



**GENOME-WIDE ASSOCIATION STUDIES (GWAS) HAVE REVOLUTIONIZED
OUR VIEW OF HUMAN HEALTH AND DISEASE GENETICS AND OFFERED
NOVEL GENE THERAPY TARGETS**

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Abstract

Knowing how genetic, behavioural, and sociocultural factors influence each person's risk for C. It is imperative that a larger, more diverse set of genetic studies be done in order to be able to close the analysis of CMD distance In terms of disease prevention, there is a lot of interest in CMD genomic research. This potential can only be achieved if Ancestry DNA-style data like PRS is successfully gathered from the population. Inadequate participation is a big issue in current CMD genetic research. Differential minorities in the United States and Canada have set forth some important steps to improve their access to genetic research. To make sure that this will not happen again, these activities include discovering the issues and using community-based participatory interventions and benefits-sharing mechanisms. People underrepresented in the world of genetics will require more services to support them.

CMD and other genomics markers have been successfully identified and created novel avenues for human and population health change. In addition, it has complicated matters with regard to how this data would affect the broader healthcare system. What are the main questions: disproportionate difficulty in the CMD genotype-phenotype database; confounded research on disease heritability; ethnicity may not be well described, making estimating disease heritability difficult Despite these roadblocks, genome-informed inclusive data will bear unprecedented promise for bringing down CMD and improving wellbeing. A large-scale data unification has already occurred, as mentioned in this blog post to CMD Data sharing, however, is a project that must be done on a small scale in order to gain initial traction. This is also applicable to GWAS research on self-identified ethnicity. Although race and ethnicity are socially and culturally constructed, the use of self-identifying categories in genetic studies still endures.

Introduction

Genome-wide correlation studies (GWAS) have revolutionized our view of human health and disease genetics. These studies usually use imputation to predict genotypes at untyped loci based on whole genome sequenced reference panels with a greater number of variants, depending on genotyping microarrays that evaluate from 100 000 to 2.5 million genetic variants around the genome. 1 Due to the fact that the first genotyping microarrays and comparison panels were developed to measure widespread variation (i.e., genetic variants with

a minor allele frequency [MAF] > 5% in a population) in European populations, our understanding of genetic variation across diverse global populations has been historically limited. 2 Indeed, most GWAS, including those on cardiometabolic diseases (CMDs), were performed in European descent populations as of 2016, with just 5% of participants representing Hispanic/Latino, Pacific Islander, Arab and Middle Eastern, and other native groups in these studies. 3 As of this writing, non-Europeans make up between 11 percent and 24 percent of participants in CMD-related trait GWAS, with the vast majority of non-European participants being of Asian origin, according to the recently published GWAS Diversity Monitor, which monitors participant diversity in the GWAS catalog in real time. 4 While European ancestry GWAS was initially justified as a practical decision to increase control due to their relative homogeneity and large surveys of genotypic results, it is now known how problematic this lack of diversity in genetic studies is. This is especially true for CMD, which has an uneven burden around the world's populations. In reality, a lack of diverse ancestral history representation in genomic studies may unintentionally undercut the potential benefits of precision medicine in the immediate future, particularly for populations overwhelmingly affected by CMD. 5

The key aim of this analysis is to explain the significance and, in certain cases, the need for researching ancestrally diverse groups in order to better understand the genetic underpinnings of CMD. To do so, we start by summarizing core concepts of genetic diversity and then explain why incorporating global populations in CMD genomics research is important. We back up this point by explaining the global variance in CMD prevalence and stressing how important it is to construct a globally representative genetics evidence base. Following that, we go through some of the major advantages of increasing variation in genomic research, such as the discovery of population-specific CMD genetic variations, the significance of fine-mapping, and the calculation of broadly generalizable polygenic risk ratings (PRS). Despite the fact that our analysis is detailed in terms of the need for diversity in CMD genetic studies and the ethical, legal, and social implications for CMD science, we do not discuss solutions for increasing genetic capital and building the necessary infrastructure to integrate diversity into potential genomics research, which have been discussed in depth elsewhere.(6) – (9) Indeed, using diverse populations in genomics studies has already yielded clinical insights for chronic kidney disease and low LDL (low-density lipoprotein) in African-descent populations, as well as type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2D) in Mexican-descent populations (See Section Importance of Variants Specific to a Population below and 2). ten to twelve Although our study focuses on CMD, I'd like to point out that our key points relate to a broad variety of other complex traits and chronic diseases (e.g., schizophrenia,13–17 osteoporosis,18,19, and asthma20–22). Assuming that the problem of diversity can be consistently resolved by coordinated efforts by key stakeholders, we believe that additional, unforeseen prospects for the realization of precision medicine lie ahead.

