



Distinct landscapes of deleterious variants in DNA damage repair system in ethnic human populations

Zixin Qin , Teng Huang, Maoni Guo, San Ming Wang

Deleterious variants in DNA damage repair (DDR) system can cause genome instability and increase cancer risk. In this study, we analyzed the deleterious variants in DDR system in 16 ethnic human populations. From the genetic variants in 169 DDR genes involved in nine DDR pathways collected from 158,612 individuals of different ethnic background, we identified 1,781 deleterious variants in 81 DDR genes in eight DDR pathways (<https://genemutation.fhs.um.edu.mo/dbddr-global/>). Our analysis showed although the quantity of deleterious variants was loaded at a similar level, the landscape of the variants differed substantially among different populations that two-third of the variants were present in single ethnic populations, and the rest was mostly shared between the populations with closer geographic and genetic relationship. The highly ethnic-specific DDR deleterious variation suggests its potential relationship with different disease susceptibility in ethnic human populations.

DOI [10.26508/lisa.202101319](https://doi.org/10.26508/lisa.202101319) | Received 26 November 2021 | Revised 11 May 2022 | Accepted 11 May 2022 | Published online 20 May 2022

Introduction

Genetic variation is the driven force of evolution. However, a portion of the genetic variation can be deleterious in causing increased risk of various types of diseases including cancer (Muller, 1950; Eyre-Walker & Keightley, 1999; Lynch, 2010; Xue et al, 2012; Fu et al, 2014; Simons et al, 2014). Different human populations have different susceptibility to diseases, and differential deleterious variation in human populations is considered as a factor contributing to the phenomenon (Kimura et al, 1963; Lohmueller, 2014; Henn et al, 2015). Although this concept is attractive in explaining the relationship between deleterious variants and diseases, the evidence was largely indirect as they were mostly based on the deleterious variants predicted by in silico tools, which is well determined as tending to overpredict the deleteriousness of genetic variants (Richards et al, 2015; Cubuk et al, 2021). In the studies that used the deleterious variants identified from human origin, the results were often restricted by the limited data quantity (Fu et al, 2013), restricted population size (Lohmueller, 2014), or limited to the

populations with specific diseases (Huang et al, 2018). Therefore, it remains largely unclear for the distribution patterns of deleterious variants in human populations.

A genome is constantly attacked by environmental and metabolic factors. The damaged DNA must be fixed timely and spatially to maintain genome stability to avoid pathogenic consequences. Organisms are equipped with a DNA damage repair (DDR) system to repair the damaged DNA. Eukaryotic DDR system consists of at least nine different DDR pathways (Wood et al, 2005; Chatterjee & Walker, 2017). Each DDR pathway contains a group of genes working coordinately to repair a specific type of DNA damage: base excision repair (BER) pathway repairs small, non-helix-distorting base lesions; direct reversal (DR) repair pathway repairs the DNA damaged by ubiquitous alkylating agents; fanconi anemia (FA) pathway repairs the strand cross-link errors; mismatch repair (MMR) pathway repairs mismatch errors; homologous recombination (HR) and nonhomologous end joining (NHEJ) pathways repair double strand breaks; nucleotide excision repair (NER) pathway repairs helix-distorting DNA lesions. However, many DDR genes are prone to germline variation, a part of which can be deleterious in causing increased risk of various diseases including cancer. For example, deleterious variation in *BRCA1* of homologous recombination pathway causes high risk of breast and ovarian cancer (Levy-Lahad & Friedman, 2007). Because of their medical value, deleterious variants in human DDR genes have been studied in great detail at the population level and widely used in clinical applications (Wen & Feng, 2004; Milanowska et al, 2011a, 2011b; Spurdle et al, 2012; Knijnenburg et al, 2018).

In this study, we used deleterious variants in DDR genes as a model to study deleterious variation in human populations. We performed an extensive data mining to identify the deleterious variants in DDR genes from 16 human ethnic populations. Comparing these “real-world” data between populations showed substantially different spectrum of DDR deleterious variation among human ethnic populations, although quantitatively the variants were loaded at similar levels. The results highlight that the highly ethnic-specific deleterious variants in DDR genes may contribute to different disease susceptibility in different human ethnic populations.

Cancer Centre and Institute of Translational Medicine, Ministry of Education Frontiers Science Center for Precision Oncology, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Macau, Macau, China

Correspondence: sanmingwang@um.edu.mo

Results

DDR deleterious variation in human populations

We performed genomic data analysis to identify genetic variants in DDR genes. In medical term, “pathogenic” is often used in referring to the genetic variants that contribute to disease and have clinical implications, whereas in biological term, “deleterious” is commonly used in referring to the genetic variants that reduce fitness under purifying selection (MacArthur et al, 2014). In our study, we used “deleterious” instead of “pathogenic,” as our study focused on the general populations rather than disease populations.

The nine DDR pathways contain a total of 169 distinct DDR genes based on KEGG and Human DNA Repair Genes databases, in which FA pathway has the highest of 49 DDR genes and directed reversal repair pathway has the lowest of three DDR genes. Through extensive data mining from different sources, we identified 778,723 distinct variants in the 169 distinct DDR genes derived from 158,612 non-disease individuals of 16 ethnic populations. From these variants, we identified 1,781 deleterious variants in 81 DDR genes (47.9% of 169 DDR genes) in eight DDR pathways, but none existed in the three genes in the Direct Reversal pathway (Tables 1 and S1). A database “dbDDR-global” was constructed to host the detailed information for the identified variants (<https://genemutation.fhs.um.edu.mo/dbddr-global/>). The DDR deleterious variants had the following common features:

- (i) Most of the deleterious variants had minor allele frequency (MAF) < 0.001 (1,629 of 1,781 [91.5%]) (Fig 1).
- (ii) There were significant differences of deleterious variant-affected genes among different DDR pathways. FA pathway had the highest deleterious variants (926 in 30 of 49 [61%] genes), followed by HR pathway (916 in 21 of 37 [57%] genes), and MMR pathway (188 in 8 of 20 [36%] genes) (Table 1 and Fig 1).
- (iii) *BRCA2* had the largest number of deleterious variants (196 of 1,781 total variants, 11.0%), followed by *ATM* (171, 9.6%) and *BRCA1* (126, 7.1%) (Fig 1 and Table S2). This likely reflects their large size (1,863 residues in *BRCA1*, 3,418 residues in *BRCA2*, and

3,056 residues in *ATM*) rather than their high variation frequency.

- (iv) The most frequent molecular consequence of deleterious variants was frameshift (39.9%), followed by stop gained (29.6%) and missense variant (11.2%) (Table 2).

Load of DDR deleterious variants in human populations

We analyzed the quantitative distribution of deleterious variants in the 16 populations (Tables 3 and S3). With 1,781 deleterious variants in the 158,612 individuals included in the study, the average frequency of deleterious variant load was 1.12% in the entire tested populations. In the populations of Japanese (JPN), South Asian (SAS), Chinese (CHN), Korean (KOR), Other East Asian (OEA), Latino/Admixed-American (AMR), African/African American (AFR), Southern European (NFE-SEU), Other non-Finnish European (NFE-ONF), North-Western European (NFE-NWE), and Swedish (NFE-SWE), the load was within twofolds centered at 21 (17–34, Mean \pm SD = 21 \pm 5.0, Mean \pm SE = 21 \pm 1.5) per 1,000 individuals (Table 3). However, the load in the populations of Bulgarian (NFE-BGR), Ashkenazi Jewish (ASJ), Finnish (FIN), Icelander (ICE), and Estonia (NFE-EST) varied substantially: Bulgarian had the highest load of 48 per 1,000 individuals, whereas Ashkenazi Jewish, Finnish, Icelander, and Estonia had much lower loads of 11, 7, 2, and 2 per 1,000 individuals, respectively (Table S4). The difference between Bulgarian and Icelander/Estonia reached 19.2-folds. Except the Bulgarian population, the load on these populations was significantly lower than other populations ($P = 0.0001$).

