Structural variation (SV) describes a broad class of genetic variation greater than 50 bp in size. SVs can cause a wide range of genetic diseases and are prevalent in rare developmental disorders (DDs). Individuals presenting with DDs are often referred for diagnostic testing with chromosomal microarrays (CMAs) to identify large copy-number variants (CNVs) and/or with single-gene, gene-panel, or exome sequencing (ES) to identify single-nucleotide variants, small insertions/deletions, and CNVs. However, individuals with pathogenic SVs undetected by conventional analysis often remain undiagnosed. Consequently, we have developed the tool InDelible, which interrogates short-read sequencing data for split-read clusters characteristic of SV breakpoints. We applied InDelible to 13,438 probands with severe DDs recruited as part of the Deciphering Developmental Disorders (DDD) study and discovered 63 rare, damaging variants in genes previously associated with DDs missed by standard SNV, indel, or CNV discovery approaches. Clinical review of these 63 variants determined that about half (30/63) were plausibly pathogenic. InDelible was particularly effective at ascertaining variants between 21 and 500 bp in size and increased the total number of potentially pathogenic variants identified by DDD in this size range by 42.9%. Of particular interest were seven confirmed de novo variants in MECP2, which represent 35.0% of all de novo protein-truncating variants in MECP2 among DDD study participants. InDelible provides a framework for the discovery of pathogenic SVs that are most likely missed by standard analytical workflows and has the potential to improve the diagnostic yield of ES across a broad range of genetic diseases.

In diagnostic testing of suspected genetic disorders, SVs are often identified using chromosomal microarrays (CMAs) which offer a low-cost albeit low-resolution method for the identification of large CNVs (typically >20 kbp in length for genic regions). CMAs are still widely used by diagnostic laboratories despite the increasing maturity of genome sequencing-based tools for SV discovery and the wealth of clinically ascertained exome-sequencing (ES) data already generated for the ascertainment of single-nucleotide variants (SNVs) and small insertions/deletions (indels). There are several reasons for this. First, the cost, computational power, and informatics complexity necessary for genome sequencing-based diagnostics is still a barrier to many public and private healthcare providers. Second, current ES-based SV-discovery approaches focus on methods that interrogate sequencing coverage to identify regions of copy number variation within one genome compared to others. As such, ascertainment is typically limited to CNVs of size >10 kbp, with resolution largely a factor of the sequencing depth and the density and number of baits in the ES assay, analogous to probes in CMAs. Thus, despite potentially offering improvements in CNV ascertainment over CMAs, ES as a tool for the assessment of diagnostic SVs has been slow to enter the clinic.

Consequently, individuals with genetic abnormalities smaller than the discovery resolution of CMA or standard SV-ES approaches (>10 kbp) but larger than variants able to be accurately called using typical SNV/indel-based approaches (<50 bp) often remain undetected, here termed “cryptic.” To address this unmet need, we have developed the tool InDelible, which examines ES data for split read pairs indicative of SV breakpoints. We decided to focus on split reads because the formation of unique junction sequences is a shared characteristic of a broad range of different classes of SVs. We applied InDelible to ES data...
generated from 13,438 probands with severe developmental disorders (DDs) recruited as part of the Deciphering Developmental Disorders (DDD) study. Approximately 29% of DDD probands harbor a pathogenic de novo mutation in a gene known to be associated with DD and have been previously assessed for a wide range of variant classes such as coding, noncoding, and splice site SNVs and indels, multineucleotide variants, mobile element insertions, and copy number variants (unpublished data). As such, the DDD study represents an ideal opportunity to demonstrate the additive diagnostic potential of identification of SVs at scale using split-read information.

InDelible variant discovery and analysis proceeds in several steps (Figure 1; detailed description in supplemental material and methods). In summary, InDelible identifies split reads, aggregates them into clusters at the same genomic location, filters these clusters to remove technical artifacts and retain likely genetic variants, and then combines unaligned portions of split reads and maps them to the genome to characterize the nature of the variant. InDelible also calculates the frequency of each split-read cluster across a population of individuals to facilitate the filtering of variants on the basis of minor allele frequency.

InDelible is coded in Python, uses the pysam (see web resources) library for sequence alignment file manipulation (Table S1), and works on bwa-aligned BAM or CRAM format files. We have designed InDelible to be scalable for datasets comprising individual probands to multi-thousand sample cohorts and our estimates suggest that, to analyze a dataset of 1,000 trios, InDelible would require approximately 1556 CPU h, or 15.6 h of real time on a 100-core compute cluster (Figure S2). Additionally, for easy implementation on cloud compute platforms, we have made InDelible available as a Docker image (see supplemental material and methods and data and code availability).