What Is the Best Way to Describe Human Genetic Variation?

Individual variance, also known as diversity, refers to the spectrum of all potential values for any phenotype which can be due to evolution, environmental influences, and associations between the two. The function of genes is now understood to be complex and modifiable,

notwithstanding their importance. This viewpoint differs from the popular belief that all hereditary inheritance is fixed and deterministic. Person and population genetic variation can take several forms, but it generally refers to variations in the structure (e.g., chromosomal rearrangements or abnormalities) and composition (e.g., DNA sequence) of the genome. While both germ cells and somatic cells have genetic variation, only germ cell variation can be inherited. SNPs (single nucleotide polymorphisms), insertions and deletions (indels), substitutions, inversions, and copy number mutations are all examples of normal human genetic variance. 29 Private (the only copy), de novo familial (a few copies), uncommon (MAF=1.0 percent), low-frequency (MAF=1 percent –5 percent), and normal (MAF > 5 percent) genetic variations can all be present throughout the same community. In terms of functional ramifications, most variants are thought to be functionally neutral. 29 Despite the lack of observational data on the practical effects of the overwhelming majority of the approximate 10 million SNPs in the human genome, prediction algorithms such as PolyPhen-2,³⁰ SIFT,³¹ FATHMM-XF,³² MutationTaster,³³ and Combined annotation Dependent Depletion³⁴ have been established and are readily accessible. Because of the design of genotyping microarrays and the increased statistical ability to identify common genetic variant interactions, more detail about common variants occurs. The area of genetic epidemiology is progressively able to distinguish low frequency, uncommon, and de novo familial variants for CMD, as well as facets of genomic structural heterogeneity, thanks to declining sequencing costs.

I'm mainly interested in the importance of ancestral genetic variations in CMD in this paper. In this study, I look at the genetic basis of variations in population CMD burden and associated health criteria, which may be attributed to ancestry or socially and culturally defined constructs such as race or ethnicity (3 for key terms related to ancestral diversity). I briefly identify additional core specific to ancestral diversity (3) and accept the absence of gold standard science concepts to explain the relevance of ancestral diversity for quantifying the effect of genetic factors on CMD. 36,³⁵ As previously mentioned, I use the word ethnicity to refer to an individual's or population's continental ancestors, as well as, to a lesser degree, the population dynamics within each continent that influenced the observed patterns of genetic variation. We point out that since genetic ancestry is often measured by comparing participants' genotypes to continental reference populations, these reference populations' limited representativeness, availability, and limited sample sizes are significant limitations for the field of genetic epidemiology. 37 Furthermore, marking ancestral groups discretely by continent or other means vastly simplifies genetic variation.

In this study, I present both country-specific and global burden and use the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation's Global Burden of Disease (GBD) regions to describe disease burden. I use GBD regions that I expect to have some common ancestral roots to illustrate the strain of CMD in the text for clarification (eg, Western Europe, East Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa). Then I found out GBD regions are made up of countries that, with their recent population histories, might have more ancestral diversity (eg, the United States and Canada, Australia or New Zealand). Nonetheless, I understand that categorizing human populations geographically, such as by nation or area, can oversimplify human genetic diversity inadvertently. Thus, in an effort to further unpack ancestral diversity within a country like the United States, which is the

primary focus of this review, I also refer to common categorizations for US racial/ethnic minorities as proxy groupings of individuals who may have high proportions of non-European ancestry. However, I acknowledge that many ancestrally diverse demographics in the United States, such as racial/ethnic minorities or immigrant communities, may prefer different conceptualizations of race/ethnicity than those commonly used in the world. 46 In the United States, for example, the word 'Hispanic/Latino' is described by the Office of Management and Budget as a mixture of Spanish language usage and Latin American and Caribbean heritage (only countries with Spanish cultural origins). When self-identified US Hispanic/Latinos were asked to mark their race on the 2010 US Census using 5 US racial categories, 48.9% of Hispanic/Latinos identified as being of some other race (30.5%) using written descriptors such as Mexican, Puerto Rican, Latin American, 5.4% identified as being of 2 or more races (including the 5 US racial categories and some other race), and another 13.0% choose to not respond to the race question, making the nonresponse rate for self-identified non-Hispanic/Latinos 3× higher than for the total US population. 47