Spectrum of DDR deleterious variants in human populations

We compared the spectrum of DDR deleterious variants between the 16 human populations. Of the 1,781 deleterious variants, 1,195 (67%) were present only in single populations (Fig 2A and Table S3). For example, 265 of 322 deleterious variants (82%) in *BRCA1/BRCA2*

Table 1. Summary of DNA damage repair (DDR) deleterious variants in DDR pathways

DDR pathways	Number of genes	Gene with variants (%)	#Variants	Variants/gene	Benjamini-Hochberg ^b
Homologous Recombination	37	21 (57)	916	44	0.433
Fanconi anemia pathway	49	30 (61)	926	31	0.103
Mismatch Repair	20	8 (36)	188	24	0.672
Nonhomologous end joining	13	7 (54)	129	18	0.876
DNA damage response	15	5 (33)	86	17	0.450
Nucleotide excision repair	41	13 (32)	163	13	0.090
Base excision repair	32	7 (22)	72	10	0.020
DNA replication	34	11 (32)	36	3	0.130
Direct reversal	3	0 (0)	0	0	0.433
Total ^a	169	81 (48)	1,781	17	0.020

^aDistinct numbers.

^bBold: Statistic significant between pathways.

Table 2. Molecular consequences of DNA damage repair deleterious variants

Molecular consequences	No.	%
Frameshift variant	711	39.9
Stop gained	527	29.6
Missense variant	200	11.2
Splice donor variant	139	7.8
Splice acceptor variant	128	7.2
Splice region variant	96	5.4
Intron variant	43	2.4
Inframe deletion	18	1.0
Start lost	17	1.0
Synonymous variant	14	0.8
Coding sequence variant	7	0.4
3 prime UTR variant	4	0.2
Inframe insertion	1	0.1
Total ^a	1,781	100

^aDistinct numbers.

(*BRCA*) and 119 of the 162 deleterious variants (73%) in MMR genes were present in single populations (Table S5).

Of the 586 deleterious variants (23% of the 1,781 variants) shared between populations, 321 (54.8%) were shared between two populations, 120 (20.4%) between three populations, 125 (21.3%) between four and six populations, and only 20 variants (3.4%) over seven populations (Fig 2A and Table S3). The sharing rates were significantly different among the 14 populations except NFE-NWE and NFE-ONF (Table 4). The populations sharing the same deleterious variants tended to be these within nearby geographic regions, such as the Eastern Asian populations (OEA:CHN [49.4%], KOR:JPN [48.6%], JPN:KOR [37.8%], CHN:SAS [36.9%]), and European populations (NFE-BGR:NFE-ONF [67.3%], NFE-ONF:NFE-NEW [66.5%], and NFE-SEU:NFE-NWE [59.3%]) (Table 4). Of all shared variants, only 6.3% were shared with Africa population (Fig 2B). The highly shared deleterious variants where included in *LIG4*, *MUTYH*, *RAD50*, *MSH6*, *OGG1*, *XRCC4*, *ERCC3*, *FANCM*, etc. (Tables 5 and S3). *LIG4* (c.1271_1275del, p.Lys424ArgfsTer20) was shared within 13 populations of CHN, JPN, KOR, SAS, EAS-OEA, ICE, AFR, AMR, NFE-BGR, NFE-NWE, NFE-SEU, NFE-SWE, NFE-ONF except ASJ, NFE-EST, and FIN; *MUTYH* (c.1103G>A, p.Gly368Asp) and *RAD50* (c.2165dup, p.Glu723GlyfsTer5) shared in 12 populations; *MSH6* (c.3226C>T, p.Arg1076Cys) shared in 11 populations; *MUTYH* (c.452A>G, p.Tyr151Cys), *OGG1* (c.137G>A, p.Arg46Gln), and *XRCC4* (c.25del, p.His9ThrfsTer8) shared in 10 populations, *ERCC3* (c.325C>T, p.Arg109Ter), *MSH6* (c.3261dup, p.Phe1088LeufsTer5), and *FANCM* (c.5101C>T, p.Gln1701Ter) shared in nine populations.

The deleterious variants in the populations of Bulgarian, Ashkenazi Jewish, Finnish, Estonia, and Icelander had unique features. Bulgarian population had a higher number of deleterious variants in *ATM* and *MUTYH*; Ashkenazi Jewish population contained the three well-known *BRCA* founder mutations [*BRCA1* 185delAG(c.68_69del), 5382insC(c.5266dup), and *BRCA2* 6174delT(c.5946del)] (Abeliovich et al, 1997); of the only six deleterious variants in Estonian population, two were in *ATM*; *BRCA2* c.771_775del (999del5), a founder mutation in Icelander for breast cancer (Tulinius et al, 2002), was not

but *BRCA2* c.8904del was present in the Icelander population. In the 28 deleterious variants in Icelander population, five were in *TP53*, of which four were only present in Icelander population (Table S4).

DDR deleterious variants and genetic diseases

We compared the DDR deleterious variation-associated diseases and observed that of the 80 diseases confirmed by mutated DDR genes, 53 (66.3%) are autosomal recessive, 20 (25%) are autosomal dominant, and 7 (8.8%) are both autosomal recessive and dominant (Table S6). For example, Fanconi Anemia caused by 12 mutated DDR genes of *FANCA*, *FANCC*, *FANCD2*, *FANCE*, *FANCF*, *FANCG*, *FANCI*, *FANCL*, *RAD51C*, *SLX4*, *XRCC2*, and *ERCC4* are all autosomal recessive, whereas breast cancer caused by eight DDR genes of *BARD1*, *BRCA1*, *BRCA2*, *BRIP1*, *CHEK2*, *PALB2*, *RAD51D*, and *RAD54L* are all autosomal dominant.

Discussion

Data from our study provide two important observations: (1) DDR deleterious variants were loaded at similar levels in human populations centered at 21 per 1,000 individuals. As deleterious variants can cause genome instability, they must be present at a tolerable threshold under tight evolution selection pressure. Exceptions were the populations with smaller size or unique evolution history. (2) DDR deleterious variants in human populations were highly ethnic specific. This reflects the genetic diversity of human populations from their adaptation to their natural environments.

Two third of DDR deleterious variants were present only in single ethnic populations. It suggests that DDR deleterious variants could be most likely arisen in recent history (Keinan & Clark, 2012; Fu et al, 2013; Li et al, 2022). This is evidenced by the fact that nearly all currently known *BRCA* founder mutations determined by haplotyping were young, for example, *BRCA1* c.3228_3229del in Italian was arisen 3,225 yr ago (Laitman et al, 2013); of the three *BRCA* founder mutations in Ashkenazi Jewish population, *BRCA1* 185delAG(c.68_69del) was arose 1,500–750 yr ago (Hamel et al, 2011), *BRCA1* 5382insC(c.5266dup) 1,800 yr ago (Neuhausen et al, 1998), and *BRCA2* 6174delT(c.5946del) 580 yr ago (Zeegers et al, 2004); *BRCA2* c.9118-2A>G, a founder mutation in Icelander population, was arisen only 220–144 yr ago (Altmann & Gennery, 2016). Our recent study also revealed that human *BRCA* deleterious variants mostly arose after migration out-of-Africa and great expansion of modern human population (Li et al, 2022). This may also be related with differences of evolution selection on different DDR genes. For example, *BRCA* is under strong positive selection, but MMR is under negative/neutral selection (Zhang et al, 2021). This contributed to more *BRCA* deleterious variants than MMR deleterious variants, as reflected by the 1.2% of *BRCA* deleterious variants shared between non-African and African populations whereas 9.9% sharing rate in MMR deleterious variants (Fig 2C and D).