We benchmarked InDelible against GATK and Manta, another SV detector which utilizes split reads, for variants across a range of allele frequencies and sizes. First, we ran these callers on ES data generated for a control individual by the Genome in a Bottle Consortium. We then used the gold-standard variant dataset provided by the Genome in a Bottle Consortium for the same individual, which amalgamates variant-call data across several data types including whole genome short-, linked-, and long-read sequencing, to assess recall and specificity of the resulting ES calls for each algorithm (Figure S3; supplemental material and methods). When using ES data, InDelible equals or exceeds the recall of both GATK and Manta for variants between 21 and 10 kbp in length, the variant space InDelible was targeted to identify. Relative to InDelible, GATK and Manta had 81.7% and 15.0% recall for deletions >20 bp in length, respectively, and 86.9% and 8.2% recall for insertions >20 bp in length, respectively. In this same experiment InDelible has moderately increased false discovery rates compared to GATK (Figure S3). These issues can likely be attributed to InDelible being designed for maximum sensitivity in clinical sequencing data and can likely be abrogated via the design of better hard filters when analyzing population-level variants and/or retraining the random forest using training data from population-level datasets.

A key objective for the design of InDelible was to identify de novo variants potentially causative of a proband’s disorder. As such, variants are primarily filtered on: (1) the population frequency of the split read cluster to remove variants too common to be plausibly causative of a rare disorder, (2) absence in unaffected parents (when available), and (3) intersection of variant breakpoints with the coding
sequences of known-disease-associated genes. Defining the precise molecular structure of SVs from short read sequencing data can be challenging, and even minor errors in breakpoint precision can have large consequences on interpretation (e.g., in- versus out-of-frame indels). Hence, we opted to identify all variants which intersect relevant DD-associated genes for further manual curation rather than relying on generic variant interpretation tools.

To evaluate the utility of InDelible for diagnostic analyses, we applied InDelible to identify putatively diagnostic variants in 13,438 probands recruited to the DDD study. Probands were exome sequenced either with both parents (trios, n = 9,848) or with one or both parents absent (non-trios, n = 3,590). We first identified split reads and split read clusters (Figure 1) to ascertain 353,313,108 redundant split read clusters across all probands. Random forest filtering resulted in retention of 30,667,420 high-quality, redundant split read clusters across all probands, or 8.7% of originally ascertained loci (supplemental material and methods, Figure S4). After cluster filtering, we merged all retained clusters into a set of 1,954,642 non-redundant split read clusters across all 13,438 probands, with 1,342,050 (68.7%) clusters found only in one proband (Figure S5). Clusters were evenly distributed across all chromosomes as a function of chromosome length (r² = 0.739; Figure S6). Retained clusters were then annotated with putative breakpoints, intersecting gene(s), and population frequency. InDelible was also able to determine the missing 5′ or 3′ breakpoint, variant length, and variant type (i.e., deletion, duplication, MEI, etc.) of 199,932 (10.2%) clusters (supplemental material and methods).

Of the clusters which InDelible was able to resolve to a specific variant type, 65.7% were simple deletions/duplications, with the remainder comprising complex events, MEIs, translocations/segmental duplications, and non-templated insertions (Figure S7). Ascertainment of variant type and length are dependent on sequencing depth and population frequency (Figure S5) but are optimized for the length of variants InDelible is best suited to identify (~20–500 bp; Figure S8). This specificity is best demonstrated when restricting to clusters that are plausibly associated with DDD study participant phenotype (see below); InDelible accurately resolves both breakpoints, length, and variant type for 86.3% (126/146) of such clusters (Table S2).

We next restricted our variant set to rare (call frequency < 0.04%) clusters found only in or near (here defined as within ± 10 bp of any exon) the coding sequence of 399 dominant or X-linked DD-associated genes from the Developmental Disorders Genotype-to-Phenotype database (DDG2P). Variants identified within individuals sequenced as a parent-offspring trio were then also assessed for de novo status. Filtering on allele frequency, inheritance, and gene intersection resulted in a preliminary set of 260 candidate indels and SVs across all 13,438 probands (Figure 2A; Table S2; supplemental material and methods). Based on manual variant inspection, we determined that 2/260 (0.8%) were erroneously annotated to have intersected a mono-allelic DD gene, 17/260 (6.5%) candidate de novo events were likely to be present in a parent (i.e., parental false negatives), and 23/260 (8.8%) were unlikely to be real variants (i.e., offspring false positives). Four probands contributed 52.2% of false positive variants, indicating that sample selection and/or additional sample-level QC could further lower the false positive rate of InDelible (Figure 2A; Table S2).