Global Populations are Critical for CMD Research

Individual CMD risk, as well as population-level variations in CMD burden seen both across and within countries, can be affected by one's ancestors. Years of life lost due to early death and years of life lost due to injury from a specific illness are accounted for in disability-adjusted life years (DALYs), which are a standard epidemiological indicator of total disease burden. 48 When comparing age-adjusted estimates of DALYs due to ischemic heart disease in 2017, a number of countries in the GBD regions of Oceania, Central Asia, and Eastern Europe have the highest prevalence; in general, males have a higher age-adjusted burden of CMD than females. 49

Between 1990 and 2017, a number of GBD regions (e.g., Oceania, and to a lesser extent, South Asia) had an intractably high burden of ischemic heart disease as measured by DALYs, while others had either steady declines (e.g., Central Europe, North Africa, and the Middle East) or intermittent declines 49 Globally, similar differences in CMD burden can be seen over time in hypertension, ischemic stroke, type 2 diabetes, and chronic kidney disease (CKD; Online I). 50 For example, hypertensive heart disease is most prevalent in Central Sub-Saharan Africa, followed by Oceania, and other African and Middle Eastern regions. 49 Ischemic stroke, on the other hand, is most frequent in Eastern Europe, Oceania, and Central and East Asia. 49

Oceania, Central Latin America, and Mexico, as well as Central and Southern Sub-Saharan Africa, have the largest concentrations of T2D and CKD. 49

Blacks have the highest incidence of hypertension and associated diseases such as coronary artery disease (CAD), ischemic stroke, heart failure, and chronic kidney disease (CKD) in the United States. 51 In particular, hypertension could be responsible for roughly half of the difference in life expectancy between African-Americans and European-Americans. 52 Individuals with Native American, Black, and Hispanic/Latino ancestry have the greatest incidence of adult obesity, T2D, and associated complications, whereas those with European and East Asian ancestry have the lowest. 54,53 There are significant variations in disease

resistance and prevalence even among widely used US race/ethnic groups. For example, adults from Puerto Rico and Mexico are more likely than South Americans to have cardiovascular disease (CVD) risk factors such as obesity,⁵⁵ and Indian and Filipino Americans are more likely than Chinese Americans to be obese. ⁵⁶ Asian Indian and Filipino Americans have the highest prevalence of diagnosed T2D among Asians (13 percent and 10%, respectively), while Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans have the highest prevalence of diagnosed T2D of any Hispanic/Latino community (14 percent and 12 percent, respectively). ⁵⁴ Despite the fact that diet, cultural expectations, healthcare availability, psychosocial, and socioeconomic stressors are undeniably significant contributors to the unequal disease burden among ancestrally diverse communities, some of these health inequalities exist well after accounting for discrepancies in disease social and environmental exposures. ^{57–60} This finding also indicates that genetic factors, which may be ancestry-specific or have complex associations with environmental factors that are patterned through racial/ethnic groups, may affect any vulnerability to CMD-related traits or diseases. ⁶⁰

Given the varying prevalence of CMD around the world and within countries with different communities, attempts to increase the variety of populations surveyed in genetic science have become critical for clinical research and public health. The more inclusive genomic studies are, the more successful they will be at extending the reach of understood human genomic heterogeneity and bolstering our knowledge of disease etiology, allowing us to enhance global and local public health.

Diverse Studies are Important for Evaluating Differential Allele Frequencies

Natural selection and genetic drift are examples of nongenetic and genetic factors that cause human variation. The Out of Africa influx of anatomically modern humans, for example, has had a significant impact on existing human population variation. A demographic bottleneck can be seen in the migration of relatively small populations out of Africa over time, with the groups that migrated into Europe and Asia representing only a fraction of the genetic diversity found on the entire continent of Africa. ²⁷ The 1000 Genomes Project,⁶¹ H3 Africa⁶², and other attempts to classify global human genetic variation have revealed variations in allele frequencies between people of distinct continental ancestries. ^{61, 63, and 64} These variations vary depending on the evolutionary age of the derived variant and the population's historical background. Previously, population allele frequency variations were due to genetic factors such as natural selection. However, I now have proof that the out of Africa bottleneck caused widespread allele frequency differences. ⁶⁵ Indeed, the majority of genetic variations, including those unique to a particular continental population, are uncommon and display allele frequency variations (or are population specific). ^{66,61} For example, the discovery of PCSK9 loss-of-function variants in Blacks contributed to the creation of new therapies to treat high LDL, among other things (see Importance of Variants Specific to a Population below).

