterolemia Genes in Patients with Severe Hypercholesterolemia

Amit V. Khera, MD, Hong-Hee Won, PhD, Gina M. Peloso, PhD, Kim S. Lawson, MS, Traci M. Bartz, MS, Xuan Deng, MSc, Elisabeth M. van Leeuwen, Pradeep Natarajan, _______
MD, MMSc, Connor A. Emdin, HBSc, Alexander G. Bick, BS, Alanna C. Morrison, PhD, Jennifer A. Brody, BA, Namrata Gupta, PhD, Akihiro Nomura, MD, Thorsten Kessler, MD, Stefano Duga, PhD, Joshua C. Bis, PhD, Cornelia M. van Duijn, PhD, L. Adrienne Cupples, PhD, Bruce Psaty, MD, PhD, Daniel J. Rader, MD, John Danesh, FMedSci, Heribert Schunkert, MD, Ruth McPherson, MD, Martin Farrall, FRCPath, Hugh Watkins, MD, PhD, Eric Lander, PhD, James G. Wilson, MD, Adolfo Correa, MD, PhD, Eric Boerwinkle, PhD, Piera Angelica Merlini, MD, Diego Ardissino, MD, Danish Saleheen, MB, BS, PhD, Stacey Gabriel, PhD, Sekar Kathiresan, MD

PII: S0735-1097(16)32399-3

DOI: 10.1016/j.jacc.2016.03.520

Reference: JAC 22438

To appear in: Journal of the American College of Cardiology

Received Date: 2 March 2016

Revised Date: 22 March 2016

Accepted Date: 22 March 2016

Please cite this article as: Khera AV, Won H-H, Peloso GM, Lawson KS, Bartz TM, Deng X, van Leeuwen EM, Natarajan P, Emdin CA, Bick AG, Morrison AC, Brody JA, Gupta N, Nomura A, Kessler T, Duga S, Bis JC, van Duijn CM, Cupples LA, Psaty B, Rader DJ, Danesh J, Schunkert H, McPherson R, Farrall M, Watkins H, Lander E, Wilson JG, Correa A, Boerwinkle E, Merlini PA, Ardissino D, Saleheen D, Gabriel S, Kathiresan S, Diagnostic Yield of Sequencing Familial Hypercholesterolemia Genes in Patients with Severe Hypercholesterolemia, *Journal of the American College of Cardiology* (2016), doi: 10.1016/j.jacc.2016.03.520.

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please

note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

Diagnostic Yield of Sequencing Familial Hypercholesterolemia Genes in Patients with Severe Hypercholesterolemia

Amit V. Khera, MD^{*}, ^{a,b} Hong-Hee Won, PhD^{*}, ^c Gina M. Peloso, PhD^{*}, ^{b,d} Kim S. Lawson, MS, ^e Traci M. Bartz, MS, ^f Xuan Deng, MSc, ^d Elisabeth M. van Leeuwen, ^g Pradeep Natarajan, MD, MMSc, ^{a,b} Connor A. Emdin, HBSc, ^b Alexander G. Bick, BS, ^b Alanna C. Morrison, PhD, ^e Jennifer A. Brody, ^h BA, Namrata Gupta, PhD, ^b Akihiro Nomura, MD, ^{b, i} Thorsten Kessler, MD, ^j Stefano Duga, PhD, ^k Joshua C. Bis, PhD, ^h Cornelia M. van Duijn, PhD, ^g L. Adrienne Cupples, PhD, ^d Bruce Psaty, MD, PhD, ^{h,1} Daniel J. Rader, MD, ^m John Danesh, FMedSci, ⁿ Heribert Schunkert, ^j MD, Ruth McPherson, MD, ^o Martin Farrall, FRCPath, ^p Hugh Watkins, MD, ^p PhD, Eric Lander, PhD, ^b James G. Wilson, MD, ^q Adolfo Correa, MD, PhD, ^r Eric Boerwinkle, PhD, ^e Piera Angelica Merlini, MD, ^s Diego Ardissino, MD, ^t Danish Saleheen, MB,BS,PhD, ^u Stacey Gabriel, PhD, ^b Sekar Kathiresan, MD^{a,b}

* Drs. Amit V. Khera, Hong-Hee Won, and Gina M. Peloso contributed equally to this work

^a Center for Human Genetic Research, Cardiovascular Research Center and Cardiology Division (Khera, Natarajan, Kathiresan), Massachusetts General Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston MA

^b Program in Medical and Population Genetics, Broad Institute, Cambridge, MA

^c Samsung Advanced Institute for Health Sciences and Technology (SAIHST), Sungkyunkwan University, Samsung Medical Center, Seoul, Korea

^d Department of Biostatistics, Boston University School of Public Health

^e Human Genetics Center and Institute of Molecular Medicine, University of Texas-Houston Health Science Center, Houston, TX

^f Department of Biostatistics, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington;

^g Department of Epidemiology, Erasmus Medical Center, Rotterdam, The Netherlands

^h Cardiovascular Health Research Unit, University of Washington

¹ Division of Cardiovascular Medicine, Kanazawa University Graduate School of Medical Science, Kanazawa, Japan

^j Deutsches Herzzentrum München, Technische Universität München, Deutsches Zentrum für Herz-Kreislauf-Forschung (DZHK); Munich Heart Alliance, München, Germany (Kessler, Schunkert);

^k Department of Biomedical Sciences, Humanitas University, Via Manzoni 113, 20089 Rozzano, Milan, Italy; Humanitas Clinical and Research Center, Via Manzoni 56, 20089 Rozzano, Milan, Italy

¹Departments of Medicine, Epidemiology, and Health Services, University of Washington ^m Departments of Genetics, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

ⁿ Public Health and Primary Care, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute, Wellcome Trust Genome Campus, Hinxton, Cambridge, UK, and NIHR Blood and Transplant Research Unit in Donor Health and Genomics, Department of Public Health and Primary Care, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom

^o University of Ottawa Heart Institute, Ottawa, Canada

^pDivision of Cardiovascular Medicine, Radcliffe Department of Medicine and the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom ^q Department of Physiology and Biophysics, University of Mississippi Medical Center, Jackson, Mississippi

^r Jackson Heart Study, Department of Medicine, University of Mississippi Medical Center ^s Ospedale Niguarda, Milano Italy

^t Division of Cardiology, Azienda Ospedaliero-Universitaria di Parma, University of Parma Parma, Italy; ASTC - Associazione Per Lo Studio Della Trombosi In Cardiologia, Pavia Italy (Ardissino)

^u Biostatistics and Epidemiology, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania

Funding/Support:

Field-work, genotyping, and standard clinical chemistry assays in **PROMIS** were principally supported by grants awarded to the University of Cambridge from the British Heart Foundation, UK Medical Research Council, Wellcome Trust, EU Framework 6-funded Bloodomics Integrated Project, Pfizer, Novartis, and Merck. Additional support for PROMIS was provided by by the UK Medical Research Council (MR/L003120/1), British Heart Foundation (RG/13/13/30194), UK National Institute for Health Research Cambridge Biomedical Research Centre, European Research Council (268834), and European Commission Framework Programme 7 (HEALTH-F2-2012-279233). The Jackson Heart Study is supported by contracts HHSN268201300046C, HHSN268201300047C, HHSN268201300048C, HHSN268201300049C, HHSN268201300050C from the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute and the National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities. The Munich Study is supported by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) in the context of the e:Med program (e:AtheroSysMed) and the FP7 European Union project CVgenes@target (261123). Further grants were received by the Fondation Leducq (CADgenomics: Understanding Coronary Artery Disease Genes, 12CVD02). This study was also supported through the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) cluster of excellence 'Inflammation at Interfaces and SFB 1123. Funding support for "Building on GWAS for NHLBI-diseases: the U.S. CHARGE Consortium" was provided by the NIH through the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 (ARRA) (5RC2HL102419). Data for "Building on GWAS for NHLBI-diseases: the U.S. CHARGE Consortium" was provided by Eric Boerwinkle on behalf of the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study, L. Adrienne Cupples, principal investigator for the Framingham Heart Study, and Bruce Psaty, principal investigator for the Cardiovascular Health Study (CHS). Sequencing was carried out at the Baylor Genome Center (U54 HG003273). The ARIC Study is carried out as a collaborative study supported by National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute (NHLBI) contracts (HHSN268201100005C, HHSN268201100006C, HHSN268201100007C, HHSN268201100008C, HHSN268201100009C, HHSN268201100010C, HHSN268201100011C, and HHSN268201100012C). The Framingham Heart Study is conducted and supported by the NHLBI in collaboration with Boston University (Contract No. N01-HC-25195), and its contract with Affymetrix, Inc., for genome-wide genotyping services (Contract No. N02-HL-6-4278), for quality control by Framingham Heart Study investigators using genotypes in the SNP Health Association Resource (SHARe) project. A portion of this research was conducted using the Linux Cluster for Genetic Analysis (LinGA-II) funded by the Robert Dawson Evans Endowment of the Department of Medicine at Boston University School of Medicine and Boston Medical Center. This CHS research was supported by NHLBI contracts HHSN268201200036C, HHSN268200800007C, N01HC55222, N01HC85079, N01HC85080, N01HC85081,

N01HC85082, N01HC85083, N01HC85086; and NHLBI grants U01HL080295, R01HL087652, R01HL105756, R01HL103612, and R01HL120393 with additional contribution from the National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (NINDS). Additional support was provided through R01AG023629 from the National Institute on Aging (NIA). A full list of principal CHS investigators and institutions can be found at CHS-NHLBI.org. The Italian ATVB Study was supported by a grant from RFPS-2007-3-644382 and Programma di ricerca Regione-Università 2010-2012 Area 1 - Strategic Programmes – Regione Emilia-Romagna. Funding for the exome sequencing project (ESP) was provided by RC2 HL103010 (HeartGO), RC2 HL102923 (LungGO) and RC2 HL102924 (WHISP). Exome sequencing was performed through RC2 HL102925 (BroadGO) and RC2 HL102926 (SeattleGO). Exome sequencing in ATVB, PROCARDIS, Ottawa, PROMIS, Munich Study, and Jackson Heart Study was supported by 5U54HG003067 (to E.S.L. and S.G.). Dr. Kathiresan is supported by a Research Scholar award from the Massachusetts General Hospital (MGH), the Donovan Family Foundation, and R01 HL127564. The views expressed in this manuscript are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; the National Institutes of Health; or the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Role of the Funder/Sponsor: The sponsors had no role in the design and conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of the data; preparation, review, or approval of the manuscript; and decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures: Dr Khera is supported by an ACC/Merck Fellowship award and reported consulting fees from Merck and Amarin. Dr Peloso is supported by the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute of the National Institutes of Health under Award Number K01HL125751. Dr Kessler is supported by a DZHK Rotation Grant. Dr Rader reported consulting fees from Aegerion, Alnylam, Eli Lilly, Pfizer, and Novartis, is an inventor on a patent related to lomitapide that is owned by the University of Pennsylvania and licensed to Aegerion, and is a co-founder of VascularStrategies and Staten Biotechnology. Dr Kathiresan has received grants from Bayer Healthcare, Aegerion, and Regeneron and reported consulting fees from Merck, Quest Diagnostics, Genomics PLC, and Eli Lilly.

