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## Stroke Genetics: Turning Discoveries into Clinical Applications

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### Background

While treatment options for stroke have greatly improved over the last 30 years, important gaps remain. Expectations towards neuroprotectant agents have not been met, in part because of challenges in selecting suitable agents with strong *a priori* evidence for efficacy in humans.<sup>1, 2</sup> Also, we are still missing targeted preventive treatments for small vessel disease (SVD), a major cause of ischemic stroke, haemorrhagic stroke, and vascular cognitive impairment.<sup>3, 4</sup> Without an improved understanding of the underlying molecular, cellular, and physiological mechanisms this situation is unlikely to change. Looking at atherosclerosis and the concept of residual inflammation,<sup>5</sup> the results from the recent CANTOS (Canakinumab Anti-Inflammatory Thrombosis Outcomes Study)<sup>6</sup> and COLCOT (Colchicine Cardiovascular Outcomes Trial)<sup>7</sup> trials illustrate how progress in understanding the initiating and propagating events in cardiovascular disease can further improve treatment options even in scenarios where highly effective therapies, such as lipid lowering agents, are in place. Consequently, there is great demand for a better understanding of fundamental disease mechanisms in stroke.

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Genetics has gone quite some way in identifying Mendelian causes for stroke.<sup>8</sup> These discoveries have highlighted the importance of individual pathways relevant to specific stroke subtypes. For instance, the discovery of genes implicated in hereditary SVD (*COL1A1* and *COL1A2*, *HTRA1*, and *NOTCH3* amongst others) pinpointed changes of the extracellular matrix (ECM) as a major initiating and propagating factor while also emphasizing the role of specific cellular constituents (endothelial cells, pericytes, and smooth muscle cells) in SVD pathogenesis.<sup>8</sup> They further enabled functional studies in animal models for SVD,<sup>9–11</sup> and allowed testing novel therapeutic strategies,<sup>12</sup> some of which may also have relevance for the larger group of patients with sporadic SVD.

More recently genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified multiple (>40) risk loci for stroke thereby pinpointing a causal role of specific genes and gene regions in stroke pathogenesis and offering additional starting points for functional studies in experimental models.<sup>13–17</sup> For example, the identification of *HDAC9* as a major risk locus for large artery stroke, coronary artery disease, and peripheral artery disease has enabled functional studies in atherosclerosis-prone mice and cultured cells.<sup>18, 19</sup> These studies revealed a mechanism, by which Hdac9 (encoding histone deacetylase 9) regulates atherosclerotic plaque vulnerability. They further showed that treatment with TMP195, a class-IIa specific HDAC inhibitor, attenuates plaque formation in mice thus offering a novel therapeutic strategy for atheroprotection.<sup>18</sup>

Aside from *HDAC9*, recent stroke GWAS clearly demonstrate the potential of large-scale genetic studies for drug discovery: risk loci in MEGASTROKE were substantially enriched in drug-target genes for antithrombotic therapy. This included *FGA* (encoding fibrinogen alpha chain), a target for alteplase and other thrombolytic agents, and *PDE3A* (encoding phosphodiesterase 3A), a target for cilostazol,<sup>20</sup> raising confidence, that stroke risk loci harbour meaningful targets for drug development.

Beyond its potential for discovery and molecular genetic testing for monogenic diseases, genetics offers unanticipated opportunities for clinical applications. Examples include: (1) risk prediction based on common genetic variants using polygenic risk scores (PRS); (2) the exploration of potential therapeutic targets by mendelian randomization; (3) drug discovery; (4) and pharmacogenomics. Given the rapid accumulation of genetic information and continued progress in analytical protocols these applications are becoming increasingly powerful. The current issue highlights two areas, where substantial progress has been made over the last years: Mendelian randomization (see Georgakis et al. page XXXX)<sup>21</sup> and risk prediction using PRS (see Abraham et al., page XXXX).<sup>22</sup> This issue further contains a guide on diagnostic testing and clinical management of monogenic stroke,(see Guey et al. page XXXX)<sup>23</sup> a topic that regularly comes up in clinical practice. Much has happened in the field of genetics of intracranial aneurysms, which is why we included an update on this topic (see Bakker et al. page XXXX).<sup>24</sup> The last article gives an overview on the genetics of stroke outcome, a field that is still at its infancy but gaining importance for the development of neuroprotective agents (see Lee et al. page XXXX).<sup>25</sup> Below, we summarize some of the highlights while also touching on other topics relevant to clinical applications.

