ALS onset is influenced by the burden of rare variants in known ALS genes

Janet Cady, BS[1], **Peggy Allred, DPT**[2], **Taha Bali, MD**[1], **Alan Pestronk, MD**[1], **Alison Goate, PhD**[1,3,4], **Timothy M. Miller, MD, PhD**[1,4], **Rob Mitra, PhD**[5], **John Ravits, MD**[6], **Matthew B. Harms, MD**[1,4], and **Robert H. Baloh, MD, PhD**[2]

[1]Department of Neurology; Washington University. St. Louis, MO, USA

[2]Department of Neurology; Cedars Sinai Medical Center. Los Angeles, CA, USA

[3]Department of Psychiatry; Washington University. St. Louis, MO, USA

[4]Hope Center for Neurological Disorders; Washington University. St. Louis, MO, USA

[5]Department of Genetics; Washington University. St. Louis, MO, USA

[6]Department of Neurosciences; University of California, San Diego. La Jolla, CA, USA

Abstract

Objective—To define the genetic landscape of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) and assess the contribution of possible oligogenic inheritance, we aimed to comprehensively sequence 17 known ALS genes in 391 ALS patients from the United States.

Methods—Targeted pooled-sample sequencing was used to identify variants in 17 ALS genes. Fragment size analysis was used to define *ATXN2* and *C9ORF72* expansion sizes. Genotype-phenotype correlations were made with individual variants and total burden of variants. Rare variant associations for risk of ALS were investigated at both the single variant and gene level.

Results—64.3% of familial and 27.8% of sporadic subjects carried potentially pathogenic novel or rare coding variants identified by sequencing or an expanded repeat in *C9ORF72* or *ATXN2*. 3.8% of subjects had variants in more than one ALS gene, and these individuals had disease onset

ten years earlier (p=0.0046) than subjects with variants in a single gene. The number of potentially pathogenic coding variants did not influence disease duration or site of onset.

Interpretation—Rare and potentially pathogenic variants in known ALS genes are present in over 25% of apparently sporadic and 64% of familial patients, significantly higher than previous reports using less comprehensive sequencing approaches. A significant number of subjects carried variants in more than one gene, which influenced the age of symptom onset and supports oligogenic inheritance as relevant to disease pathogenesis.

INTRODUCTION

Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) is caused by degeneration of upper and lower motor neurons which results in progressive paralysis and ultimately death. As the most common motor neuron disease, the incidence of ALS is 0.44–3.2/100,000 person years[1] and data from the National ALS Registry demonstrates a prevalence of 3.9/100,000 cases in the US.[2] 5–10% of ALS patients have a family history of the disease (FALS)[3–5] and the genetic analysis of these FALS pedigrees has fueled the discovery of more than 20 ALS genes-some with high-penetrance and others with lower penetrance or tentative associations to disease (reviewed in Harms and Baloh, Andersen and Al-Chalabi).[6,7] Mutations in many of these genes are also found in patients without a family history of ALS (sporadic ALS, or SALS), with high-penetrance mutations found in ~10%.[8–14] Recently, the heritability of SALS has been estimated to be 12–21% from genome-wide association studies[15,16] and as high as 61% in twin studies[17] suggesting additional genetic influences on ALS risk remain to be identified.

The emergence of next-generation sequencing techniques has driven down sequencing costs and made it feasible for studies to abandon sequential candidate gene sequencing in favor of analyzing larger numbers of genes simultaneously. One of the more powerful and cost-effective sequencing techniques for screening moderate number of genes in medium sized cohorts is termed pooled-sample or pooled-DNA sequencing (Figure 1).[18] In this method, DNA samples from multiple patients are pooled prior to PCR amplification of target regions. PCR products are then combined and sequenced *en masse* using short-read/next-generation sequencing platforms.[18] Analysis programs such as SPLINTER utilize statistical algorithms to identify potential variants with high sensitivity, and are capable of detecting single alleles in pools of up to 500 individuals.[19] Pooled-sample sequencing therefore overcomes the resource and time-intensive drawbacks of traditional Sanger sequencing approaches at a fraction of the cost.[18,19]

As a result of next-generation sequencing advances, studies have begun addressing the relative contributions of individual genes in ALS subjects with and without family histories, revealing significant heterogeneity between populations.[8–12,20] Furthermore, screening multiple ALS genes in parallel has also uncovered a number of patients that carry potentially pathogenic variants in more than one known ALS gene.[12] The unexpected frequency of this phenomenon has raised the hypothesis that some fraction of apparently sporadic ALS[8,12] could be caused by the co-occurrence of two or more genetic variants with additive or synergistic deleterious effects. Each variant alone could be tolerated but when combined

with a second variant would exceed the threshold required for neurodegeneration. Although several papers have reported cases with multiple variants in ALS genes, no effect on phenotype or disease manifestations has been noted.[9,12]

We have used pooled-sample sequencing as the major technique to analyze 17 ALS-associated genes in 391 ALS subjects from a United States clinic-based cohort. In creating the most comprehensively-sequenced North American ALS cohort to date, this study measures the burden of rare and novel variants in known ALS genes and defines the frequency of potential oligogenic cases.

METHODS

Subjects

Between 2005 and 2011, patients diagnosed with ALS at the Washington University Neuromuscular Disease Center in St. Louis, Missouri (WUSM) or at the Virginia Mason Medical Center (VMMC) were systematically asked to participate in genetic studies. All subjects provided informed and written consent for clinical-genetic correlation studies of ALS that had been approved by institutional ethics review boards. At WUSM, subjects with or without a family history of ALS were included, while only sporadic cases were enrolled at VMMC. All subjects had been evaluated by neuromuscular specialists and diagnosed with probable or definite ALS according to El Escorial criteria.[21] A subset of included subjects (mostly with FALS) also underwent sequencing for one or more ALS genes at commercial reference laboratories, which identified 6 subjects with *SOD1* or *TARDBP* mutations.

Genetic investigations

Sequencing of ALS-associated genes

All coding exons and 20 flanking bases of *SOD1, FUS, TARDBP, ANG, OPTN, VCP, VAPB, DAO, DCTN1, FIG4, SETX, TAF15, EWSR1, UBQLN2*, and *SQSTM1* were sequenced in our cohort using the pooled-sample method as previously described in detail and schematized in Figure 1.[18,22] Genomic DNA was extracted from whole blood or saliva of individual subjects according to standard protocols. Double-stranded DNA was carefully quantified by fluorimetry based on SYBR gold fluorescence. Pooled-sample gDNA pools were then created by combining equimolar amounts of DNA from multiple individuals: two pools containing 21 samples each were used to validate the method, while the remaining samples were divided into 8 pools of 30–50 samples each.