<u>Corresponding Author:</u> Sekar Kathiresan, MD Cardiovascular Research Center & Center for Human Genetics Massachusetts General Hospital 185 Cambridge Street, CPZN 5.252 Boston, MA 02114 Telephone: 617 643 6120 Fax: 8779915996 Email: <u>skathiresan1@mgh.harvard.edu</u>

Abstract:

Background: About 7% of US adults have severe hypercholesterolemia (untreated LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl). Such high LDL levels may be due to familial hypercholesterolemia (FH), a condition caused by a single mutation in any of three genes. Lifelong elevations in LDL cholesterol in FH mutation carriers may confer CAD risk beyond that captured by a single LDL cholesterol measurement.

Objectives: Assess the prevalence of a FH mutation among those with severe hypercholesterolemia and determine whether CAD risk varies according to mutation status beyond the observed LDL cholesterol.

Methods: Three genes causative for FH (*LDLR*, *APOB*, *PCSK9*) were sequenced in 26,025 participants from 7 case-control studies (5,540 CAD cases, 8,577 CAD-free controls) and 5 prospective cohort studies (11,908 participants). FH mutations included loss-of-function variants in *LDLR*, missense mutations in *LDLR* predicted to be damaging, and variants linked to FH in ClinVar, a clinical genetics database.

Results: Among 8,577 CAD-free control participants, 430 had LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl; of these, only eight (1.9%) carried a FH mutation. Similarly, among 11,908 participants from 5 prospective cohorts, 956 had LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl and of these, only 16 (1.7%) carried a FH mutation. Within any stratum of observed LDL cholesterol, risk of CAD was higher among FH mutation carriers when compared with non-carriers. When compared to a reference group with LDL cholesterol <130 mg/dl and no mutation, participants with LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl and no FH mutation had six-fold higher risk for CAD (OR 6.0; 95% CI 5.2–6.9) whereas those with LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl as well as a FH mutation demonstrated twenty-two fold increased risk (OR 22.3; 95% CI 10.7–53.2).

Conclusions: Among individuals with LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl, gene sequencing identified a FH mutation in <2%. However, for any given observed LDL cholesterol, FH mutation carriers are at substantially increased risk for CAD.

Clinical trial: ??? Please query authors.

Keywords: familial hypercholesterolemia, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, gene sequencing, coronary artery disease, genetics

Abbreviations:

APOB = apolipoprotein B CAD = coronary artery disease FH = familial hypercholesterolemia HDL = high-density lipoprotein LDL = low-density lipoprotein LDLR = low-density lipoprotein receptor PCSK9 = proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 9

Introduction

Primary, severe hypercholesterolemia, defined as having a low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl, is a treatable risk factor for coronary artery disease (CAD) (1,2); current treatment guidelines place particular emphasis on intensive lifestyle and pharmacologic therapy in this population (3). One etiology of severely elevated LDL cholesterol is familial hypercholesterolemia (FH), an autosomal dominant monogenic disorder linked to impaired hepatic clearance of LDL cholesterol particles (4). It is often assumed that individuals with LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl have FH but this may not be the case. Large-scale gene sequencing provides an opportunity to clarify the diagnostic yield and clinical impact of identifying a FH mutation in severely hypercholesterolemic patients.

Previous studies of the diagnostic yield of genetic testing in severe hypercholesterolemia have focused on individuals with clinically-suspected FH and in these samples, a FH mutation prevalence ranging from 20 to 80% has been reported (5-16). This variability is likely due to differing ascertainment schemes based on family history, physical exam features, elevated LDL cholesterol at a young age, or referral to specialized clinics, each of which may enrich for monogenic etiologies. In contrast, if ascertainment from the general population is based solely on elevated LDL cholesterol, the extent to which FH mutations contribute to severe hypercholesterolemia is unknown. Such knowledge may inform design and effectiveness of universal FH screening proposals (17,18).

Knowledge of FH mutation status may also provide CAD risk information beyond that of a single LDL cholesterol measurement (4,18). A FH mutation leads to cumulative exposure to higher LDL cholesterol levels over a lifetime and as such, within any stratum of LDL cholesterol, the risk of CAD may be greater if the LDL elevation is due to a monogenic mutation

versus other causes. The extent to which CAD risk is modulated by the presence of a causal FH mutation is uncertain.

We analyzed gene sequences of three FH genes, low-density lipoprotein receptor (*LDLR*), apolipoprotein B (*APOB*), and proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 9 (*PCSK9*), in twelve distinct cohorts including >26,000 participants to determine: 1) the diagnostic yield of gene sequencing to identify a FH mutation in severely hypercholesterolemic individuals; and 2) the clinical impact of a FH mutation with regard to CAD risk within any given stratum of LDL cholesterol levels.

Methods

Study Populations

Whole exome sequencing was performed in seven previously described CAD casecontrol cohorts of the Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium (**Online Table 1**). Studies included the Italian Atherosclerosis Thrombosis and Vascular Biology study (19), the Exome Sequencing Project Early-Onset Myocardial Infarction (ESP-EOMI) study (20), a nested casecontrol of the Jackson Heart Study (JHS) (15), the Munich Myocardial Infarction study (22), the Ottawa Heart Study (23), the Precocious Coronary Artery Disease (PROCARDIS) study (24), and the Pakistan Risk of Myocardial Infarction Study (PROMIS) (25). The effect of lipidlowering therapy in those reporting use at the time of lipid measurement was taken into account by dividing the measured total cholesterol and LDL cholesterol by 0.8 and 0.7 respectively as has been implemented previously (26-28). Primary, severe LDL cholesterol elevation was defined as \geq 190 mg/dl in accordance with current cholesterol treatment guidelines (3).

The prevalence of a FH mutation in individuals with a LDL cholesterol > 190 mg/dl was additionally determined in 11,908 participants from five prospective cohort studies derived from

the Cohorts for Heart and Aging Research in Genomic Epidemiology (CHARGE) Consortium (29). Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study (ARIC), Cardiovascular Health Study, Framingham Heart Study (FHS), Rotterdam Baseline Study, and Erasmus Rucphen Family Study (**Online Table 2**).

In order to determine the cumulative exposure to LDL cholesterol according to FH mutation status, publically available data from the National Center for Biotechnology Information dbGAP database was analyzed. These data included 5,727 ARIC cohort participants and 2,714 FHS Offspring Study participants.

Gene Sequencing

The CAD case-control whole exome sequencing was performed as previously described at the Broad Institute (Cambridge, MA) (20). The population-based cohort sequencing was performed at the Baylor College of Medicine (Houston, Texas) for the ARIC, CHS, and FHS cohorts and at Erasmus Medical Center (Rotterdam, Netherlands) for the RS and ERF cohorts respectively. Additional sequencing methodology details available in **Supplementary Methods**. *Genetic Variant Annotation*

Three classes of genetic variants were aggregated with respect to association with FH: 1) loss of function variants in *LDLR*: single base changes that introduce a stop codon leading to premature truncation of a protein (nonsense), insertions or deletions (indels) of DNA that scramble the protein translation beyond the variant site (frameshift), or point mutations at sites of pre-mRNA splicing that alter the splicing process (splice-site); 2) missense variants in *LDLR* predicted to be deleterious by *each* of five *in silico* prediction algorithms (LRT score, MutationTaster, PolyPhen-2 HumDiv, PolyPhen-2 HumVar and Sorting Intolerant From Tolerant (SIFT)) as described previously (20,30); and 3) Variants in *LDLR*, *APOB*, *or PCSK9*,

annotated as "pathogenic" or "likely pathogenic" in ClinVar, a publically available archive of genetic variations associated with clinical phenotypes (31). Additional sensitivity analyses aggregated all rare (allele frequency < 0.01) missense mutations in *LDLR*, exon 26 of *APOB* which encodes key components of apolipoprotein B binding to the LDL receptor and harbor the majority of *APOB* variants linked to FH (32), and those that produce a change in *PCSK9* at an amino acid associated with FH in ClinVar. Rare synonymous variants at these same locations were included as a negative control. Software used to annotate observed variants included Variant Effect Predictor (version 77) (33) and associated LOFTEE plugin (34), and the dbNSFP database (version 3.0b1) (35).

Longitudinal Analysis of LDL Cholesterol Exposure

Individuals with a FH mutation and LDL cholesterol \geq 130 mg/dl were identified in ARIC and FHS Offspring Study cohorts. LDL cholesterol values were adjusted in those reporting lipid-lowering therapy by dividing measured value by 0.7. Mean LDL cholesterol exposure was calculated as cumulative exposure, determined via an area under the curve analysis, divided by length of follow-up. 27 FH mutation carriers met the above inclusion criteria and were matched 1:1 to a mutation negative control according to age (within 10 years), gender, statin use at time of last visit, and similar LDL cholesterol at last visit (within 10 mg/dl). A match was available in 25 of 27 (93%) individuals. Mean LDL cholesterol exposure was compared among those with and without FH mutation using a paired t-test. *Statistical Analysis*

The impact of aggregations of genetic variants on levels of LDL cholesterol was assessed using linear regression with adjustment for age, age², gender, cohort, and the first five principal components of ancestry. Odds ratios for CAD were calculated using logistic regression with

adjustment for gender, cohort, and the first five principal components of ancestry. In analyses conducted on ordinal strata of LDL cholesterol, individuals with LDL cholesterol <130 mg/dl and no mutation linked to FH served as the reference group.