## Polygenic risk scores – ready for implementation?

By combining the effects of multiple genetic variants with individually small effects in a polygenic score (PRS; or genomic risk score, GRS) it is possible to quantify genetic predisposition to traits and conditions like blood pressure (BP), low density lipoprotein (LDL) levels, coronary artery disease (CAD), or stroke.<sup>26</sup> This is typically achieved through a weighted sum of allele counts. The inclusion of variants beyond those meeting stringent GWAS significance levels has been shown to boost predictive performance.<sup>27, 28</sup> Performance can be further enhanced by combining PRS from multiple related traits such as BP, LDL levels, and stroke in a so-called metaGRS (for discussion see Abraham et al XXXX).<sup>22</sup> Indeed, a meta GRS for CAD consisting of 1.7 million single nucleotide variants (SNPs) achieved a hazard ratio (HR) of 1.71 (95% CI 1.68–1.73) per standard deviation of the score.<sup>29</sup> The HR obtained with the latest metaGRS for stroke is considerably lower (HR=1.26; 1.22–1.31; c-index=0.585)<sup>30</sup> but likely to increase as information from additional GWAS will be integrated. PRS for cardiovascular disease (CVD) typically perform better than individual traditional risk factors (e.g. BP),<sup>29, 30</sup> and can be added into risk models as an essentially independent factor (<sup>31</sup> and Abraham et al. XXX-XXX).<sup>22</sup> In fact, PRS for CVD consistently increase predictive power when added to established clinical risk scores (<sup>32</sup> and Abraham et al. XXX-XXX).<sup>22</sup>

PRS offer distinct advantages over traditional risk factors: genetic risk is present from birth and essentially stable over time, whereas traditional risk factors may vary over time requiring multiple measurements. PRS can be ascertained by a single genotyping effort long before traditional risk factors manifest enabling early decisions on lifestyle interventions and targeted monitoring.<sup>30, 33</sup> In fact, there is evidence that addition of a PRS for CVD to conventional risk prediction models in the general population could help reducing cardiovascular events<sup>34</sup> while also being economically meaningful.<sup>35</sup> However, important questions remain that need be addressed before implementing these scores in clinical practice including validation across different ancestries, sex-specific aspects, and issues related to the deployment and communication of PRS results to individuals (<https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.09.18.20197137>; Abraham et al. XXX-XXX).<sup>22</sup>

## Mendelian randomization – exploring causal relationships

As well-powered GWAS have accumulated for a variety of traits of interest in stroke and cerebrovascular disease, a specific use case for PRS has emerged via Mendelian Randomization (MR).<sup>36</sup> MR is an epidemiologic approach that uses genetic variants known to be associated with an exposure of interest to test for a causal effect of those variants on disease risk or other outcomes.<sup>37</sup> As a form of instrumental variable analysis, a PRS that explains a portion of the observed variance in a trait, such as plasma HDL levels, can be used to examine the causal role of a similar amount of variance in that trait in disease risk, such as myocardial infarction (MI), testing the causality of HDL levels on MI risk in a manner not possible using observational biomarker data alone.<sup>38</sup> Because an individual's germ-line genotypes cannot be modified by behaviour or disease, associations made in this methodological framework can be consistent with a directional or causal process, but only if a series of important assumptions are met.<sup>39</sup> Genetic variants must only act on the outcome

