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Authors

Peljto, Anna L
Blumhagen, Rachel Z
Walts, Avram D
[et al.](#)

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Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis Is Associated with Common Genetic Variants and Limited Rare Variants

Anna L. Peljto¹, Rachel Z. Blumhagen^{1,2}, Avram D. Walts², Jonathan Cardwell¹, Julia Powers¹, Tamera J. Corte³, Joanne L. Dickinson⁴, Ian Glaspole⁵, Yuben P. Moodley⁶, Martina Koziar Vasakova⁷, Elisabeth Bendstrup^{8,9}, Jesper R. Davidsen¹⁰, Raphael Borie¹¹, Bruno Crestani^{11,12}, Philippe Dieude¹³, Francesco Bonella¹⁴, Ulrich Costabel¹⁴, Gunnar Gudmundsson^{15,16}, Seamas C. Donnelly¹⁷, Jim Egan¹⁸, Michael T. Henry¹⁹, Michael P. Keane²⁰, Marcus P. Kennedy¹⁹, Cormac McCarthy²⁰, Aoife N. McElroy¹⁷, Joshua A. Olaniyi¹⁷, Katherine M. A. O'Reilly²¹, Luca Richeldi^{22,23}, Paolo M. Leone^{22,23}, Venerino Poletti^{24,25}, Francesco Puppò²⁶, Sara Tomassetti²⁷, Valentina Luzzi²⁸, Nurdan Kokturk²⁹, Nesrin Mogulkoc³⁰, Christine A. Fiddler³¹, Nikhil Hirani³², R. Gisli Jenkins³³, Toby M. Maher^{33,34}, Philip L. Molyneaux³³, Helen Parfrey³¹, Rebecca Braybrooke³⁵, Timothy S. Blackwell³⁶, Peter D. Jackson³⁷, Steven D. Nathan³⁸, Mary K. Porteous³⁹, Kevin K. Brown², Jason D. Christie⁴⁰, Harold R. Collard⁴¹, Oliver Eickelberg⁴², Elena E. Foster⁴³, Kevin F. Gibson⁴², Marilyn Glassberg⁴⁴, Daniel J. Kass⁴², Jonathan A. Kropski³⁶, David Lederer⁴⁵, Angela L. Linderholm⁴⁶, Jim Loyd³⁶, Susan K. Mathai⁴⁷, Sydney B. Montesi⁴⁸, Imre Noth⁴⁹, Justin M. Oldham⁵⁰, Amy J. Palmisciano⁵¹, Cristina A. Reichner⁵², Mauricio Rojas⁵³, Jesse Roman⁵⁴, Neil Schluger⁵⁵, Barry S. Shea⁵¹, Jeffrey J. Swigris², Paul J. Wolters⁴¹, Yingze Zhang⁴², Cecilia M. A. Prele⁵⁶, Juan I. Enghelmayer^{57,58}, Maria Otaola⁵⁹, Christopher J. Ryerson⁶⁰, Mauricio Salinas⁶¹, Martina Stercova⁸, Tewodros H. Gebremariam⁶², Marjukka Myllärniemi⁶³, Roberto G. Carbone²⁶, Haruhiko Furusawa⁶⁴, Masaki Hirose⁶⁵, Yoshikazu Inoue⁶⁵, Yasunari Miyazaki⁶⁴, Ken Ohta⁶⁶, Shin Ohta⁶⁷, Tsukasa Okamoto⁶⁴, Dong Soon Kim⁶⁸, Annie Pardo⁶⁹, Moises Selman⁷⁰, Alvaro U. Aranda⁷¹, Moo Suk Park⁷², Jong Sun Park⁷³, Jin Woo Song⁶⁸, Maria Molina-Molina⁷⁴, Lurdes Planas-Cerezales⁷⁵, Gunilla Westergren-Thorsson⁷⁶, Albert V. Smith⁷⁷, Ani W. Manichaikul⁷⁸, John S. Kim⁴⁹, Stephen S. Rich^{78,79}, Elizabeth C. Oelsner⁸⁰, R. Graham Barr⁸⁰, Jerome I. Rotter⁸¹, Josee Dupuis^{82,83}, George O'Connor⁸⁴, Ramachandran S. Vasani⁸⁵, Michael H. Cho⁸⁶, Edwin K. Silverman⁸⁶, Marvin I. Schwarz¹, Mark P. Steele¹, Joyce S. Lee¹, Ivana V. Yang¹, Tasha E. Fingerlin^{2*}, and David A. Schwartz^{1*}; NHLBI Trans-Omics for Precision Medicine (TOPMed) Consortium

Abstract

Rationale: Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) is a rare, irreversible, and progressive disease of the lungs. Common genetic variants, in addition to nongenetic factors, have been consistently associated with IPF. Rare variants identified by candidate gene, family-based, and exome studies have also been reported to associate with IPF. However, the extent to which rare variants, genome-wide, may contribute to the risk of IPF remains unknown.

Objectives: We used whole-genome sequencing to investigate the role of rare variants, genome-wide, on IPF risk.

Methods: As part of the Trans-Omics for Precision Medicine Program, we sequenced 2,180 cases of IPF. Association testing focused on the aggregated effect of rare variants (minor allele frequency ≤ 0.01) within genes or regions. We also identified individual rare variants that are influential within genes and

estimated the heritability of IPF on the basis of rare and common variants.

Measurements and Main Results: Rare variants in both *TERT* and *RTEL1* were significantly associated with IPF. A single rare variant in each of the *TERT* and *RTEL1* genes was found to consistently influence the aggregated test statistics. There was no significant evidence of association with other previously reported rare variants. The SNP heritability of IPF was estimated to be 32% (SE = 3%).