Analyses were performed using R version 3.2.2 software (The R Project for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Figures were creating using the "ggplot2" package within R (36). **Results**

Within the Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium CAD case-control cohorts, a total of 14,117 participants with both LDL cholesterol level and sequence data for FH genes were available for analysis – 8,577 CAD-free controls and 5,540 CAD cases (**Online Table 3**). The study population included 10,421 (74%) males with mean age 53 years (SD 14). Proportions of self-identified race were 47%, 46%, and 7% for white, South Asian, and black, respectively. 47% of study participants had a history of hypertension, 27% had a history of diabetes, 34% were current smokers, and 14% were on lipid-lowering medications.

Sequencing identified 86 variants linked to FH on the basis of leading to loss of function in *LDLR*, missense mutations in *LDLR* predicted to be damaging by each of five computer prediction algorithms, or a variant in *LDLR*, *APOB*, or *PCSK9* previously linked to FH in the ClinVar genetics database. These included 13 premature stop ("nonsense") codons, 6 splice acceptor/donor variants, 4 frameshift mutations, and 63 missense mutations (**Online Table 4**).

164 individuals harbored a mutation linked to FH, including 48 CAD-free controls (0.6%; 95%CI 0.4 - 0.7%) and 116 CAD cases (2.1%; 95%CI 1.7 - 2.5%) (**Online Table 5**). The mutation was located in *LDLR* for 141 participants (86%), in *APOB* for 22 (13%), and in *PCSK9* for 1 (0.6%) (**Online Table 4**). Only one homozygote (or compound heterozygote) participant

was identified; a 33-year old patient with LDL cholesterol of 539 mg/dl and CAD was homozygous for a p.Q33* premature stop codon in *LDLR*.

Diagnostic Yield of Gene Sequencing in Severe Hypercholesterolemia

Among 8,577 CAD-free control participants from the Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium cohorts, LDL cholesterol approximated a normal distribution (**Online Figure 1**). The prevalence of a FH mutation increased across categories of LDL cholesterol levels (P < 0.001) (**Online Figure 2**). Of 8,577 control participants, 430 participants (5% of control sample) had LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl and of these 430, only 8 carried a FH mutation (1.9%; 95%CI 0.9 – 3.8%) (**Table 1 & Central Illustration**).

This prevalence estimate was replicated in 11,908 participants from five prospective cohort studies of the CHARGE consortium; 956 (8%) had a LDL cholesterol >190 mg/dl and of these, 16 (1.7%; 95%CI 1.0 – 2.8%) harbored a FH mutation. Across the twelve studies combined (n=20,485), 1386 (7%) displayed LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl and of these, 24 (1.7%) carried a FH mutation (**Table 1**).

Clinical Impact of FH Mutation Identification on CAD Risk

In the Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium case-control studies, the presence of a FH mutation was associated with a 50 mg/dl (95%CI 44– 57) increase in LDL cholesterol and a 3.8 fold (95%CI 2.6 – 5.4) increase in odds of CAD. These effects were most pronounced in those with loss of function mutations in *LDLR* (**Figure 1**). Average LDL cholesterol was 190 mg/dl in those with a FH mutation and 73/164 (45%) had a LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl. However, despite the observed large effect on average levels, a wide spectrum of circulating LDL cholesterol concentrations was noted in those who were mutation positive (**Figure 2**). 44 of 164 (27%) mutation carriers had an observed LDL cholesterol less than 130 mg/dl; reflecting

incomplete penetrance. An aggregation of all rare missense mutations had a modest impact on both LDL cholesterol and CAD risk. As expected, synonymous mutations, which do not lead to a change in amino acid sequence, had no effect on either parameter (**Figure 1**). Beyond LDL cholesterol levels, a FH mutation was associated with a nominally significant reduction in highdensity lipoprotein cholesterol (-1.9 mg/dl; 95%CI -3.7 – -0.1; p = 0.04) but no association with circulating triglycerides (p = 0.36).

Within the Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium case-control cohort populations, those with a FH mutation were at substantially higher risk compared to those without a mutation (**Table 2**, p-value for difference = 0.001). For participants with both LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl and a FH mutation, the odds of coronary artery disease were increased twenty-two fold (OR 22.3; CI 10.7 – 53.2) when compared to those with LDL cholesterol < 130 mg/dl and no mutation. For participants with LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl and no FH mutation, odds of coronary artery disease were increased six-fold (OR 6.0; CI 5.2 – 6.9) compared to the same reference group. This difference persisted after additional adjustment for measured LDL cholesterol level (p = 0.02).

Separation of the population into clinically relevant categories of LDL cholesterol levels demonstrated trends towards higher risk in those with a FH mutation within each stratum (**Central Illustration; Supplementary Table 6**). The impact of a FH mutation was similar across strata of LDL cholesterol levels (p-interaction = 0.51). Within the subgroup of participants with a LDL cholesterol in the \geq 190 to 220 mg/dl range, those with a mutation had 17-fold increased CAD risk versus 5-fold for those without a mutation. This difference was noted despite similar observed LDL cholesterol levels in this stratum (mean LDL cholesterol in those with

mutation=205 mg/dl versus mean LDL cholesterol in those without a FH mutation = 203 mg/dl; p-value for difference = 0.22).

Cumulative LDL Cholesterol Exposure According to FH Mutation Status

For any given observed LDL cholesterol, those harboring a mutation might have a higher average LDL cholesterol exposure over their lifetime compared to those who do not harbor a mutation and this could explain a higher CAD risk among mutation carriers. We tested this hypothesis using two prospective cohort studies – ARIC and the FHS Offspring Study – where sequencing data and serial measurements of LDL cholesterol were available. We identified 25 individuals with a FH mutation and LDL cholesterol \geq 130 mg/dl. Mean LDL cholesterol at time of last study visit was 185 mg/dl. As compared to matched non-carriers with similar LDL cholesterol at the last visit, individuals with a FH mutation had a 17 mg/dl (95%CI 5 – 29; p = 0.007) higher average LDL cholesterol exposure in the years preceding the last visit (**Figure 3**; **Online Table 7**).

Discussion

Among 20,485 multiethnic participants from 12 studies, we found that 1,386 (7%) had severe hypercholesterolemia (LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl) and of those with severe hypercholesterolemia, only a small fraction (<2%) also carried a FH mutation. However, within any stratum of LDL cholesterol, those who carried a FH mutation were at substantially higher risk for CAD compared to those who did not. This increased CAD risk among mutation carriers was at least partially explained by a greater cumulative exposure to LDL cholesterol over a lifetime.

These results permit several conclusions. First, FH mutations explain only a small fraction of severe hypercholesterolemia in the population. Previous reports have noted a

substantially higher rate of mutation detection in those with clinically-suspected FH, as ascertained on the basis of features (e.g. family history, physical exam, or severe hypercholesterolemia at a young age) that enrich for a monogenic etiology (5-16). Here, we address a scientific question – what fraction of severely hypercholesterolemic individuals carry a mutation in any of three high LDL genes – that is distinct from these earlier, seminal reports. When participants are ascertained solely on the basis of a single elevated LDL cholesterol level, we identify a FH mutation in fewer than 2% of severely hypercholesterolemic individuals. These sequencing results are broadly consistent with those of a recent study of 98,098 individuals from the Copenhagen General Population Study in which genotyping of the four most common FH mutations was used to extrapolate overall FH mutation prevalence. In this Danish study, of 5,332 individuals with LDL cholesterol \geq 5 mmol/l (193 mg/dl), fewer than 5% were predicted to harbor a FH mutation (28).

If not a monogenic mutation in the three FH genes, what might be the cause of elevated LDL cholesterol in the remaining >95% of participants with severe hypercholesterolemia? Possibilities include polygenic hypercholesterolemia, lifestyle factors, and/or a combination of these. For example, individuals in the top quartile of a polygenic LDL cholesterol gene score comprised of 95 common variants were 13 fold more likely to have high LDL cholesterol (37). Similarly, individuals in the top decile of a LDL cholesterol gene score comprised of 12 common variants were 4.2 fold more likely to have a LDL \geq 190 mg/dl in the UK Whitehall II study (38). Future genetics studies may identify additional causal variants, genes beyond those considered in this study, or large-effect regulatory variants that underlie severe hypercholesterolemia. Other non-genetic explanations for severe elevations in LDL cholesterol include secondary causes (e.g.

hypothyroidism or nephrotic syndrome), lifestyle factors such as dietary fat, or some combination of these.

Second, within any stratum of a single observed LDL cholesterol, CAD risk was higher in those with a FH mutation when compared to those without, reinforcing the potential utility of genetic testing. We analyzed 25 matched pairs of individuals with similarly elevated LDL cholesterol levels at time of ascertainment and found a higher cumulative exposure to LDL cholesterol in those with a FH mutation. These data support the hypothesis that a FH mutation, present since birth, increases CAD risk via lifelong exposure to high LDL cholesterol (39). By contrast, an isolated elevation in LDL cholesterol in those without a genetic predisposition may reflect a time-limited exposure related to a current environmental perturbation or a value that is more likely to regress towards the mean in the future. Future studies may identify additional metabolic parameters, such as increased lipoprotein(a) levels (40), that also contribute to the excess CAD risk noted in those with a FH mutation.

Finally, these data contribute to ongoing discussion regarding how to define FH. Classically, FH refers to elevated LDL cholesterol caused by a single mutation in any of several genes segregating in an autosomal dominant manner. Alternate approaches to two features – LDL cholesterol threshold and mutation definition – impact FH prevalence estimates (**Table 3**). An approach that includes all individuals with untreated LDL cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl (i.e., without a FH mutation requirement) would combine non-genetic and genetic causes and classify about 7% of the US adult population as having FH. An alternative possibility is to withhold an LDL cholesterol threshold and require only a stringent mutation definition; in such an analysis of 20,485 participants, we identified a FH mutation in 97 individuals (1 in 211). This estimate is nearly identical to a population-based analysis in the Copenhagen General Population Study (1 in

217).²⁸ However, if one additionally requires that a FH mutation is accompanied by an elevated LDL cholesterol, FH prevalence in our study declines (1 in 301 with LDL threshold \geq 130 mg/dl and 1 in 853 with LDL threshold \geq 190 mg/dl).