Medical genomics is rapidly decoding patients' entire exomes and genomes to find disease resistance variants. However, owing to a lack of consensus on variant annotation, identifying disease-relevant sequence variants has proved difficult. Allele frequency estimates are one aspect that affects variant annotation. As a result, the implementation of mainstream methods

for exchanging genomic and phenotypic data generated by physicians, academics, and patients via unified databases, such as ClinVar⁶⁷ and the University of Chicago's Geography of Genome Variation browser, has become a top priority for investigators. ⁶⁸ The Clinical Genome Resource (ClinGen) Variant Curation Interface, for example, is a curated resource for clinicians and researchers that pulls frequency data from a variety of sequencing efforts, such as gnomAD⁶⁹ (<https://gnomad.broadinstitute.org/>), PAGE,5 1000 Genomes Project (<https://www.internationalgenome.org>), and the Exome Sequencing Project⁷⁰ (ESP; <https://evs.gs.washington.edu>). With the addition of the Vietnamese Genetic Variation Database⁷², Northern Sweden, the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children⁷³ (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJEB7217>), and the UK10K Study⁷⁴ (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJEB7218>), these frequencies are now available on the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Regeneron's DRIFT Consortium⁷⁶ (https://www.regeneron.com/sites/all/themes/regeneron_corporate/files/science/DRIFT-Consortium-Factsheet-Backgrounder-July-FINAL.pdf) and 23andMe's Populations Partnerships Program for genotype data⁷⁷ (<https://research.23andme.com/populations-collaborations/>) are two examples of industry initiatives. However, these last two data sets are not actually widely accessible, making them ineffective for risk variant adjudication based on population frequencies in the scientific and clinical populations.

Clinical laboratories marking putatively deleterious nonsynonymous calls as variants of uncertain meaning, a phenomena that occurs at higher rates in individuals of non-European origin, particularly when these variants have been studied and characterized less regularly, adds to the difficulties of evaluating the pathogenicity of an uncommon variant. ⁷⁸ Alternatively, a reclassification of putatively causal pathogenic forms for hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, which were subsequently determined to be safe as a consequence of becoming over-represented among Blacks, has enhanced scientific awareness. ⁷⁹ For-profit businesses are now getting into the variant reclassification game. Blueprint Genetics, for example, has a variant classification service⁸⁰ that allows the entire sequencing data from a previous exome to be re-analyzed to look for additional clinically significant variants that could clarify or lead to a patient's diagnosis.

SNP ascertainment bias in genotype array evidence has also been caused by differences in allele frequencies across global populations. ^{81,82} Genotype arrays, especially older ones (e.g.,

Affymetrix 5.0, Illumina Goldengate), were produced using European ancestry sequence data,⁸³ which may have led to the observed skewed range of allele frequencies in non-European GWAS. When GWAS outcomes are merged to produce PRS (also known as genetic risk scores), and are also being used to generate customized CMD risk assessments of both clinical prognosis and personalized intervention/treatment programs, this is becoming a significant stumbling block. ⁸⁴ Developing a good PRS requires optimizing the proportion of total variation described by a series of known genetic variants for a specific phenotype. When measuring the proportion of variation explained in complex characteristics, it has become common practice in analysis to include all calculated variations (many of which are correlated),

as this improves prediction precision. 85,84 SNP ascertainment bias will result in a model with dramatically different risk estimates across ancestries, as well as low prediction accuracy. Furthermore, recent research has shown that a PRS determined using standard methods in one population can result in unexpected biases in the distributions of scores in other populations, with trends varying significantly across traits. 86 This indicates that many causal variations, particularly in non-European ancestries, are still unknown. The only rational use of PRS is one that guarantees that scores can be measured correctly for all, which implies that the genomic data used be completely representative of all human genetic variation. Any genetically informed personalized medicine strategy that fails to account for this runs the risk of misinterpreting the results.

