

1 **GAVIN - Gene-Aware Variant INterpretation** 2 **for medical sequencing**

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23

24 **ABSTRACT**

25 Here, we present GAVIN, a new method that delivers accurate classification of variants for next-
26 generation sequencing molecular diagnostics. It is based on gene-specific calibrations of allele
27 frequencies (from the ExAC database), effect impact (using SnpEff) and estimated
28 deleteriousness (CADD scores) for >3,000 genes. In a benchmark on 18 clinical gene sets, we

29 achieved a sensitivity of 91.6%, with a specificity of 78.2%. This accuracy was unmatched by 12
30 other tools we tested. We provide GAVIN as an online MOLGENIS service to annotate VCF files,
31 and as open source executable for use in bioinformatic pipelines. It can be found at
32 <http://molgenis.org/gavin>.

33

34 **KEYWORDS**

35 clinical next-generation sequencing, variant classification, automated protocol, gene-specific
36 calibration, allele frequency, protein impact, pathogenicity prediction

37

38 **BACKGROUND**

39 Only a few years ago, the high costs and technological challenges of whole exome and whole
40 genome sequencing were limiting their application. Today, the practice of human genome
41 sequencing has become routine even within the healthcare sector. This is leading to new and
42 daunting challenges for clinical and laboratory geneticists[1]. Interpreting the thousands of
43 variations observed in DNA and determining which are pathogenic and which are benign is still
44 difficult and time-consuming, even when variants are prioritized by state-of-the-art *in silico*
45 prediction tools and heuristic filters[2]. Using the current, largely manual, variant classification
46 protocols, it is not feasible to assess the thousands of genomes per year now produced in a
47 single hospital. It is the challenge of variant assessment which now impedes the effective uptake
48 of next-generation sequencing into routine medical practice.

49 The recently introduced CADD[3] scores are a promising alternative[4]. These are
50 calculated on the output of multiple *in silico* tools in combination with other genomic features.
51 They trained a computer model on variants that have either been under long-term selective
52 evolutionary pressure or none at all. The result was an estimation of deleteriousness for variants
53 in the human genome, whether already observed or not. It has been shown to be a strong and
54 versatile predictor for pathogenicity[3]. These scores may be used to define a classifier that labels
55 a variant with a CADD score of >15 as probably pathogenic and <15 as benign, as suggested by
56 the CADD authors[5]. Unfortunately, clinicians and laboratories cannot rely on this single

57 threshold approach. We have shown that individual genes differ in their cut-off thresholds for what
58 should be considered the optimal boundary between pathogenic or benign[4]. This issue has
59 been partly addressed by MSC[6] (Mutation Significance Cutoff), which provides gene-based
60 CADD cut-off values to remove inconsequential variants safely from sequencing data. While MSC
61 aims to quickly and reliably reduce the number of benign variants left to interpret, it was not
62 developed to detect/classify pathogenic variants.

63 The challenge is thus to find robust algorithms that classify both pathogenic and benign
64 variants accurately and that fit into existing best practice, diagnostic filtering protocols[7].
65 Implementing such tools is not trivial because genes have different levels of tolerance to various
66 classes of variants that may be considered harmful[8]. In addition, the pathogenicity estimates for
67 benign variants are intrinsically lower because these are more common and of less severe
68 consequence on protein transcription. Comparing the prediction score distributions of pathogenic
69 variants with those of typical benign variants is therefore biased and questionable. Using such an
70 approach means it will be unclear how well a predictor truly performs if a benign variant shares
71 many properties with known pathogenic variants. Here, we present GAVIN (Gene-Aware Variant
72 INterpretation), a new method that addresses these issues by gene-specific calibrations on
73 closely matched sets of variants. GAVIN delivers accurate and reliable automated classification of
74 variants for clinical application.

75

76 **RESULTS**

77

78 **Development of GAVIN**

79 GAVIN classifies variants as Benign, Pathogenic or a Variant of Uncertain Significance (VUS). It
80 considers ExAC[8] minor allele frequency, SnpEff[9] impact and CADD score using gene-specific
81 thresholds. For each gene, we ascertained ExAC allele frequencies and effect impact
82 distributions of variants described in ClinVar (November 2015 release) [10] as pathogenic or likely
83 pathogenic. From the same genes we selected ExAC variants that were not present in ClinVar as
84 a benign reference set. We stratified this benign set to match the pathogenic set with respect to

85 the effect impact distribution and minor allele frequencies (MAF). Using these comparable variant
86 sets we calculated gene-specific mean values for CADD scores and minor allele frequencies as
87 well as 95th percentile sensitivity/specificity thresholds for both benign and pathogenic variants.
88 We used fixed genome-wide classification thresholds as a fall-back strategy based on CADD
89 scores < 15 for benign and > 15 for pathogenic[5] and on a MAF threshold of > 0.00474, which
90 was the mean of all gene-specific pathogenic 95th percentile thresholds. This allowed
91 classification when insufficient variant training data were available to allow for gene-specific
92 calibrations, or when the gene-specific rules failed to classify a variant. Based on the gene
93 calibrations we then implemented GAVIN, which can be used online or via commandline (see
94 <http://molgenis.org/gavin>) to perform variant classification.