With regard to defining a FH mutation, all schema agree on the inclusion of loss of function alleles in *LDLR* but differ on how to handle missense mutations. For missense mutations, we applied a rigorous threshold – requiring that the mutation be designated as damaging by each of five computer prediction algorithms or be previously annotated as pathogenic in the ClinVar clinical genetics database. A key advantage of this approach is that it ensures that classification is both fully reproducible and generalizable to genes beyond those related to FH.

When routine genetic testing is not available, clinical scoring systems such as the Dutch Lipid Clinical Network, Simon Broome, and MEDPED criteria have been developed to approximate FH status.⁴ Ongoing collaborative efforts on how to optimally incorporate population-based genetic sequencing data into existing frameworks for the clinical diagnosis of FH will be critically important.

Study Limitations

Our data did not permit stratifying individuals by family history or physical exam features, as suggested by the Dutch Lipid Clinic Network and Simon Broome criteria (41,42). Secondly, we accounted for an estimated 30% reduction in LDL cholesterol in those on lipidlowering therapy as has been previously implemented (26-28). This approach may imperfectly estimate untreated LDL cholesterol given heterogeneity in drug selection, dosing, response, and variability across baseline LDL cholesterol levels or mutation status. However, a sensitivity analysis limited to Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium cohort participants not on lipid-

lowering therapy similarly noted a pronounced difference in risk among severely hypercholesterolemic individuals when stratified by mutation status (**Online Table 8**). Third, structural and copy number genetic variation are inadequately captured by current exome sequencing techniques and as such, some FH mutations may have been missed. Fourth, our approach to annotating missense variants using prediction algorithms and the ClinVar database may have led to misclassification in some cases. Additional studies that implement large-scale functional screens of identified variants or pool phenotypes across additional studies may provide additional refinement of pathogenicity annotations. Lastly, FH mutation prevalence was determined in CAD-free controls and population-based cohorts. These individuals survived to middle-age and few had clinically manifest CAD, raising the possibility of survivorship or selection bias. Our case-control population was enriched for individuals with premature CAD; effect estimates of mutations on coronary risk may be different in patients with later disease onset.

Conclusions

Genetic sequencing identified a FH mutation in only a small proportion of severely hypercholesterolemic individuals. For any given observed LDL cholesterol level, risk for CAD is substantially higher in carriers of a FH mutation versus non-carriers, likely related in large part to higher lifelong exposure to atherogenic LDL particles. A primary goal of precision medicine is to use molecular diagnostics to identify a small subset of the population at increased disease risk in which to deliver an intervention. Systematic efforts to identify and treat severely hypercholesterolemic individuals who carry a FH mutation may represent one such opportunity.

CLINICAL PERSPECTIVES

Competency in Medical Knowledge: Sequencing of three genes causing familial hypercholesterolemia identifies a mutation in only a small fraction of severely hypercholesterolemic individuals.

Translational Outlook: Additional research is needed to determine the relative contributions of other genetic variants and lifestyle factors and evaluate the clinical utility of genetic testing in patients with severe hypercholesterolemia.

References

- Emerging Risk Factors Collaboration. Major lipids, apolipoproteins, and risk of vascular disease. JAMA. 2009;302(18):1993-2000.
- Baigent C, Keech A, Kearney PM, et al. Efficacy and safety of cholesterol-lowering treatment: prospective meta-analysis of data from 90,056 participants in 14 randomised trials of statins. Lancet. 2005;366(9493):1267-1278.
- Stone NJ, Robinson JG, Lichtenstein AH, et al. 2013 ACC/AHA guideline on the treatment of blood cholesterol to reduce atherosclerotic cardiovascular risk in adults: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. *J Am Coll Cardiol.* 2014;63(25_PA):2889-2934
- Gidding SS, Ann Champagne M, de Ferranti SD, et al. The Agenda for Familial Hypercholesterolemia: A Scientific Statement From the American Heart Association. Circulation. 2015 Dec 1;132(22):2167-92.
- 5. Fouchier SW, Defesche JC, Umans-Eckenhausen MW, Kastelein JP. The molecular basis of familial hypercholesterolemia in The Netherlands. Hum Genet. 2001;109(6):602-15.
- Graham CA, McIlhatton BP, Kirk CW, et al. Genetic screening protocol for familial hypercholesterolemia which includes splicing defects gives an improved mutation detection rate. Atherosclerosis. 2005 Oct;182(2):331-40.
- Humphries SE, Whittall RA, Hubbart CS, et al. Genetic causes of familial hypercholesterolaemia in patients in the UK: relation to plasma lipid levels and coronary heart disease risk. J Med Genet. 2006; 43: 943–49.

- 8. Lombardi MP, Redeker EJ, van Gent DH, et al. Molecular genetic testing for familial hypercholesterolemia in the Netherlands: a stepwise screening strategy enhances the mutation detection rate. Genet Test. 2006 Summer;10(2):77-84.
- Civeira F, Ros E, Jarauta E, et al. Comparison of genetic versus clinical diagnosis in familial hypercholesterolemia. Am J Cardiol. 2008;102(9):1187-93
- Taylor A, Wang D, Patel K, et al. Mutation detection rate and spectrum in familial hypercholesterolaemia patients in the UK pilot cascade project. Clin Genet. 2010;77(6):572-80.
- Medeiros AM, Alves AC, Francisco V, Bourbon M; investigators of the Portuguese FH Study. Update of the Portuguese Familial Hypercholesterolaemia Study. Atherosclerosis. 2010;212(2):553-8.
- Chmara M, Wasag B, Zuk M, et al. Molecular characterization of Polish patients with familial hypercholesterolemia: novel and recurrent LDLR mutations. J Appl Genet. 2010;51(1):95-106.
- Marduel M, Carrié A, Sassolas A, et al. Molecular spectrum of autosomal dominant hypercholesterolemia in France. Hum Mutat. 2010;31(11):E1811-24.
- 14. van der Graaf A, Avis HJ, et al. Molecular basis of autosomal dominant hypercholesterolemia: assessment in a large cohort of hypercholesterolemic children. Circulation. 2011;123(11):1167-73.
- 15. Ahmad Z, Adams-Huet B, Chen C, Garg A. Low prevalence of mutations in known loci for autosomal dominant hypercholesterolemia in a multiethnic patient cohort. Circ Cardiovasc Genet. 2012;5(6):666-75.

- 16. Klančar G, Grošelj U, Kovač J, et al. Universal Screening for Familial Hypercholesterolemia in Children. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2015;66(11):1250-7.
- 17. Goldberg AC, Hopkins PN, Toth PP, et al. Familial hypercholesterolemia: screening, diagnosis and management of pediatric and adult patients: clinical guidance from the National Lipid Association Expert Panel on Familial Hypercholesterolemia. J Clin Lipidol. 2011;5:1–8.
- 18. Nordestgaard BG, Chapman MJ, Humphries SE, et al. Familial hypercholesterolaemia is underdiagnosed and undertreated in the general population: guidance for clinicians to prevent coronary heart disease: consensus statement of the European Atherosclerosis Society. Eur Heart J. 2013;34:3478-90a.
- 19. Atherosclerosis, Thrombosis, and Vascular Biology Italian Study Group. No evidence of association between prothrombotic gene polymorphisms and the development of acute myocardial infarction at a young age. Circulation. 2003;107:1117-22.
- 20. Do R, Stitziel NO, Won H-H, et al. Exome sequencing identifies multiple rare alleles at LDLR and APOA5 that confer risk for myocardial infarction. Nature. 2015;519:102-106.
- 21. Taylor HA, Jr. The Jackson Heart Study: an overview. Ethnicity & disease. 2005;15:S6-1-3.
- 22. Crosby J, Peloso GM, Auer PL, et al. Loss-of-function mutations in APOC3, triglycerides, and coronary disease. N Engl J Med 2014;371:22-31.
- 23. McPherson R, Pertsemlidis A, Kavaslar N, et al. A common allele on chromosome 9 associated with coronary heart disease. Science. 2007;316:1488-91.
- 24. Clarke R, Peden JF, Hopewell JC, et al. Genetic variants associated with Lp(a) lipoprotein level and coronary disease. N Engl J Med. 2009;361:2518-28.

- 25. Saleheen D, Zaidi M, Rasheed A, et al. The Pakistan Risk of Myocardial Infarction Study: a resource for the study of genetic, lifestyle and other determinants of myocardial infarction in South Asia. European journal of epidemiology. 2009;24:329-38.
- 26. Baigent C, Keech A, Kearney PM, et al. Efficacy and safety of cholesterol-lowering treatment: prospective meta-analysis of data from 90,056 participants in 14 randomised trials of statins. Lancet. 2005;366(9493):1267-1278.
- 27. Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium Investigators. Inactivating mutations in NPC1L1 and protection from coronary heart disease. N Engl J Med. 2014;371(22):2072-82.
- 28. Benn M, Watts GF, Tybjærg-Hansen A, Nordestgaard BG. Mutations causative of familial hypercholesterolaemia: screening of 98 098 individuals from the Copenhagen General Population Study estimated a prevalence of 1 in 217. Eur Heart J. 2016 Feb 22. [Epub ahead of print]
- 29. Psaty BM, O'Donnell CJ, Gudnason V, et al. Cohorts for Heart and Aging Research in Genomic Epidemiology (CHARGE) Consortium: Design of prospective meta-analyses of genome-wide association studies from five cohorts. Circ Cardiovasc Genet 2:73-80, 2009.
- Purcell SM, Moran JL, Fromer M, et al. A polygenic burden of rare disruptive mutations in schizophrenia. Nature. 2014;506:185-90.
- 31. Landrum MJ, Lee JM, Riley GR, Jang W, Rubinstein WS, Church DM, Maglott DR. ClinVar: public archive of relationships among sequence variation and human phenotype. Nucleic Acids Res. 2014;42:D980-5.