The Value of Population-Specific Variants

Due to the historical over-representation of European ancestry individuals in current GWAS, I have only recently begun to recognise correlations that are rare in European ancestry populations but normal in others, owing to nongenetic or genetic factors that change allele frequencies and LD trends across populations. I illustrate and outline a non-exhaustive list of examples of genetic variant correlations for ischemic and hypertensive heart disease, stroke, T2D, and CKD in 2. The generalizability of predominantly European ancestors discovered variants in ancestrally diverse populations is then identified. While there are few genomic studies in ancestrally diverse populations, a number of notable major genomic studies and consortia have been established to advance the state of genetic science in these populations. The examples below aren't intended to be exhaustive of all ancestrally diverse genomic studies of CMD and associated traits, but rather to highlight the scope of exploration that can be made in such studies.

Stroke and Ischemic and Hypertensive Heart Disease

As previously mentioned, the prevalence of DALYs caused by ischemic or hypertensive heart disease is highest in Oceania, and alarmingly high in Central Asia and Eastern Europe (ischemic heart disease), as well as many African areas (hypertensive heart disease). 49 Ischemic stroke, on the other hand, is most frequent in Eastern Europe, Oceania, and Central Asia. 49 Most global areas saw a general decrease in both ischemic and hypertensive heart disease between 1990 and 2017, but the particular trajectories varied greatly. These population-level variations may be attributed to differences in genetic heritage and variance in plasma lipid levels, asthma, or other CMD-related characteristics. A few illustrations are given below.

Plasma Lipid Levels and PCSK9, CD36, and APOC3 Ancestry-specific variants associated with blood lipid levels were first described in 2005 with the seminal Dallas Heart Study¹² sequencing of African ancestry participants,¹² identifying multiple loss-of-function PCSK9 variants (e.g., rs28362286, MAF1 percent, and rs67608943, MAF0.3 percent) that were associated with a 40% lower LDL cholesterol ¹² Both forms are present at lower frequencies in gnomAD samples of African ancestors (2). PCSK9 was discovered to be an autosomal dominant hypercholesterolemia gene (gain-of-function mutations) at the time, but the discovery of PCSK9 loss-of-function variants, which resulted in significant reductions in CAD risk, aided in the creation of PCSK9 inhibitors. 87

A loss-of-function variant in CD36 (rs3211938, 2), which is only present in African ancestry populations (MAF=9%) and is under selective pressure due to malaria, is another plasma lipid example. 88 Higher HDL (high-density lipoprotein)^{89–91} and lower triglycerides are linked to the variant, as are platelet traits,⁹² red cell distribution width,⁹³ C-reactive protein,⁹⁰ and other CMD-related steps.

Furthermore, in the Lancaster Old Order Amish, carriers of a triglyceride-lowering null mutation (rs10892151, MAF5 percent) in APOC3 are normal, allowing for the detection of APOC3 loss-of-function as cardioprotective. 94 Wide meta-analyses for rs76353203 have since validated this finding (2). GWAS with Blood Pressure Traits ^{95,96}

The genetic etiology of systolic blood pressure, diastolic blood pressure, and 24 other complex traits was explored in a recent GWAS of a randomized, ancestrally diverse sample as part of the PAGE (Population Design using Genomics and Epidemiology) review. 5 They discovered a novel systolic blood pressure variant at GYPC (rs28515082, 2) that was most common in Native and Hispanic/Latino Americans (MAF=10%–13%) in their study, but was especially uncommon in East and South Asian populations (MAF0.5%). While this mutation is widespread in European descent groups (MAF=16%), it was first discovered in a complex genetic population in connection with blood pressure. They also found a new systolic blood pressure signal at GPR20 (rs111409240, 2) that is distinct from the previously identified European signal⁹⁷ (rs34591516). The variant that leads to this novel secondary signal is normal in blacks (MAF=20%), uncommon in European descent individuals (MAF1%), and low frequency in the other diverse populations studied (MAF6%). Other major transethnic electronic health record surveys and meta-analyses of ancestrally representative populations have also shown that diversity adds importance to blood pressure variance studies. JRKL and Hypertension (98,99)

In the PAGE analysis, an indel (rs145054295) in JRKL was linked to hypertension for the first time ($\beta=0.43$; $P=3.70109$), and impact sizes at this site were found to vary across ancestries ($P=0.025$). 5 While the minor allele was observed at 2.4 percent frequency in Blacks ($\beta=0.36$; $P=1.96105$), 0.4 percent in Hispanic/Latinos ($\beta=0.52$; $P=5.08103$), and 0.5 percent in Native Americans ($\beta=1.82$; $P=0.058$) in the PAGE research sample, the mutation was monomorphic in European populations⁶¹. In PAGE, the variant is seen at much lower frequencies in East Asians (MAF=0.01%; $\beta=2.39$; $P=0.32$) and Native Hawaiians (MAF=0.01%; $\beta=14.90$; $P=0.08$). These variations in effect sizes by ancestry are most likely due to allele frequency differences (as seen in 2), emphasizing the significance of testing diverse populations for trait mapping and at scale, as when CMD-relevant variants are this uncommon, massive sampling sizes are needed to reliably estimate effect sizes.