Conclusions: Rare variants within the *TERT* and *RTEL1* genes and well-established common variants have the largest contribution to IPF risk overall. Efforts in risk profiling or the development of therapies for IPF that focus on *TERT*, *RTEL1*, common variants, and environmental risk factors are likely to have the largest impact on this complex disease.

Keywords: whole-genome sequencing; interstitial lung disease; TOPMed; genetic association studies; telomerase

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*These authors contributed equally to this work.

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¹Department of Medicine, University of Colorado, Anschutz Medical Campus, Aurora, Colorado; ²National Jewish Health, Denver, Colorado; ³Royal Prince Alfred Hospital, University of Sydney, Sydney, Australia; ⁴Menzies Institute of Medical Research, University of Tasmania, Hobart, Tasmania, Australia; ⁵Allergy, Asthma and Clinical Immunology Clinic, Alfred Health, Sydney, Australia; ⁶Department of Respiratory Medicine, University of Western Australia, Perth, Australia; ⁷Department of Respiratory Medicine, University Thomayer Hospital, Prague, Czech Republic; ⁸Center for Rare Lung Diseases, Department of Respiratory Diseases and Allergy, Aarhus University Hospital, Aarhus, Denmark; ⁹Department of Clinical Medicine, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark; ¹⁰South Danish Center for Interstitial Lung Diseases, Department of Respiratory Medicine, Odense University Hospital, Odense, Denmark; ¹¹Service de Pneumologie A and ¹³Service de Rhumatologie, Hopital Bichat, Paris, France; ¹²Université Paris Cité, INSERM, Physiopathologie et Épidémiologie des Maladies Respiratoires, Paris, France; ¹⁴Center for Interstitial and Rare Lung Diseases, Ruhrlandklinik University Hospital, University of Duisburg-Essen, Essen, Germany; ¹⁵Faculty of Medicine, University of Iceland, Reykjavik, Iceland; ¹⁶Department of Respiratory Medicine and Sleep, Landspítali University Hospital, Reykjavik, Iceland; ¹⁷Trinity College Dublin, Dublin, Ireland; ¹⁸National Lung Transplantation Centre, Mater Misericordiae University Hospital, Dublin, Ireland; ¹⁹Department of Respiratory Medicine, Cork University Hospital, Cork, Ireland; ²⁰St. Vincent's University Hospital, University College Dublin, Dublin, Ireland; ²¹Mater Misericordiae University Hospital, Dublin, Ireland; ²²Fondazione Policlinico A. Gemelli IRCCS, Rome, Italy; ²³Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Rome, Italy; ²⁴Department of Diseases of the Thorax, G. B. Morgagni Hospital, Forlì, Italy; ²⁵Department of Medical and Surgical Sciences, DIMES University of Bologna, Bologna, Italy; ²⁶Department of Internal Medicine, University of Genoa, Genoa, Italy; ²⁷Department of Clinical and Experimental Medicine, Interventional Pulmonology Unit, Careggi University Hospital, Florence, Italy; ²⁸Interventional Pulmonology Unit, Careggi University Hospital, Florence, Italy; ²⁹Faculty of Medicine, Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey; ³⁰Department of Pulmonology, Ege University Hospital, Izmir, Turkey; ³¹Royal Papworth Hospital NHS Foundation Trust, Cambridge, United Kingdom; ³²University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, United Kingdom; ³³National Heart and Lung Institute, Imperial College London, London, United Kingdom; ³⁴Keck Medicine of USC, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California; ³⁵Division of Respiratory Medicine, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, United Kingdom; ³⁶Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville, Tennessee; ³⁷Department of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, Virginia; ³⁸Inova Fairfax Hospital, Falls Church, Virginia; ³⁹Hospital of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; ⁴⁰Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; ⁴¹Division of Pulmonary, Critical Care, Allergy and Sleep Medicine, Department of Medicine, University of California, San Francisco, San Francisco, California; ⁴²Division of Pulmonary, Allergy, and Critical Care Medicine, Department of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; ⁴³Division of Pulmonary, Critical Care, and Sleep Medicine, School of Medicine, University of California, Davis, Sacramento, California; ⁴⁴Division of Pulmonary, Critical Care and Sleep Medicine, College of Medicine, University of Arizona, Phoenix, Arizona; ⁴⁵Regeneron Pharmaceuticals, Inc., Tarrytown, New York; ⁴⁶Department of Internal Medicine, University of California, Davis, Davis, California; ⁴⁷Baylor University Medical Center, Dallas, Texas; ⁴⁸Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts; ⁴⁹Department of Medicine, ⁷⁸Center for Public Health Genomics, and ⁷⁹Department of Public Health Sciences, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia; ⁵⁰Department of Medicine and ⁷⁷Department of Biostatistics, School of Public Health, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan; ⁵¹Division of Pulmonary, Critical Care and Sleep Medicine, Alpert Medical School, Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island; ⁵²Division of Pulmonary, Critical Care and Sleep Medicine, MedStar Georgetown University Hospital, Washington, DC; ⁵³Division of Pulmonary, Critical Care, and Sleep Medicine, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio; ⁵⁴Division of Pulmonary, Allergy, and Critical Care, Thomas Jefferson University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; ⁵⁵Columbia University Medical Center, New York, New York; ⁵⁶Institute for Respiratory Health, University of Western Australia, Perth, Australia; ⁵⁷Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island; ⁵⁸Hospital de Clínicas, Universidad de Buenos Aires, Buenos Aires, Argentina; ⁵⁹Instituto de Rehabilitación Psicofísica de Buenos Aires, Buenos Aires, Argentina; ⁶⁰Department of Medicine, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada; ⁶¹Departamento de Medicina, Universidad de Chile, Santiago, Chile; ⁶²College of Health Sciences, Addis Ababa University, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia; ⁶³Department of Pulmonary Medicine, Heart and Lung Center, Helsinki University Hospital, Helsinki, Finland; ⁶⁴Department of Respiratory Medicine, Tokyo Medical and Dental University, Tokyo, Japan; ⁶⁵National Hospital Organization Kinki-Chuo Chest Medical Center, Osaka, Japan; ⁶⁶National Hospital Organization Tokyo National Hospital, Tokyo, Japan; ⁶⁷Department of Medicine, Showa University, Tokyo, Japan; ⁶⁸Asan Medical Center, University of Ulsan, Seoul, Republic of Korea; ⁶⁹Faculty of Sciences, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Mexico City, Mexico; ⁷⁰Instituto Nacional de Enfermedades Respiratorias Ismael Cosío Villegas, Mexico City, Mexico;