A third of DDR deleterious variants were shared mostly between geographically related populations. The penetrance of the highly shared deleterious variants can be lower in causing phenotype change. For example, *LIG4* (c.1271_1275del, p.Lys424ArgfsTer20) was shared in 13 populations. *LIG4* is a member in nonhomologous end joining pathway. While mutation in *LIG4* can cause autosomal recessive diseases of immune deficiency, growth failure, sensitive to ionizing radiation, and cancer (Altmann & Gennery, 2016; Taskiran et

Table 3. Number of DNA damage repair deleterious variants identified in different ethnic populations

Ethnic population	Abbreviation	Number of individuals	#Variants	Load (P = 0.001) ^a
Bulgarian	NFE-BGR	1,335	64	48
Southern European	NFE-SEU	5,805	198	34
Other non-Finnish European	NFE-ONF	16,568	420	25
Japanese	JPN	3,552	79	22
North-Western European	NFE-NWE	25,410	544	21
Chinese	CHN	10,588	216	20
South Asian	SAS	15,263	305	20
Korean	KOR	2,964	57	19
Swedish	NFE-SWE	13,067	244	19
Latino/Admixed American	AMR	17,554	312	18
African/African American	AFR	11,810	202	17
Other East Asian	EAS-OEA	7,992	133	17
Ashkenazi Jewish	ASJ	4,931	56	11
Finnish	FIN	12,554	93	7
Estonian	NFE-EST	2,418	6	2
Icelander	ICE	12,584	27	2
Total ^b		158,612	1,781	11

^aLoad = variants/individuals*1,000 (P.value between group 34-17 and group 11-2).

^bDistinct number.

al, 2019), only 36 cases of diseases caused by *LIG4* mutation had been reported so far (Taskiran et al, 2019). It would be interesting to know if there could be any beneficial impact for these commonly shared deleterious variants, similar to the hemoglobin S and C variants in conferring resistance to malaria infection (Ha et al, 2019).

The load of DDR deleterious variants in Ashkenazi Jewish, Finnish, Icelander, and Estonia was much lower than in other populations. Each of these populations had its unique evolution history. For example, the initial population sizes were small in Ashkenazi Jewish (Guha et al, 2012), Icelander (Andersen & Zoega, 1999), Finnish (Kere, 2001), Estonia (Pankratov et al, 2020). Therefore, their population structures could be affected by the effects of bottleneck, founder and genetic drift (Crow, 1970). The small founder individuals and genetic isolation contributed to the unique genetic features of Finnish population in distinguishing them from other European populations (Harris, 2015; Kerminen et al, 2017). It is unlikely that the limited sample size of these populations included in the study contributed to their low detection of deleterious variants, as nearly four-times more deleterious variants were identified in Bulgarian than in Estonian, although the sample size of Bulgarian was 1.8-fold smaller than that of Estonian. Ashkenazi Jewish population has its unique types of genetic defect-contributed diseases (<https://www.jewishvirtuallibrary.org/ashkenazi-jewish-genetic-diseases>). For example, the three *BRCA* founder mutations [*BRCA1* 185delAG (c.68_69del), 5382insC (c.5266dup), and *BRCA2* 6174delT (c.5946del)] have high carrier frequency (2.17%) in Ashkenazi Jewish population contributing to high risk of breast and ovarian cancer (Gabai-Kapara et al, 2014). Although *BRCA2* c.771_775del (999del5) is the major founder mutation in Icelander breast cancer (Thorlacius et al, 1997), it was not present in the 27 DDR deleterious variants

identified in the Icelander population of 12,584 individuals included in our study. Its absence in Icelander general population highlights the possibility that *BRCA2* c.771_775del (999del5) may have lower prevalence in Icelander general population but be enriched in Icelander breast cancer cohort (Tulinus et al, 2002).

It is particularly interesting that most of the diseases caused by the mutated DDR genes are autosomal recessive. This can substantially diminish the impact of the DDR deleterious variants in disease susceptibility in human population although the prevalence can be high, as reflected by the rarity of the diseases caused by autosomal recessive *LIG4* deleterious variation, whereas the impact could be higher in the populations with consanguinity culture (Bittles & Black, 2010). It is also interesting to note that the deleterious variants in certain DDR genes causing autosomal dominant diseases can also be highly prevalent in human populations. This is represented by the high cancer-risk deleterious variants in *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* that the carrier rate reaches to one in a few hundreds of individuals in general population, for example, one in 384 in Japanese population (Momozawa et al, 2018), one in 265 in Chinese Han and Mexican populations (Fernández-Lopez et al, 2019; Dong et al, 2021), one in 256 in Malaysian population (Wen et al, 2018), one in 189 in US population (Manickam et al, 2018), and the highest of one in 46 in Ashkenazi Jewish population (Gabai-Kapara et al, 2014). Besides their deleterious effects, there could be beneficial significance for the high prevalent high-risk genetic predisposition in human population. In contrast to the stable status in most species, human *BRCA* is under strong positive selection leading to its high variability of more than 70,000 variants identified so far (Huttley et al, 2000; Cline et al, 2018). Besides the classical function of DDR, *BRCA*