through their effect on a risk factor (independence), they must explain a reasonable degree of the variance in the risk factor (strong/weak instruments), and the variants cannot have effects on other risk factors that are themselves associated with the outcome (exclusion restriction). This last assumption can be particularly challenging, as genetic variants often impact multiple biological processes (termed horizontal pleiotropy) which may themselves be known or unknown.<sup>4039</sup> If a set of genetic variants were associated with alcohol intake, but also cryptically associated with tobacco intake, an observed association between genetic predisposition to alcohol intake and heart disease could be invalidated by pleiotropic associations with smoking. Fortunately, statistical tools and best practices continue to evolve that can aid in the validation of the underlying assumptions of MR and facilitate its use in exploring causal inferences between risk factors and disease in observational studies.<sup>41</sup> As GWAS samples sizes for human traits increase, the proportion of variance explained by PRS for these traits likewise increases, maximizing statistical power for novel causal inference and even providing opportunities to perform mediation analyses within the framework of MR for variants and traits with known confounding relationships with other risk factors. Two-sample MR utilizes genetic variants associated with a risk factor of interest from a GWAS in one population and uses them to test for association with outcomes in an independent population, allowing the genetic variants to “stand in” for biological variance in an unmeasured exposure.<sup>42</sup> As an example of the latent power of this approach, a recent MR analysis of serum lipid levels on both chronic and acute forms of cerebral SVD found that genetic predisposition to higher levels of HDL-C were associated with reduced risk of small vessel ischaemic stroke and lower white matter hyperintensity volumes, even after adjustment for LDL-C and triglycerides.<sup>43</sup> While the contributions of specific HDL subcomponents remain to be clarified, these results support a potential independent causal role of HDL in protection from cerebral SVD, and provide at least some evidence to support further investigation in formal randomized controlled trials (RCTs).

### **Intracranial aneurysms – sample size remains key**

Of particular interest to the development of clinical applications of genomic medicine are conditions with a high heritability. Aneurysmal subarachnoid haemorrhage, due to rupture of an intracranial aneurysm (IA), is highly heritable<sup>44</sup> with common variants explaining about 25% of the disease.<sup>45</sup> The most recent GWAS meta-analysis on IA included individuals from multiple ancestries integrating the majority of previous GWAS studies.<sup>45</sup> Overall, this study found 17 risk loci, 11 of which were new. Further analyses of putative causative genes pointed to a prominent role of endothelial cells (ECs) in disease pathogenesis (see article by Bakker et al. on p.XXXXXX<sup>24</sup> and<sup>45</sup>). Several of these genes are involved in cell signalling including the sensing of mechanical stress, which might contribute to aneurysm formation or rupture through vascular pressure sensing. An important insight from this study is a high degree of genetic correlation between ruptured and unruptured IA implying that the genetic architecture of ruptured and unruptured aneurysms is very similar. The study further found considerable genetic overlap of IA with ischemic stroke, ICH, and abdominal aortic aneurysm, which was largely accounted for by genes implicated in BP regulation and smoking.<sup>45</sup> As such, the available genetic evidence complements epidemiological findings, which point to a causal role of smoking and hypertension in IA

and aneurysmal subarachnoid haemorrhage. Notably, this risk can be modified by lifestyle interventions and medical therapy. Given the high heritability of IA, genetic risk prediction by means of PRS seems a logical development. The development of a powerful PRS will depend on the availability of larger genetic datasets, which can be expected over the next years. PRS could then be integrated into screening strategies for IA in selected populations although this would need to be tested in prospective studies.

## Genetics of stroke outcome – the next big thing

As outlined above, there is great demand for the development of neuroprotective agents. Recent GWAS in mostly Caucasian populations have identified an initial set of genes and risk loci that were significantly associated with clinical or radiological outcomes after stroke thus demonstrating the feasibility of such studies.<sup>46–49</sup> In some instances these findings could be related to biological processes that show strong candidacy for influencing stroke outcome (reviewed in Lee et al. Stroke 2021).<sup>25</sup> By design, stroke outcome studies are conducted within cases, i.e. without a healthy control group. Key variables to consider include time from stroke onset and status at baseline. Accordingly, dynamic measures such as the change in NIHSS from 6 hours to 24 hours after stroke ( NIHSS24h) have been proposed as key readouts and there is good reasoning for using the NIHSS24h as a primary outcome measure in genetic studies (reviewed in Lee et al. Stroke 2021).<sup>25</sup> Still, other measures such as hemorrhagic transformation<sup>47</sup> or long-term outcomes (clinical and imaging-defined) remain important alternatives as they capture complementary aspects of early injury, secondary injury (including secondary neurodegeneration) and recovery. Another readout that has repeatedly been proposed is serum neurofilament light (sNfL), a marker for neuroaxonal injury that was shown to reflect primary and secondary neuronal injury after ischemic stroke and can be quantified with high accuracy.<sup>50</sup> Quantitative trait GWAS have distinct advantages over binary case-control GWAS by providing more statistical power. Yet, sample sizes for stroke outcome studies have been at the lower end and there is a requirement for further harmonization across studies as highlighted by the Global Alliance in Acute and Long-term Outcome (<https://genestroke.wixsite.com/alliesinstroke>) initiative. While still at the beginning, the field of stroke outcome genetics is already receiving considerable interest by pharmaceutical industry highlighting its potential for drug discovery.