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Correspondence and requests for reprints should be addressed to Anna L. Peljto, Dr.P.H., Department of Medicine, University of Colorado, Anschutz Medical Campus, 12700 E. 19th Avenue, RC2, Aurora, CO 80045. E-mail: anna.peljto@cuanschutz.edu.

This article has a related editorial.

This article has an online supplement, which is accessible from this issue's table of contents at www.atsjournals.org.

⁷¹Cardiopulmonary Research Center, Alliance Pulmonary Group, Guaynabo, Puerto Rico; ⁷²Severance Hospital, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea; ⁷³Seoul National University Bundang Hospital, Seoul National University, Seongnam, Republic of Korea; ⁷⁴Respiratory Department and ⁷⁵Interstitial Lung Disease Multidisciplinary Unit, University Hospital of Bellvitge, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain; ⁷⁶Department of Experimental Medical Science, Lung Biology Unit, Lund University, Lund, Sweden; ⁸⁰Department of Medicine and Department of Epidemiology, Columbia University Medical Center, New York, New York; ⁸¹The Institute for Translational Genomics and Population Sciences, Department of Pediatrics, The Lundquist Institute at Harbor-UCLA Medical Center, Torrance, California; ⁸²Department of Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts; ⁸³Department of Epidemiology, Biostatistics and Occupational Health, McGill University, Montréal, Quebec, Canada; ⁸⁴Pulmonary Center, School of Medicine, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts; ⁸⁵Boston University and National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Framingham Heart Study, Boston, Massachusetts; and ⁸⁶Channing Division of Network Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts

ORCID IDs: 0000-0002-8389-0736 (A.L.P.); 0000-0003-4128-4014 (J.R.D.); 0000-0002-9906-0024 (R.B.); 0000-0001-7579-9767 (F.B.); 0000-0002-7868-8410 (P.M.L.); 0000-0002-5393-0071 (F.P.); 0000-0002-4781-6539 (S.T.); 0000-0001-7192-9149 (T.M.M.); 0000-0001-5108-9381 (P.D.J.); 0000-0001-7170-0360 (O.E.); 0000-0001-6597-7830 (D.J.K.); 0000-0002-8923-1344 (J.A.K.); 0000-0003-4957-8869 (J.M.O.); 0000-0001-7278-9088 (M. Salinas); 0000-0002-5569-1051 (H.F.); 0000-0003-3994-874X (Y.I.); 0000-0002-9073-9815 (Y.M.); 0000-0001-8744-6096 (S.O.); 0000-0003-0820-7615 (M.S.P.); 0000-0001-7636-444X (L.P.-C.); 0000-0001-6743-8443 (D.A.S.).

At a Glance Commentary

Scientific Knowledge on the Subject: Common genetic variants, in addition to nongenetic factors, have been consistently associated with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF). Rare variants identified by candidate gene, family-based, and exome studies have also been reported to associate with IPF, but the extent to which rare variants genome-wide may contribute to the risk of IPF remains unknown.

What This Study Adds to the Field: This is one of the first studies to comprehensively assess the impact of rare variants in IPF, using an agnostic analysis strategy. These results have advanced the understanding of IPF genetics by highlighting the etiologic importance of only two well-established rare genetic variants (*TERT* and *RTEL1*), replicating common variants, and defining the heritability of IPF. In aggregate, these findings simplify the genetics of IPF.

Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) is a rare, irreversible, and progressive disease of the lungs that affects an estimated 5 million individuals worldwide and is associated with a median survival of 3–5 years (1–3). IPF is associated with older age, cigarette smoking, and other environmental exposures (4, 5). In addition, both rare mutations and common genetic variants are reported to contribute to the etiology of IPF, although the heritability of the disease remains unknown. Within 11p15, we discovered a gain-of-function (6) promoter variant in *MUC5B* (rs35705950) that is the dominant genetic risk factor for IPF, present in >50% of affected patients (7, 8). Genome-wide association studies have identified and validated several other genetic loci with more moderate associations with IPF risk, including genes involved in telomerase maintenance, host defense, and cell-cell adhesion (7–15). Candidate gene studies, family-based studies, and exome sequencing analyses have also identified rare

mutations that associate with IPF (16–26). However, critical unresolved questions concerning the genetics of IPF remain, including 1) the extent and types of rare variants genome-wide that contribute to risk, 2) the relative contribution of rare versus common variants to risk, and 3) the genetic heritability of IPF. To address these questions, we have conducted a whole-genome sequencing study of IPF with genome-wide analysis of rare variations.