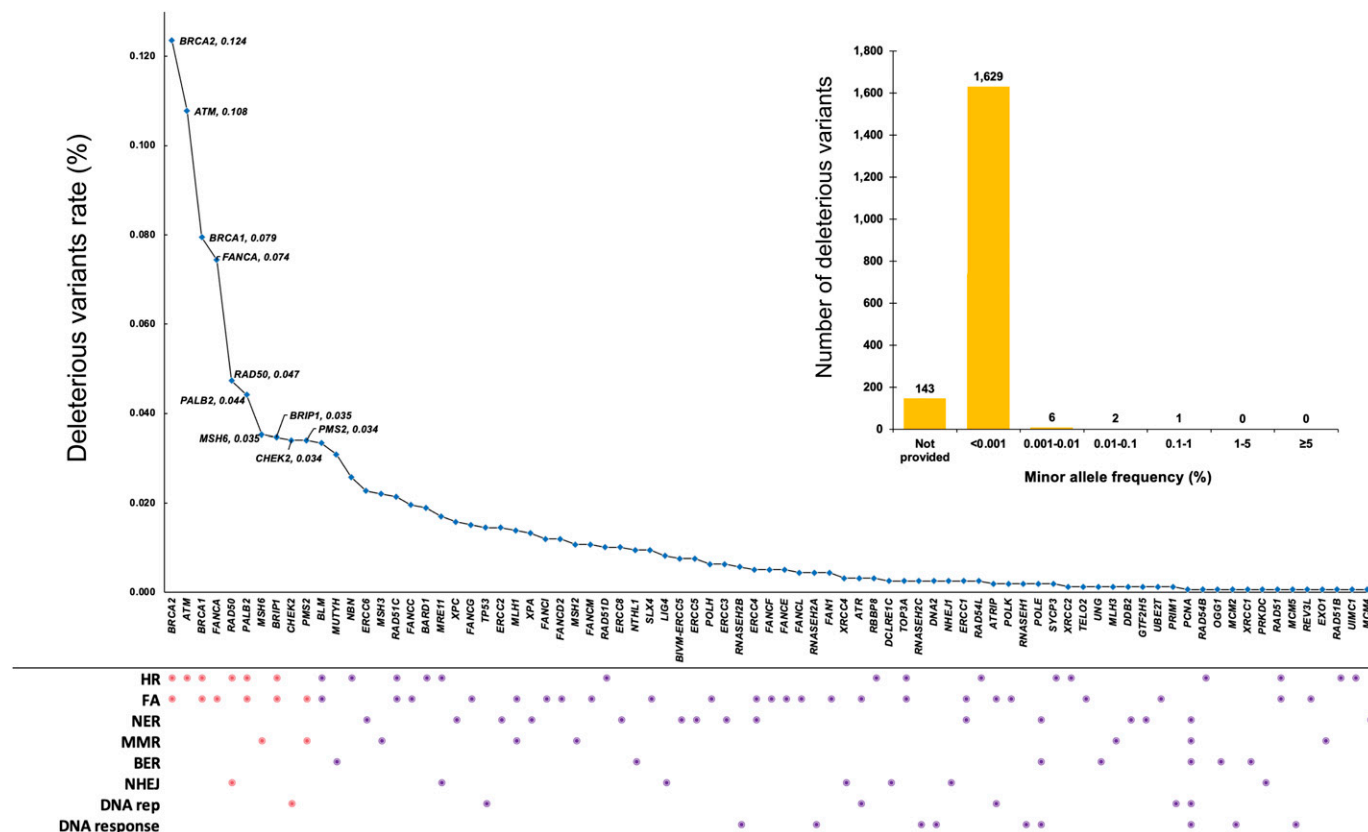


Figure 1. Frequency of deleterious variant distribution in DNA damage repair (DDR) genes.

It shows the distribution frequency of the deleterious variants in 81 DDR genes in the 159,612 individuals included in the study. The dots in DDR pathways show the gene(s) in DDR pathways affected by the variants. Pink dot refers to the high frequent variant-affected top 10 DDR genes of *BRCA2*, *ATM*, *BRCA1*, *FANCA*, *RAD50*, *PALB2*, *MSH6*, *BRIP1*, *CHEK2*, and *PMS2* and their corresponding pathways. BAR chart shows the distribution of minor allele frequency (%) for the 1,781 deleterious variants. HR, homologous recombination; FA, fanconi anemia; NER, nucleotide excision repair; MMR, mismatch repair; BER, base excision repair; NHEJ, non-homologous end joining; DNA rep, DNA replication; DNA response, DNA damage response.

gains multiple new functions including regulation of immunity against viral infection (Lou et al, 2014) and gene expression (Rosen et al, 2006), promotion of neural development (Pao et al, 2014), and enhancement of reproduction (Smith et al, 2013).

A limitation of our study is the lack of sufficient DDR data from non-European populations. It reinforces the importance of studying diverse populations in human genetic study (Sirugo et al, 2019; Sakaue et al, 2021).

Our study focused on the deleterious variation in DDR genes, which are only a part of the genes with deleterious effects. It will be interesting to know what we observed in DDR deleterious variation could also be present to the genes of other functional categories in human populations. It will also be interesting to know if the differences of deleterious variation may be linked to different susceptibility of human populations to diseases.

Materials and Methods

Sources of deleterious variation data

The DDR genes were determined by combining the genes from the “Replication and repair” in KEGG (Kanehisa & Goto, 2000, <https://www.genome.jp/kegg/pathway.html#cellular>) and the Human DNA Repair Genes (Wood et al, 2005, <https://www.mdanderson.org/>

[documents/Labs/Wood-Laboratory/human-dna-repair-genes.html](https://www.mdanderson.org/)). Genetic variants in DDR genes of general human populations were collected from the following resources: Chinese population from the China Metabolic Analytics Project (ChinaMAP) (Cao et al, 2020, <http://www.mbiobank.com/>, accessed in 9 September 2020); Japanese population from the 3.5KJPNv2 (Tadaka et al, 2019; <https://www.megabank.tohoku.ac.jp/english/about-the-change-on-the-release-of-3-5kjpgn/>, accessed 23 September 2020); Korean population from the Korean Variant Archive (KOVA) (Lee et al, 2017, <http://kobic.re.kr/kova/>, accessed 29 September 2020) and gnomADv2 noncancer data (Lee et al, 2017; Karczewski et al, 2020; <https://gnomad.broadinstitute.org/>, accessed 16 December 2020); Icelander population from the deCODE (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/eva/?eva-study=PRJEB15197>, accessed 1 July 2020) after filtered by the variant data from Icelander patients (Gudbjartsson et al, 2015; Jonsson et al, 2017; <https://www.ebi.ac.uk/eva/?eva-study=PRJEB8636>, accessed 26 September 2020); variation data of non-Finnish European (Estonian, Bulgarian, Swedish, Southern European, North-Western European and Other Non-Finnish European), Finnish, Latino/Admixed-American, Ashkenazi Jewish, African/African American, South Asian, other East Asian were extracted from gnomADv2 noncancer data. In each of the original studies, ancestry for each population was tested by either principal component analysis (Chinese, Japanese, Korea, gnomADv2) or genotyping (Icelander) as indicated in the original studies. Whole genome sequence data were from ChinaMAP, Japanese 3.5KJPNv2, Icelander deCODE, whole