## Leveraging genetics for drug development

Less than 10% of drugs move from phase I to marketing authorization<sup>51, 52</sup> and this rate is even lower for CVD.<sup>52</sup> Human genetics has become a crucial source of evidence for guiding the selection of targets for drug development and prioritizing their use in clinical trials. In fact, compounds targeting candidates with evidence from human genetics have a several-fold probability to reach approval than those without such evidence.<sup>53, 54</sup> In this issue, Georgakis and colleagues discuss the potential of Mendelian randomization for drug discovery (see Georgakis et al. p. XXXXX).<sup>21</sup> MR continues to have great potential for candidate selection as illustrated by a recent MR study of ATP citrate lyase and CVD<sup>55</sup> that was published in parallel with the results of the CLEAR (Cholesterol Lowering via Bempedoic Acid, an

ACL-Inhibiting Regimen) Harmony trial and that essentially predicted and explained the results of the trial.<sup>51,56, 57</sup>

Yet, there are alternative approaches with a successful track record in CVD. One of them involves naturally occurring human genetic variants that are predicted to inactivate protein-coding genes.<sup>58</sup> Perhaps the most compelling example is PCSK9. Discovered as a gene implicated in familial hypercholesterolemia in 2003,<sup>59</sup> it was subsequently shown that loss-of-function (LoF) variants in PCSK9 are associated with a reduced risk for CAD.<sup>60</sup> Within less than 10 years two monoclonal antibodies targeting the gene product were approved for clinical use with large prospective RCTs pointing to improved cardiovascular outcomes only shortly thereafter.<sup>61, 62</sup> The identification of individuals with two loss-of-function PCSK9 alleles who suffered from no apparent adverse health consequences<sup>63–65</sup> provided strong assurance for a beneficial safety profile early in the drug development process. Additional examples of complete loss-of-function (“knock-out”) with implications for drug development include nonsense mutations in ANGPTL3<sup>65–68</sup> and APOC3.<sup>69</sup> As sequencing efforts in large-scale biobanks continue, additional human knock-outs for genes relevant to CAD and stroke drug development can be expected to emerge. Such datasets are currently generated through governmental (e.g. the UK Biobank), commercial (e.g. DeCode genetics) and institutional (e.g. Kaiser Permanente Research Bank) funding,<sup>8</sup> as well as through collaborative efforts across large deeply phenotyped cohort studies, such as the Trans-Omics for Precision Medicine (TOPMed) programme.<sup>70</sup>

Large-scale genetic data from prospective biobank cohorts further allow predicting unanticipated effects of drugs through a study design termed Phenome-wide association study (PheWAS). In such studies, one or multiple genetic variants are tested for their associations with hundreds of phenotypes spanning multiple organ systems.<sup>65, 71</sup> This allows exploring desirable and undesirable (adverse) clinical outcomes linked to loss-of-function of a given gene.