- 32. Borén J, Ekström U, Agren B, Nilsson-Ehle P, Innerarity TL. The molecular mechanism for the genetic disorder familial defective apolipoprotein B100. J Biol Chem. 2001;276:9214–9218.
- 33. McLaren W, Pritchard B, Rios D, Chen Y, Flicek P, Cunningham F. Deriving the consequences of genomic variants with the Ensembl API and SNP Effect Predictor. Bioinformatics. 2010;26:2069-70.
- 34. Karczewski, K. J. LOFTEE (Loss-Of-Function Transcript Effect Estimator), <https://github.com/konradjk/loftee> (2015).
- 35. Liu X, Jian X, Boerwinkle E. dbNSFP v2.0: a database of human non-synonymous SNVs and their functional predictions and annotations. Hum Mutat. 2013 Sep;34(9):E2393-402.
- 36. Wikham, H. ggplot2: elegant graphics for data analysis. Springer New York, 2009.
- 37. Teslovich TM, Musunuru K, Smith AV, et al. Biological, clinical and population relevance of 95 loci for blood lipids. Nature. 2010;466(7307):707-13.
- 38. Talmud PJ, Shah S, Whittall R, et al. Use of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol gene score to distinguish patients with polygenic and monogenic familial hypercholesterolaemia: a case-control study. Lancet. 2013;381:1293-301.
- Brown MS, Goldstein JL. Biomedicine: lowering LDL not only how low, but how long? Science. 2006;311:1721-3.
- 40. Alonso R, Andres E, Mata N, et al. Lipoprotein(a) levels in familial hypercholesterolemia: an important predictor of cardiovascular disease independent of the type of LDL receptor mutation. J Am Coll Cardiol;63(19):1982-9.
- 41. World Health Organization 1999 Familial hypercholesterolaemia (FH). Report of a second WHO consultation. Geneva: World Health Organization

42. National Collaborating Centre for Primary Care 2008 Identification and management of familial hypercholesterolaemia. NICE clinical guideline 71. London: National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence.

Figure Legends

Central Illustration: Sequencing Familial Hypercholesterolemia Genes in Severe Hypercholesterolemia: Prevalence and Impact

A. Prevalence of a FH mutation amongst severely hypercholesterolemic individuals, B. Risk of coronary artery disease across LDL cholesterol and familial hypercholesterolemia mutation status categories. Odds ratios for CAD were calculated via logistic regression with adjustment for gender, cohort, and principal components of ancestry relative to a reference category of LDL cholesterol <130 mg/dl without a familial hypercholesterolemia (FH) mutation. Counts of CAD-free controls vs. CAD cases in each category are provided in **Supplementary Table 6**. P-value for mutation carriers vs. noncarriers across strata of LDL cholesterol < 0.0001. P-interaction between LDL cholesterol category and mutation status = 0.51

Figure 1. Impact of Familial Hypercholesterolemia, Rare Missense, and Rare Synonymous Mutations on LDL Cholesterol and Coronary Artery Disease.

For each class of variants, the number of individuals within the 14,117 participants of the Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium case-control studies and % of CAD cases and CAD-free controls is provided. Number of individuals within each mutation category sum to more than the overall familial hypercholesterolemia mutation numbers due to overlap across variant classification. Increase in LDL cholesterol values determined via linear regression with adjustment for age, age², gender, cohort, and principal components of ancestry. Odds ratios for CAD were calculated via logistic regression with adjustment for gender, cohort, and principal components of ancestry.

Figure 2. LDL Cholesterol Values According to Familial Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Status.

The distribution of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol values according to familial hypercholesterolemia (FH mutation status) among the Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium studies is displayed. LDL cholesterol values were higher in FH mutation carriers (N = 164) as compared to noncarriers (N=13,954), p < 0.001.

Figure 3. Cumulative LDL cholesterol Exposure in Familial Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Carriers Compared on Non-carriers Matched on LDL cholesterol at

Ascertainment

Hypercholesterolemic [low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol \geq 130 mg/dl] carriers of a familial hypercholesterolemia (FH) mutation were identified in the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) and Framingham Heart Study (FHS) Offspring cohorts and matched 1:1 to a FH mutation non-carriers according to age, gender, statin use, and LDL cholesterol at time of ascertainment. Mean \pm standard error (SE) LDL cholesterol values at each study visit are displayed in each cohort according to mutation status. A matched pairs t-test demonstrated higher cumulative exposure to LDL cholesterol in FH mutation carriers versus non-carriers.

 Table 1. Prevalence of a Familial Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Among Participants with

Severe Hypercholesterolemia (LDL Cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl)

	N with LDL Cholesterol ≥ 190	N with FH Mutation (% of Individuals
	mg/dl (% of	with
	Cohort)	LDL Cholesterol ≥
		190)
Controls of the Myocardial Infarction		
Genetics (MIGen) Consortium		
Atherosclerosis, Thrombosis and Vascular	44 (4%)	1 (2.3%)
Biology Italian Study ($N = 1,050$)		
Exome Sequencing Project; Early-Onset	160 (13%)	3 (1.9%)
Myocardial Infarction ($N = 1,213$)		
Jackson Heart Study $(N = 599)$	26 (4%)	1 (3.8%)
Munich Myocardial Infarction Study (N =	15 (6%)	0 (0%)
272)		
Ottowa Heart Study ($N = 889$)	59 (7%)	0 (0%)
Precocious Coronary Artery Disease (N =	36 (4%)	1 (2.8%)
870)		
Pakistani Risk of Myocardial Infarction	90 (2%)	2 (2.2%)
Study		
(N = 3,684)	/	
Total (N = 8,577)	430 (5%)	8 (1.9%)
Cohorts for Heart and Aging Research in		
Genomic Epidemiology (CHARGE)		
Consortium		
Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study	657 (8%)	12 (1.8%)
(N = 7,959)		
Cardiovascular Health Study ($n = 732$)	47 (4%)	1 (2.1%)
Framingham Heart Study ($N = 1,175$)	38 (5%)	2 (5.3%)
Rotterdam Baseline Study ($N = 794$)	99 (12%)	0 (0%)
Erasmus Rucphen Family Study (N = 1,248)	115 (9%)	1 (0.9%)
Total (N = 11,908)	956 (8%)	16 (1.7%)
Combined MIGen Controls + CHARGE (N	1386 (7%)	24 (1.7%)
= 20,485)		

	Ν	OR for	P-value	LDL	P-value
	(N CAD-	CAD	(FH	Cholesterol-	(FH
	free	(95%CI)	Mutation	Adjusted	Mutation
	Controls /	P-value*	$+ vs)^{y}$	OR	$+$ vs. $-)^{y}$
	N CAD			for CAD	
	Case)			(95%CI)	
				P-value*	
LDL Cholesterol ≥ 190					
mg/dl					
Familial	1,264	6.0	0.001	1.6	0.02
Hypercholesterolemia	(422 /	5.2 – 6.9)	C	(1.3 - 2.1)	
Mutation –	842)	P < 0.001		P < 0.001	
Familial	73	22.3		4.2	
Hypercholesterolemia	(8 / 65)	(10.7 –		(1.9 - 10.4)	
Mutation +		53.2)		P < 0.001	
		P < 0.001			
LDL Cholesterol < 130	7,485	Reference		Reference	
mg/dl and Familial	(5,175 /				
Hypercholesterolemia	2,310)		1		
Mutation –					

Table 2. Risk of Coronary Artery Disease in those with Elevated LDL cholesterol (≥190 mg/dl)

 According to Familial Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Status.

Odds ratios (OR) for coronary artery disease (CAD) calculated via logistic regression with adjustment for gender, cohort, and principal components of ancestry relative to a reference category of LDL cholesterol <130 mg/dl without a familial hypercholesterolemia (FH) mutation. Odds ratio values with and without additional adjustment for observed LDL cholesterol, expressed as a continuous variable, are provided.

* P-value for difference in OR compared to reference category.

^y P-value for difference in OR between FH Mutation + vs. FH Mutation – among participants with LDL cholesterol (\geq 190 mg/dl)

LDL Cholesterol Criteria	Mutation Criterion	Prevalence of Familial Hypercholesterolemia
LDL Cholesterol \geq 190 mg/dl	No mutation required	1,386 / 20,485 (1 in 14)
No threshold requirement	*LDLR loss of function variant; or *LDLR predicted damaging rare missense variant; or *LDLR, APOB, PCSK9 variant pathogenic in ClinVar	97 / 20,485 (1 in 211)
LDL Cholesterol ≥ 190 mg/dl	* <i>LDLR</i> loss of function variant; or *Any rare <i>LDLR</i> missense variant	80 / 20,485 (1 in 256)
LDL Cholesterol ≥ 130 mg/dl	*LDLR loss of function variant: or *LDLR predicted damaging rare, missense variant; or *LDLR, APOB, PCSK9 variant pathogenic in ClinVar	68 / 20,485 (1 in 301)
No threshold requirement	*LDLR loss of function variant; or *LDLR predicted damaging rare missense variant	60 / 20,485 (1 in 341)
LDL Cholesterol ≥ 190 mg/dl	*LDLR loss of function variant; or *LDLR predicted damaging rare missense variant; or *LDLR, APOB, PCSK9 variant pathogenic in ClinVar	24 / 20,485 (1 in 853)

Table 3. Prevalence of Familial Hypercholesterolemia According to Different LDL Cholesterol

 Thresholds and Mutation Classification Schemes.

For each classification scheme, we provide the number who meet the criteria out of a total 20,485 participants (CAD-free controls of the Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium combined with CHARGE Consortium participants). Loss of function variants defined as single base changes that introduce a stop codon leading to premature truncation of a protein (nonsense), insertions or deletions (indels) of DNA that scramble the protein translation beyond the variant site (frameshift), or point mutations at sites of pre-mRNA splicing that alter the splicing process (splice-site). Predicted damaging variants refer to those *LDLR* predicted to be deleterious by *each* of five *in silico* prediction algorithms (LRT score, MutationTaster, PolyPhen-2 HumDiv, PolyPhen-2 HumVar and Sorting Intolerant From Tolerant (SIFT)). Rare variants refers to those with minor allele frequency < 1% in the sequenced population.