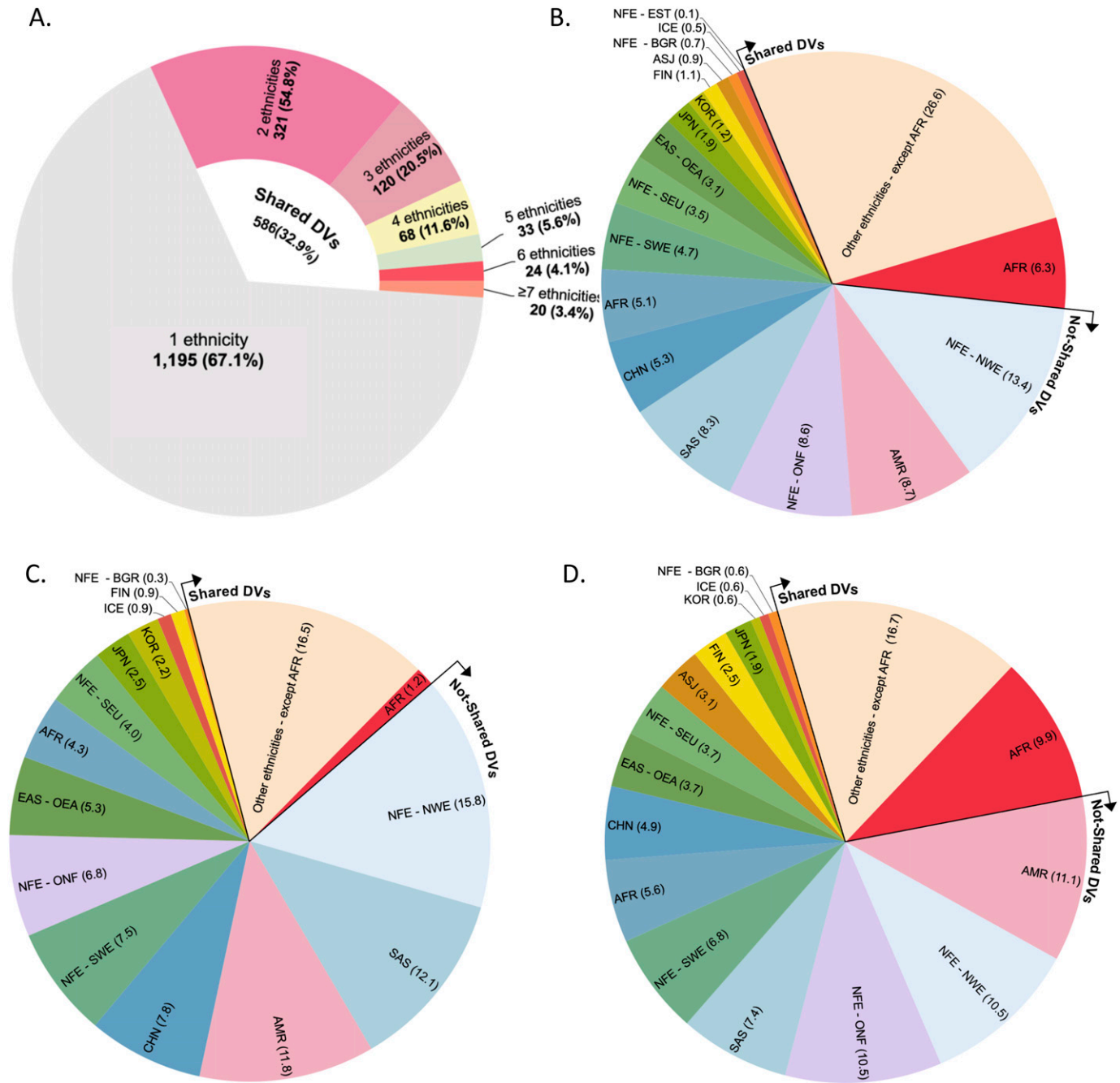


Figure 2. DNA damage repair deleterious variants distributed in human populations.

(A) Ethnic specificity of DNA damage repair deleterious variants. It shows that 1,195 of the 1,781 variants were present in single populations, and the rest were shared mostly between two populations. (B) DDR variants sharing between non-Africa and African populations. (C) BRCA1/2 variant deleterious variants sharing between different populations. (D) MMR variants sharing between different populations. The different sharing rates between BRCA and MMR variants showed the more variable BRCA deleterious variants than MMR deleterious variants. DV, deleterious variants.

exome sequence data were from Korean KOVA, whole genome sequence and whole exome sequence data were from gnomADv2. Only the variants marked as “PASS” in the corresponding VCF file were used in our study. The genome position of variants was based on human reference genome sequences hg38.

We used ANNOVAR program to annotate the variants (Wang et al, 2010), including annotation of the genetic information by referring

to refGene, dbSNP150 and COSMIC database, and annotation of the MAF by referring to gnomAD, ExAC, ESP6500, and 1,000 genomes. Ensembl Variant Effect Predictor was used to annotate the molecular consequence of each variant. “intron variant,” “upstream gene variants,” “downstream gene variant,” “5’UTR variant,” and “3’UTR variant” were grouped as non-coding variants; “missense variant,” “synonymous variant,” “frameshift variants,” “inframe deletion,” “start lost,”

Table 4. Comparison of DNA damage repair deleterious variants among 16 ethnic populations

Ethnicity	Total	Unshared (%)	Shared (%) ^a													Benjamini-Hochberg Ave.					
			Total	CHN	JPN	KOR	EAS-OEA	SAS	ICE	AFR	AMR	ASJ	FIN	NFE-BGR	NFE-EST		NFE-SEU	NFE-SWE	NFE-NWE	NFE-ONF	
CHN	216	94 (44)	122	-	12.3	9.0	31.1	36.9	1.6	25.4	29.5	6.6	12.3	5.7	0.8	25.4	20.5	36.1	29.5	17.7	2.74E-03
JPN	79	34 (43)	45	33.3	-	37.8	13.3	31.1	2.2	15.6	17.8	2.2	0.0	2.2	0.0	8.9	17.8	22.2	15.6	13.8	7.52E-04
KOR	57	22 (39)	35	31.4	48.6	-	14.3	14.3	2.9	20.0	20.0	2.9	5.7	5.7	0.0	14.3	11.4	11.4	17.1	13.8	7.52E-04
EAS-OEA	133	56 (42)	77	49.4	7.8	6.5	-	26.0	1.3	19.5	16.9	5.2	9.1	6.5	1.3	18.2	16.9	42.9	36.4	16.5	7.52E-04
SAS	305	148 (49)	157	28.7	8.9	3.2	12.7	-	3.2	28	36.3	6.4	11.5	9.6	0.0	25.5	25.5	47.1	35.0	17.6	2.13E-03
ICE	27	9 (33)	18	11.1	5.6	5.6	5.6	27.8	-	33.3	5.0	5.6	22.2	16.7	5.6	38.9	38.9	55.6	55.6	23.6	7.31E-04
AFR	202	90 (45)	112	27.7	6.2	6.2	13.4	39.3	5.4	-	33.9	5.4	13.4	12.5	0.0	24.1	27.7	50.0	43.8	19.3	8.69E-04
AMR	312	155 (50)	157	22.9	5.1	4.5	8.3	36.3	5.7	24.2	-	8.9	15.3	12.7	0.6	35.7	24.2	53.5	45.2	18.9	1.63E-03
ASJ	56	16 (29)	40	20.0	2.5	2.5	10.0	25.0	2.5	15.0	35.0	-	10.0	27.5	0.0	42.5	22.5	62.5	62.5	21.2	7.31E-04
FIN	93	19 (20)	74	20.3	0.0	2.7	9.5	24.3	5.4	20.3	32.4	5.4	-	21.6	1.4	33.8	52.7	52.7	20.9	20.9	7.52E-04
NFE-BGR	64	12 (19)	52	13.5	1.9	3.8	9.6	28.8	5.8	26.9	38.5	21.2	30.8	-	0.0	53.8	48.1	59.6	67.3	25.6	7.52E-04
NFE-EST	6	2 (33)	4	25.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	-	50.0	25.0	50.0	50.0	18.8	7.31E-04
NFE-SEU	198	63 (32)	135	23.0	3.0	3.7	10.4	29.6	5.2	20	41.5	12.6	18.5	20.7	1.5	-	33.3	59.3	54.8	21.1	1.10E-03
NFE-SWE	244	83 (34)	161	15.5	5.0	2.5	8.1	24.8	4.3	19.3	23.6	5.6	24.2	15.5	0.6	28.0	-	54.0	54.7	17.9	8.69E-04
NFE-NWE	544	238 (44)	306	14.4	3.3	1.3	10.8	24.2	3.3	18.3	27.5	8.2	12.7	10.1	0.7	26.1	28.4	-	57.8	15.4	6.14E-01
NFE-ONF	420	154 (37)	266	13.5	2.6	2.3	10.5	20.7	3.8	18.4	26.7	9.4	14.7	13.2	0.8	27.8	33.1	66.5	-	16.5	4.12E-01
Total ^b	1,781	1,195 (67)	583 (33)																		18.7

^a% = shared variants/total shared variants × 100; the rate in bold refers to the highest sharing rate among populations.

^bDistinct number.