For instance, a PheWAS in more than 100.000 individuals from the UK Biobank showed that beyond their effects on CAD, genetically lowered Lp(a) levels are associated with a lower risk of stroke, peripheral vascular disease, heart failure, and aortic stenosis.<sup>72</sup> Another PheWAS identified a previously unknown effect of nondihydropyridine calcium channel blockers on diverticulosis risk that was subsequently confirmed in observational cohorts.<sup>73</sup> The field of genetics and its use for drug discovery is rapidly developing as highlighted by recent topical reviews.<sup>51, 58, 65</sup>

## Pharmacogenomics

The study of how an individual’s genome influences the activity, safety, or efficacy of a drug is termed pharmacogenomics. Pharmacogenomics is a broadening of the prior field of pharmacogenetics, which technically refers to the way in which variants in a single gene affect response to a drug. Both pharmacogenetics and pharmacogenomics appeal to the concept that genetic information can “personalize” medical decision-making, helping clinicians choose the correct drug, at the correct dose, to maximize therapeutic benefit and minimize side-effects or adverse outcomes. While somatic cancer mutations are



frequently utilized to select chemotherapy regimens, such as the targeting of HER2-positive breast cancer with trastuzumab.<sup>74</sup> There are relatively fewer examples of using germ-line variation to guide medication selection in standard clinical practice. The United States Food and Drug Administration currently requires that 12 medications include boxed warnings regarding pharmacogenomic biomarkers, out of a total of 457 that include pharmacogenomic information in the product labels. One prominent example is the FDA recommendation for *HLA-B\*1502* genotyping in individuals of Asian ancestry being considered for treatment with carbamazepine.<sup>75</sup> Individuals harboring this variant, which can approach 10% of Asian ancestry populations, are at an increased risk of Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis when exposed to carbamazepine and FDA guidance suggests that carriers of *HLA-B\*1502* not be treated with this drug. Other implementations of pharmacogenomics include clinical trial-driven support for the use of genomics to guide medication dosing and even therapeutic decision-making.

Several genes involved in warfarin metabolism, including *VKORC1*, *CPY2C9*, *CYP4F2* have been shown to impact dosing regimens required to maintain adequate anticoagulation via the International Normalized Ratio (INR).<sup>76</sup> The GIFT (Genetic Informatics Trial) RCT examined an aggregate genetic score of variants in these genes as a means to guide warfarin dosing, demonstrating a significant improvement in a composite outcome of INR < 4, major bleeding, venous thromboembolism, and death in the genotype-informed dosing arm.<sup>77</sup> Further implementation studies have shown this genotype-guided approach to warfarin dosing to be feasible and even cost-effective, although these results are perhaps of diminishing significance with the interim rise of direct oral anticoagulant options.<sup>78</sup>

In stroke and CVD, a prominent example of pharmacogenomics has arisen from the observation of reduced platelet inhibitory effect of clopidogrel in individuals harboring *CYP2C19\*2* and *\*3* gene mutations.<sup>79</sup> These loss-of-function mutations result in reduced metabolism of clopidogrel into its active metabolite, and carriers of these variants have been shown to exhibit increased incidence of cardiovascular events and stroke while on clopidogrel.<sup>80</sup> The recent TAILOR-PCI RCT was designed to prospectively test whether *CYP2C19* genotype-guided antiplatelet use would lead to improved outcomes after percutaneous coronary intervention compared with a genotype-agnostic approach.<sup>81</sup> While the primary composite ischemic endpoint did not reveal a significant difference in outcomes between groups at 12 months, there was an 80% reduction in ischemic events in the genotype-guided group in the first 3-months that was subsequently lost over the remainder of follow-up. The results of TAILOR-PCI may be considered disappointing by those advocating for increasing uptake in genotype-directed therapy in stroke and other vascular diseases, but this observed early benefit in ischemic events suggests that there may be more specific use-cases where pharmacogenomic patient benefit could be demonstrated.

## Conclusions

As can be seen from these brief highlights and in detail in the accompanying articles, the field of medical and population genetics in stroke is moving at a rapid pace with multiple current and near-term opportunities to influence and improve the care and treatment of stroke and related vascular diseases. These advancements have in large