Primer pairs for all coding exons and at least 20bp of flanking sequence were designed using Primer3 (http://biotools.umassmed.edu/bioapps/primer3_www.cgi) and the RefSeq gene annotations found in GRCh37/hg19 (accession numbers NM_000454.4, NM_004960.3, NM_007375.3, NM_001145.4, NM_001008211.1, NM_007126.3, NM_004738.4, NM_001917.4, NM_004082.4, NM_014845.5, NM_015046.5, NM_139215.1, NM_013986.3, NM_013444.3, and NM_003900.4). Primer sequences are available upon request. Amplicons from each pool were sequenced on one lane of HiSeq2000 (Illumina), with single-end 42bp reads. *UBQLN2* and *SQSTM1* were reported after initial sequencing was underway and all subjects were sequenced as part of 6 pools across two lanes of

Illumina HiSeq2000. Exon 1 of *SQSTM1* was not sufficiently covered using pooled-sample methods and required Sanger sequencing of each individual subject. Mutations in *PFN1* were reported after analysis was already underway so this gene was not assessed.[23]

In total, 144 PCR amplicons were required to amplify 193 exons of the 15 genes analyzed by pooled-sample sequencing. Twelve lanes of next-generation sequencing yielded 1.2 billion total reads (~3 million per subject) to produce a coverage depth exceeding 67× per allele for all amplicons across all pools. Most amplicons showed considerably higher coverage (range: 67–987, median=474.76, IQR=355.84–568.92).

Sensitivity for single alleles (i.e. heterozygous variants present in a single individual within a given pool) was 98% (100% in 12 of 16 pools and 92% in the remainder), as determined by the detection rate of positive control singleton variants. We also compared pooled-sample results to whole-exome data for 35 subjects and found no missed variants in targeted genes. Finally, we detected all six previously-found mutations with the correctly assigned singleton frequencies.

To assess the false positive rate at the low allele frequencies in which we were interested, we performed validation genotyping of 99 allele calls for 67 non-synonymous or splice-site variants that were either rare (<1% minor allele frequency) or absent in population databases. 13 of 99 calls (8 SNPs, including 4 SNPs that were identified and validated in other pools) were not validated by subsequent genotyping, resulting in a false-positive rate of 13%. The false-positives included 5 calls that were true in other pools.

After filtering and validation, 65 rare or novel coding variants were identified (63 by pooled-sample sequencing and two by direct sequencing of exon 1 of *SQSTM1*). Variants were identified in all sequenced genes except for *UBQLN2*.

Bioinformatic analysis

Sequence alignment and variant calling were performed using "short indel prediction by large deviation inference and nonlinear true frequency estimation by recursion" (SPLINTER).[19] The SPLINTER program generates an error model based on the negative control for each run. The error model is used to calculate a p-value for each SNP that is detected. SPLINTER calculates the p-value cutoff that has the highest sensitivity and specificity to distinguish true variants in the positive control vector and uses the ratio of sequencing reads with and without variant nucleotides to estimate the frequency of a given variant within a pool.

All variants called by SPLINTER were filtered for variants within exons or the 10 flanking bases and then visually inspected using Integrated Genomics Viewer(IGV)[24,25] after realignment to Hg19 using Novoalign (http://www.novocraft.com) and SAMtools.[26] Variants were annotated using SeattleSeq (http://sngs.washington.edu/SeattleSeqAnnotation131/), SIFT (http://sift.jcvi.org/), MutationTaster (http://www.mutationtaster.org/), and PolyPhen2 (http://genetics.bwh.harvard.edu/pph2/). The effect of splice-site mutations was predicted by Human Splicing Finder (http://www.umd.be/HSF). Population frequencies for each variant were determined in dbSNP, the 1000

Genomes Project, and the NHLBI Exome Sequencing Project version ESP6500 exome variant server (ESP6500) (http://ESP6500.gs.washington.edu/ESP6500/ [1 Dec 2013]).

Variant validation and classification

Novel and rare (<1% MAF in ESP6500) non-synonymous and splicing variants that passed visual inspection were genotyped in individual DNA samples by either Sequenom or Sanger sequencing to both validate the variant and determine which subject(s) carry them. Validated variants were assigned to four categories based on their presence in the ALS literature and frequencies in population databases. Category 1 variants have been previously reported in ALS patients but are absent from population databases. Category 2 variants have been reported in ALS patients but are present in population databases. Category 3 variants are novel (i.e. they have not been reported in ALS patients or population databases). Category 4 variants have not been reported in ALS patients but are present in population databases. Pathogenicity prediction algorithms were not utilized for category assignments because of their poor track-record in predicting disease-causing mutations.[27,28] All four categories of variants were considered to be potentially pathogenic mutations.

C9ORF72 repeat expansion detection

All subjects were also screened for *C9ORF72* repeat expansions using standard repeat-primed PCR.[29] Many subjects in this study overlapped with those screened for our previous publication on the topic[22], but are again included here to demonstrate the relative frequencies of individual genes in the cohort and to investigate patients for multiple mutations.

ATXN2 repeat size

The CAG repeat region was amplified using primers 5′ FAM-CCC CGC CCG GCG TGC GAG CCG GTG TAT G 3′ and 5′ CGG GCT TGC GGA CAT TGG 3′. PCR was performed with PhusionHigh-Fidelity PCR Master Mix with HF Buffer (New England BioLabs) with cycles as follows: 30 seconds 98°C, 35 cycles (10 seconds 98°C, 30 seconds 72°C), and 2 minutes 72°C. Repeat lengths were determined by fluorescent capillary gel electrophoresis. While intermediate-length alleles were originally considered to be 27–33 repeats[30], subsequent meta-analysis has shown 29 repeats to be the optimal cutoff to distinguish ALS subjects from controls.[31] Therefore we considered repeat sizes of 29–33 to be of intermediate length.

Statistical Analysis

Disease characteristics were compared in subjects possessing different numbers of mutations in ALS genes using R v3.0.1-Wilcoxon rank-sum tests were used to assess age of onset and survival, with Fisher's exact tests were used to analyze site of symptom onset.

To identify rare and novel SNPs that might be over-represented in sporadic ALS subjects, we used Fisher's exact tests to compare each candidate SNV's allele frequency in sporadic ALS versus controls. By genotyping variants across a range of frequencies, we found that SPLINTER predicted frequencies and genotyped frequencies were highly correlated ($r2=0.9596$) as in prior studies[19] (data not shown). Therefore SPLINTER-predicted

frequencies were used for ALS SNPs that were not genotyped. We included only SALS samples with self-reported non-Hispanic white backgrounds (n=309) and used subjects with European ancestry in ESP6500 and the 1000 Genomes Project (1000genomes.org)[32] as our control population(n=4679). Variants were selected for replication based on p-values and potential functional significance. Selected variants were genotyped in 552 ALS cases and 464 neurologically normal controls from the Coriell DNA repository. Tests were performed in R v3.0.1.

