

Clinical variant interpretation I

Genetics in Medicine - 0504321

2022-2023 Second Semester

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The Human Genome

- Consists of 23 pairs of chromosomes.
- Chromosomes 1 through 22 are called autosomes.
- The X & Y chromosomes are the sex chromosomes.
 - Males are XY.
 - Females are XX.



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Mitochondria

Mitochondria have their own chromosome.

- ➤The human mitochondrial chromosome is a circular chromosome 16,569 base pairs long.
- Each mitochondrion contain several copies of its chromosome.

> Every cell contains many mitochondria



Electron micrograph of mitochondria. Courtesy of M. John Hicks, MD, PhD, DDS

The Human Genome

- ➤The Haploid human genome contains 3 billion base pairs of DNA.
- ➢Only 1 % of the human genome codes for proteins.
- ➢Humans have about 22,000 genes (Controversy).
- ➢Humans are 99.9% identical at the DNA level.
- Polymorphic variation (0.1%) between and within populations



The Living Genome: Reading the Book of Life, Houston Museum of Natural Science

The Central Dogma



What is genetic testing?

https://ghr.nlm.nih.gov/primer/testing/genetictesting

- Genetic testing identifies changes in:
 - DNA
 - RNA
 - Chromosomes
 - Proteins
 - Metabolites
- Results of a genetic test can rule in/out a suspected genetic condition or help determine the risk of developing or passing on a genetic disorder to the offsprings



Genetic Testing Types

- Diagnostic testing (symptomatic): to identify or rule out a specific condition
- Carrier testing: to identify subjects heterozygous for a recessive condition
- Pre-symptomatic testing: prior to symptoms appearence
- Predictive testing (susceptibility): identify mutations that increase risk of developing a disorder
- Newborn screening: just after birth, to identify genetic disorders that can be treated early in life
- Prenatal testing: to detect alterations in a fetus (in utero)
- Preimplantation testing: to detect genetic changes in embryos created *in vitro* fertilization
- Pharmacogenetic testing: identification of the probable individual response (efficacyrisk of adverse event) to drugs
 https://ghr.nlm.nih.gov/primer/testing/genetictesting
- ✓ **Forensic testing**: to identify an individual for legal/criminal purposes.

Categories of genetic diseases



Genomic Variant Impact



How to choose the right Sequencing application



Informatics Pipeline Workflow



Tier 3: Clinical Report





Giles HH, et al. 2021 Annu. Rev. Genom. Hum. Genet. 22:285–307

https://www.broadinstitute.org/videos/variant-classification-using-acmgamp-interpreting-sequence-guidelines

https://www.annualreviews.org/doi/10.1146/annurev-genom-121620-082709



Best practices for the interpretation and reporting of clinical whole genome sequencing

Common framework and criteria for germline variant classification



American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics

Translating Genes Into Health®





The rules proposed to classify sequence variants follows is a heuristic system for variant classification that is compatible with a formal, quantitative, naive Bayesian classifier.







Variant Interpretation Framework Summary (11 questions to always ask from a variant)

Concept	Q	Questions		
Allele Frequency	(1) Common or rare?		BA1, BS1, PM2	
	(2) Variant Impact/Type	Loss of function In-frame indel	PVS1 PM4, BP3	
Computational & Predictive Data	(3) In-silico predictions?Potential splicing impa	PP3, BP4 BP7		
	(4) Constraint metrics Gene/regional level	PP2, BP1		
Functional Knowledge	(5) Residue/Domain? Ho	PM1		
	(6) Variant effect function	PS3, BS3		
Clinical Knowledge (published, or case/sample specific)	(7) Interpretation Databases - ClinVar		PP5 , PM5, PS1	
	(8) Previously reported cases?		PS4, BS2, BP5	
	(9) Phenotype specificity		PP4	
	(10) Segregation? De nov	PP1, BS4. PS2, PM6		