Following variant quality control, we further curated variants for those likely to be associated with a proband phenotype (Figure 2A). We considered variants with a non-Finnish European minor allele frequency of ≥1 × 10⁻⁴ (19/260; 7.3%) in the Genome Aggregation Database (gnomAD)¹,²⁴ or presence in other unrelated individuals within DDD (20/260; 7.7%) as unlikely to be the cause of the child’s disorder. Additionally, variants confined to introns or 5′/3′ UTRs were also defined as variants of uncertain significance and were not considered further (33/260; 12.7%). This final round of filtering left 146 SVs and large indels which could plausibly explain a proband phenotype (56 from probands sequenced as trios, 90 from non-trio probands).

We next sought to determine the sensitivity of InDelible to clinically relevant variants ascertained using alternative methods. DDD has already identified (across both trio and non-trio probands) 1,853 rare, plausibly pathogenic variants with a net size difference ≥ 1 bp (i.e., non-SNVs) in the same DDG2P gene set defined above—variants potentially detectable with a split read-based method such as that employed by InDelible. The majority of these variants are private or low-allele frequency small indels between 1 and 10 bp in size (1,218/1,853; 65.7%) or large CMA or ES-ascertained CNVs ≥10 kbp in length (410/1,853; 22.1%; Figure 2B). As anticipated due to the low number of split reads at variant breakpoints as variant size decreases, InDelible performed poorly in identification of very short variants ≤10 bp with an overall sensitivity of 1.4% (Figure 2C). Sensitivity improved as a function of variant size, peaking at 48.3% sensitivity for variants between 21 and 50 bp, but dropped again for variants ≥100 bp. To better understand why InDelible missed such variants, we manually curated the 34 potentially pathogenic variants between 21 and 500 bp not identified by InDelible. We found that InDelible missed variants for three primary reasons. First, these potentially pathogenic variants include some higher-frequency variants that are too common to be plausibly pathogenic whose true allele frequency was underestimated previously, but have now been more accurately determined by InDelible and thus subsequently filtered out (n = 12/34; 35.3%). Second, several variants have low split read support (i.e., <5 reads) despite being located in high-coverage regions and were thus excluded by our stringent filtering approach (n = 11/34; 32.4%). Third, as variant size increases, it becomes more likely that the breakpoints of SVs which impact coding sequence lie outside of ES target regions (i.e., within intronic and intergenic sequences).
Ergo, such variants are refractory to identification with split reads and likely to be missed by any split-read caller ($n = 6/34; 17.6\%$). Combined, these three explanations account for 85.3% of variants between 21 and 500 bp missed by InDelible. While variants with breakpoints outside of sequencing baits are invisible to InDelible, additional fine-tuning of InDelible’s filtering parameters could, in theory, output variants with lower split read support or variants with higher allele frequencies.

These 63 previously undetected variants (four of which were ascertained by an earlier version of InDelible and included as part of a previous DDD publication25) that impact known DD-associated genes (Table S2) are composed primarily of deletions and duplications (50/63; 79.4%) but also includes variants with diverse mutational mechanisms such as MEIs, complex rearrangements, and dispersed duplications/translocations (Figure 2E). 25 of these variants were observed in trio probands, with parental data supporting a de novo origin for all of these variants. InDelible was particularly effective at identifying variants between 21 and 500 bp in size (Figure 2D); 30 previously undetected variants (47.6% of InDelible-specific variants) lie within this size range and represent a 42.9% increase in putatively pathogenic variants 21–500 bp in length among DDD probands (Figure 2D). We also identified six genes with multiple previously undetected SVs among unrelated individuals, of which the most recurrently affected was MECP2, the causal gene of Rett syndrome (Figure 2E).26

From an initial round of clinical review, based on intersecting gene(s) and associated phenotypes, we concluded that nine (14.3%) of these 63 previously undetected variants were unlikely to explain the referred proband’s phenotype, and were thus excluded from future analysis (Table S2). We next attempted PCR validation of the 54 putatively pathogenic variants (supplemental material and methods). Of the variants for which conclusive validation results could be obtained, 23/23 (100%) were confirmed as true positives, either by the obvious presence of a mutant band of expected size with gel electrophoresis or by follow-up capillary sequencing where the gel result was uncertain (Table S2). For variants for which PCR was possible, we also confirmed that 10/10 (100%) putative de novo
variants identified in trio probands were indeed absent from both parents.