95

96 **Performance benchmark**

97 To test the robustness of GAVIN, we evaluated its performance using six benchmark variant
98 classification sets from VariBench[11], MutationTaster2[12], ClinVar (only recently added variants
99 that were not used for calibrating GAVIN), and a high-quality variant classification list from the
100 University Medical Center Groningen (UMCG) genome diagnostics laboratory. These sets and
101 the origins of their variants and classifications are described in **Table 1**. The combined set
102 comprises 25,765 variants (17,063 benign, 8,702 pathogenic). All variants were annotated by
103 SnpEff, ExAC and CADD prior to classification by GAVIN. To assess the clinical relevance of our
104 method, we stratified the combined set into clinically relevant variant subsets based on organ-
105 system specific genes. We formed 19 subset panels such as Cardiovascular, Dermatologic, and
106 Oncologic based on the gene-associated physical manifestation categories from Clinical
107 Genomics Database[13]. A total of 11,679 out of 25,765 variants were not linked to clinically
108 characterized genes and formed a separate panel (see **Table 2** for an overview). In addition, we
109 assessed the performance of GAVIN in compared to 12 common *in silico* tools for pathogenicity
110 prediction: MSC (using two different settings), CADD, SIFT[14], PolyPhen2[15], PROVEAN[16],
111 Condel[17], PON-P2[18], PredictSNP2[19], FATHMM-MKL[20], GWAVA[21], FunSeq[22] and
112 DANN[23].

113 Across all test sets, GAVIN achieved a median sensitivity of 91.6% and a median
114 specificity of 78.2%. Other tools with >90% sensitivity were CADD (93.6%, specificity 57.1%) and
115 MSC (97.1%, specificity 25.7%). The only other tool with >70% specificity was PredictSNP2
116 (70.6%, sensitivity 66.8%) (see **Table 3** for an overview of tool performance). In all the clinical
117 gene sets GAVIN scored >90% sensitivity, including >93% for Cardiovascular, Biochemical,
118 Obstetric and Dermatologic genes. The non-clinical genes scored 71.3%. The specificity in
119 clinical subsets ranged from 71.6% for Endocrine to 83.8% for Dental. Non-clinical gene variants
120 were predicted at 70.2% specificity. See **Supplementary Table 1** for detailed results.

121 We illustrated the practical implications of classification sensitivity and specificity in **Table**
122 **4**. Here, 90%/80% represents the performance of GAVIN, 90%/60% matches CADD, and
123 70%/80% or 70%/60% can be considered averages of other methods. In a hypothetical example
124 where 110 variants are being tested (100 benign and 10 pathogenic), the difference in predictive
125 value between the performance opposites is over two-fold (31% positive predictive value (PPV)
126 for 90/80% and 15% PPV for 70/60%).

127

128 **Added value of gene-specific calibration**

129 We then investigated the added value of using gene-specific thresholds on classification
130 performance relative to using genome-wide thresholds. We bootstrapped the performance on
131 10,000 random samples of 100 benign and 100 pathogenic variants. These variants were drawn
132 from the three groups of genes described in Materials & Methods: (1) genes for which CADD
133 was significantly predictive for pathogenicity (n = 520), (2) genes where CADD was not
134 significantly predictive (n = 660), and (3) genes with scarce variant data available for calibration
135 (n = 737). For each of these sets we compared the use of gene-specific CADD and MAF
136 classification thresholds with that of genome-wide filtering rules (CADD score < 15 and MAF >
137 0.00474 for benign, otherwise classify as pathogenic).

138 We observed the highest accuracy on genes for which CADD had significant predictive
139 value and for the gene-specific classification method (median accuracy = 87.5%); this was
140 significantly higher than using the genome-wide method for these same genes (median accuracy

141 = 85%, Mann-Whitney U test p-value < 2.2e-16). For genes for which CADD had less predictive
142 value we found a lower overall performance, but still reached a significantly better result using the
143 gene-specific approach (median accuracy = 84.5% versus genome-wide 82%, p-value < 2.2e-
144 16). Lastly, the worst performance was seen for variants in genes with scarce training data
145 available. The gene-specific performance, however, was still significantly better than using
146 genome-wide thresholds (median accuracy = 83.5% and 81% respectively, p-value = 2.2e-16).

147 See **Figure 2**.

148

149 **DISCUSSION**

150 We have developed GAVIN, a method for automated variant classification using gene-specific
151 calibration of classification thresholds for benign and pathogenic variants.