Methods

Study Populations and Sequencing

To comprehensively investigate the role of rare variants in the development of IPF, we collected DNA from patients who were diagnosed with IPF according to criteria established by the American Thoracic Society/European Respiratory Society from institutions across the United States, Europe,

and Australia (see Table E1 in the online supplement). Whole-genome sequencing was performed by the NIH Trans-Omics for Precision Medicine (TOPMed) Program (27). Subjects with IPF were compared to out-of-study control subjects selected from other TOPMed study populations and identified as unaffected (without evidence of interstitial lung disease). Within the TOPMed program, sequencing of our case and control populations was performed at multiple centers (Table 1). TOPMed sequencing data from the IPF samples were made available in separate “data freezes,” which we used to define our discovery and validation case populations. Samples that were included in TOPMed Freeze 8 were used for the discovery phase of the analysis, in which 1,264 IPF cases were compared with 1,257 unaffected control subjects selected from the COPDGene study (Table 1). The validation cohort comprised 916 IPF cases and 1,200 unaffected control subjects who were selected from the Framingham Heart Study and the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis and included in TOPMed Freeze 10. Because the vast majority of our IPF cases were non-Hispanic White, we filtered our case and control samples to those with European ancestry using ancestry informative principal components to minimize population stratification (see Supplemental Methods in the online supplement).

Statistical Analysis

We conducted a preliminary analysis of common genetic variants with a minor allele frequency (MAF) of >0.01, genome-wide, using the combined discovery and validation cohorts. For our primary analyses of rare variants, we used SKAT-O, the Sequence Kernel Association Test - Optimal Unified

Table 1. Summary of Discovery and Validation Cohorts by Case-Control Status

Variable	Discovery		Validation	
	Cases	Controls	Cases	Controls
<i>n</i>	1,264	1,257	916	1,200
Sequencing center	Washington University	Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard	Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard	Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard
Age, mean (SD)	65.5 (9.4)	59.4 (6.3)	67.3 (9.1)	70.0 (9.4)
Male, <i>n</i> (%)	895 (70.8)	676 (53.8)	609 (66.5)	792 (66.0)
Ever smoker, <i>n</i> (%)	783 (68.1)	1198 (95.3)	563 (67.5)	742 (61.8)

Test (28) to conduct association testing of the aggregated effect of rare variants within genes or regions, defined as those with a $MAF \leq 0.01$. All analyses were adjusted for sex as a covariate in the models, as well as principal components of genetic ancestry to control for any residual fine-scale population stratification. We used a Bonferroni correction for the effective number of tests (K_{eff}) in each analysis, which is based on the estimated minimum achievable P value for each test (28). Any gene or window-based variant sets with a $P < 0.05/K_{\text{eff}}$ were considered genome-wide significant and included in validation testing: 1.76×10^{-5} , 3.22×10^{-6} , and 3.24×10^{-8} for the loss-of-function (LOF), LOF and missense, and window-based analyses respectively. Our primary analysis strategy included LOF variants aggregated within gene-based sets. For this primary analysis, gene sets with $P < 5 \times 10^{-4}$ were also included in validation testing on the basis of moderate association. Our prespecified secondary analyses included LOF and missense variants aggregated within gene-based sets, and comprehensive testing of all rare variants aggregated into nonoverlapping windows across the genome on the basis of spatial clustering (29). Variant sets that had been previously reported in the literature and were moderately associated with IPF in our secondary analyses ($P < 5 \times 10^{-5}$ for missense variant analysis or $P < 5 \times 10^{-7}$ for window-based analysis) were also included in validation testing. We used a Bonferroni correction to assess significance in the validation cohort, adjusting for a total of nine tests ($P < 5.5 \times 10^{-3}$). We used the Rare Variant Influential Filtering Tool (30) to identify individual variants that had a strong influence on the aggregated test statistic for variant sets that were significantly associated with IPF in the validation cohort. For each analysis strategy, we performed a meta-analysis combining

statistics from the discovery and validation cohorts. Finally, we used a genome-based restricted maximum likelihood method (31) to estimate SNP heritability in the combined dataset of discovery and validation samples, using all measured variants. Additional details of the sample selection, variant filtering, and statistical methods can be found in the online supplement (see Supplemental Methods).

Results

In our preliminary analysis of common variants, using the discovery and validation cohorts combined, we observed genome-wide significant ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) associations with loci previously identified in genetic studies of IPF, including variants in *MUC5B*, *TERT*, *TERC*, *DSP*, and others (Table E2). In addition, we identified two novel associations between IPF and variants in the third intron of *MCL1* (odds ratio [OR], 0.77; 95% confidence interval [95% CI], 0.71–0.84; $P = 6.41 \times 10^{-9}$) and the first intron of long noncoding RNA gene ENSG00000260803 (OR, 1.72; 95% CI, 1.42–2.08; $P = 3.12 \times 10^{-8}$). The findings from this common variant analysis are consistent with previous genome-wide association studies and validate the utility of our case and control populations.

In our primary rare variant analysis, which only included LOF variants aggregated into gene-based sets, none of the genes met the criteria for genome-wide significance, but there were five genes that met our criteria for moderate association in the discovery cohort (Figure 1A; Table 2). *ALOX15B* and *RTEL1-TNFRSF6B* (a read-through transcription between *RTEL1* and *TNFRSF6B*) were most strongly associated with IPF ($P = 2.81 \times 10^{-5}$ and $P = 3.49 \times 10^{-5}$, respectively). Rare variants in the *RTEL1* ($P = 1.11 \times 10^{-4}$), *UNC93A* ($P = 3.44 \times 10^{-4}$), and *NFX1*

($P = 4.67 \times 10^{-4}$) genes were also moderately associated with IPF. These five genes were tested in our independent validation cohort of 916 IPF cases and 1,200 unaffected control subjects of European ancestry using a Bonferroni P value threshold for significance that was corrected for a total of nine tests ($P < 5.5 \times 10^{-3}$). In the validation analysis, only the *RTEL1* gene was statistically significant after adjustment for multiple testing ($P = 2.53 \times 10^{-3}$). None of the other associations from our LOF analysis strategy replicated within the validation cohort; however, *NFX1* was nominally significant ($P = 3 \times 10^{-2}$).