All 54 plausible pathogenic variants were reported to referring clinicians and clinically interpreted by two senior clinical geneticists; 30/54 (55.6%) were classified as pathogenic or likely pathogenic by both clinical geneticists (Table S2). Of these variants, those identified in non-trio probands (n = 31/54 plausibly pathogenic variants) for which inheritance status is unavailable, were less likely to be interpreted as being pathogenic (Fisher’s p = 0.006). This finding is corroborated by the difference in the proportion of in-frame versus out-of-frame deletions and duplications ≤50 bp between trio and non-trio probands; 80.0% of deletions and duplications are in-frame for non-trios versus 19.0% for trios (Fisher’s p = 1.5 × 10⁻⁶; Figure S9). This is consistent with population-level observations: out-of-frame deletions and duplications are typically under stronger negative selection than in-frame variants and an increased proportion of in-frame variants in non-trio probands is suggestive of a greater proportion being benign. The difference is likely attributable to the absence of parental data leading to the inclusion of rare benign inherited variants that are unlikely to be filtered out using population variation data (e.g., gnomAD). Overall, de novo variants identified by InDelible represent 0.7% (18/2592) of all confirmed diagnoses among trio probands in the DDD study.

InDelible identified a total of seven confirmed de novo variants ≥20 bp in length affecting MECP2 (Figures 2E and 3A), all predicted to be protein truncating. As expected and in accordance with known sex bias among individuals with Rett syndrome, all variants were ascertained from female probands. Out of these seven probands, two have phenotypes that could be described as consistent with typical Rett syndrome presentation. Through in-depth clinical curation of HPO terms (see supplemental material and methods), we grouped probands with putative loss-of-function mutations caused by SVs in MECP2 into four categories (Figure 3B). Cases identified by InDelible thus represent the wide variety of diverse clinical presentations that can result from disruption of the C terminus of MECP2 and include previously observed MECP2-associated phenotypes such as early-onset seizures and Angelman-like symptoms (Table S3; Figure 3B).

Interestingly, all five of our MECP2 variants in probands without typical Rett syndrome presentation overlapped the same 326 bp region located within the final coding exon and, aside from a previously ascertained whole
gene deletion (proband 279220), do not overlap with putatively pathogenic SNVs identified within the DDD study (Figure 3A). The SV-specific region corresponds to an area of low sequence complexity and has been previously ascertained as hyper-mutable by several studies. The molecular function of this region of MECP2 is poorly understood and it is uncertain as to the consequences that our described variants may have on protein structure beyond decreasing transcript abundance and/or overall protein stability.

The seven de novo MECP2 variants constitute 28.0% (7/25) of all novel de novo variants identified by InDelible and 35.0% (7/20) of all confirmed de novo protein-truncating or gene-deleting variants of MECP2 in the DDD study (Figure 3A).

As several publications have shown that rare, inherited variants are also important in the genetic architecture of developmental disorders, we next sought to examine whether InDelible could be used to identify such variants. We repeated our filtering as described above but limited to variants found in only a single proband with split read support from either parent (supplemental material and methods). This approach identified a total of 145 variants within the coding sequence of mono-allelic DD genes. As expected based on our analysis of variants in probands sequenced without their parents (Figure S9), a large proportion of inherited variants we identified were balanced/in-frame deletions or duplications with uncertain effect on the target protein (50; 34.5%). Others either primarily overlapped noncoding sequence, were found in an individual with a more likely diagnostic variant, were large duplications which only partially overlapped the gene of interest, were already identified based on an alternate breakpoint as part of our de novo analysis, or were also identified in control individuals at high enough allele frequencies to be considered unlikely to be associated with an individual’s phenotype. Initial filtering based on these criteria left a remainder of 17 variants for clinical interpretation.

Of the remaining inherited variants, seven were already identified via other approaches and reported to referring clinicians with six considered as likely benign and one as likely pathogenic. The remaining ten variants were referred to the same two senior clinician geneticists as for our de novo analysis detailed above (Table S4). Of these ten variants, all but one were unlikely to be involved in individual phenotype. The sole remaining inherited variant, an out-of-frame deletion in KAT6B, was identified in a proband-mother pair and was deemed a variant of uncertain consequence upon initial clinical review. Follow-up with the referring clinician regarding the mother’s phenotype determined that the mother did not exhibit any features of the proband’s disorder. As such, this variant was deemed to be likely benign. Combined, these data show that InDelible is effective at identifying rare, inherited variants but that the overall diagnostic yield may be low.