Appendix:

Diagnostic Yield of Sequencing Familial Hypercholesterolemia Genes in Severe Hypercholesterolemia

Amit V. Khera, MD^{*},^{a,b} Hong-Hee Won, PhD^{*},^c Gina M. Peloso, PhD^{*},^{b,d} Kim S. Lawson, MS,^e Traci M. Bartz, MS,^f Xuan Deng, MSc,^d Elisabeth M. van Leeuwen,^g Pradeep Natarajan, MD, MMSc,^{a,b} Connor A. Emdin, HBSc,^b Alexander G. Bick, BS,^b Alanna C. Morrison, PhD,^e Jennifer A. Brody,^h BA, Namrata Gupta, PhD,^b Akihiro Nomura, MD,^{b, i} Thorsten Kessler, MD,^j Stefano Duga, PhD,^k Joshua C. Bis, PhD,^h Cornelia M. van Duijn, PhD,^g L. Adrienne Cupples, PhD,^d Bruce Psaty, MD, PhD,^{h,1} Daniel J. Rader, MD,^m John Danesh, FMedSci,ⁿ Heribert Schunkert,^j MD, Ruth McPherson, MD,^o Martin Farrall, FRCPath,^p Hugh Watkins, MD,^p PhD, Eric Lander, PhD,^b James G. Wilson, MD,^q Adolfo Correa, MD, PhD,^r Eric Boerwinkle, PhD,^e Piera Angelica Merlini, MD,^s Diego Ardissino, MD,^t Danish Saleheen, MB,BS,PhD,^u Stacey Gabriel, PhD,^b Sekar Kathiresan, MD^{a,b}

Supplementary Methods.

Coronary artery disease case-control cohort

The coronary disease case-control exome sequencing was performed as previously described (1). Sequence data of all participants were aligned to a human reference genome (hg19) using the Burrows–Wheeler Aligner algorithm. Aligned non-duplicate reads were locally realigned and base qualities were recalibrated using the Genome Analysis ToolKit (GATK) software version 3.4 (2-4). Variants were jointly called using the GATK HaploTypeCaller and filtered using the Variant Quality Score Recalibration (VQSR), quality over depth metrics, and strand bias. The sensitivity of the selected VQSR threshold was 99.6% for single nucleotide polymorphisms and 95% for insertion/deletion variants as empirically assessed using hapmap controls with known genotypes included in the genotyping call set. Previous studies using similar approaches have estimated a false-positive genotyping error rate of 0.001% (5). We also excluded outlier samples with respect to relatedness with any other samples and number of variants, increased heterozygous to non-reference homozygous genotypes ratio, high missing genotypes, discordance between reported and genotypic gender, or a high discordant rate with

genotype array data when available. Population genetic substructure was assessed by calculation of principal components of ancestry using Eigenstrat 4.2 as previously described (6,7).

Population-based cohort studies

The prevalence of a familial hypercholesterolemia mutation in individuals with a LDL cholesterol > 190 mg/dl was additionally determined in 11,908 participants from five prospective cohort studie: Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study (ARIC), Cardiovascular Health Study (CHS), Framingham Heart Study (FHS), Rotterdam Baseline Study (RS), and Erasmus Rucphen Family Study (ERF) (eTable 2). Whole exome sequencing for 9,866 individuals from ARIC, CHS, and FHS was performed using Illumina HiSeq instruments (San Diego, CA) after exome capture with VCRome 2.1 (NimbleGen Inc., Madison, WI) using chemistry recommended by the manufacturer at Baylor College of Medicine. Sequence alignment and variant calling were carried out via the Mercury pipeline in the DNAnexus platform. Whole exome sequencing for 2,042 individuals from RS and ERF was performed at Erasmus Medical Center, Rotterdam, The Netherlands using Illumina HiSeq instruments (San Diego, CA). Fasting LDL cholesterol in mg/dL was used from the earliest available exam in each contributing study. For participants known to be on lipid-lowering therapy, we estimated the untreated LDL cholesterol value. This approach has been demonstrated to perform well in accounting for treatment effects in studies of quantitative traits. Statins are the most widely used treatment to lower plasma lipids and a statin at average dose reduces total cholesterol by 20% and LDL cholesterol by 30%. Statins became routinely used after the publication of the seminal 4S randomized control trial in 1994. If the sample for LDL cholesterol was collected after 1994, we accounted for lipid-lowering medication in the following manner: the treated total cholesterol value was divided by 0.8. No adjustment was done on data collected before 1994 unless specific information on statin use was

available. LDL cholesterol was calculated using the Friedewald equation (LDL cholesterol = total cholesterol – high-density lipoprotein cholesterol – (triglycerides/5)) for those with triglycerides <400 mg/dl. If triglycerides were \geq 400 mg/dl, calculated LDL cholesterol was set to missing.

Longitudinal Analysis of LDL Cholesterol Exposure

In order to determine whether the cumulative exposure to LDL cholesterol differed according to familial hypercholesterolemia mutation status, individuals with a familial hypercholesterolemia mutation and LDL cholesterol \geq 130 mg/dl were identified in ARIC and FHS Offspring Study cohorts. ARIC is a prospective, community-based sample of 15,792 adults ages 45–64 years recruited from four US communities between 1987 and 1989 (8). Participants attended a baseline examination (visit 1) and follow-up examinations in 1990–1992 (visit 2), 1993–1995 (visit 3), and 1995–1998 (visit 4). Lipid levels from visits 1-4 were available for analysis. All ARIC phenotypic and sequence data was retrieved from NCBI dbGaP (accession: phs000090.v3.p1 and phs000572.v6.p4). The FHS Offspring Cohort consisted of 5,124 children of the original cohort and their spouses and has been examined every three to eight years. Lipid levels from exam 1 (1971-1975) to exam 7 (1998-2001) were available for analysis. All FHS phenotypic and sequence data used in the longitudinal analysis were retrieved from NCBI dbGaP (Accession: phs000007.v26.p10 and phs000572.v6.p4).

Exome sequencing data from 1091 FHS Offspring individuals and 5727 ARIC participants were downloaded from NCBI dbGaP. The sequences were generated from three independent sequencing efforts, the NHLBI Exome Sequencing Project, the Alzheimer's Disease Sequencing Project and the CHARGE consortium, as previously described (9,10). Sequences were mapped to the human genome assembly hg19 human reference with BWA and single-

nucleotide variants and small indel variants were jointly called in each cohort with GATK version 3.4 using the haplotype caller tool and subsequently filtered using GATK best practices.

Additionally, in the FHS Offspring Study, NCBI dbGaP data were downloaded for a set of 1,623 unrelated FHS Offspring Cohort individuals resequenced for 200 cardiovascular disease genes including APOB, LDLR and PCSK9, as previously described (11). Sequence reads were first aligned to human genome assembly hg19 with BWA, recalibrated with GATK and used for variant calling by the UnifiedGenotyper module. Samples from analysis with below 95% concordance with prior SNP array data were removed.

We excluded outlier samples with respect to relatedness with other samples, number of variants, increased heterozygous/non-reference homozygous ratio, high missing genotypes, discordance between reported and genotype-derived gender, or a high discordant rate with genotype array data when available. Individuals were included in the longitudinal analysis if missing a LDL cholesterol value at no more than one study visit. In those missing a single visit value, the last measured value was carried forward.

Online References

- 1. Do R, Stitziel NO, Won HH, et al. Exome sequencing identifies rare LDLR and APOA5 alleles conferring risk for myocardial infarction. Nature. 2015;518:102-6.
- 2. McKenna A, Hanna M, Banks E, et al. The Genome Analysis Toolkit: a MapReduce framework for analyzing next-generation DNA sequencing data. Genome Res. 2010;20(9):1297-303.
- 3. DePristo MA, Banks E, Poplin R, et al. A framework for variation discovery and genotyping using next-generation DNA sequencing data. Nat Genet. 2011;43:491-8.
- Van der Auwera GA, Carneiro MO, et al. From FastQ data to high confidence variant calls: the Genome Analysis Toolkit best practices pipeline. Curr Protoc Bioinformatics. 2013;11(1110):11.10.1-11.10.33.
- 5. Heinrich V, Kamphans T, Stange J, et al. Estimating exome genotyping accuracy by comparing to data from large scale sequencing projects. Genome Med. 2013;5(7):69.
- Price, AL et al. Principal components analysis corrects for stratification in genome-wide association studies. Nature Genet. 2006:38, 904–09.
- TG and HDL Working Group of the Exome Sequencing Project, National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. Loss-of-function mutations in APOC3, triglycerides, and coronary disease. N Engl J Med. 2014;371:22-31.
- The ARIC Investigators: The Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study: Design and objectives. The ARIC investigators. Am J Epidemiol. 1989:129:687–702.
- 9. Fu W, O'Connor TD, Jun G, et al. Analysis of 6,515 exomes reveals the recent origin of most human protein-coding variants. Nature. 2013 Jan 10;493(7431):216-20.

- Li AH, Morrison AC, Kovar C, et al. Analysis of loss-of-function variants and 20 risk factor phenotypes in 8,554 individuals identifies loci influencing chronic disease. Nat Genet. 2015;47(6):640-2.
- 11. Bick AG, Flannick J, Ito K, et al. Burden of rare sarcomere gene variants in the Framingham and Jackson Heart Study cohorts. Am J Hum Genet. 2012;91(3):513-9.
- 12. Atherosclerosis, Thrombosis, and Vascular Biology Italian Study Group. No evidence of association between prothrombotic gene polymorphisms and the development of acute myocardial infarction at a young age. Circulation 2003;107:1117-22.
- 13. Do R, Stitziel NO, Won H-H, et al. Exome sequencing identifies multiple rare alleles at LDLR and APOA5 that confer risk for myocardial infarction. Nature. 2015;519:102-106.
- 14. Taylor HA, Jr. The Jackson Heart Study: an overview. Ethnicity & disease. 2005;15:S6-1-3.
- 15. Crosby J, Peloso GM, Auer PL, et al. Loss-of-function mutations in APOC3, triglycerides, and coronary disease. N Engl J Med. 2014;371:22-31.
- McPherson R, Pertsemlidis A, Kavaslar N, et al. A common allele on chromosome 9 associated with coronary heart disease. Science. 2007;316:1488-91.
- 17. Clarke R, Peden JF, Hopewell JC, et al. Genetic variants associated with Lp(a) lipoprotein level and coronary disease. N Engl J Med.2009;361:2518-28.
- 18. Saleheen D, Zaidi M, Rasheed A, et al. The Pakistan Risk of Myocardial Infarction Study: a resource for the study of genetic, lifestyle and other determinants of myocardial infarction in South Asia. European journal of epidemiology. 2009;24:329-38.
- Fried, L.P., Borhani, N.O., Enright, P., Furberg, C.D., Gardin, J.M., Kronmal, R.A., Kuller, L.H., Manolio, T.A., Mittelmark, M.B., Newman, A., et al. (1991). The Cardiovascular Health Study: design and rationale. Ann Epidemiol. 1, 263-276.