Tier I: Variants of Strong Clinical Significance

Therapeutic, prognostic & diagnostic

Level A Evidence

FDA-approved therapy Included in professional guidelines

Level B Evidence

Well-powered studies with consensus from experts in the field

Tier II: Variants of Potential Clinical Significance

Therapeutic, prognostic & diagnostic

Tier III: Variants of Unknown Clinical Significance

Level C Evidence

FDA-approved therapies for different tumor types or investigational therapies

Multiple small published studies with some consensus

Level D Evidence

Preclinical trials or a few case reports without consensus Not observed at a significant allele frequency in the general or specific subpopulation databases, or pan-cancer or tumor-specific variant databases

No convincing published evidence of cancer association

Tier IV: Benign or Likely Benign Variants

Observed at significant allele frequency in the general or specific subpopulation databases

No existing published evidence of cancer association

1 DOKT

Variant Interpretation Framework Summary

		BENIGN (CRITERIA	PATHOGENIC CRITERIA			
Strength of evidence		Strong	Supporting	Supporting	Moderate	Strong	Very Strong
Odds of Pathogenicity*		-18.7	-2.08	2.08	4.33	18.7	350.0
Evidence Category and Corresponding ACMG/AMP Codes	Population Data	<i>BA1</i> + BS1 BS2			PM2	PS4	
	Allelic Evidence & Cosegregation Data		BP2	PP1			
		BS4	BP5		PM3 PM6	PS2	
	Computation & Predictive Data		BP1 BP3 BP4 BP7	PP2 PP3	PM1 PM4 PM5	PS1	PVS1
	Functional Data	BS3				PS3	
	Other		BP6	PP4 PP5			

benign (B) or pathogenic (P) classification (first letter of code); Relative strength (second letter of code): VS very strong, S strong, M moderate, P supporting

Germline and Somatic Classification and Catalogue Differences





Somatic mutations

- Occur in nongermline tissues
- Cannot be inherited

Nonheritable

Mutation in tumor only (for example, breast)

Germline mutations

- Present in egg or sperm
- Can be inherited
- Cause cancer family syndrome







gnomAD browser

Exome Aggregation Consortium (ExAC)

125,748 exome sequences 15,708 whole-genome sequences 141,456 individuals



genome aggregation database

Search by gene, region, or variant

Please sign in to Varsome for the lab section



The human genetics search engine

Supported by the global community of geneticists

Search for variants, genes, transcripts, publications, d		Germline	Somatic
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Background Reading

Multifactorial contributions to disease etiology are interrogated by statistical means (e.g., genome-wide association studies), but the clinical utility of this information is currently limited by its poor predictive power.

In contrast, Mendelian or monogenic disorders are characterized by rare variants in a single gene with a high impact on disease risk

assertion of variant pathogenicity for a Mendelian disorder implies causality, although this does not always correlate with disease manifestations in a given individual, due to incomplete <u>penetrance</u> and variable expressivity.

The American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics (ACMG), together with the Association for Molecular Pathology (AMP), established guidelines for reporting and interpreting sequence variation in an effort to standardize clinical evaluation of genomic information.

The original 2000 guidelines established five categories of classifications but provided little guidance on evidence selection and weighting.³ Revision of these guidelines in 2007 incorporated a sixth category of variants: those associated with clinical symptoms, but that are unexpected or unknown to cause disease (e.g., risk variants)

The 2007 version also recommended that clinical laboratories utilize standardized variant nomenclature and include testing limitations in reports. These initial iterations were qualitative and assigned variants to categories based on certain features (e.g., reported in the literature or observed in other affected individuals).

Variability in the interpretation of variants between laboratories, in the setting of massively increased data generation due to next-generation sequencing, necessitated more thorough guidance and ultimately led to the development of a more structured approach for variant interpretation in 2015

updated guidelines establish a 5-tier classification system (pathogenic, likely pathogenic, uncertain significance, likely benign, or benign) and specify lines of evidence necessary for clinical interpretation. Critically, the guidelines include a relative measure of strength (stand-alone, very strong, strong, moderate, or supporting) for each piece of evidence for or against pathogenicity

Additionally, the 2015 guidelines present rules for combining evidence to make a given assertion, defaulting to variant of uncertain significance (VUS) when these rules are not met or conflicting evidence exists.