Gene-based tests comparing the burden of rare variants in cases compared to controls were performed using SKAT-O.[33] We included the same individuals as were used for single-variant testing. Only missense and nonsense variants with MAF<0.1 in the control cohort were included in analysis. We used a Bonferonni correction to account for multiple testing (α=0.0036). *UBQLN2* was excluded from analysis since SKAT does not handle data from the X-chromosome.

RESULTS

Subject Characteristics

Demographic and disease characteristics for the 391 sequenced subjects with ALS are shown in Table 1. Age at onset, site of first symptom, and overall disease survival were similar to other population-based and referral center-based cohorts (reviewed in Harms and Baloh).[6] 42 subjects (10.7%) had a family history of ALS, which is comparable to other ALS referral center-based cohorts.

Variant Identification and Classification

Coverage of targeted bases was   130 fold for each subject. Sensitivity for detecting a variant present as a single allele within the pool of normal alleles averaged 98% (100% in 12 of 16 pools and 92% in the remainder). Based on validation genotyping, 13% of variants were determined to be false-positives.

In total, we found 65 rare or novel coding or splice-site variants (Table 2). One-third of these (n=23) were previously reported in ALS patients. Ten of these ALS-associated variants were not found in population databases of genetic variation (Category 1) and review of the literature showed that all of them are well-established causal mutations. The remainder of variants previously reported in ALS (n=13) were found to be present in population databases (Category 2). With the exception of *SOD1* D91A (where causality is clear), these variants lacked conclusive evidence of causation in the literature. Two-thirds (n=42) of variants we identified have not been previously reported in ALS, including 17 that are absent from population databases (Category 3) and 25 that are rare in population databases (Category 4).

Prevalence of variants in ALS genes

We considered all 65 rare and novel variants identified by sequencing to be potentially pathogenic. 83 subjects (21.2% overall, 35.7% in FALS and 19.5% in SALS) carried at least one of these variants. The *C9ORF72* repeat expansion (found in 8.7% of subjects, n=34) and

ATXN2 intermediate-length CAG repeats (found in 3.1% of subjects, n=12) were also considered to be potentially pathogenic. In total, 124 subjects (31.7% overall; 64.3% across all categories of FALS, 27.8% in SALS) carried one or more of these potentially pathogenic variants (Supplementary Table 1), a higher number than reported in many prior studies.[8–12,14]

The proportion of subjects carrying a potentially pathogenic variant was heavily influenced by the strength of evidence for familial transmission of ALS (Table 3), with the highest rate of variant discovery in definite FALS (81.6%). The frequency of variants declined with less evidence for transmission, but even 27.8% of sporadic/simplex subjects were carriers

We identified 4 sporadic subjects with potentially recessive causes of their ALS (Table 4). One subject was homozygous for *SOD1* p.D91A (D90A), while three others carried two mutations in *SETX*. One subject tested homozygous for *SETX* p.I2547T, but we did not exclude the possibility of a deletion on one allele. The two additional subjects could each be compound heterozygotes comprised of a rare variant (p.C1554G or p.I2547T with 0.3% and 0.5% MAF in population database respectively) and a novel variant (p.R168Q or p.T14I respectively). The subject carrying p.I2547T and p.T14I was also heterozygous for *TAF15* p.R408C which has previously been reported in a subject with SALS.[34] Due to the absence of additional family members for segregation or tissue for cDNA sequencing, we were unable to determine if these *SETX* variants are in *cis* or *trans*. Because recessive mutations in *SETX* are associated with ataxia-ocular apraxia type 2 (OMIM 606002) and *SETX*-associated ALS is dominantly inherited, we reviewed the medical records of these 3 individuals. All three showed typical ALS disease course without clinically apparent eye movement abnormalities or ataxia.

We also identified a pedigree with FALS with independently-segregating causative mutations (Figure 2). The proband, three affected siblings and a first cousin once-removed all tested positive for the *C9ORF72* repeat expansion. Another second first cousin once-removed was diagnosed with ALS at another center test but tested negative for the expansion, including by Southern blot (data not shown). Instead, this individual was found to carry a heterozygous *SOD1* p.D91A mutation detected by pooled-sample sequencing.

Prevalence of potential oligogenic subjects

We assessed the number of genes with potentially pathogenic rare variants in each individual. Fifteen subjects (3.8% overall, 14% in FALS, 2.6% in SALS) harbored potentially pathogenic variants in at least two ALS genes: 11 with variants in two ALS genes, while 4 had variants in three genes each (Table 4).

Six potentially oligogenic subjects had a family history of ALS subjects and in all cases one of their variants was either the *C9ORF72* repeat expansion or a missense variant in *SOD1* in combination with additional rare or novel variant(s), several of which have also been previously reported in ALS subjects. Interestingly, one FALS proband carried 3 variants, each of which has previously been reported as pathogenic: *SOD1* p.G38R, *ANG* p.P136L, and *DCTN1* p.T1249I.

Nine apparently sporadic subjects had variants in multiple genes (Table 4), but only two were well-established ALS mutations: *TARDBP* p.G287S was found in combination with *VAPB* p.M170I while a subject with juvenile-onset ALS carried a *de novo FUS* p.P525L mutation with a paternally-inherited intermediate-sized CAG expansion in *ATXN2*. Two SALS patients carried multiple ALS-associated variants that are rare in population databases (*ANG* p.K41I with *VAPB* p.M170I and *TAF15* p.R408C with *SETX* p.I2547T and *SETX* p.T14I).

Correlation of variant genes with disease characteristics

In an oligogenic model of disease, the additive or synergistic effects of multiple variants can influence not only the risk of developing disease, but also phenotypic manifestations of the disease. Age at symptom onset was significantly earlier in cases carrying variants in multiple genes (median=46, IQR=39–61) compared to all other subjects (median=61, IQR=51–70, p=0.0046) and when compared to cases with mutations in just one gene (median=60, IQR=48–60, p=0.017). Even when the subject with juvenile onset was removed a difference of 10 years earlier remained (median=50.5, IQR=40.25–61.5, p=0.013 against all others and p=0.041 against other single-gene variant carriers). Furthermore, there was a weak, but statistically significant negative correlation between age of onset and the number of genes with variants (spearman's rho=−0.11, p=0.024). The number of ALS genes with variants did not influence disease duration or site of onset in our cohort.