part been triggered by substantial investments in recruitment and biobanking of genetic information on increasingly large and well-characterized populations in both health and disease and facilitated by collaboration in consortia such as the International Stroke Genetics Consortium (ISGC, [www.strokegenetics.org](http://www.strokegenetics.org)). It is both the ascertainment of data and its broad sharing that has been so critical to innovation. Summary genotype data from MEGASTROKE, currently the largest available GWAS of stroke and its subtypes, is available for download ([www.megastroke.org](http://www.megastroke.org)) and this and 18 other stroke genetic datasets are also shared at the Cerebrovascular Disease Knowledge Portal (<http://cd.hugeamp.org>). The UK Biobank contains genetic data and a plethora of stroke-relevant phenotypes for analysis available by completing a web-based application. But there remains work to be done in this regard. While national biobanks like China-Kadoorie (<https://www.ckbiobank.org>), Biobank Japan (<https://biobankjp.org/>), or international consortia such as H3Africa (<https://h3africa.org/>) are providing precious information on genetic risk for human disease in East Asian and African populations, the vast majority of available genome-wide datasets continue to be of predominantly white European ancestry. Diversification of genetic research holds great promise not only for improvement in understanding of disease risk in understudied populations, but in all populations through approaches such as trans-ethnic fine-mapping and meta-analysis.<sup>82</sup>

Substantial progress has also been made in deciphering the genetic determinants of MRI-markers of covert cerebral SVD, such as white matter hyperintensity volume, through collaborative efforts in population-based brain imaging studies from the Cohorts for Heart and Aging Research in Genomic Epidemiology (CHARGE) consortium,<sup>83</sup> the UK Biobank,<sup>84</sup> and the ISGC. So far, these studies have been more powerful than genetic studies of small vessel stroke and have revealed that SVD genes already have a significant impact on white matter microstructure in young adults. Identifying early predictors of stroke and vascular cognitive impairment could have major implications for our understanding of disease mechanisms across the lifespan and for devising effective and timely prevention strategies.

As work proceeds to map genotypes to traits, the next great frontier must be to transform these associations into biological understanding. The International Common Disease Alliance (ICDA, [www.icda.bio](http://www.icda.bio)) has established the “Maps to Mechanisms to Medicine” initiative to define barriers, identify opportunities, and coordinate partnerships to guide the field of medical genetics through the transition from variant to function. A substantial component of this transition will require the incorporation of additional high-throughput molecular data from transcriptomics, epigenomics, proteomics, and metabolomics, to capture a greater spectrum of effects induced by genome variation. Understanding the biological mechanisms through which variants impact disease risk and outcome will greatly enhance not only our conception of the basis of human disease, but also the efficiency with which we can translate these discoveries into novel therapeutics. Moreover, identifying circulating biomarkers of stroke capturing simultaneously inherited and environmental characteristics may lead to rapid applications for routine research or clinical practice given ease of access and low cost.



Finally, disease risk is imparted by both genetic and non-genetic exposures, and advances in genetics are being met by advances in understanding and quantification of the environmental exposures that often factor heavily in disease risk, both directly and through gene-environment interactions.<sup>85</sup> Social determinants of health (SDOH) have emerged as a critical component of potentially modifiable disease risk that are inequitably distributed across our populations. Hypertension, a critical risk factor for stroke, is a condition particularly impacted by SDOH,<sup>86</sup> and better understanding of the genetic and environmental factors contributing to blood pressure could improve risk modeling as well as stratification of vulnerable populations for targeted intervention to reduce the risk of stroke and related vascular and cognitive diseases.

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## Non-standard Abbreviations and Acronyms

<b>SVD</b>	small vessel disease
<b>GWAS</b>	genome-wide association studies
<b>HDAC</b>	Histone deacetylase
<b>PRS</b>	polygenic risk score
<b>GRS</b>	genomic risk score
<b>BP</b>	blood pressure
<b>LDL</b>	low density lipoprotein
<b>CAD</b>	coronary artery disease
<b>HR</b>	hazard ratio
<b>CVD</b>	cardiovascular disease
<b>MR</b>	Mendelian randomization
<b>MI</b>	myocardial infarction
<b>IA</b>	intracranial aneurysm
<b>ICH</b>	intracerebral haemorrhage

<b>NIHSS</b>	National Institutes of Health Stroke Scale
<b>sNfL</b>	serum neurofilament light
<b>LoF</b>	loss-of-function
<b>PheWAS</b>	Phenome-wide association study
<b>Lp</b>	Lipoprotein
<b>FDA</b>	United States Food and Drug Administration
<b>ISGC</b>	International Stroke Genetics Consortium

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