152 Our results show that GAVIN is a powerful classifier with consistently high performance in
153 clinically relevant genes. The robustness of our method arises from a calibration strategy that first
154 corrects for calibration bias between benign and pathogenic variants, in terms of consequence
155 and rarity, before calculating the classification thresholds. A comprehensive benchmark
156 demonstrates a unique combination of high sensitivity (>90%) and high specificity (>70%) for
157 variants in genes related to different organ systems. This is a significant improvement over
158 existing tools that tend to achieve either a high sensitivity (CADD, MSC) or a high specificity
159 (PredictSNP2). A high sensitivity is crucial for clinical interpretation because pathogenic variants
160 should not be falsely discarded. In addition, having a higher specificity means that the results will
161 be far less 'polluted' with false-positives and thus less risk of patients being given a wrong
162 molecular diagnosis. GAVIN decreases false-positives by about 20% compared to using CADD
163 for the same purpose, thereby reducing the interpretation time considerably. The difference
164 between using a high and low performance method can be dramatic in practice. In a hypothetical
165 example, GAVIN would make downstream variant interpretation twice as effective as a low
166 performance method, with more sensitive detection of pathogenic variants.

167 Even though an optimal combination of sensitivity and specificity may be favorable in
168 general terms, there may still be a need for tools that perform differently. The MSC gene-specific

169 thresholds based on HGMD[24] at 99% confidence interval show a very high sensitivity (97.1%),
170 but at the expense of a very low specificity (25.7%). Such low specificity thresholds will pick up
171 almost all the pathogenic variants with scores exceeding gene thresholds. This allows safe
172 removal (<3% error) of benign variants that fall below these thresholds, which was their authors'
173 aim. However, this tool cannot detect pathogenic variants due its low specificity. Other tools, such
174 as PON-P2, may show a relatively low performance, but not necessarily because of true errors.
175 Such tools may simply be very 'picky' and only return a classification when the verdict carries
176 high confidence. If we ignore the variants that PON-P2 did not classify, and only consider how
177 many of the variants that it did classify were correct, we find a positive predictive value of 96%,
178 and a negative predictive value of 94%. Thus, while this tool might not be useful for exome
179 screening because too many pathogenic variants would be lost, it can still be an excellent choice
180 for further investigation of interesting variants. We would therefore emphasize that appropriate
181 tools should be selected depending on the question or analysis protocol used and by taking their
182 strengths and weaknesses into account.

183 Not surprisingly, we could confirm that the use of gene-specific thresholds instead of
184 genome-wide thresholds led to a consistent and significant improvement of classification
185 performance. This shows the added value of our strategy. Overall performance was slightly lower
186 in genes for which CADD has limited predictive value, and even lower in genes with few 'gold
187 standard' pathogenicity data available. Evaluating variants in uncharacterized genes is rare in
188 clinical diagnostics, although it may occur when exome sequencing is aimed at solving complex
189 phenotypes or undiagnosed cases. Nevertheless, GAVIN is likely to improve continuously in an
190 increasing number of genes, propelled by the speed at which pathogenic variants are now being
191 reported.

192 With GAVIN we were also able to demonstrate the residual power of CADD scores as a
193 predictor for pathogenicity on a gene-by-gene basis, revealing that the scores are informative for
194 many genes (these results can be accessed at <http://molgenis.org/gavin>). There are several
195 possible explanations for potential non-informativity of CADD scores. It may have bias towards
196 the *in silico* tools and sources it was trained on, limiting their predictiveness for certain genomic

197 regions or disease mechanisms[25]. Furthermore, calibration of pathogenic variants could be
198 difficult in genes with high damage tolerance, i.e. having many missense or loss-of-function
199 mutations[26]. In addition, calibration may be impaired by false input signals, such as an incorrect
200 pathogenic classification in ClinVar or inclusion of disease cohorts in large databases such as
201 ExAC could misrepresent allele frequencies[27]. Lastly, pathogenic variants could have a low
202 penetrance or their effect mitigated by genetic modifiers, causing high deleteriousness to be
203 tolerated in the general population against expectations[28].

204 The field of clinical genomics is now moving towards interpretation of non-coding disease
205 variants (NCVs) identified by whole-genome sequencing[29]. A number of recently introduced
206 metrics, including EIGEN[30], FATHMM-MKL, DeepSEA[31], and GWAVA, specialize in
207 predicting the functional effects of non-coding sequence variation. When a pathogenic NCV
208 reference set of reasonable quantity becomes available, a calibration strategy as described here
209 will be essential to be able to use these metrics effectively in whole-genome diagnostics.

210

211 **CONCLUSIONS**

212 GAVIN provides an automated decision-support protocol for classifying variants, which will
213 continue to improve in scope and precision as more data is publicly shared by genome diagnostic
214 laboratories. Our approach bridges the gap between estimates of genome-wide and population-
215 wide variant pathogenicity and contributes to their practical usefulness for interpreting clinical
216 variants in specific patient populations. Databases such as ClinVar contain a wealth of implicit
217 rules now used manually by human experts to classify variants. These rules are deduced and
218 employed by GAVIN to classify variants that have not been seen before.