- 20. Kannel, W.B., Dawber, T.R., Kagan, A., Revotskie, N., and Stokes, J., 3rd. (1961). Factors of risk in the development of coronary heart disease--six year follow-up experience. The Framingham Study. Ann Intern Med. 55, 33-50.
- 21. Hofman, A., Grobbee, D.E., de Jong, P.T., and van den Ouweland, F.A. (1991). Determinants of disease and disability in the elderly: the Rotterdam Elderly Study. Eur J Epidemiol. 7, 403-422.
- 22. Pardo, L.M., MacKay, I., Oostra, B., van Duijn, C.M., and Aulchenko, Y.S. (2005). The effect of genetic drift in a young genetically isolated population. Annals of human genetics. 69, 288-295.

CER ANA

Cohort	Controls	Cases	CAD Definition	Control	Reference
				Definition	
ATVB	1050	1248	MI in men or	No history of	12
			women \leq 45y	thromboembolic	
				disease	
EOMI	1213	189	MI (men \leq 50y or	Hospital-based,	13
			women $\leq 60y$)	no report of MI by	
				history	
JHS	599	13	Combination of	Free of CHD	14
			prevalent CHD (self-	during follow-up	
			reported or		
			electrocardiographic		
			evidence of MI) and		
			incident CHD (MI or		
			coronary		
			revascularization)		
Munich-MI	272	341	MI in men ≤40y or	Controls without	15
			women ≤55y	CAD, men \geq 65y	
				and women \geq 75y	
OHS	889	386	MI or CABG or	Asymptomatic	16
			angiographic disease		
			(>50% stenosis) in		
			men ≤ 50 y or		
			women $\leq 60 \text{ y}$)		
PROCARDIS	870	560	MI (men ≤ 50 y or	No history of	17
			women $\leq 60 \text{ y}$)	CAD	
PROMIS	3684	2803	MI, age 30-80y	Age and gender	18
				frequency-	
				matched. No	
				history of	
				MI/CVD	

Online Table 1. Coronary Artery Disease Definitions Across Cohorts

ATVB: Atherosclerosis, Thrombosis and Vascular Biology Italian Study; EOMI: NHLBI Exome Sequencing Project Early-Onset Myocardial Infarction; JHS: Jackson Heart Study; OHS: Ottawa Heart Study; PROCARDIS: Precocious coronary artery disease; PROMIS: Pakistan Risk of Myocardial Infarction Study

MI: myocardial infarction; CAD: coronary artery disease; CABG: coronary artery bypass; y: years of age

Cohort	Descriptions	N	N (%) with LDL Cholesterol > 190 mg/dl
Atherosclerosi	The ARIC study has been described in detail previously. ⁸ Men and women aged	2486	229 (9%)
s Risk in Communities	45-64 years at baseline were recruited from four communities: Forsyth County, North	(AA)	R
Study (ARIC)	Carolina; Jackson, Mississippi; Minneapolis, Minnesota; and Washington		2
	County, Maryland. A total of 15,792 individuals, predominantly White and	5473	428 (8%)
	baseline examination in 1987-1989, with three triennial follow-up examinations. 2671	(EA)	
	African-American and 5604 European- American individuals with LDL cholesterol	\mathbf{P}	
	were exome sequenced at Baylor University.		

Online Table 2. Cohort Descriptions for the Prospective Cohort Studies

	The CHS has been described in detail		
Cardiovascula	previously. ¹⁹ The CHS is a population-based	732	38 (5%)
r Health Study	cohort study of risk factors for coronary		
(CHS)	heart disease and stroke in adults ≥ 65 years		
	conducted across four field centers. The		
	original cohort of 5201 persons was		
	recruited in 1989-1990 (84% Caucasian)		
	from random samples of the Medicare		
	eligibility lists. DNA was extracted from		
	blood available blood samples drawn on		
	participants at their baseline examination.		
	732 European-American individuals with		
	LDL cholesterol were exome sequenced at		
	Baylor University. CHS was approved by		
	institutional review commitees at each field		
	center and the coordinating center.		
	Participants gave informed consent		
	including consent to use of genetic		
	information for the study of cardiovascular	b	
	disease.		
F	The FHS is a three generational prospective	1175	47 (40/)
Framingnam	cohort that has been described in detail	11/5	47(4%)
Heart Study	previously. ²⁰ Individuals were initially		
(FHS)	recruited in 1948 in Framingham, USA to		
	evaluate cardiovascular disease risk factors.		
	The second generation cohort (5124		
	offspring of the original cohort) was		
	recruited between 1971 and 1975. The third		
	generation cohort (4095 grandchildren of		
	the original cohort) was collected between		
	2002 and 2005. Fasting lipid levels were		
	measured at exam 1 of the Offspring (19/1-		
	1975) and third generation (2002-2005)		
Dottondor	The Detterdem Study is an angeing		
Rotterdam	The Rotterdam Study is an ongoing	794	99 (12%)
(DS)	prospective population-based conort study,	//	<i>(12/0)</i>
(KS)	the alderly. The study comprises an outbred		
	ethnically homogenous population of Dutch		
X	Caucasian origin. The rationale of the study		
)	has been described in detail elsewhere 21 In		
	summary 7983 men and women aged 55		
	vears or older living in Ommoord a suburb		
	of Rotterdam, the Netherlands were invited		
	to participate. 794 European individuals		
	with LDL cholesterol were exome		

	sequenced.		
Erasmus Rucphen Family (ERF) Study	The ERF study has been described in detail previously. ²² A total of approximately 3000 participants descend from 22 couples who lived in the Rucphen region in The Netherlands in the 19th century. 1248 European individuals with LDL cholesterol were exome sequenced.	1248	115 (9%)

SD: standard deviation. SI conversion factor: To convert cholesterol to mmol/L, multiply values by 0.0259. To convert triglyceride levels to mmol/l, multiple values by 0.01129.

	CAD Control	CAD Case
	(N = 8 , 577)	(N = 5,540)
Age	58 (14)	45 (8)
Male Gender	5,871 (68%)	4,550 (82%)
Race		
White	3,908 (46%)	2,672 (48%)
Black	985 (11%)	65 (1%)
South Asian	3,684 (43%)	2,803 (51%)
Hypertension	2,940 (44%)	1,928 (52%)
Diabetes Mellitus	1,715 (23%)	1,655 (32%)
Current Smoking	1,961 (23%)	2,821 (52%)
Total Cholesterol, mg/dl	198 (47)	221 (56)
LDL-Cholesterol, mg/dl	121 (41)	140 (52)
HDL-Cholesterol, mg/dl	44 (15)	39 (13)
Triglycerides, mg/dl	138 (95 – 202)	165 (116 –
		242)
Lipid-lowering	342 (4%)	1,502 (27%)
Medication		

Online Table 3. Baseline Characteristics According to CAD Case-Control Status within the Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium Studies

Values represent n (% of individuals with nonmissing data), mean (SD), or median (IQR). CAD – coronary artery disease. SI conversion factor: To convert cholesterol to mmol/L, multiply values by 0.0259. To convert triglyceride levels to mmol/l, multiple values by 0.01129.

12

CHR:POS_REF/ALT	GENE	Consequence	Amino Acid	Loss of	Predicted	ClinVar	Ν	Ν
			Change	Function	Damaging	Pathogenic	Controls	Cases
1:55518037_G/A	PCSK9	Missense	Asp204Asn	-		Yes	0	1
2:21229068_G/A	APOB	Missense	Arg3558Cys			Yes	8	8
2:21229160_C/T	APOB	Missense	Arg3527Gln			Yes	2	4
19:11210912_C/G	LDLR	Missense	Cys27Trp		Yes		0	1
19:11210970_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Asp47Asn		Yes		1	1
19:11210928_C/T	LDLR	Premature	Gln33Ter	Yes			0	1
		Stop						
19:11210974_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Gly48Asp		Yes		1	0
19:11211016_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Thr62Met		Yes		4	3
19:11213418_A/G	LDLR	Missense	Asp90Gly		Yes		0	1
19:11213450_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Glu101Lys		Yes	Yes	0	1
19:11213453_C/T	LDLR	Premature	Gln102Ter	Yes			0	1
		Stop						
19:11213463_G/A	LDLR	Splice Donor		Yes			0	4
19:11213463_G/T	LDLR	Splice Donor		Yes			0	1
19:11215908_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Cys109Tyr		Yes		0	1
19:11215937_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Gly119Arg		Yes		0	1
19:11215974_A/G	LDLR	Missense	Asp131Gly		Yes		0	1
19:11215991_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Gly137Ser		Yes		1	0
19:11215992_G/T	LDLR	Missense	Gly137Val		Yes		0	1
19:11215995_C/G	LDLR	Premature	Ser138Ter	Yes			0	2
		Stop						
19:11216000_G/T	LDLR	Premature	Glu140Ter	Yes			0	2
		Stop						
19:11216011_C/A	LDLR	Premature	Cys143Ter	Yes			1	0
		Stop						
19:11216090_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Asp170Asn		Yes		1	0
19:11216102_G/T	LDLR	Premature	Glu174Ter	Yes			0	1
		Stop						

Online Table 4. Variant Characteristics and Frequency in Coronary Artery Disease Controls vs. Cases