Rare variants as modifiers of ALS risk

We also used our sequencing results to search for single variants in known ALS genes that increased or decreased ALS risk. To do so, we analyzed all coding variants found in our ALS cohort and also present in population databases (n=61, with 47 having a population MAF <1%). Three SNPs in *SETX* (rs1183768, rs543573, and rs2296871) were in perfect linkage disequilibrium and were considered to be one signal represented by rs2296871. We included only ALS subjects of European ancestry and compared to controls of European ancestry from ESP6500 and the 1000 Genomes Project. SPLINTER-predicted allele frequencies were used for common variants that were not confirmed by genotyping in ALS subjects. Using a Bonferonni-corrected significance level of 8.2×10^{-4}, 3 variants were significantly more common in our ALS discovery cohort (rs3739927 and rs882709 in *SETX*, and rs41311143 in *EWSR1*). To follow up, we genotyped these 3 SNPs and 28 additional candidate variants in a validation cohort of 552 sporadic ALS cases and 464 controls from Coriell reference panels. However, none of the 31 tested variants showed a significant association with ALS in either direction (Supplementary Table 2).

We also asked whether the burden of rare coding variants in any of the tested ALS genes was higher in sporadic subjects compared to controls using SKAT (Table 5).[33] After correcting for multiple tests ($\alpha=3.57 \times 10^{-3}$), *SOD1* was the only gene that showed a significant association (p=1.59×10^{-5}) while *TARDBP* and *VAPB* approached statistical significance (p=5.57×10^{-3} and p=5.99×10^{-3} respectively).

DISCUSSION

Rapid progress toward defining the genetic landscape of ALS has been fueled by the emergence of next-generation sequencing. In this study, we used the efficiency and power of pooled-sample sequencing to investigate the frequency of pathogenic and potentially-pathogenic variants in known ALS genes in a large cohort of US patients. Our approach produced highly accurate sequence data for 15 known genes in a time, sample, and cost-efficient manner. We estimated that this study required 83% less DNA per subject and cost 10% of performing the equivalent study by traditional Sanger sequencing. In doing so, we have generated the most comprehensively sequenced North American cohort to date.

In this group of subjects we identified 27 novel variants (i.e. not found in databases of variation) and an additional 38 that are very rare in control populations. Not surprisingly, the highest rate of variant detection occurred in families with the strongest ALS histories: we found explanatory mutations in 80% of these pedigrees. This rate is higher than many previous reports of all FALS[8–14] and partially stems from our use of a strict definition of familial ALS favoring pedigrees with clearly dominant transmission patterns that undoubtedly enrich for Mendelian genes. Our elevated variant detection rate is also influenced by the large number genes analyzed in each family. Because our cohort was a clinic-based, we cannot address whether differences in populations are also involved.

Although the frequency of variant detection in our sporadic ALS subjects was lower than in familial ALS, it was still 28%. This is considerably higher than other studies [8–12,14], likely due in part to the large number of genes we sequenced. In support of this, we note that the frequency of variants in commonly sequenced genes (e.g. *C9ORF72, SOD1, TARDBP*) was within previously reported ranges. To directly compare our findings with a similar study of an Irish population[9], we limited both data sets to genes shared between the two studies and only included novel variants (i.e. not seen in any population database). The total number of subjects found with at least one potentially pathogenic mutation was 16.4% in this study compared to 12.8% in the Irish population. This difference is not statistically significant (p=0.12) and was driven by the absence of SOD1 mutations in the Irish cohort. These broad differences in populations need to be given appropriate consideration when genetic testing or counseling is being provided to patients.

Based on previous reports of oligogenic inheritance in ALS, we looked for subjects with potentially pathogenic variants in more than one ALS gene. We found mutations in at least two ALS genes in 3.8% of our subjects (14% in FALS, 2.6% in SALS). This rate is higher than in prior reports, but direct comparisons are prevented by differences in i) which genes were sequenced, ii) how complete variant ascertainment was, iii) relative numbers of familial and sporadic cases, and iv) which variants were considered to be potentially pathogenic.[9,12] In most cases, one of the identified variants is a known mutation with clearly established pathogenicity, however many of the additional variants are of unknown significance. It is possible that these additional variants co-occur with pathogenic mutations by chance. However, the fact that subjects with potentially pathogenic variants in more than one gene had disease onset 10 years earlier than other subjects supports a model of ALS

where the additive or synergistic effects of multiple defective genes increases risk and influences disease phenotype.

This study evaluated known ALS genes only. With many efforts underway to generate exome and genome-wide variant data on large numbers of ALS patients, these types of interactions should become easier to detect and validate. These large datasets should also allow unbiased searches for new ALS genes using rare variant burden testing. As a test of this principle, we asked whether rare variant burden testing would identify any of the known ALS genes we sequenced. In our modestly-sized cohort we demonstrated a significant association for *SOD1* and suggestive associations for *TARDBP* and *VAPB*. We also noticed an abundance of variants in the *SETX* gene, an intriguing finding that was also evident in a prior study.[9] These findings predict that well-powered genome-wide studies will identify new ALS genes.

Our study also highlights important lessons regarding mutation screening in ALS. First, a significant number of individuals will harbor more than one potentially pathogenic mutation. This fact dramatically influences estimates of transmission risk and even prognosis. Therefore, comprehensive screening of known genes is preferable to single-gene testing and made more cost-effective by next-generation approaches to sequencing. Second, as our pedigree with independently segregating *SOD1* and *C9ORF72* mutations demonstrates, even once a causative mutation has been identified in a pedigree, each affected individual should be sequenced for confirmation. Third, despite the frequency with which our study found variants in ALS subjects, 36% of FALS and 74% of SALS subjects had no variants in any of 17 ALS genes we analyzed. Efforts are therefore needed to identify additional genes influencing ALS risk.

Finally, we note that many of the novel and rare variants identified by this study and others are of unknown significance and will require further study to validate a possible contribution to ALS pathogenesis. The complexity of determining pathogenicity of variants is highlighted by the 13 variants we identified that had been previously associated with ALS but have since been found in control databases at rates higher than expected for moderate or high penetrance mutations. Although these variants could represent mutations with reduced penetrance, or the presence of pre-symptomatic individuals in control populations, they most likely result from including limited controls in the original studies. In fact, many variants previously reported as pathogenic for ALS and other diseases are now found in the 1000 Genomes Project or the Exome Sequencing Project at frequencies exceeding those expected for moderately or highly penetrant mutations.[35] To prevent the literature from becoming confused with disease-associated variants that are not pathogenic, we support increased attention to variants are reported in disease populations, including the creation of levels of genetic evidence for pathogenicity as recently proposed.[36]

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

References

1. Abhinav K, Stanton B, Johnston C, et al. Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis in SouthEast England: a population-based study. The South-East England register for amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (SEALS Registry). Neuroepidemiology. 2007; 29(1–2):44–48. [PubMed: 17898523]

2. Mehta P, Antao V, Kaye W, et al. Prevalence of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis - United States, 2010–2011. Morb Mortal Wkly Rep Surveill Summ Wash DC 2002. 2014; 63 (Suppl 7):1–14.