219 We envision GAVIN accelerating NGS diagnostics and becoming particularly beneficial
220 as a powerful (clinical) exome screening tool. It can be used to quickly and effectively detect over
221 90% of pathogenic variants in a given data set and to present these results with an
222 unprecedented small number of false-positives. It may especially serve laboratories that lack the
223 resources necessary to perform reliable and large-scale manual variant interpretation for their
224 patients, and spur the development of more advanced gene-specific classification methods. We

225 provide GAVIN as an online MOLGENIS[32] web service to browse gene calibration results and
226 annotate VCF files, and as a commandline executable including open source code for use in
227 bioinformatic pipelines. GAVIN can be found at <http://molgenis.org/gavin>.

228

229 **METHODS**

230

231 **Calibration of gene-specific thresholds**

232 We downloaded ClinVar (variant_summary.txt.gz from ClinVar FTP, last modified date: 05/11/15)
233 and selected GRCh37 variants that contained the word “pathogenic” in their clinical significance.
234 These variants were matched against the ClinVar VCF release (clinvar.vcf.gz, last modified date:
235 01/10/15) using RS (Reference SNP) identifiers in order to resolve missing indel notations. On
236 the resulting VCF, we ran SnpEff version 4.1L with these settings: hg19 -noStats -noLog -lof -
237 canon -ud 0. As a benign reference set, we selected variants from ExAC (release 0.3, all sites)
238 from the same genic regions with +/- 100 bases of padding on each side to capture more variants
239 residing on the same exon.

240 We first determined the thresholds for gene-specific pathogenic allele frequency by taking
241 the ExAC allele frequency of each pathogenic variant, or assigning zero if the variant was not
242 present in ExAC, and calculating the 95th percentile value per gene using the R7 method from
243 Apache Commons Math version 3.5. We filtered the set of benign variants with this threshold to
244 retain only variants that were rare enough to fall into the pathogenic frequency range.

245 Following this step, the pathogenic impact distribution was calculated as the relative
246 proportion of the generalized effect impact categories, as annotated by SnpEff on the pathogenic
247 variants. The same calculation was performed for the benign variants using the variant Ensembl
248 VEP[33] consequence types already present in ExAC. To facilitate this, we defined a trivial
249 mapping of VEP consequence types (being equivalent to SnpEff consequences) to SnpEff
250 impact categories. The benign variants were subsequently downsized to match the impact
251 distribution of the pathogenic variants.

252 For instance, in the case of 407 pathogenic MYH7 variants, we found a pathogenic allele
253 frequency threshold of 9.494e-05, and an impact distribution of 5.41% HIGH, 77.4%
254 MODERATE, 17.2% LOW and 0% MODIFIER. We defined a matching set of benign variants by
255 retrieving 1,799 MYH7 variants from ExAC (impact distribution: 2.1% HIGH, 23.52%
256 MODERATE, 32.07% LOW, 42.32% MODIFIER), from which we excluded known ClinVar
257 pathogenic variants (n = 99), variants above the AF threshold (n = 377), and removed
258 interspersed variants using a non-random 'step over' algorithm until the impact distribution was
259 equalized (n = 862). We thus reached an equalized set of 461 variants. This process was
260 repeated for 3,055 genes.

261 We then obtained the CADD scores for all variants and tested whether there was a
262 significant difference in scores between the sets of pathogenic and benign variants for each gene,
263 using a Mann-Whitney U test. Per gene we determined the mean CADD score for each group,
264 and also the 95th percentile sensitivity threshold (detection of most pathogenic variants while
265 accepting false-positives) and 95th percentile specificity threshold (detection of most benign
266 variants while accepting false-negatives), using the Percentile R7 function. All statistics were
267 done with Apache Commons Math version 3.5.

268 On average, CADD scores were informative of pathogenicity. The mean benign variant
269 CADD score across all genes was 23.68, while the mean pathogenic variant CADD score was
270 28.45, a mean difference of 4.77 ($\sigma = 4.69$). Of 3,055 genes that underwent the calibration
271 process, we found 520 "CADD predictive" genes that had a significantly higher CADD score for
272 pathogenic variants than for benign variants (Mann-Whitney U test, p-value <0.05). Interestingly,
273 we also found 660 "CADD less predictive" genes, for which there was no proven difference
274 between benign and pathogenic variants (p-value >0.05 despite having ≥ 5 pathogenic and ≥ 5
275 benign variants in the gene). For 737 genes there was very little calibration data available (<5
276 pathogenic or <5 benign variants), resulting in no significant difference (p-value >0.05) between
277 CADD scores of pathogenic and benign variants. We found 309 genes for which effect impact
278 alone was predictive, meaning that a certain impact category was unique for pathogenic variants
279 compared to benign variants. For instance, when observing HIGH impact pathogenic variants

280 (frame shift, stopgain, etc.) for a given gene, whereas benign variants only reached MODERATE
281 impact (missense, inframe insertion, etc.). No further CADD calibration was performed on these
282 genes. See <http://www.molgenis.org/gavin> for a full table of gene calibration outcomes.