In a prespecified secondary analysis that included missense variants in addition to the LOF variants, aggregated into gene-based sets, *TERT* ($P = 3.25 \times 10^{-16}$) and *RTEL1* ($P = 7.49 \times 10^{-9}$) were both strongly associated with IPF, exceeding the criteria for genome-wide significance in our discovery cohort (Figure 1B; Table 2). The third strongest association signal in this analysis was the *SPDL1* gene ($P = 2.73 \times 10^{-5}$). Because a rare missense mutation within the *SPDL1* gene has been previously reported to be associated with IPF (32), we included this gene in our validation testing of rare LOF and missense variants along with *TERT* and *RTEL1*. In the validation cohort, the association with *TERT* was replicated with $P = 9.39 \times 10^{-8}$. The associations with *RTEL1* and *SPDL1* did not reach our Bonferroni-corrected significance threshold for the validation cohort, but were nominally associated with IPF ($P = 2.07 \times 10^{-2}$ and $P = 1.63 \times 10^{-2}$, respectively).

In our final analysis of all rare variants, spatially aggregated within nonoverlapping windows, none reached our genome-wide significance threshold. At a more moderate level of significance, an $\sim 3,200$ -bp window (chr11:1284193–1287389) within the *TOLLIP* gene at 11p15 was associated with IPF ($P = 1.45 \times 10^{-7}$; Table 2). Because

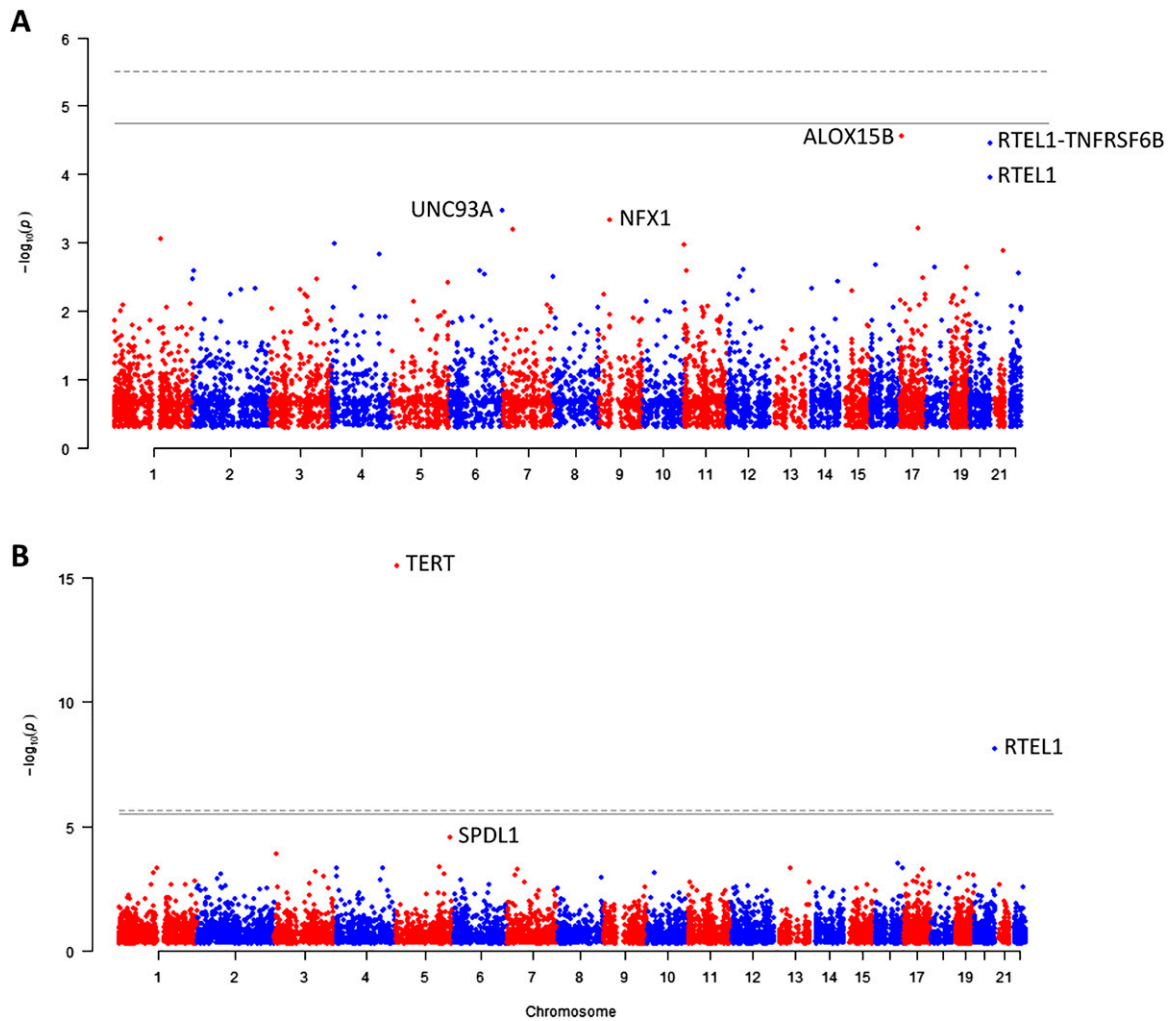


Figure 1. Manhattan plot for rare loss-of-function variants (A) and loss-of-function and missense variants (B), aggregated by gene, in the discovery cohort. Horizontal lines represent the genome-wide significance thresholds adjusted for the effective number of tests (solid) and the total number of tests (dashed).