3. Gros-Louis F, Gaspar C, Rouleau GA. Genetics of familial and sporadic amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Biochim Biophys Acta. 2006; 1762(11–12):956–972. [PubMed: 16503123]

4. Kurland LT, Mulder DW. Epidemiologic investigations of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. 2. Familial aggregations indicative of dominant inheritance. I. Neurology. 1955; 5(3):182–196. [PubMed: 14356347]

5. Kurland LT, Mulder DW. Epidemiologic investigations of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. 2. Familial aggregations indicative of dominant inheritance II. Neurology. 1955; 5(4):249–268. [PubMed: 14370376]

6. Harms MB, Baloh RH. Clinical neurogenetics: amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Neurol Clin. 2013; 31(4):929–950. [PubMed: 24176417]

7. Andersen PM, Al-Chalabi A. Clinical genetics of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: what do we really know? Nat Rev Neurol. 2011; 7(11):603–615. [PubMed: 21989245]

8. Lattante S, Conte A, Zollino M, et al. Contribution of major amyotrophic lateral sclerosis genes to the etiology of sporadic disease. Neurology. 2012; 79(1):66–72. [PubMed: 22722621]

9. Kenna KP, McLaughlin RL, Byrne S, et al. Delineating the genetic heterogeneity of ALS using targeted high-throughput sequencing. J Med Genet. 2013; 50(11):776–783. [PubMed: 23881933]

10. Chiò A, Calvo A, Mazzini L, et al. Extensive genetics of ALS: a population-based study in Italy. Neurology. 2012; 79(19):1983–1989. [PubMed: 23100398]

11. Kwon M-J, Baek W, Ki C-S, et al. Screening of the SOD1, FUS, TARDBP, ANG, and OPTN mutations in Korean patients with familial and sporadic ALS. Neurobiol Aging. 2012; 33(5):1017, e17–23. [PubMed: 22244934]

12. Van Blitterswijk M, van Es MA, Hennekam EAM, et al. Evidence for an oligogenic basis of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Hum Mol Genet. 2012; 21(17):3776–3784. [PubMed: 22645277]

13. Conte A, Lattante S, Luigetti M, et al. Classification of familial amyotrophic lateral sclerosis by family history: effects on frequency of genes mutation. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 2012; 83(12):1201–1203. [PubMed: 22773853]

14. Renton AE, Chiò A, Traynor BJ. State of play in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis genetics. Nat Neurosci. 2014; 17(1):17–23. [PubMed: 24369373]

15. Fogh I, Ratti A, Gellera C, et al. A genome-wide association meta-analysis identifies a novel locus at 17q11.2 associated with sporadic amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Hum Mol Genet. 2014; 23(8):2220–2231. [PubMed: 24256812]

16. Keller MF, Ferrucci L, Singleton AB, et al. Genome-Wide Analysis of the Heritability of Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis. JAMA Neurol. 2014; 71(9):1123. cited 2014 Oct 11. [PubMed: 25023141]

17. Al-Chalabi A, Fang F, Hanby MF, et al. An estimate of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis heritability using twin data. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 2010; 81(12):1324–1326. [PubMed: 20861059]

18. Druley TE, Vallania FLM, Wegner DJ, et al. Quantification of rare allelic variants from pooled genomic DNA. Nat Methods. 2009; 6(4):263–265. [PubMed: 19252504]

19. Vallania FLM, Druley TE, Ramos E, et al. High-throughput discovery of rare insertions and deletions in large cohorts. Genome Res. 2010; 20(12):1711–1718. [PubMed: 21041413]

20. Brown JA, Min J, Staropoli JF, et al. SOD1, ANG, TARDBP and FUS mutations in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: a United States clinical testing lab experience. Amyotroph Lateral Scler Off Publ World Fed Neurol Res Group Mot Neuron Dis. 2012; 13(2):217–222.

21. Brooks BR. El Escorial World Federation of Neurology criteria for the diagnosis of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Subcommittee on Motor Neuron Diseases/Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis of the World Federation of Neurology Research Group on Neuromuscular Diseases and the El Escorial "Clinical limits of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis" workshop contributors. J Neurol Sci. 1994; 124 (Suppl):96–107. [PubMed: 7807156]

22. Harms MB, Cady J, Zaidman C, et al. Lack of C9ORF72 coding mutations supports a gain of function for repeat expansions in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Neurobiol Aging. 2013; 34(9): 2234, e13–19. [PubMed: 23597494]

23. Wu C-H, Fallini C, Ticozzi N, et al. Mutations in the profilin 1 gene cause familial amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Nature. 2012; 488(7412):499–503. cited 2014 Jul 7. [PubMed: 22801503]

24. Robinson JT, Thorvaldsdóttir H, Winckler W, et al. Integrative genomics viewer. Nat Biotechnol. 2011; 29(1):24–26. cited 2013 Jun 13. [PubMed: 21221095]

25. Thorvaldsdottir H, Robinson JT, Mesirov JP. Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV): high-performance genomics data visualization and exploration. Brief Bioinform. 2012; 14(2):178–192. cited 2013 Jun 13. [PubMed: 22517427]

26. Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, et al. The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. Bioinforma Oxf Engl. 2009; 25(16):2078–2079.

27. Thusberg J, Olatubosun A, Vihinen M. Performance of mutation pathogenicity prediction methods on missense variants. Hum Mutat. 2011; 32(4):358–368. cited 2014 Jun 20. [PubMed: 21412949]

28. Flanagan SE, Patch A-M, Ellard S. Using SIFT and PolyPhen to predict loss-of-function and gain-of-function mutations. Genet Test Mol Biomark. 2010; 14(4):533–537.

29. DeJesus-Hernandez M, Mackenzie IR, Boeve BF, et al. Expanded GGGGCC hexanucleotide repeat in noncoding region of C9ORF72 causes chromosome 9p-linked FTD and ALS. Neuron. 2011; 72(2):245–256. [PubMed: 21944778]

30. Elden AC, Kim H-J, Hart MP, et al. Ataxin-2 intermediate-length polyglutamine expansions are associated with increased risk for ALS. Nature. 2010; 466(7310):1069–1075. cited 2014 Jun 19. [PubMed: 20740007]

31. Van Damme P, Veldink JH, van Blitterswijk M, et al. Expanded ATXN2 CAG repeat size in ALS identifies genetic overlap between ALS and SCA2. Neurology. 2011; 76(24):2066–2072. [PubMed: 21562247]

32. Abecasis GR, Auton A, et al. 1000 Genomes Project Consortium. An integrated map of genetic variation from 1,092 human genomes. Nature. 2012; 491(7422):56–65. [PubMed: 23128226]