Table 5. Top 10 highly shared DNA damage repair deleterious variants in human populations

Gene	HGVSc	HGVSp	Frequency	Disease	Population shared	Number
LIG4	c.1271_1275del	p.Lys424ArgfsTer20	0.0002	LIG4-Related disorders	CHN, JPN, ICE, KOR, AFR, AMR, EAS_OEA, NFE_BGR, NFE_NWE, NFE_SEU, NFE_SWE, NFE_ONF, SAS	13
MUTYH	c.1103G>A	p.Gly368Asp	0.0030	MYH-associated polyposis	CHN, AFR, AMR, ASJ, EAS_OEA, FIN, NFE_BGR, NFE_NWE, NFE_SEU, NFE_SWE, NFE_ONF, SAS	12
RAD50	c.2165dup	p.Glu723GlyfsTer5	0.0003	Hereditary cancer	CHN, AFR, AMR, ASJ, EAS_OEA, FIN, NFE_BGR, NFE_NWE, NFE_SEU, NFE_SWE, NFE_ONF, SAS	12
MSH6	c.3226C>T	p.Arg1076Cys	0.0001	Lynch syndrome	CHN, AFR, AMR, ASJ, EAS_OEA, NFE_BGR, NFE_NWE, NFE_SEU, NFE_SWE, NFE_ONF, SAS	11
MUTYH	c.452A>G	p.Tyr151Cys	0.0015	MYH-associated polyposis	CHN, AFR, AMR, FIN, NFE_BGR, NFE_NWE, NFE_SEU, NFE_SWE, NFE_ONF, SAS	10
OGG1	c.137G>A	p.Arg46Gln	0.0022	Clear cell carcinoma of kidney	AFR, AMR, ASJ, FIN, NFE_BGR, NFE_NWE, NFE_SEU, NFE_SWE, NFE_ONF, SAS	10
XRCC4	c.25del	p.His9ThrfsTer8	0.0004	Short stature	ICE, AFR, AMR, FIN, NFE_BGR, NFE_NWE, NFE_SEU, NFE_SWE, NFE_ONF, SAS	10
ERCC3	c.325C>T	p.Arg109Ter	0.0005	Unknown	AMR, ASJ, FIN, NFE_BGR, NFE_NWE, NFE_SEU, NFE_SWE, NFE_ONF, SAS	9
MSH6	c.3261dup	p.Phe1088LeufsTer5	0.0001	Lynch syndrome	CHN, ICE, AFR, AMR, FIN, NFE_NWE, NFE_SWE, NFE_ONF, SAS	9
FANCM	c.5101C>T	p.Gln1701Ter	0.0013	Fanconi anemia	ICE, AFR, AMR, FIN, NFE_BGR, NFE_NWE, NFE_SEU, NFE_SWE, NFE_ONF	9

“stop gained,” “stop retained variant,” “splice region variant,” “splice donor variant,” “splice acceptor variant,” “coding sequence variant” and “protein altering variant” were grouped as coding variants. Clinical significance of each variant was classified as Pathogenic, Likely pathogenic, Variants of Uncertain Significance (VUS), Likely benign, and Benign by referring to ClinVar (Landrum et al, 2016; released 1 May 2021, imbedded in ANNOVAR). In our study, we defined the pathogenic and likely pathogenic variants as deleterious variants.

Construction of DDR deleterious variant database

We developed an open accessing database “dbDDR-GLOBAL” to host the DDR deleterious variants identified in the 16 populations (<https://genemutation.fhs.um.edu.mo/dbddr-global/>). The database provides detailed information for each variant including genome position, gene name, molecular consequence, classification, SNP ID, MAF, population origin, etc.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed via R program. Chi test (χ) was used to compare the differences between DDR pathways with deleterious variant-affected DDR genes, and double-side *t* test was used to compare the differences of deleterious variant loads among populations. We further performed Benjamini–Hochberg procedure for chi test (χ) and *t* test results, *P* < 0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

Data Availability

The original data used in the study were from public resources as indicated in the text, the resulting data were provided as online

Tables S1–S6, and in the database “dbDDR-global” for users to explore the data (<https://genemutation.fhs.um.edu.mo/dbddr-global/>).

Expanded view

The online version contains Tables S1–S6.

Supplementary Information

Supplementary information is available at <https://doi.org/10.26508/lsa.202101319>.

Acknowledgements

This work was performed at the high-performance computing cluster supported by Information and Communication Technology Office of the University of Macau. This work was funded by grants from Macau Science and Technology Development Fund (085/2017/A2 and 0077/2019/AMJ), the University of Macau (SRG2017-00097-FHS, MYRG2019-00018-FHS, and MYRG2020-00094-FHS), and the Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Macau (Startup fund, FHSIG/SW/0007/2020P, FHS Innovation grant) (SM Wang).

Author Contributions

Z Qin: data curation, formal analysis, investigation, visualization, and writing—original draft, review, and editing.

T Huang: resources, software, database construction, and writing—review and editing.

M Guo: data analysis and writing—review and editing.

SM Wang: conceptualization, funding acquisition, investigation, and writing—review and editing.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