283

284 **Variant sets for benchmarking**

285 We obtained six variant sets that had been classified by human experts. These data sets were
286 used to benchmark the *in silico* variant pathogenicity prediction tools mentioned in this paper.
287 Variants from the original sets may sometimes be lost due to conversion of cDNA/HGVS notation
288 to VCF.

289 The VariBench protein tolerance data set 7 (<http://structure.bmc.lu.se/VariBench/>)
290 contains disease-causing missense variations from the PhenCode[34] database, IDbases[35],
291 and 18 individual LSDBs[11]. The training set we used contained 17,490 variants, of which
292 11,347 were benign and 6,143 pathogenic. The test set contained 1,887 variants, of which 1,377
293 were benign and 510 pathogenic. We used both the training set and test set as benchmarking
294 sets.

295 The MutationTaster2[12] test set contains known disease mutations from HGMD[24]
296 Professional and putatively harmless polymorphisms from 1000 Genomes. It is available at
297 http://www.mutationtaster.org/info/Comparison_20130328_with_results_ClinVar.html. This set
298 contains 1,355 variants, of which 1,194 are benign and 161 pathogenic.

299 We selected 1,688 pathogenic variants from ClinVar that were added between November
300 2015 and February 2016 as an additional benchmarking set, since our method was based on the
301 November 2015 release of ClinVar. We supplemented this set with a random selection of 1,668
302 benign variants from ClinVar, yielding a total of 3,356 variants.

303 We obtained an in-house list of 2,359 variants that had been classified by molecular and
304 clinical geneticists at the University Medical Center Groningen. These variants belong to patients
305 seen in the context of various disorders: cardiomyopathies, epilepsy, dystonia, preconception
306 carrier screening, and dermatology. Variants were analyzed according to Dutch medical center
307 guidelines[36] for variant interpretation, using Cartagenia Bench Lab™ (Agilent Technologies)

308 and Alamut® software (Interactive Biosoftware) by evaluating in-house databases, known
309 population databases (1000G[37], ExAC, ESP6500 at <http://evs.gs.washington.edu/EVS/>,
310 GoNL[38]), functional effect and literature searches. Any ClinVar variants included in the
311 November 2015 release were removed from this set to prevent circular reasoning, resulting in a
312 total of 1,512 variants, with 1,176 benign/likely benign (merged as Benign), 162 VUS, and 174
313 pathogenic/likely pathogenic (merged as Pathogenic).

314 From the UMCG diagnostics laboratory we also obtained a list of 607 variants seen in the
315 context of familial cancers. These were interpreted by a medical doctor according to ACMG
316 guidelines[7]. We removed any ClinVar variants (November 2015 release), resulting in 395
317 variants, with 301 benign/likely benign (merged as Benign), 68 VUS and 26 likely
318 pathogenic/pathogenic (merged as Pathogenic).

319

320 **Variant data processing and preparation**

321 We used Ensembl VEP (http://grch37.ensembl.org/Homo_sapiens/Tools/VEP/) to convert
322 cDNA/HGVS notations to VCF format. Newly introduced N-notated reference bases were
323 replaced with the appropriate GRCh37 base, and alleles were trimmed where needed (e.g.
324 “TA/TTA” to “T/TT”). We annotated with SnpEff (version 4.2) using the following settings: hg19 -
325 noStats -noLog -lof -canon -ud 0. CADD scores (version 1.3) were added by running the variants
326 through the CADD webservice (available at <http://cadd.gs.washington.edu/score>). ExAC (release
327 0.3) allele frequencies were added with MOLGENIS annotator (release 1.16.2). We also merged
328 all benchmarking sets into a combined file with 25,995 variants (of which 25,765 classified as
329 benign, likely benign, likely pathogenic or pathogenic) for submission to various online *in silico*
330 prediction tools.

331

332 **Execution of *in silico* predictors**

333 The combined set of 25,765 variants was classified by the *in silico* variant pathogenicity
334 predictors (MSC, CADD, SIFT, PolyPhen2, PROVEAN, Condel, PON-P2, PredictSNP2,
335 FATHMM, GWAVA, FunSeq, DANN). The output of each tool was loaded into a program that