33. Wu MC, Lee S, Cai T, et al. Rare-variant association testing for sequencing data with the sequence kernel association test. Am J Hum Genet. 2011; 89(1):82–93. [PubMed: 21737059]

34. Couthouis J, Hart MP, Shorter J, et al. A yeast functional screen predicts new candidate ALS disease genes. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2011; 108(52):20881–20890. [PubMed: 22065782]

35. Xue Y, Chen Y, Ayub Q, et al. Deleterious- and disease-allele prevalence in healthy individuals: insights from current predictions, mutation databases, and population-scale resequencing. Am J Hum Genet. 2012; 91(6):1022–1032. [PubMed: 23217326]

36. MacArthur DG, Manolio TA, Dimmock DP, et al. Guidelines for investigating causality of sequence variants in human disease. Nature. 2014; 508(7497):469–476. cited 2014 Jul 25. [PubMed: 24759409]

37. Beck J, Poulter M, Hensman D, et al. Large C9orf72 Hexanucleotide Repeat Expansions Are Seen in Multiple Neurodegenerative Syndromes and Are More Frequent Than Expected in the UK Population. Am J Hum Genet. 2013; 92(3):345–353. cited 2014 Jun 18. [PubMed: 23434116]

38. Byrne S, Bede P, Elamin M, et al. Proposed criteria for familial amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Amyotroph Lateral Scler Off Publ World Fed Neurol Res Group Mot Neuron Dis. 2011; 12(3): 157–159.
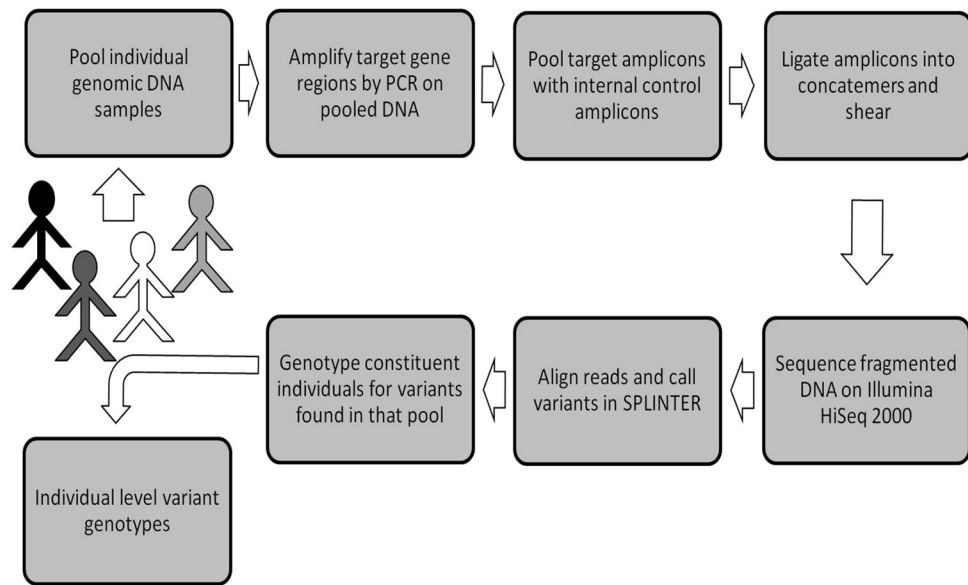
Figure 1.
Schema of pooled-sample sequencing workflow
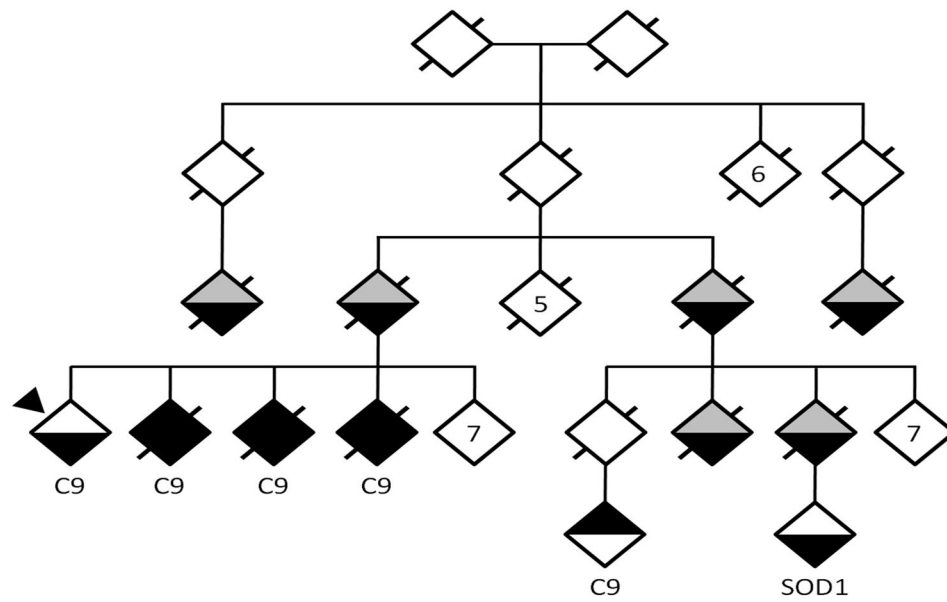
Figure 2. Segregation of distinct mutations in a FALS pedigree
WUNM0026 has been de-identified, with exclusion of some unaffected branches. If a
diamond represents more than one individual it is indicated by a number in the diamond.
The upper portion of each diamond denotes presence or absence of frontotemporal dementia
while the lower portion denotes presence or absence of ALS. White = unaffected;
black=affected; gray=unknown. Slashes denote deceased individuals. Proband is marked
with an arrow-head. Those carrying C9ORF72 expansions labeled as C9, and the single
individual who carried the SOD p.D91A variant is marked as SOD1.

Table 1

Subject demographics and disease characteristics.

Total ALS cases	391
Subjects with family history of ALS	10.7%
Self-reported Caucasian (%)[a]	93.1%
Male sex (%)	57%
Limb Onset (%)[b]	69.2%
Age at Onset (mean, stdev)[c]	59.7±12.8
Age at Onset (range)	14–85
Survival in months (mean, stdev)[d]	41.3±27.7
Survival in months (median)	34
Survival in months (range)	7–147

[a]Data for ethnicity,

[b]site of onset, and

[c]age at onset was missing for 14, 5, and 4 subjects respectively.

[d]Survival data was available for 172 subjects.

Table 2

Novel and rare coding variants identified in ALS genes.