Here we present the development and application of InDelible, a tool designed for the rapid assessment of ES data for breakpoints of rare, pathogenic cryptic SVs involved in single-gene disorders (Figure 1). We applied InDelible to 13,438 proband genomes sequenced as part of the DDD study and identified a total of 146 candidate pathogenic variants impacting genes associated with dominant or X-linked DD (Figure 2A, Table S2). Of these 146 variants, 63 were not previously identified in DDD probands, despite the wide range of SV and InDel detection algorithms that have previously been deployed on this cohort. Notably, we increased the number of putatively diagnostic variants among DDD probands 21–500 bp in length by 42.9% (Figure 2D). Through conservative clinical assessment of these 63 variants, we determined that 30 (47.6%) of our previously undetected variants were considered likely causative of proband phenotype—of particular interest was the large number of protein-truncating SVs we identified in MECP2 (Figure 3).

The variant size range which InDelible interrogates is complementary to other approaches commonly used for variant discovery from ES data. While other previously described algorithms have also attempted to mine split read information for structural variant detection, they have different properties that preclude meaningful comparison with InDelible. Some have been trained primarily on genome sequencing data rather than ES data, others do not explicitly assess de novo status, and many are not readily scalable to a dataset of ~10,000 trios. As such, we have built InDelible to be scalable to many thousands of samples (Figure S2).

Other studies have previously noted that ~10% of all MECP2 variants in probands ascertained based on presentation of Rett-associated phenotypes were deletions and a large number of pathogenic or likely pathogenic variants in ClinVar fall within the same region of MECP2 that we detail in this manuscript. These observations, combined with the diverse phenotypes that this study has identified (Figure 3B), further complicate the clinical interpretation of variants disrupting MECP2. In particular, the work of Guy et al. found that slight differences between the size and sequence context of deletions in the C-terminal domain of MECP2 can have significant ramifications in RNA/protein expression. Additionally, Huppke et al. found that skewed X-inactivation could play a role in the severity of MECP2 presentation. Further work is needed to understand how different classes of mutation lead to diverse phenotypes in individuals with MECP2 loss-of-function variants. However, most importantly and exemplifying the additive power of InDelible, if not applied to the DDD study, 20.6% of DDD probands with clinically relevant MECP2 variants would not have received a diagnosis for their disorder.

InDelible was designed to detect variant breakpoints missed by other approaches in ES data from individuals with DDs. This has three major ramifications for the design of InDelible and the variants discussed as part of this study. First, as the primary cause of DDs is highly penetrant dominant de novo variants, InDelible variant discovery was
focused on identifying such variants from a defined list of genes known to be associated with DDs. As briefly demonstrated above for rare inherited variation, this does not preclude the use of InDelible to identify variants acting through other modes of inheritance; InDelible will identify variants across the entire allele frequency spectrum and outside of the provided gene list as part of the primary output.

Second, the DDD cohort has been previously investigated for a broader range of variant classes (using both different assays and algorithms) than most ES studies. For ES-based CNV discovery from read-depth, DDD applied four separate algorithms to build a joint call set (unpublished data). Thus, the added diagnostic value of running InDelible is probably under-estimated in the DDD study compared to other ES studies and/or common clinical sequencing practices which would be unlikely to utilize complex joint-calling approaches such as our own. To quantify the added diagnostic value of running InDelible across different settings by a user seeking to run a minimal number of algorithms, we estimated the proportion of unique PTVs InDelible would find if used alone or jointly with other algorithms (GATK, XHMM, or MELT). Percentages represent the proportion of all PTVs specific to InDelible (green text) or XHMM (orange text) for each bar. The red line and axis label indicates the maximum number of de novo PTVs identified in DD-associated genes among 9,848 DDD trio probands if combining data from all four algorithms (n = 1,285 variants).

Data and code availability

Sequencing, phenotype data, and variant calls for all data in this paper are accessible via the European Genome-phenome Archive (EGA) under study EGAS00001000775. InDelible is available at the InDelible GitHub repository, https://github.com/HurlesGroupSanger/indelible. All code and data used to generate figures and results in this manuscript are located at the following GitHub repository: https://github.com/HurlesGroupSanger/indelible

Supplemental information

Supplemental information can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2021.09.010.

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Declaration of interests

M.E.H. is a founder of, consultant to, director of, and holds shares in Congenica Ltd and is a consultant to the AZ Centre for
Genomics Research. H.V.E. is a Section Editor for genetics for UpToDate. All other authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Web resources

pysam: htslib interface for python, https://pysam.readthedocs.io/en/latest/

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