336 compared the observed output to the expected classification and which then calculated
337 performance metrics such as sensitivity and specificity. The tools that we evaluated and the web
338 addresses used can be found in **Supplementary Table 2**. We executed PROVEAN and SIFT, for
339 which the output was reduced by retaining the following columns: "INPUT", "PROVEAN
340 PREDICTION (cut-off = -2.5)" and "SIFT PREDICTION (cut-off = 0.05)". For PONP-2, the output
341 was left as-is. The Mutation Significance Cutoff (MSC) thresholds are configurable; we
342 downloaded the ClinVar-based thresholds for CADD 1.3 at 95% confidence interval, comparable
343 to our method, as well as HGMD-based thresholds at 99% confidence interval, the default setting.
344 Variants below the gene-specific thresholds were considered benign, and above the threshold
345 pathogenic. We obtained CADD scores of version 1.3. Following the suggestion of the CADD
346 authors, scores of variants below a threshold of 15 were considered benign, above this threshold
347 pathogenic. The output of Condel was reduced by retaining the following columns: "CHR",
348 "START", "SYMBOL", "REF", "ALT", "MA", "FATHMM", "CONDEL", "CONDEL_LABEL". After
349 running PolyPhen2, its output was reduced by retaining the positional information
350 ("chr2:220285283|CG") and the "prediction" column. Finally, we executed PredictSNP2, which
351 contains the output from multiple tools. From the output VCF, we used the INFO fields "PSNPE",
352 "FATE", "GWAVAE", "DANNE" and "FUNNE" for the pathogenicity estimation outcomes according
353 to the PredictSNP protocol for PredictSNP2 consensus, FATHMM, GWAVA, DANN and FunSeq,
354 respectively.

355

356 **Stratification of variants using Clinical Genomics Database**

357 We downloaded Clinical Genomics Database (CGD; the .tsv.gz version on 1 June 2016 from
358 <http://research.nhgri.nih.gov/CGD/download/>). A Java program evaluated each variant in the full
359 set of 25,765 variants and retrieved their associate gene symbols as annotated by SnpEff. We
360 matched the gene symbols to the genes present in CGD and retrieved the corresponding physical
361 manifestation categories. Variants were then written out to separate files for each manifestation
362 category (cardiovascular, craniofacial, renal, etc.). This means a variant may be output into
363 multiple files if its gene was linked to multiple manifestation categories. However, we did prevent

364 variants from being written out twice to the same file in the case of overlapping genes in the same
365 manifestation categories. We output a variant into the “NotInCGD” file only if it was not located in
366 any gene present in CGD.

367

368 **Implementation**

369 GAVIN was implemented using Java 1.8 and MOLGENIS[32] 1.16 (<http://molgenis.org>). Source
370 code with tool implementation details can be found at <https://github.com/molgenis/gavin>. All
371 benchmarking and bootstrapping tools, as well as all data processing and calibration tools, can
372 also be found in this source code repository.

373

374 **Binary classification metrics**

375 Prediction tools may classify variants as benign or pathogenic, but may also fail to reach a
376 classification or classify a variant as VUS. Because of these three outcome states, binary
377 classification metrics must be used with caution. According to standard definitions of ‘sensitivity’,
378 such as the following example: “Recall or Sensitivity (as it is called in Psychology) is the
379 proportion of Real Positive cases that are correctly Predicted Positive” (source:
380 <https://csem.flinders.edu.au/research/techreps/SIE07001.pdf>), we define sensitivity as the
381 number of detected pathogenic variants (true-positives) over the total number of pathogenic
382 variants, which includes true-positives, false-negatives (pathogenic variants misclassified as
383 benign), and pathogenic variants that were otherwise ‘missed’, i.e. classified as VUS or not
384 classified at all. Therefore, Sensitivity = TruePositive/(TruePositive + False-Negative +
385 MissedPositive). We applied the same definition for specificity, and define it as: Specificity =
386 TrueNegative/(TrueNegative + FalsePositive + MissedNegative). Following this line, accuracy is
387 then defined as (TP + TN)/(TP + TN + FP + FN + MissedPositive + MissedNegative).

388

389 **DECLARATIONS**

390

391 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

392 The study was done in accordance with the regulations and ethical guidelines of the University
393 Medical Center Groningen. Specific ethical approval was not necessary because this study was
394 conducted on aggregated, fully anonymized data.

395

396 **Consent for publication**

397 Not applicable.

398

399 **Availability of data and material**

400 The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available in the
401 GAVIN public GitHub repository, available at <https://github.com/molgenis/gavin>.