Table 2. Significant Rare Variant Sets Identified in the Discovery Cohort

Variant Filtering, Aggregation Unit	Gene or Window	P Value, Discovery Cohort	P Value, Validation Cohort*
Loss-of-function, by gene [†]	<i>UNC93A</i>	3.44×10^{-4}	3.46×10^{-1}
	<i>NFX1</i>	4.67×10^{-4}	2.90×10^{-2}
	<i>ALOX15B</i>	2.81×10^{-5}	7.05×10^{-1}
	<i>RTEL1</i>	1.11×10^{-4}	2.53×10^{-3}
	<i>RTEL1-TNFRSF6B</i>	3.49×10^{-5}	1.06×10^{-1}
Loss-of-function or missense, by gene [‡]	<i>TERT</i>	3.25×10^{-16}	9.39×10^{-8}
	<i>RTEL1</i>	7.49×10^{-9}	2.10×10^{-2}
	<i>SPDL1</i>	2.73×10^{-5}	1.60×10^{-2}
All rare, by window [§]	Chr11:1284193-1287310 (<i>TOLLIP</i>)	1.45×10^{-7}	2.89×10^{-6}

*Significance in validation cohort assessed at $P < 5.5 \times 10^{-3}$.

[†]Genes included in validation analysis based on $P < 5 \times 10^{-4}$.

[‡]Genes included in validation analysis based on genome-wide significance ($P < 3.2 \times 10^{-6}$) or $P < 5 \times 10^{-5}$ for previously reported genes.

[§]Genes included in validation analysis based on genome-wide significance ($P < 3.2 \times 10^{-8}$) or $P < 5 \times 10^{-7}$ for previously reported genes.

previous studies have reported an association between IPF and variants within the *TOLLIP* gene (10), we tested this window for association within the validation cohort, where the strength of the association was similar ($P = 2.89 \times 10^{-6}$). Given the proximity of this region to the gain-of-function polymorphism within the promoter of the *MUC5B* gene, rs35705950, we repeated the test of association, adjusting for the *MUC5B* variant. After adjustment for the *MUC5B* promoter polymorphism, the window within *TOLLIP* was no longer associated with IPF ($P = 7.9 \times 10^{-1}$).

The results of meta-analyses of the discovery and validation cohorts largely reflected the findings from the individual cohorts (Figure 2; Table 3). In the meta-analysis of LOF variants, *RTEL1* had the strongest association signal, with a P value just below the threshold for genome-wide

significance ($P = 4.25 \times 10^{-6}$), followed by *RTEL1-TNFRSF6B* ($P = 9.12 \times 10^{-5}$), *SPSB2* ($P = 1.02 \times 10^{-4}$), and *PARN* ($P = 1.43 \times 10^{-4}$). In the LOF and missense variant meta-analysis, both *TERT* and *RTEL1* reached genome-wide significance levels. We tested the association with *TERT*, adjusting for the previously identified common IPF risk variant rs4449583 within *TERT* (13). The aggregate test statistic remained significant ($P = 3.47 \times 10^{-21}$), indicating that rare variants within *TERT* influence IPF risk independent of the effect of this common *TERT* variant. We also tested the association with *RTEL1* after adjusting for the recently identified IPF risk variant rs41308092 (33). The aggregate test statistic for *RTEL1* remained significant ($P = 6.11 \times 10^{-11}$). The evidence for association with *SPDL1* was just below the level of genome-wide significance for the meta-analysis. In the window-based analysis,

the window within *TOLLIP* was significantly associated with IPF but not independent of the *MUC5B* variant, as demonstrated by the model adjusting for the rs35705950 genotype ($P = 1 \times 10^0$). None of the other P values for rare variant associations changed substantially after adjustment for previously identified common IPF risk variants that reside on the same chromosome or the *MUC5B* promoter variant (Table 3).

We did not adjust for age in our analyses, because age was missing for >10% of our cases. However, we performed a sensitivity analysis in which association testing was repeated in the discovery cohort, with age as a covariate. It is interesting that the P values for *TERT*, *RTEL1*, and *SPDL1* decreased after adjustment for age. The other P values increased slightly, to a degree expected on the basis of the reduced sample size (Table E3).