19:11216112_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Ser177Leu		Yes	Yes	0	2
19:11216242_C/CTG	LDLR	Frameshift	Asp221TrpfsTer45	Yes			1	0
19:11216244_A/G	LDLR	Missense	Asp221Gly		Yes		0	8
19:11216264_G/T	LDLR	Premature	Glu228Ter	Yes		Yes	0	1
		Stop			Y			
19:11217344_T/A	LDLR	Missense	Asp266Glu		Yes		1	1
19:11218077_G/C	LDLR	Missense	Cys276Ser		Yes		0	1
19:11218096_C/A	LDLR	Missense	Phe282Leu		Yes		0	1
19:11218136_T/TA	LDLR	Premature	Cys296Ter	Yes			0	1
		Stop	Ċ					
19:11218148_A/G	LDLR	Missense	Arg300Gly	7 7	Yes		0	1
19:11221334_A/G	LDLR	Missense	Asn316Ser		Yes		1	1
19:11221354_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Gly323Ser		Yes		1	0
19:11221366_C/T	LDLR	Missense	His327Tyr		Yes		2	5
19:11221390_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Gly335Ser		Yes		1	1
19:11221391_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Gly335Asp		Yes		1	0
19:11221406_G/T	LDLR	Missense	Cys340Phe		Yes		0	2
19:11221435_C/T	LDLR	Premature	Arg350Ter	Yes			0	1
		Stop						
19:11221449_T/G	LDLR	Splice Donor		Yes			0	1
19:11222190_A/G	LDLR	Missense	Asp354Gly		Yes		0	1
19:11222295_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Thr389Met		Yes		0	1
19:11222305_C/A	LDLR	Premature	Cys392Ter	Yes			0	1
		Stop						
19:11223962_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Ala399Thr		Yes		0	1
19:11223983_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Arg406Trp		Yes		1	0
19:11224005_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Thr413Met		Yes		0	1
19:11224013_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Arg416Trp		Yes		0	1
19:11224019_G/A	LDLR V	Missense	Glu418Lys		Yes		0	1
19:11224024_C/G	LDLR	Premature	Tyr419Ter	Yes			0	1
		Stop	-					
19:11224052_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Val429Met		Yes	Yes	0	1

19:11224061_C/G	LDLR	Missense	Leu432Val		Yes		0	3
19:11224066_C/G	LDLR	Missense	Asp433Glu		Yes		1	0
19:11224126_G/A	LDLR	Splice Donor		Yes			0	1
19:11224296_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Asp482Asn	(Yes		0	2
19:11224326_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Asp492Asn	0	Yes		0	1
19:11224354_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Ala501Val		Yes		0	1
19:11224419_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Val523Met		Yes	Yes	0	1
19:11224422_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Val524Met		Yes		0	1
19:11224428_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Pro526Ser		Yes		1	0
19:11224437_G/C	LDLR	Missense	Gly529Arg 🔿	I	Yes		0	2
19:11226781_G/A	LDLR	Premature	Trp533Ter	Yes			0	1
		Stop						
19:11226801_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Ala540Thr		Yes		1	1
19:11226829_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Gly549Asp			Yes	0	4
19:11227549_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Arg574Cys		Yes		0	1
19:11227576_C/G	LDLR	Missense	His583Asp		Yes		0	1
19:11227576_C/T	LDLR	Missense	His583Tyr		Yes		1	1
19:11227590_C/G	LDLR	Missense	Ser587Arg		Yes		0	1
19:11227603_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Gly592Arg		Yes		1	0
19:11227604_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Gly592Glu		Yes	Yes	0	2
19:11227613_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Arg595Gln		Yes		0	1
19:11227645_G/T	LDLR	Missense	Ala606Ser			Yes	4	2
19:11227676_T/C	LDLR	Splice Donor		Yes			0	1
19:11230888_C/A	LDLR	Missense	His656Asn		Yes		1	0
19:11231057_T/C	LDLR	Missense	Cys667Arg		Yes		0	1
19:11231084_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Gly676Ser		Yes		1	0
19:11231087_T/C	LDLR	Missense	Cys677Arg		Yes		0	1
19:11231112_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Pro685Leu		Yes	Yes	1	3
19:11231118_T/TC	LDLR V	Frameshift	Asn688GlnfsTer29	Yes			1	0
19:11231154_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Pro699Leu		Yes		0	1
19:11231159_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Gly701Ser		Yes		2	2
19:11231198_G/T	LDLR	Premature	Glu714Ter	Yes			0	1

		Stop					
19:11234017_C/T	LDLR	Premature	Gln770Ter	Yes		 0	1
		Stop			~		
19:11238683_G/T	LDLR	Splice		Yes		 0	1
		Acceptor					
19:11238706_AG/A	LDLR	Frameshift	Gly779GlufsTer9	Yes		 0	1
19:11240210_T/TG	LDLR	Frameshift	Val806GlyfsTer11	Yes		 1	2
19:11240239_C/T	LDLR	Missense	Arg814Trp		Yes	 0	1
19:11240278_G/A	LDLR	Missense	Val827Ile	()	Yes	 4	1

CHR: Chromosome; POS: Chromosomal positions based on the hg19 build of the human reference genome; REF: Reference allele; ALT: Alternate allele.

the hg19 build of u.

	Familial	Familial Hypercholesterolemia	
	Hypercholesterolemia		
	Mutation Negative	Mutation Positive	
	(N = 13,954)	(N = 164)	
Age	53 (13)	46 (12)	
Male Gender	10,291 (74%)	130 (79%)	
Race			
White	6,462 (46%)	118 (72%)	
Black	1,044 (7%)	6 (4%)	
South Asian	6,447 (46%)	40 (24%)	
Hypertension	4,832 (47%)	36 (46%)	
Diabetes Mellitus	3,351 (27%)	19 (13%)	
Current Smoking	4,722 (34%)	60 (37%)	
Total Cholesterol, mg/dl	206 (51)	263 (84)	
LDL-Cholesterol, mg/dl	130 (46)	190 (84)	
HDL-Cholesterol, mg/dl	42 (15)	41 (14)	
Triglycerides, mg/dl	150 (102 - 218)	137 (102 – 212)	
Lipid-lowering	1,812 (14%)	37 (20%)	
Medication			

Online Table 5. Baseline Characteristics According to Familial Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Status within the Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium Studies

Values represent n (% of individuals with nonmissing data), mean (SD), or median (IQR). SI conversion factor: To convert cholesterol to mmol/L, multiply values by 0.0259. To convert triglyceride levels to mmol/l, multiple values by 0.01129.

LDL Cholesterol	FH Mutation	Ν	N CAD-	N CAD
Category	Status		free	Cases
			Controls	
< 130 mg/dl	Mutation +	7,485	5,175	2,310
< 130 mg/dl	Mutation –	44	22	22
\geq 130 – 160 mg/dl	Mutation +	3,325	1,978	1,347
\geq 130 – 160 mg/dl	Mutation –	28	12	16
\geq 160 – 190 mg/dl	Mutation +	1,879	954	925
\geq 160 – 190 mg/dl	Mutation –	19	6	13
\geq 190 – 220 mg/dl	Mutation +	784	288	496
\geq 190 – 220 mg/dl	Mutation –	22	3	19
\geq 220 mg/dl	Mutation +	51	5	46
\geq 220 mg/dl	Mutation –	480	134	346

Online Table 6. Coronary artery disease status by category of observed LDL cholesterol and FH mutation status within Myocardial Infarction Genetics Consortium Studies

Online Table 7. Matching characteristics of average LDL cholesterol exposure analysis. Values, mean (SD) or N (%), refer to characteristics at time of most recent study visit.

Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities	Familial Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Carriers (n = 18)	Familial Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Noncarriers (n = 18)		
Age, years	63 (5)	64 (6)		
Male Gender	9 (50%)	9 (50%)		
Statin use	9 (50%)	9 (50%)		
LDL Cholesterol	195 (11)	196 (11)		
Frominghom	Familial	Familial Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Noncarriers (n = 7)		
Offspring Study	Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Carriers (n = 7)	Mutation Noncarriers (n = 7)		
Offspring Study Age, years	Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Carriers (n = 7) 66 (8)	Mutation Noncarriers (n = 7) 67 (9)		
Offspring Study Age, years Male Gender	Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Carriers (n = 7) 66 (8) 2 (29%)	Typer cholester orenna Mutation Noncarriers (n = 7) 67 (9) 2 (29%)		
Offspring Study Age, years Male Gender Statin use	Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Carriers (n = 7) 66 (8) 2 (29%) 2 (29%)	Typer cholester orenna Mutation Noncarriers (n = 7) 67 (9) 2 (29%) 2 (29%)		

Online Table 8. <u>Sensitivity Analysis</u> Including Only Those Not on Lipid-lowering Therapy (N = 11,739 MIGen Participants): Risk of Coronary Artery Disease in those with Elevated LDL cholesterol (\geq 190 mg/dl) According to Familial Hypercholesterolemia Mutation Status.

	Ν	OR for	P-value	LDL	P-value
	(N CAD-	CAD	(FH	Cholesterol-	(FH
	free	(95%CI)	Mutation	Adjusted	Mutation
	Controls /	P-value*	$+ vs)^{y}$	OR	$+$ vs. $-)^{y}$
	N CAD			for CAD	
	Case)			(95%CI)	
				P-value*	~
LDL Cholesterol ≥ 190					
mg/dl					
Familial	731	3.1	< 0.001	1.4	0.001
Hypercholesterolemia	(342 /	2.6 - 3.7)	C	(1.1 - 1.9)	
Mutation –	389)			P < 0.001	
Familial	55	23.5		7.8	
Hypercholesterolemia	(5 / 50)	(9.6 –		(3.0 – 24.6)	
Mutation +		72.5)		P < 0.001	
LDL Cholesterol < 130	6,698	Reference		Reference	
mg/dl and Familial	(4,773 /				
Hypercholesterolemia	1,925)				
Mutation –					

Odds ratios (OR) for coronary artery disease (CAD) calculated via logistic regression with adjustment for gender, cohort, and principal components of ancestry relative to a reference category of LDL cholesterol <130 mg/dl without a familial hypercholesterolemia (FH) mutation. Odds ratio values with and without additional adjustment for observed LDL cholesterol, expressed as a continuous variable, are provided.

* P-value for difference in OR compared to reference category.

^y P-value for difference in OR between FH Mutation + vs. FH Mutation – among participants with LDL cholesterol (\geq 190 mg/dl)

Online Figure Titles and Legends

Online Figure 1. LDL Cholesterol Values in MIGen Control Participants (n=8,577)

Online Figure 2. Frequency of Familial Hypercholesterolemia Mutations According to LDL Cholesterol Level and Coronary Artery Disease Status within MIGen Consortium Studies.

Online Figure 1.



Online Figure 2.