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) funded endeavors, such as the Clinical Genome Resource (ClinGen)¹¹ and ClinVar,¹² are developing curation tools that incorporate the ACMG/AMP guidelines to assist in variant interpretation and data sharing.

Population-level <u>minor allele frequency</u> (MAF) data is critical because disease-causing alleles for most Mendelian disorders are expected to be rare, and five ACMG/AMP criteria (BA1, BS1, BS2, PM2, and PS4) utilize these data. It is important to consider disease prevalence, penetrance, and genetic (locus and allelic) heterogeneity when applying any of these criteria, although such information is often unknown or inaccurate due to ascertainment bias. A MAF >5% in any global population is considered a "stand-alone" benign classification (BA1) for the vast majority of Mendelian disorders, with the exception of well-known founder alleles.⁵ The most frequently applied ACMG/AMP criteria across 99 variants assessed by nine laboratories were PM2 (absent from control populations) and BS1 (MAF higher than expected for disorder).⁷

To date, Exome Aggregation Consortium (ExAC) and Genome Aggregation Database (**gnomAD**) are the largest and most ethnically comprehensive datasets of variant allele frequency. However, even these datasets do not represent all populations and it is important to consider population size and error in MAF estimates when assessing thresholds for BS1. Furthermore, inadequate population representation and lack of phenotypic details may cause difficulties in applying BS1 or BS2 (variant for highly penetrant condition seen in healthy individual) criteria. In addition, the data quality of any population allele frequency database should be evaluated for sufficient depth of coverage to ensure accurate MAF estimates.

Allelic evidence and cosegregation

Due to the Mendelian patterns of inheritance seen in most monogenic disorders, evidence of segregation in family members (or lack thereof) can inform variant interpretation. The ACMG/AMP guidelines include a number of criteria (PS2, PM6, PP1, and BS4) that apply to segregation evidence. The de novo occurrence of a variant is considered strong evidence of pathogenicity (PS2) when (1) maternity and paternity are confirmed, (2) the variant is in a gene associated with a condition consistent with the patient's phenotype, and (3) there is no past family history of disease (i.e., unaffected parents). When the first criterion is not met, the evidence is considered moderate strength (PM6). The second and third criteria apply for both PS2 and PM6, because all humans are expected to have approximately 44–82 de novo single-nucleotide variants (SNVs) of which 1–2 are expected to be exonic.¹⁸

Computational and predictive criteria

A large number of the ACMG/AMP variant interpretation criteria (PVS1, PS1, PM4, PM5, PP3, BP1, BP3, BP4, and BP7) are categorized as predictive or computational evidence.⁵ These criteria relate to the type of variant in question and its predicted impact on the protein product based on knowledge about the protein's function, structure, and evolutionary conservation. Notably, PP2 (missense variant in a gene in which missense changes are rare) and PM1 (mutational hotspot/functional domain), which are categorized as "functional data," could also be regarded as "predictive" evidence (see Fig. <u>1</u>). Together, these 11 criteria provide a way to predict variant pathogenicity by extrapolating from what we know about the functional and clinical impact of similar variants, with respect to both variant type and location within a protein

Functional criteria

Data from well-established functional assays showing a deleterious effect (PS3) or no effect (BS3) are considered strong evidence in the ACMG/AMP variant interpretation framework.⁵ As with in silico tools, functional assays are poised to tackle the reclassification of many rare missense VUSs because they are not dependent on clinical data.^{22,26} However, lack of guidance on what constitutes a well-established assay has resulted in subjective application of these criteria, and interlaboratory interpretation differences are not always resolved through data sharing.⁸ Often, assays are performed in research laboratories, which may not meet clinical laboratory standards. For sufficient predictive power, functional assays require extensive reproducibility and experimental rigor, including benchmarking against multiple variants with definitive clinical interpretations as determined by genetic or other evidence.

While the 2017 ACMG/AMP sequence variant interpretation guidelines establish a foundation for uniform and transparent variant analysis, there is still room for improvement and refinement. The guidelines are expected to "evolve as technology and knowledge improve," and many groups have published their experiences and their critiques and/or modifications to the guidelines