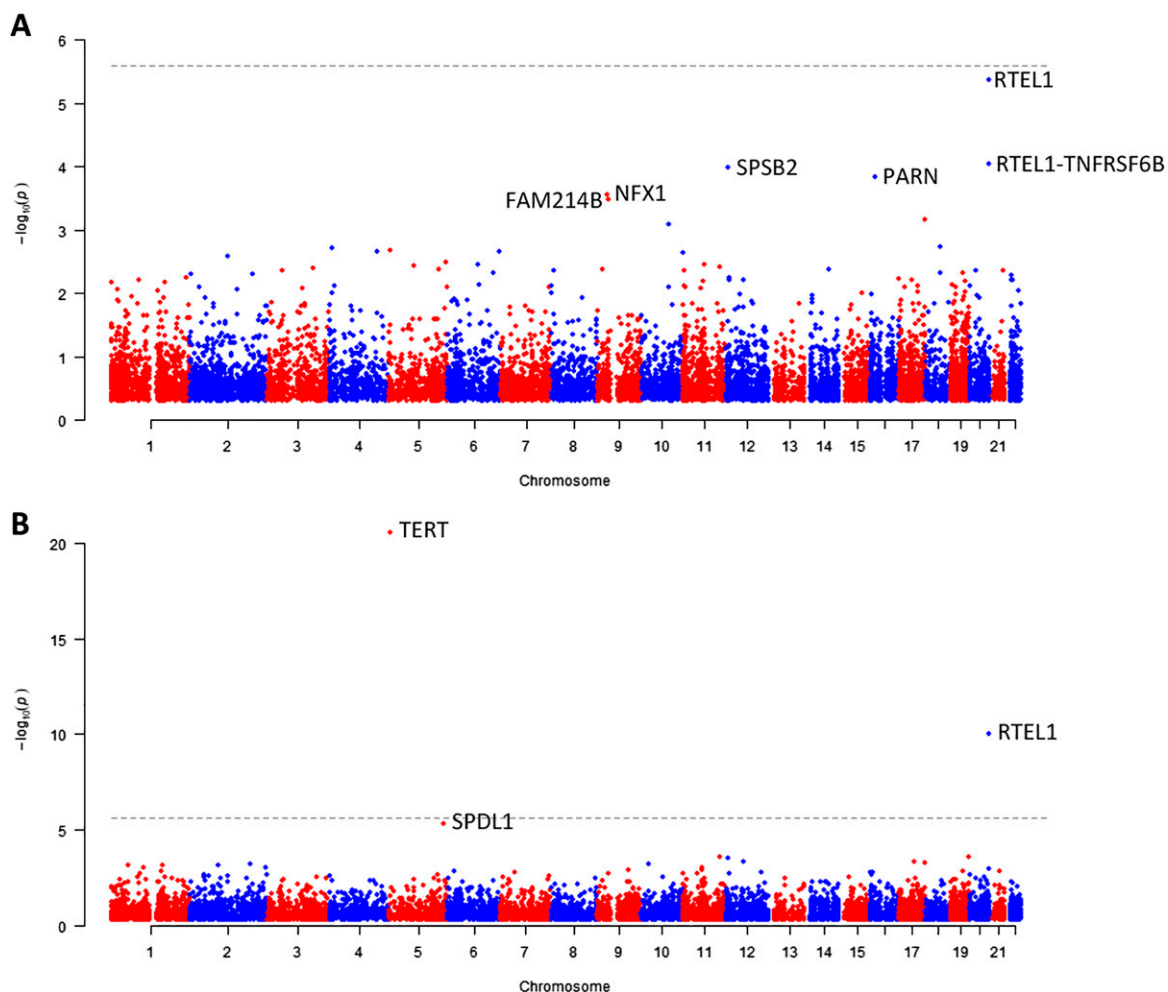


Figure 2. Manhattan plots for meta-analysis with rare loss-of-function variants (A) and loss-of-function and missense variants (B). Horizontal lines represent the genome-wide significance thresholds adjusted for the total number of tests.

Table 3. Meta-analysis *P* Values for Rare Variant Sets Included in Validation Analysis, with and without Adjustment for Common Variants

Variant Filtering, Aggregation Unit	Chr	Gene or Window	Variant Set <i>P</i> Value	Common Variant Covariate	Variant Set <i>P</i> Value, Adjusted for Common Variant
Loss-of-function, by gene	6	<i>UNC93A</i> (ENSG00000112494)	2.22×10^{-3}	rs2076295	2.18×10^{-3}
	9	<i>NFX1</i> (ENSG00000086102)	2.84×10^{-4}	rs35705950	9.70×10^{-4}
	17	<i>ALOX15B</i> (ENSG00000179593)	1.28×10^{-2}	rs35705950	9.70×10^{-3}
				rs1981997	1.56×10^{-2}
	20	<i>RTEL1</i> (ENSG00000258366)	4.25×10^{-6}	rs35705950	1.73×10^{-2}
	20	<i>RTEL1-TNFRSF6B</i> (ENSG0000026036)	9.12×10^{-5}	rs35705950	1.05×10^{-5}
Loss-of-function or missense, by gene	5	<i>TERT</i> (ENSG00000164362)	2.74×10^{-21}	rs4449583	3.47×10^{-21}
	5	<i>SPDL1</i> (ENSG00000040275)	4.81×10^{-6}	rs35705950	2.39×10^{-19}
				rs4449583	5.14×10^{-6}
	20	<i>RTEL1</i> (ENSG00000258366)	1.00×10^{-10}	rs35705950	1.43×10^{-6}
All rare, by window	11	11:1284193-1287310 (<i>TOLLIP</i>)	1.04×10^{-11}	rs41308092	3.83×10^{-11}
				rs35705950	6.11×10^{-11}
					1.00×10^0

Definition of abbreviation: Chr = chromosome.

On the basis of the findings of a previous study that IPF patients without the *MUC5B* risk (T) allele at rs35705950 had a higher burden of rare missense or LOF variants in *TERT* than those without the risk allele (34), we examined the frequency of rare variants in *TERT* and *RTEL1* among IPF cases within strata defined by carriage of the *MUC5B* risk allele (GG vs. GT/TT). We did not find a significant difference in the burden of rare LOF and missense alleles in *TERT*. However, the burden of rare LOF and missense alleles in *RTEL1* was greater in cases without the risk allele than in cases carrying one or more copies of the risk allele (3×10^{-3} vs. 0.001, $P = 2 \times 10^{-2}$).