	Gene Name	Genomic location[a]	dbSNP ID[b]	Predicted cDNA change[c]	Predicted protein change[c]	Allele Counts[d]			
						FALS	SALS	Global[e]	Population[f]
Expansions	ATXN2	12:112036785	rs193922927	c.532_534CAG	Q188(29–33)	1/84	11/698*	19/2982	19/2982
	C9ORF72	9:27573539	-			14/84*	21/698	11/7598	11/7598
Category 1:									
• Reported in ALS	FUS	16:31202739	rs121909668	c.1561C>G	R521G	1/84	0/698	0/15190	0/9358
	FUS	16:31202752	-	c.1574C>T	P525L	0/84*	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	SOD1	21:33032096	rs121912442	c.14C>T	A5V	1/84*	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	SOD1	21:33036142	rs121912431	c.112G>A	G38R	1/84*	0/698	0/15190	0/9358
• Not in databases	SOD1	21:33038821	-	c.229G>T	D77Y	1/84	0/698	0/15190	0/9358
	SOD1	21:33039600	-	c.269C>T	A90V	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	SOD1	21:33039672	rs121912441	c.341T>C	I114T	1/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	TARDBP	1:11082325	rs80356719	c.859G>A	G287S	0/84	1/698*	0/15190	0/9358
	TARDBP	1:11082409	rs80356726	c.943G>A	A315T	1/84	0/698	0/15190	0/9358
	VCP	9:35065360	rs121909329	c.464G>A	R155H	1/84	0/698	0/15190	0/9358
	ANG	14:21161845	rs121909536	c.122A>T	K41I	0/84	1/698*	27/15190	23/9358
	ANG	14:21162130	rs121909543	c.407C>T	P136L	1/84*	0/698	1/15190	1/9358
	DCTN1	2:74588717	rs72466496	c.3746C>T	T1249I	2/84*	1/698*	44/15190	39/9358
	DCTN1	2:74592252	rs72659383	c.3146G>A	R1049Q[1]	0/84	1/698*	22/15190	21/9358
	FIG4	6:110036336	rs121908287	c.122T>C	I41T[2]	0/84	1/698	17/15190	16/9358
Category 2:									
• Reported in ALS	OPTN	10:13166053	rs142812715	c.941A>T	Q314L	0/84	1/698	3/15190	3/9358
• Rare in databases	SETX	9:135140020	rs151117904	c.7640T>C	I2547T	2/84	8(1hom)/698*	76/15190	71/9358
	SETX	9:135202325	rs112089123	c.4660T>G	C1554G	0/84	6/698*	47/15190	40/9358
	SOD1	21:33039603	rs80265967	c.272A>C	D91A	1/84	2(1hom)/698	9/15190	9/9358
	SQSTM1	5:179248034	rs200396166	c.98T>T	A33V	0/84	2/698	6/15190	6/9358
	SQSTM1	5:179251013	rs145056421	c.457G>A	V153I	1/84*	0/698	9/15190	9/9358
	SQSTM1	5:179252184	rs11548633	c.712A>G	K238E	0/84	5/698*	41/15190	32/9358
	TAF15	17:34171525	rs200175347	c.1222C>T	R408C	0/84*	1/698	2/15190	2/9358

	Gene Name	Genomic location[a]	dbSNP ID[b]	Predicted cDNA change[c]	Predicted protein change[c]	Allele Counts[d]			
						FALS	SALS	Global[e]	Population[f]
	DAO	12:109278977	-	c.194+1G>A	Splice donor	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	DCTN1	2:74588653	-	c.3810C>A	H1270Q	0/84	1/698*	0/15190	0/9358
	DCTN1	2:74590527	-	c.3239C>T	S1080F	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/4898†
	EWSR1	22:29682932	-	c.620C>G	T207S	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	FIG4	6:110087935	-	c.1588_1589delTT	F530Ter	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	FUS	16:31202282	-	c.1394-2delA	Splice site	1/84	0/698	0/15190	0/9358
	OPTN	10:13160964	-	c.703C>T	Q235Ter	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
Category 3:									
• Not reported in ALS	SETX	9:135202223	-	c.4762G>A	A1588T	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/572§
	SETX	9:135203632	-	c.3353C>A	T1118K	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
• Not in databases	SETX	9:135206694	-	c.980A>T	E327V	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	SETX	9:135210013	-	c.820A>G	M274V	0/84	1/698*	0/15190	0/9358
	SETX	9:135211743	-	c.658A>C	K220Q	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	SETX	9:135211898	-	c.503G>A	R168Q	0/84	1/698*	0/15190	0/9358
	SETX	9:135224775	-	c.41C>T	T14I	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	SOD1	21:33038791	-	c.199C>G	P67A	1/84*	0/698	0/15190	0/9358
	SQSTM1	5:179248079	-	c.143T>T	L48P	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	TARDBP	1:11082589	-	c.1123A>G	S375G	0/84	1/698	0/15190	0/9358
	ANG	14:21161973	rs17560	c.250A>G	K84E	0/84	1/698	70/15190	69/4898†
	DAO	12:109294259	rs4262766	c.992G>A	G331E	0/84	1/698	4/15190	0/9358
	DAO	12:109294301	rs143732132	c.1034C>T	S345F	1/84*	0/698	3/15190	3/9358
Category 4:									
• Not reported in ALS	DCTN1	2:74593101	rs145130328	c.2805C>G	I935M	0/84	1/698	4/15190	0/362‡
	DCTN1	2:74598723	rs55862001	c.586A>G	I196V	1/84	4/698*	77/15190	70/9358
• Rare in databases	DCTN1	2:74604801	rs374419252	c.332C>G	S111C	0/84	1/698	1/15190	0/9358
	EWSR1	22:29682919	rs144503053	c.607T>A	S203T	0/84	1/698	1/15190	1/9358
	FIG4	6:110081543	rs142463699	c.1228A>C	T410P	0/84	1/698	1/15190	0/362‡
	FIG4	6:110107636	rs143531641	c.2080A>G	M694V	0/84	1/698*	3/15190	3/9358
	FIG4	6:110113852	rs375414729	c.2444T>C	F815S	0/84	1/698	1/15190	1/9358
	FUS	16:31201719	rs186547381	c.1292C>T	P431L	0/84	1/698	3/15190	2/9358