- Abeliovich D, Kaduri L, Lerer I, Weinberg N, Amir G, Sagi M, Zlotogora J, Heching N, Peretz T (1997) The founder mutations 185delAG and 5382insC in BRCA1 and 6174delT in BRCA2 appear in 60% of ovarian cancer and 30% of early-onset breast cancer patients among Ashkenazi women. *Am J Hum Genet* 60: 505–514.
- Altmann T, Gennery AR (2016) DNA ligase IV syndrome; a review. *Orphanet J Rare Dis* 11: 137. doi:10.1186/s13023-016-0520-1
- Andersen B, Zoega T (1999) Icelandic genetics. *Nat Biotechnol* 17: 517. doi:10.1038/9777
- Bittles AH, Black ML (2010) Consanguinity, human evolution, and complex diseases. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 107: 1779–1786. doi:10.1073/pnas.0906079106
- Cao Y, Li L, Xu M, Feng Z, Sun X, Lu J, Xu Y, Du P, Wang T, Hu R, et al (2020) The ChinaMAP analytics of deep whole genome sequences in 10,588 individuals. *Cell Res* 30: 717–731. doi:10.1038/s41422-020-0322-9
- Chatterjee N, Walker GC (2017) Mechanisms of DNA damage, repair, and mutagenesis. *Environ Mol Mutagen* 58: 235–263. doi:10.1002/em.22087
- Cline MS, Liao RG, Parsons MT, Paten B, Alquaddoomi F, Antoniou A, Baxter S, Brody L, Cook-Deegan R, Coffin A, et al (2018) BRCA challenge: BRCA exchange as a global resource for variants in BRCA1 and BRCA2. *PLoS Genet* 14: e1007752. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1007752
- Crow JF (1970) Genetic Loads and the Cost of Natural Selection. *Mathematical Topics in Population Genetics*. Berlin, Germany: Springer: 128–177.
- Cubuk C, Garrett A, Choi S, King L, Loveday C, Torr B, Burghel GJ, Durkie M, Callaway A, Robinson R, et al (2021) Clinical likelihood ratios and balanced accuracy for 44 in silico tools against multiple large-scale functional assays of cancer susceptibility genes. *Genet Med* 23: 2096–2104. doi:10.1038/s41436-021-01265-z
- Dong H, Chandratre K, Qin Y, Zhang J, Tian X, Rong C, Wang N, Guo M, Zhao G, Wang SM (2021) Prevalence of BRCA1/BRCA2 pathogenic variation in Chinese Han population. *J Med Genet* 58: 565–569. doi:10.1136/jmedgenet-2020-106970
- Eyre-Walker A, Keightley PD (1999) High genomic deleterious mutation rates in hominids. *Nature* 397: 344–347. doi:10.1038/16915
- Fernández-Lopez JC, Romero-Córdoba S, Rebollar-Vega R, Alfaro-Ruiz LA, Jiménez-Morales S, Beltrán-Anaya F, Arellano-Llamas R, Cedro-Tanda A, Rios-Romero M, Ramirez-Florencio M, et al (2019) Population and breast cancer patients' analysis reveals the diversity of genomic variation of the BRCA genes in the Mexican population. *Hum Genomics* 13: 3. doi:10.1186/s40246-018-0188-9
- Fu W, Gittelman RM, Bamshad MJ, Akey JM (2014) Characteristics of neutral and deleterious protein-coding variation among individuals and populations. *The Am J Hum Genet* 95: 421–436. doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2014.09.006
- Fu W, O'Connor TD, Jun G, Kang HM, Abecasis G, Leal SM, Gabriel S, Rieder MJ, Altshuler D, Shendure J, et al (2013) Analysis of 6,515 exomes reveals the recent origin of most human protein-coding variants. *Nature* 493: 216–220. doi:10.1038/nature11690
- Gabai-Kapara E, Lahad A, Kaufman B, Friedman E, Segev S, Renbaum P, Beerli R, Gal M, Grinshpun-Cohen J, Djemal K, et al (2014) Population-based screening for breast and ovarian cancer risk due to BRCA1 and BRCA2. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 111: 14205–14210. doi:10.1073/pnas.1415979111
- Gudbjartsson DF, Sulem P, Helgason H, Gylfason A, Gudjonsson SA, Zink F, Oddsson A, Magnusson G, Halldorsson BV, Hjartarson E, et al (2015) Sequence variants from whole genome sequencing a large group of Icelanders. *Sci Data* 2: 150011. doi:10.1038/sdata.2015.11
- Guha S, Rosenfeld JA, Malhotra AK, Lee AT, Gregersen PK, Kane JM, Pe'er I, Darvasi A, Lencz T (2012) Implications for health and disease in the genetic signature of the Ashkenazi Jewish population. *Genome Biol* 13: R2. doi:10.1186/gb-2012-13-1-r2
- Ha J, Martinson R, Iwamoto SK, Nishi A (2019) Hemoglobin E, malaria and natural selection. *Evol Med Public Health* 2019: 232–241. doi:10.1093/emph/eoz034
- Hamel N, Feng B-J, Foretova L, Stoppa-Lyonnet D, Narod SA, Imyanitov E, Sinilnikova O, Tihomirova L, Lubinski J, Gronwald J, et al (2011) On the origin and diffusion of BRCA1 c.5266dupC (5382insC) in European populations. *Eur J Hum Genet* 19: 300–306. doi:10.1038/ejhg.2010.203
- Harris K (2015) Evidence for recent, population-specific evolution of the human mutation rate. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 112: 3439–3444. doi:10.1073/pnas.1418652112
- Henn BM, Botigué LR, Bustamante CD, Clark AG, Gravel S (2015) Estimating the mutation load in human genomes. *Nat Rev Genet* 16: 333–343. doi:10.1038/nrg3931
- Huang KL, Mashl RJ, Wu Y, Ritter DI, Wang J, Oh C, Paczkowska M, Reynolds S, Wyczalkowski MA, Oak N, et al (2018) Pathogenic germline variants in 10,389 adult cancers. *Cell* 173: 355–370.e14. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2018.03.039
- Huttley GA, Easteal S, Southey MC, Tesoriero A, Giles GG, McCredie MRE, Hopper JL, Venter DJ (2000) Adaptive evolution of the tumour suppressor BRCA1 in humans and chimpanzees. *Nat Genet* 25: 410–413. doi:10.1038/78092
- Jonsson H, Sulem P, Kehr B, Kristmundsdottir S, Zink F, Hjartarson E, Hardarson MT, Hjorleifsson KE, Eggertsson HP, Gudjonsson SA, et al (2017) Whole genome characterization of sequence diversity of 15,220 Icelanders. *Sci Data* 4: 170115. doi:10.1038/sdata.2017.115
- Kanehisa M, Goto S (2000) KEGG: Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes. *Nucleic Acids Res* 28: 27–30. doi:10.1093/nar/28.1.27
- Karczewski KJ, Francioli LC, MacArthur DG, Cummings BB, Alfoldi J, Wang Q, Collins RL, Laricchia KM, Ganna A, Birnbaum DP, et al (2020) The mutational constraint spectrum quantified from variation in 141,456 humans. *Yearb Paediatr Endocrinol* 581: 434–443. doi:10.1530/ey.17.14.3
- Keinan A, Clark AG (2012) Recent explosive human population growth has resulted in an excess of rare genetic variants. *Science* 336: 740–743. doi:10.1126/science.1217283
- Kere J (2001) Human population genetics: Lessons from Finland. *Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet* 2: 103–128. doi:10.1146/annurev.genom.2.1.103
- Kerminen S, Havulinna AS, Hellenthal G, Martin AR, Sarin A-P, Perola M, Palotie A, Salomaa V, Daly MJ, Ripatti S, et al (2017) Fine-Scale genetic structure in Finland. *G3 (Bethesda)* 7: 3459–3468. doi:10.1534/g3.117.300217
- Kimura M, Maruyama T, Crow JF (1963) The mutation load in small populations. *Genetics* 48: 1303–1312. doi:10.1093/genetics/48.10.1303
- Knijnenburg TA, Wang L, Zimmermann MT, Chambwe N, Gao GF, Cherniack AD, Fan H, Shen H, Way GP, Greene CS, et al (2018) Genomic and molecular landscape of DNA damage repair deficiency across the cancer genome atlas. *Cell Rep* 23: 239–254.e6. doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2018.03.076
- Laitman Y, Feng B-J, Zamir IM, Weitzel JN, Duncan P, Port D, Thirthagiri E, Teo S-H, Evans G, Latif A, et al (2013) Haplotype analysis of the 185delAG BRCA1 mutation in ethnically diverse populations. *Eur J Hum Genet* 21: 212–216. doi:10.1038/ejhg.2012.124
- Landrum MJ, Lee JM, Benson M, Brown G, Chao C, Chitipiralla S, Gu B, Hart J, Hoffman D, Hoover J, et al (2016) ClinVar: Public archive of interpretations of clinically relevant variants. *Nucleic Acids Res* 44: D862–D868. doi:10.1093/nar/gkv1222