402

403 **Competing interests**

404 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

405

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410

411 **Authors' contributions**

412 KV, EB, MS conceived the method. KV, EB, CD, BS, KA, LF, CW, RHS, RJS and TK helped to
413 fine-tune the method, accumulate relevant validation data and evaluate the results. KV, MS
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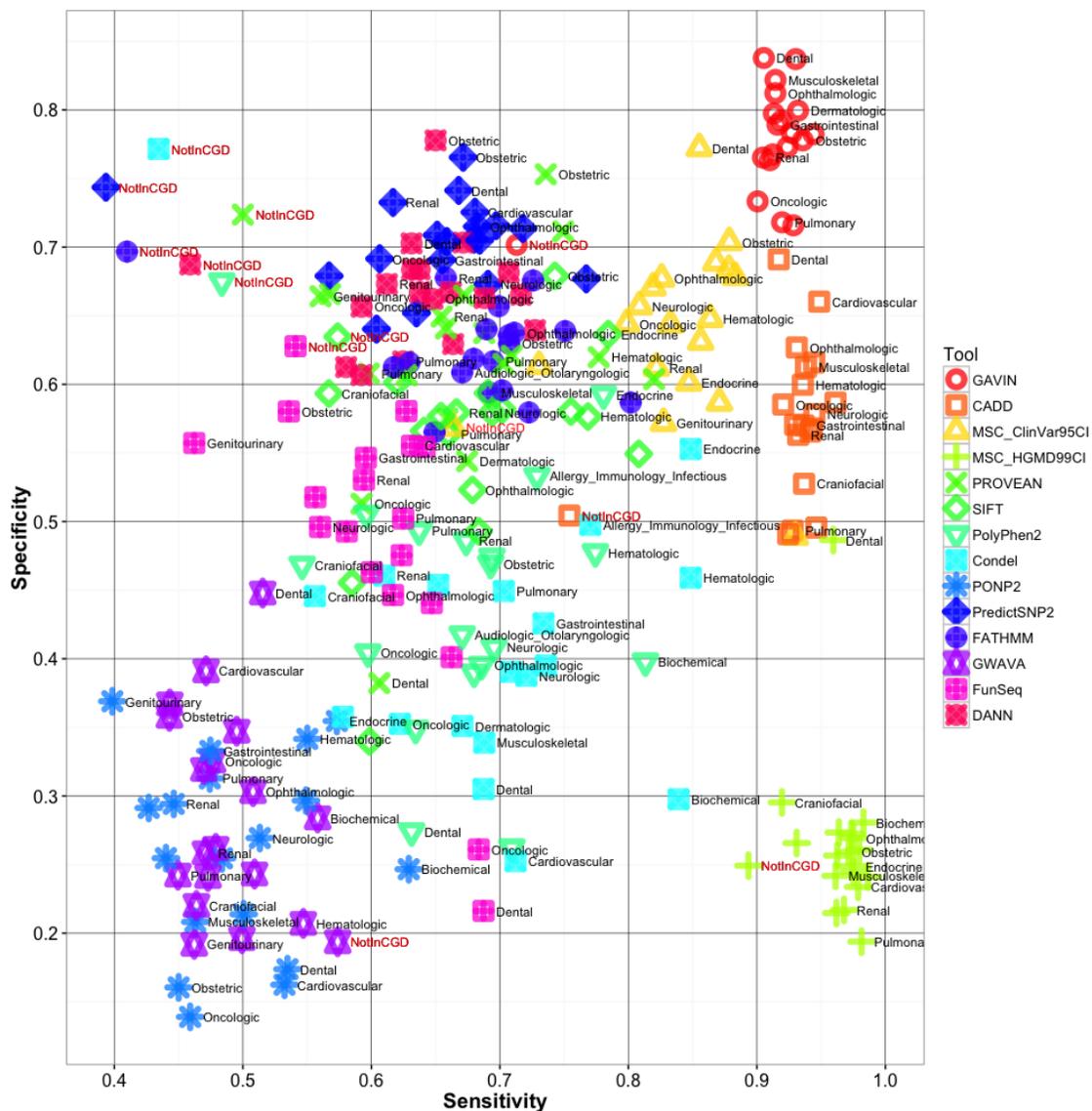
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536

537 **Figure 1.** Performance of GAVIN and other tools across different clinical gene sets. Prediction

538 quality is measured as sensitivity and specificity, i.e. the fraction of pathogenic variants correctly

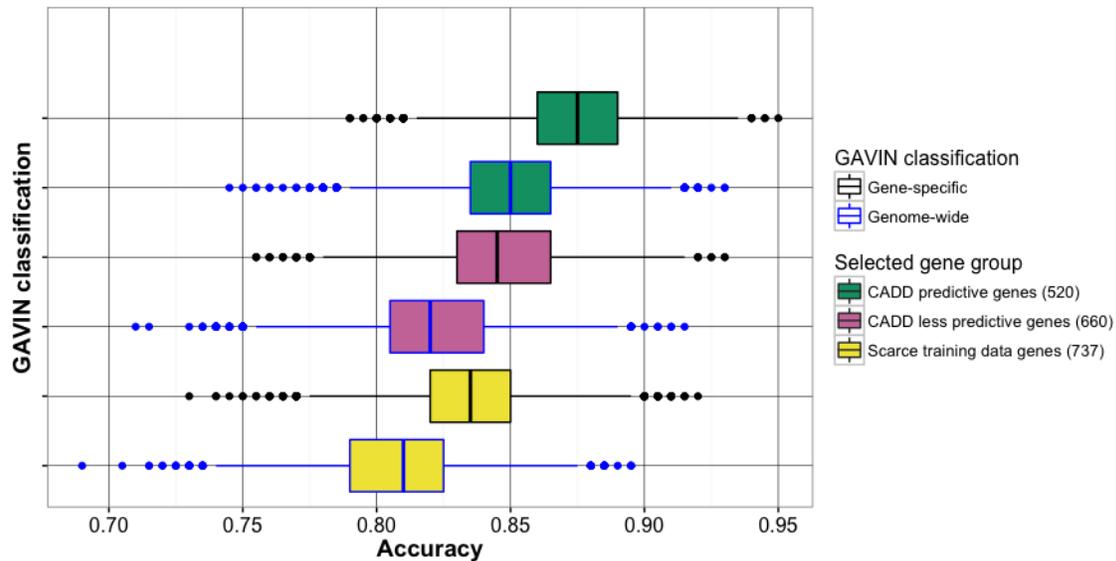
539 identified and the fraction of mistakes made while doing so.