Gene Name	Genomic location[a]	dbSNP ID[b]	Predicted cDNA change[c]	Predicted protein change[c]	Allele Counts[d]			
					FALS	SALS	Global[e]	Population[f]
FUS	16:31202343	rs201772423	c.1453C>T	R485W	0/84	1/698*	1/15190	1/9358
SETX	9:135140063	rs202121071	c.7597C>T	H2533Y	1/84	0/698	1/15190	1/9358
SETX	9:135147182	rs150673589	c.7114G>A	D2372N	0/84	1/698	19/15190	6/362‡
SETX	9:135202120	rs140781535	c.4865C>T	P1622L	0/84	1/698	1/15190	0/9358
SETX	9:135204004	rs149546633	c.2981A>G	D994G	0/84	1/698	31/15190	0/9358
SETX	9:135204235	rs376022544	c.2750T>C	M917T	0/84	1/698	1/15190	1/9358
SETX	9:135205116	rs139200312	c.1869A>C	E623D	0/84	1/698	3/15190	3/9358
SETX	9:135205594	rs200614765	c.1391C>T	S464L	0/84	1/698	11/15190	6/9358
SETX	9:135206706	rs372193033	c.968G>A	S323N	0/84	2/698*	1/15190	1/9358
SETX	9:135218103	rs145438764	c.472T>G	L158V	0/84	1/698	53/15190	48/9358
SQSTM1	5:179263547	rs201239306	c.1277C>T	A426V	0/84	1/698	1/15190	0/9358
TAF15	17:34171358	rs140268553	c.1163G>A	R388H	0/84	1/698	7/15190	7/9358
VAPB	20:57014075	rs146459055	c.390T>G	D130E	0/84	1/698	11/15190	11/9358
VAPB	20:57016076	rs143144050	c.510G>A	M170I	0/84	5/698*	19/15190	18/9358

Rare was considered a global minor allele frequency <1%.

[a] GRCh37/hg19

[b] dbSNP138

[c] cDNA location and predicted protein changes refer to isoforms listed in Methods.

[d] Allele counts are listed as alternate alleles found/total alleles assayed.

[e] For all but the *ATXN2* and *C9ORF72* repeats, global allele counts were calculated from all subjects in the 1000 Genomes and NHLBI Exome Sequencing Projects. Global allele counts for *C9ORF72* repeat expansions were derived from[37] while intermediate CAG repeats in *ATXN2* were derived from [30,31].

[f] Population allele count refers to the population most closely matching that of the ALS subjects(s) carrying the variant. Unless indicated by a symbol, this is European ancestry (EA subjects from ESP6500 and 1000genomesEUR). Symbols used to denote other populations:

[†] African American (AA subjects from ESP6500+1000genomesAFR);

[‡] Hispanic (1000genomesAMR)

[§] Asian (1000genomesASN)

NIH-PA Author Manuscript

NIH-PA Author Manuscript

NIH-PA Author Manuscript

*
indicates at least one subject carrying that specific variant also carried another variant(s) in an analyzed ALS gene.

Table 3

Prevalence of variants in ALS genes by family categorization

	Sporadic	All FALS	Definite	Probable A	Probable B	Possible
Total Subjects	349	42	16	3	18	5
ANG	2	1	1	-	-	-
ATXN2	11	1	-	-	1	-
C9ORF72	21	14	7	1	6	-
DAO	2	1	1	-	-	-
DCTN1	10	3	2	-	-	1
EWSR1	2	-	-	-	-	-
FIG4	5	-	-	-	-	-
FUS	3	2	1	-	-	1
OPTN	2	-	-	-	-	-
SETX	29	3	1	-	2	-
SOD1	4	6	4	-	2	-
SQSTM1	9	1	-	-	1	-
TAF15	2	-	-	-	-	-
TARDBP	2	1	1	-	-	-
UBQLN2	-	-	-	-	-	-
VAPB	6	-	-	-	-	-
VCP	-	1	-	1	-	-
Total Variants	110	34	18	2	12	2
Subjects with any variant	97	27	13	2	10	2
% Subjects with variants	27.8%	64.3%	81.3%	66.7%	55.6%	40.0%

Familial ALS categories were assigned according to recently proposed criteria.[13,38]

Definite FALS (38% of families): at least two first- or second-degree relatives with ALS;

Probable A FALS (7% of families): one first-degree relative with ALS;

Probable B FALS (43% of families): one second-degree relative with ALS;

Possible FALS (12% of families): one distant relative with ALS;

Sporadic ALS (89% of entire cohort): all subjects not meeting criteria for any FALS category.

Table 4

Subjects with multiple variants in ALS genes

Patient Type	Variant 1	Variant 2	Variant 3	Possible model
Sporadic	*SOD1*(p.D91A)	*SOD1*(p.D91A)	-	Homozygous recessive
Sporadic	*SETX*(p.I2547T)	*SETX*(p.I2547T)	-	Homozygous recessive
Sporadic	*SETX*(p.C1554G)	*SETX*(p.R168Q)	-	Potential compound het
Familial	*SOD1*(p.A5V)	*DAO*(p.S345F)	-	Oligogenic
Familial	*SOD1*(p.P67A)	*SETX*(p.I2547T)	-	Oligogenic
Familial	*C9ORF72*	*DCTN1*(p.I196V)	-	Oligogenic
Familial	*C9ORF72*	*SQSTM1*(p.V153I)	-	Oligogenic
Familial	*C9ORF72*	*SETX*(p.I2547T)	-	Oligogenic
Sporadic	*ANG*(p.K41I)	*VAPB*(p.M170I)	-	Oligogenic
Sporadic	*ATXN2*(22/31)	*SQSTM1*(p.K238E)	-	Oligogenic
Sporadic	*FUS*(p.R485W)	*SETX*(p.I2547T)	-	Oligogenic
Sporadic	*DCTN1*(p.R1049Q)	*SETX*(p.S323N)	-	Oligogenic
Sporadic	*FUS*(p.P525L)	*ATXN2*(23/31)	-	Oligogenic
Sporadic	*TARDBP*(p.G287S)	*VAPB*(p.M170I)	-	Oligogenic
Familial	*SOD1*(p.G38R)	*ANG*(p.P136L)	*DCTN1*(p.T1249I)	Oligogenic
Sporadic	*ATXN2*(22/32)	*DCTN1*(p.T1249I)	*SETX*(p.M274V)	Oligogenic
Sporadic	*TAF15*(p.R408C)	*SETX*(p.I2547T)	*SETX*(p.T14I)	Oligogenic, potential compound het
Sporadic	*SETX*(p.C1554G)	*DCTN1*(p.H1270Q)	*FIG4*(p.M694V)	Oligogenic

Table 5

Gene-based rare variant association tests

Gene	P-value	# Markers
SOD1	1.59×10^{-5}	4
TARDBP	5.57×10^{-3}	10
VAPB	5.99×10^{-3}	8
SQSTM1	0.126	39
SETX	0.165	125
FUS	0.323	25
DAO	0.425	26
DCTN1	0.443	58
EWSR1	0.450	21
ANG	0.487	9
TAF15	0.573	34
VCP	0.693	5
OPTN	0.765	20
FIG4	0.863	32

Association tests were performed with SKAT using the optimal.adj method and the default linear, weighted kernel, with significance level=3.57×10^{-3}. Only coding variants with minor allele frequencies <1% were included in the analysis. Only subjects of European Ancestry were used from our cohort and controls (self-declared Caucasians compared to EA in ESP6500 and 1000genomesEUR).