PRKCH and Stroke

In Japanese ^{100–102} and Chinese communities, a missense variant (rs2230500) in PRKCH has been related to an elevated risk of ischemic stroke. ^{102nd} Individuals with the GA or AA genotype had a 34% higher chance of experiencing ischemic stroke than those with the GG

genotype, according to a meta-analysis of 5 sample populations made up of Chinese and Japanese citizens (3686 cases and 4589 controls). 102nd The SNP is typical in Asian populations (Japanese, MAF=24%; Han Chinese, MAF=18%), but uncommon in European and African descent populations (MAF1%, 2). PRKCH is a protein kinase C (PKC) family member that plays a role in the formation and progression of atherosclerosis in humans. a hundred The A allele allows Val 374 Ile to be substituted in the ATP-binding site of PKC-delta, resulting in increased PKC activity. 102

Stroke and the Sickle Cell Trait

Some studies have linked the sickle cell phenotype (individuals with only one copy of the sickle cell variant at rs334, which is more common in people of African ancestry; 2) to an increased risk of stroke,104 but a recent meta-analysis has refuted this correlation. 105 The thrombosis and hemostasis biomarker D-dimer have shown more consistent correlations. 106–109 Venous thromboembolism (particularly pulmonary embolism) has also been related to sickle cell trait 110,111; further research is required to explain these correlations in larger sample sizes and to elucidate the mechanisms behind them.

Diabetes Mellitus Type 2

DALYs for T2D have traditionally been more intractably elevated between 1990 and 2017, in contrast to global trends in heart disease burden. For eg, Oceania has the highest T2D burden, which increased and then plateaued between 1990 and 2017. Southern Sub-Saharan Africa, Central Latin America, and Mexico all have high T2D burdens. 49 Any of these global variations in vulnerability may be clarified by hereditary differences due to glycemic control, obesity, or other CMD-related characteristics.

T2D and SLC16A11

T2D-related genetic variations with population frequency variations have also been discovered in non-European ancestral groups. Several admixed Mexican ancestry groups, for example, bear a T2D vulnerability haplotype with four amino acid substitutions in SLC16A11; subsequent lookups of this haplotype showed a 50% prevalence in Native Americans and 10% in East Asian study participants, but was uncommon in European and African study participants. 11 This haplotype is responsible for around 20% of the increased prevalence of T2D in Mexico, and expression of SLC16A11 in heterologous cells (nonhuman cells that do not normally express this gene) changes lipid metabolism, resulting in an increase in intracellular triacylglycerol levels. No. 112 About the fact that GWAS has previously identified SLC16A11 as a novel finding likely involved in triacylglycerol metabolism, this study in Mexican ancestry individuals identified SLC16A11 as a novel finding possibly involved in triacylglycerol metabolism.

Obesity and T2D in Founder Groups

In a founder population of 2575 Greenlandic Inuit, a nonsense mutation in TBC1D4 was related to a significant increase in T2D risk (odds ratio=10.3 in homozygous carriers) as well as a large decrease in glucose uptake in muscle (rs61736969, MAF=17 percent; 2). 112

Another recent GWAS of a Greenlandic Inuit population found a strong impact size variant for height and weight in the FADS gene cluster (rs7115739), which is extremely prevalent in the Inuit114, perhaps as an adaptation mechanism to a polyunsaturated fatty acid-rich diet. Following more study, it was discovered that this variant has an impact on height in people of European descent. The impact sizes for the weight finding varied between Greenlandic and a prior European ancestry GWAS115, owing to its lower prevalence in Europeans (MAF5%; 2).