We applied a recently developed statistical method, the Rare Variant Influential Filtering Tool (30), to identify variants within the *RTEL1*, *TERT*, and *SPDL1* variant sets that had a strong influence on the aggregate test statistic. A single variant in the *RTEL1* LOF variant set, rs373740199, was classified as influential in both the LOF, and LOF and missense variant sets and in both cohorts (Figure E1). This variant is within the 30th exon of *RTEL1* and was previously identified in an exome sequencing study (26). The minor allele was present at a frequency of 0.17% among IPF cases and absent among control subjects. A previously reported IPF risk variant in *TERT* (24), rs199422297, was influential in the *TERT* LOF and missense variant set across cohorts (Figure E2). This is a stop-gain variant within the fifth exon of

TERT, and the minor allele was present at a frequency of 0.25% among IPF cases and absent among control subjects. These influential *TERT* and *RTEL1* variants are reported in the database dbSNP to be rare among Europeans (MAF, <0.01%) and absent in other populations. A single variant, rs116483731, first identified by exome-wide association (32), was also classified as influential in the *SPDL1* LOF and missense variant set across cohorts (Figure E3). This variant is in the second exon of *SPDL1*, and the MAF was 2.2% among cases and 0.8% among control subjects (OR, 2.86; 95% CI, 1.96–4.17). In dbSNP, the MAF is reported as 0.7% among Europeans and 0.07% among Africans, and it is absent among other populations. Although other variants may have contributed to the aggregate association test statistics, and to the overall risk of IPF, our analyses suggest that a single rare variant is largely responsible for observed associations in each of the *RTEL1*, *TERT*, and *SPDL1* genes.

We compared the minor allele counts of the three identified rare, influential variants in *TERT*, *RTEL1*, and *SPDL1* in cases with and without a family history of disease. Among IPF cases with nonmissing family history data, there were 1,065 sporadic cases and 837 cases with a family history of disease included in our analyses. There was no difference in the proportion of familial and sporadic IPF cases carrying the identified influential minor alleles in *RTEL1* or *SPDL1*. Although the minor allele of the influential

rare variant in *TERT*, rs199422297, was observed among both sporadic and familial cases, the cases with a family history of disease were more likely to carry the *TERT* minor allele (2/1,065 sporadic vs. 8/837 familial; $P = 3 \times 10^{-2}$).

Finally, we used the linkage disequilibrium and MAF-stratified genome-based restricted maximum likelihood method (31) to estimate the heritability of IPF. Using whole-genome sequence data from the combined discovery and validation cohorts, we estimated the single nucleotide variant (SNV) heritability of IPF to be 32% (SE = 3%).

Discussion

Our findings indicate that rare variants in *RTEL1*, *TERT*, and likely *SPDL1* contribute to the risk of IPF. Although these genes have been reported by others to contain rare variants associated with IPF, (13, 17, 20, 23–26, 32), we have found that a single rare variant in each of the implicated genes (*RTEL1*, *TERT*, and *SPDL1*) appears to be largely responsible for the observed associations. Our whole-genome sequence analysis also suggests that rare variants identified in more focused studies of familial pulmonary fibrosis—including *TERC* (17), the surfactant protein genes (16, 18, 21, 22, 35, 36), *TINF2* (37), and *ABCA3* (38)—do not appear to substantially contribute to the overall risk of IPF, at least in a sample of this

size (Table E4). To further assess any potential effect of individual, previously reported rare variants within our combined dataset, we tabulated the number of minor alleles observed among cases and control subjects (Table E5). Although additional exceedingly rare variants may prove to be risk factors in unique families or relevant to specific IPF subtypes, given their frequency, these rare variants will only influence risk for a very small proportion of the IPF population. Moreover, our common variant analysis highlights the importance of telomerase maintenance, host defense, and cell-cell adhesion genes in the development of IPF, and our overall analysis estimated IPF heritability to be 32%. In aggregate, our results have narrowed the focus of IPF genetics to a few well-established rare variants and replicated common variants.

We found that the estimated SNP heritability for IPF (based on all measured rare and common variants) was 32% (SE = 3%). This estimate is similar to our previous estimates of 28% (SE = 2%) to 31% (SE = 3%), which were based only on common variants, excluding the *MUC5B* variant (8). On the basis of these results, we hypothesize that the majority of IPF heritability can be explained by common genetic variation. However, larger sequencing datasets are needed to explicitly estimate the contribution of rare variation to the overall heritability of IPF. Additionally, given the relatively high heritability of IPF, common variants could be used to identify early interstitial lung disease, especially among unaffected family members (39, 40). Although early interstitial lung disease is known to have a poor prognosis (40–42), screening guidelines for early interstitial lung disease have not been established, and therapeutic intervention for early interstitial lung disease has not been studied.

Although identifying common IPF risk variants was not a primary aim of this study, preliminary analyses that included common variants identified two previously unreported loci that were significantly associated with IPF. Within these loci, the variants with the

strongest associations include an indel in *MCL1* (an apoptosis regulator in the *BCL2* family at 1q21.2) and an indel in a long noncoding RNA gene at 16p13.3. These indel variants may not have been well represented by the markers included in previous GWA studies and will require validation in an independent cohort.

This is one of the first whole-genome sequencing studies of IPF, with a comprehensive assessment of rare variant associations outside of the exome. However, this study also has some limitations. Although this study included one of the largest collections of IPF patients to date, the identification of rare variants is highly dependent on sample size, and lower frequency IPF risk alleles could possibly be identified by larger studies. Consequently, extremely rare variants in genes, such as *TERC*, *TINF2*, *ABCA3*, and the surfactant protein genes, previously identified through targeted candidate gene studies may play a role in the heritability of IPF; however, given their frequency, they were not identified in our study population and will only influence risk for a very small proportion of the IPF population. In addition, the MAF threshold used to define rare variants (MAF, $\leq 1\%$) is somewhat arbitrary, and the power to identify aggregated variant sets that are associated with IPF will depend on the distribution of allele frequencies among risk variants included in a set. This study was also limited to subjects of European ancestry, and there are likely different rare variants that influence IPF risk in populations of other ancestries. Finally, the effect of rare variants may depend on age, sex, family history of disease, or other common variant genotypes. Additional analyses will be required to understand how interactions among genetic and nongenetic risk factors contribute to the etiology of IPF. ■

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