540

541

542 **Figure 2.** Comparison of gene-specific classification thresholds with genome-wide fixed
 543 thresholds in three groups of genes: 520 genes for which CADD is predictive, 660 genes for
 544 which CADD is less predictive, and 737 genes with scarce training data. For each group, 10,000
 545 sets of 100 benign and 100 pathogenic variants were randomly sampled and tested from the full
 546 set of 25,765 variants and accuracy was calculated for gene-specific and genome-wide CADD
 547 and MAF thresholds.



548

549

550 **Table 1.**

Data set	Nr. of benign variants	Nr. of pathogenic variants	Origin
VariBench tolerance DS7, training set	11,347	6,143	PhenCode database, IDbases, and 18 individual LSDBs
VariBench tolerance DS7, test set	1,377	510	PhenCode database, IDbases, and 18 individual LSDBs
MutationTaster2 benchmark set	1,194	161	HGMD Professional and 1000 Genomes
ClinVar (additions of Nov 2015 to Feb 2016)	1,668	1,688	Submissions by clinical molecular geneticists, expert panels, diagnostic laboratories and companies
UMCG, variants exported from clinical diagnostic interpretation software	1,176	174	Clinical diagnostic classifications of variants in cardiology, dermatology, epilepsy, dystonia and preconception screening
UMCG, germline variants for familial cancer cases	301	26	Hereditary cancer variant classifications by an M.D. following ACMG guidelines
Total	17,063	8,702	25,765

551 Variant and classification origins of the benchmark data sets used.

552

553 **Table 2.**

CGD manifestation panel	Genes	Variants
Allergy / Immunology / Infectious	253	1,952
Audiologic / Otolaryngologic	217	1,215
Biochemical	354	2,538
Cardiovascular	446	4,360
Craniofacial	387	1,861
Dental	80	783
Dermatologic	345	2,749
Endocrine	240	1,801
Gastrointestinal	338	2,351
Genitourinary	149	1,026
Hematologic	267	2,571
Musculoskeletal	676	4,935
Neurologic	1,012	6,363
Obstetric	34	223
Oncologic	203	2,157
Ophthalmologic	479	3,649
Pulmonary	90	717
Renal	302	2,143
<i>NotInCGD</i>	<i>5,806</i>	<i>11,679</i>

554 Stratification of the combined variant data set into manifestation categories. The categories are
555 defined by Clinical Genomics Database and are associated to clinically relevant genes. Variants
556 were allocated to the manifestation categories based on their gene, and were placed in multiple
557 categories if a gene was associated to multiple manifestations.

558

559 **Table 3.**

Tool	Median Sensitivity	Median Specificity
CADD	93.6%	57.1%
Condel	70.3%	39.5%
DANN	63.8%	66.7%
FATHMM	69.5%	61.9%
FunSeq	61.7%	50.2%
GAVIN	91.6%	78.2%
GWAVA	47.6%	26.2%
MSC_ClinVar95CI	84.7%	64.4%

MSC_HGMD99CI	97.1%	25.7%
PolyPhen2	68.0%	46.8%
PONP2	47.5%	26.9%
PredictSNP2	66.8%	70.6%
PROVEAN	65.9%	62.1%
SIFT	67.9%	57.9%

560 Performance overview of all tested tools.

561

562 **Table 4.**

<i>Hypothetical data set:</i>	90% sensitive method	70% sensitive method	
100 benign variants	9 pathogenic found	7 pathogenic found	
10 pathogenic variants	1 pathogenic missed	3 pathogenic missed	
80% specific method	9+20 = 29	7+20 = 27	<i>Variants to interpret</i>
80 benign found	9/29 = 31%	7/27 = 26%	<i>Positive Predictive Value</i>
20 benign missed			
60% specific method	9+40 = 49	7 + 40 = 47	<i>Variants to interpret</i>
60 benign found	9/49 = 18%	7/47 = 15%	<i>Positive Predictive Value</i>
40 benign missed			

563 The practical impact in clinical diagnostics of using methods of different sensitivity and specificity

564 on a data set with 100 benign and 10 pathogenic variants.

565

566 **Supplementary Table 1.**

567 Detailed overview of all benchmark results. Each combination of tool and data set is listed. We

568 provide the raw counts of true-positives (TP), true-negatives (TN), false-positives (FP) and false-

569 negatives (FN), as well as of pathogenic and benign variants that were 'missed', i.e. not correctly

570 identified as such. From these numbers we calculated the sensitivity and specificity.

571

572 **Supplementary Table 2.**

573 The tools used to evaluate our benchmark variant set, and the web addresses used through

574 which they were accessed.