T2D and Pancreatic Acinar Function

Three variants were shown to be in intermediate LD ($r^2 > 0.6$) of previously unreported missense variants (p.Val282Met in GP2 [rs78193826], p.Ala341Thr in CPA1 [rs77792157], and p.Arg131Gln in GLP1R [rs3765467]) in a meta-analysis of four GWAS of T2D in people of Japanese ethnicity (2). These mutations are in genes historically connected to pancreatic acinar cell activity (e.g., CPA1 and GP2) and insulin secretion (e.g., CPA1 and GP2) (eg, GLP1R). 116th Another coding variant in PAX4 (Arg192His, rs2233580), a significant transcription factor for islet function, was previously found to be more prevalent in East Asian populations (MAF=11 percent; 2) than any other ancestral group and was related to T2D. 116

T2D, CREBRF, and Obesity

A large-effect BMI-increasing missense variant in CREBRF (rs373863828) has also been discovered, which is normal in Samoan populations (MAF 25%) but uncommon in other global populations outside of Oceania (2). 118,119 individuals The variant is associated with a lower risk of T2D and has a greater effect size ($=1.36 \text{ kg/m}^2$) than many typical BMI loci, like FTO (rs1558902, the largest effect size variant recorded in European GWAS120 [$=0.39 \text{ kg/m}^2$]). This variant tends to increase BMI while decreasing T2D risk, in contrast to the majority of previous GWAS findings for BMI and T2D. In adipocyte cell models, functional analyses show that the variant can reduce energy consumption while increasing fat storage. Because of its large impact size and widespread allele occurrence in Samoans, this variant was detected in a discovery and replication study of 5000 people, which is far smaller than the typical GWAS sample size.

T2D and HbA1c

The association between variants of different allele frequencies across global populations and the precision of HbA1c as a test of long-term glycemic regulation is also becoming more well-known.

122 Sickle cell trait (2) has been shown to lower HbA1c as compared to fasting glucose levels in recent studies using assays that are resistant to previously reported assay interference effects. 122 However, these results may be assay based, as the sickle cell phenotype has been linked to higher HbA1c in the Diabetes Prevention Program. number 123 As seen in 2, missense variants at the G6PD locus in African ancestry populations can affect the accuracy of HbA1c as a glycemic control test (rs1050828, MAF=12 percent) and uncommon (rs76723693, MAF=0.5 percent). 124,125 The geographic spread of G6PD deficiency, including sickle cell trait, resembles the geographic distribution of malaria endemic regions,126 emphasizing the need for further research into HbA1c precision in other populations vulnerable to endemic malaria,

such as Southeast Asia. Recent research suggests that alpha thalassemia (based on carrier status of the copy number variant esv2676630) is linked to higher HbA1c¹²⁷ levels and may statistically interfere with sickle cell trait to affect clinical parameters. ¹²⁷ The therapeutic relevance of what has been overlooked by concentrating GWAS on predominantly European ancestry populations can be seen in the fact that these HbA1c results for common genetic variants come decades after the clinical use of HbA1c as a test of long-term glycemic control¹²¹ and an initial round of GWAS analyses for HbA1c¹²⁹ and other traits.

Chronic Kidney Disease

From 1990 to 2017, the number of DALYs lost to CKD changed dramatically. ⁴⁹ Oceania leads the burden of CKD, trailed by Central Latin America and Mexico, and Central Sub-Saharan Africa, similar to global patterns in T2D burden. Below are some examples of how global variation in CKD burden can represent genetic ancestry differences.

APOL1 and CKD Blacks are more than twice as likely as European Americans to experience end-stage renal disease; this result led to the discovery of the G1 (rs73885319) and G2 (rs71785313) risk variants in APOL1, which are more prevalent in people of African origin (2), likely due to selective pressure from African trypanosomiasis (2), ¹⁰. ¹³² In carriers of two risk alleles, these variants have a major effect on risk, with recorded odds ratios of 17 for focal segmental glomerulosclerosis, ²⁹ for HIV-associated nephropathy, ¹³¹ and at least a 15% lifetime risk of CKD in risk allele carriers. The number ¹³² Other African-admixed populations, such as Hispanic/Latinos, have been linked to faster disease development through these variants. ¹³² Since the related variants had reached higher allele frequency in that population (rs73885319 MAF=23 percent, rs71785313 MAF=13 percent), higher power for a given sample size was observed first in Blacks. Given the ethnic diversity of Hispanic/Latinos, it's not shocking that the connection was repeated in some Hispanic/Latino backgrounds (e.g., some with a higher proportion of African ancestry, such as those from the Caribbean), but not in others.