- Lee S, Seo J, Park J, Nam J-Y, Choi A, Ignatius JS, Bjornson RD, Chae J-H, Jang I-J, Lee S, et al (2017) Korean variant archive (KOVA): A reference database of genetic variations in the Korean population. *Scientific Rep* 7: 4287. doi:10.1038/s41598-017-04642-4
- Levy-Lahad E, Friedman E (2007) Cancer risks among BRCA1 and BRCA2 mutation carriers. *Br J Cancer* 96: 11–15. doi:10.1038/sj.bjc.6603535
- Li J, Zhao B, Huang T, Qin Z, Wang S (2022) Human BRCA pathogenic variants were originated during recent human history. *Life Sci Alliance* 5: e202101263. doi:10.26508/lsa.202101263
- Lohmueller KE (2014) The distribution of deleterious genetic variation in human populations. *Curr Opin Genet Dev* 29: 139–146. doi:10.1016/j.gde.2014.09.005
- Lou DI, McBee RM, Le UQ, Stone AC, Wilkerson GK, Demogines AM, Sawyer SL (2014) Rapid evolution of BRCA1 and BRCA2 in humans and other primates. *BMC Evol Biol* 14: 155. doi:10.1186/1471-2148-14-155
- Lynch M (2010) Rate, molecular spectrum, and consequences of human mutation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 107: 961–968. doi:10.1073/pnas.0912629107
- MacArthur DG, Manolio TA, Dimmock DP, Rehm HL, Shendure J, Abecasis GR, Adams DR, Altman RB, Antonarakis SE, Ashley EA, et al (2014) Guidelines for investigating causality of sequence variants in human disease. *Nature* 508: 469–476. doi:10.1038/nature13127
- Manickam K, Buchanan AH, Schwartz MLB, Hallquist MLG, Williams JL, Rahm AK, Rocha H, Savatt JM, Evans AE, Butry LM, et al (2018) Exome sequencing- based screening for BRCA1/2 expected pathogenic variants among adult Biobank participants. *JAMA Netw Open* 1: e182140. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2018.2140
- Milanowska K, Krwawicz J, Papaj G, Kosinski J, Poleszak K, Lesiak J, Osinska E, Rother K, Bujnicki JM (2011a) REPAIRtoire: A database of DNA repair pathways. *Nucleic Acids Res* 39: D788–D792. doi:10.1093/nar/gkq1087
- Milanowska K, Rother K, Bujnicki JM (2011b) Databases and bioinformatics tools for the study of DNA repair. *Mol Biol Int* 2011: 1–9. doi:10.4061/2011/475718
- Momozawa Y, Iwasaki Y, Parsons MT, Kamatani Y, Takahashi A, Tamura C, Katagiri T, Yoshida T, Nakamura S, Sugano K, et al (2018) Germline pathogenic variants of 11 breast cancer genes in 7,051 Japanese patients and 11,241 controls. *Nat Commun* 9: 4083. doi:10.1038/s41467-018-06581-8
- Muller HJ (1950) Our load of mutations. *Am J Hum Genet* 2: 111–176.
- Neuhausen SL, Godwin AK, Gershoni-Baruch R, Schubert E, Garber J, Stoppa-Lyonnet D, Olah E, Csokay B, Serova O, Laloo F, et al (1998) Haplotype and phenotype analysis of nine recurrent BRCA2 mutations in 111 families: Results of an international study. *The Am J Hum Genet* 62: 1381–1388. doi:10.1086/301885
- Pankratov V, Montinaro F, Kushniarevich A, Hudjashov G, Jay F, Saag L, Flores R, Marnetto D, Seppel M, Kals M, et al (2020) Differences in local population history at the finest level: The case of the Estonian population. *Eur J Hum Genet* 28: 1580–1591. doi:10.1038/s41431-020-0699-4
- Pao GM, Zhu Q, Perez-Garcia CG, Chou SJ, Suh H, Gage FH, O’Leary DDM, Verma IM (2014) Role of BRCA1 in brain development. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 111: E1240–E1248. doi:10.1073/pnas.1400783111
- Richards S, Aziz N, Bale S, Bick D, Das S, Gastier-Foster J, Grody WW, Hegde M, Lyon E, Spector E, et al (2015) Standards and guidelines for the interpretation of sequence variants: A joint consensus recommendation of the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics and the Association for Molecular Pathology. *Genet Med* 17: 405–424. doi:10.1038/gim.2015.30
- Rosen EM, Fan S, Ma Y (2006) BRCA1 regulation of transcription. *Cancer Lett* 236: 175–185. doi:10.1016/j.canlet.2005.04.037
- Sakaue S, Kanai M, Tanigawa Y, Karjalainen J, Kurki M, Koshiba S, Narita A, Konuma T, Yamamoto K, Akiyama M, et al (2021) A cross-population atlas of genetic associations for 220 human phenotypes. *Nat Genet* 53: 1415–1424. doi:10.1038/s41588-021-00931-x
- Simons YB, Turchin MC, Pritchard JK, Sella G (2014) The deleterious mutation load is insensitive to recent population history. *Nat Genet* 46: 220–224. doi:10.1038/ng.2896
- Sirugo G, Williams SM, Tishkoff SA (2019) The missing diversity in human genetic studies. *Cell* 177: 1080. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2019.04.032
- Smith KR, Hanson HA, Hollingshaus MS (2013) BRCA1 and BRCA2 mutations and female fertility. *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol* 25: 207–213. doi:10.1097/gco.0b013e32835f1731
- Spurdle AB, Healey S, Devereau A, Hogervorst FBL, Monteiro ANA, Nathanson KL, Radice P, Stoppa-Lyonnet D, Tavtigian S, Wappenschmidt B, et al (2012) ENIGMA—evidence-based network for the interpretation of germline mutant alleles: An international initiative to evaluate risk and clinical significance associated with sequence variation in BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes. *Hum Mutat* 33: 2–7. doi:10.1002/humu.21628
- Tadaka S, Katsuo F, Ueki M, Kojima K, Makino S, Saito S, Otsuki A, Gocho C, Sakurai-Yageta M, Danjoh I, et al (2019) 3.5KJPNv2: An allele frequency panel of 3552 Japanese individuals including the X chromosome. *Hum Genome Var* 6: 28. doi:10.1038/s41439-019-0059-5
- Taskiran EZ, Sonmez HE, Kosukcu C, Tavukcuoglu E, Yazici G, Esendagli G, Batu ED, Kiper POS, Bilginer Y, Alikasifoglu M, et al (2019) A novel missense LIG4 mutation in a patient with a phenotype mimicking behçet’s disease. *J Clin Immunol* 39: 99–105. doi:10.1007/s10875-018-0587-7
- Thorlacius S, Sigurdsson S, Bjarnadottir H, Olafsdottir G, Jonasson JG, Tryggvadottir L, Tulinius H, Eyfjörd JE (1997) Study of a single BRCA2 mutation with high carrier frequency in a small population. *Am J Hum Genet* 60: 1079–1084.
- Tulinius H, Olafsdottir GH, Sigvaldason H, Arason A, Barkardottir RB, Egilsson V, Ogmundsdottir HM, Tryggvadottir L, Gudlaugsdottir S, Eyfjörd JE (2002) The effect of a single BRCA2 mutation on cancer in Iceland. *J Med Genet* 39: 457–462. doi:10.1136/jmg.39.7.457
- Wang K, Li M, Hakonarson H (2010) ANNOVAR: Functional annotation of genetic variants from high-throughput sequencing data. *Nucleic Acids Res* 38: e164. doi:10.1093/nar/gkq603
- Wen L, Feng JA (2004) Repair-FunMap: A functional database of proteins of the DNA repair systems. *Bioinformatics* 20: 2135–2137. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bth194
- Wen WX, Allen J, Lai KN, Mariapun S, Hasan SN, Ng PS, Lee DS-C, Lee SY, Yoon S-Y, Lim J, et al (2018) Inherited mutations in BRCA1 and BRCA2 in an unselected multiethnic cohort of Asian patients with breast cancer and healthy controls from Malaysia. *J Med Genet* 55: 97–103. doi:10.1136/jmedgenet-2017-104947
- Wood RD, Mitchell M, Lindahl T (2005) Human DNA repair genes, 2005. *Mutat Res* 577: 275–283. doi:10.1016/j.mrfmmm.2005.03.007
- Xue Y, Chen Y, Ayub Q, Huang N, Ball EV, Mort M, Phillips AD, Shaw K, Stenson PD, Cooper DN, et al (2012) Deleterious- and disease-allele prevalence in healthy individuals: Insights from current predictions, mutation databases, and population-scale resequencing. *The Am J Hum Genet* 91: 1022–1032. doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2012.10.015
- Zeegers MPA, van Poppel F, Vlietinck R, Spruijt L, Ostrer H (2004) Founder mutations among the Dutch. *Eur J Hum Genet* 12: 591–600. doi:10.1038/sj.ejhg.5201151
- Zhang L, Qin Z, Huang T, Tam B, Ruan Y, Guo M, Wu X, Li J, Zhao B, Chian JS, et al (2021) Prevalence and spectrum of DNA mismatch repair gene variation in the general Chinese population. *J Med Genet*. doi:10.1136/jmedgenet-2021-107886



License: This article is available under a Creative Commons License (Attribution 4.0 International, as described at <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).