CKD and Sickle Cell Trait

Small studies¹³⁴ that suggested sickle cell trait differential vulnerability to CKD have since been validated by larger cohort studies. ^{111,135} people In reality, sickle cell phenotype can have a similar influence on progression to end-stage renal disease as the well-known APOL1 high-risk genotypes (hazard ratio of 1.8 for APOL1 versus 2.0 for sickle cell trait in the Reasons for Geographic and Racial Differences in Stroke study). The number is ¹³⁶.

In conclusion

More genetic discovery studies in ancestrally diverse and admixed populations are needed to recognize novel susceptibility variants that may be uncommon or missing in GWAS of European descent populations, as seen in the examples above. Furthermore, there is growing concern that observations in one ancestral group do not have the same magnitude of impact in other ancestries. The PAGE Study investigated this topic for many CMD traits; in a landmark paper, they compared the direction and extent of results for GWAS-identified variants in several non-European ancestry populations to European ancestry findings for BMI, T2D, and

lipid levels. The researchers discovered a general dilution of impact sizes across ancestries. 86 The PAGE thesis looked for evidence of smaller impact sizes in previous GWAS results for 26 characteristics linked to CMD and other complex diseases in a diverse population. 5 This experiment shows that previously published GWAS observations resulting from mainly European ancestry samples have substantially decreased impact sizes in other ancestral groups on average. The correlation between historically recorded GWAS impact sizes and results observed in Hispanic/Latinos was 0.86 (95 percent CI, 0.83–0.90) and 0.54 (0.50–0.58) among Blacks, respectively. 5 The smaller effect sizes found in non-European populations could be due to differences in LD, allelic variability, gene-gene, or gene-environment interactions, which could enlarge the distance between the effects of established GWAS results on CMD even further. Regardless of the source of the differential results, any genetic risk prediction model focused on SNP interaction observations outside the ancestry population in which they were found should be used with caution.

For fine-mapping, diversity is critical.

The next big obstacles for genetic epidemiology are determining the underlying causal variants and target genes, as well as transforming these results into therapeutic observations, following the initial progress of GWAS in identifying genomic regions that are robustly linked with a wide variety of diseases and related characteristics. About 90% of the tens of thousands of genomic regions related to diverse traits are noncoding, potentially regulatory regions of the genome. 137 GWASs are useful for recognizing genomic regions linked to a certain phenotype, but they often fail to identify the causal allele or even the involved gene. Indeed, analyses of a single ancestral group and their LD signature restrict the capacity or power of investigators to distinguish causal variants. The number is 138.

Because of their complex LD composition, GWAS of multiple diverse populations (ie, transethnic meta-analysis or pooled analysis of multiple ancestral groups) may help narrow the credible range of causal variants at a given locus. African heritage populations, for example, have shorter LD blocks on average than European populations, which has been shown to be especially useful for narrowing the number of candidate causal variants at a given locus and prioritizing candidate variants for practical follow-up. A total of 24,139 Transethnic fine-mapping has helped narrow lists of candidate variants for kidney function, 140 QT interval, 141 lipid traits, 142 and BMI in several recent CMD studies. 142 Integration of transethnic fine-mapping studies with functional annotation can help with variant selection for in vitro research of variations in transcriptional activity and protein binding 144 and can contribute to the discovery of putative causal variants at a previously identified GWAS locus.

In risk prediction and precision medicine, diversity is critical.

As previously mentioned, PRSs were widely used to aggregate impact sizes around the genome in order to approximate the total contribution of genetics to phenotypic heterogeneity. In practice, a PRS is calculated based on existing GWAS discovery findings for each genotyped organism in a target (testing) study (training sample). PRSs have been used to forecast individualized vulnerability and to estimate the effect of a series of novel GWAS findings on external cohorts. a total of 84,145 The distribution of risk scores is often divided into

percentiles or other categorizations to equate the risk of an occurrence for a person to that of those in the same sample in order to draw inferences. However, since the bulk of the training GWAS data was derived from European ancestry samples,¹⁴⁶ PRS estimation and model fit will vary greatly across populations due to variations in allele frequencies, impact sizes, or the underlying etiology of the phenotype.^{147,148} In many cases, attempting to integrate European-derived PRSs into different cultures has resulted in poor model fit.¹⁴⁵⁻¹⁵⁰ I provide explanations of such prejudices from the published literature as well as from our own studies.

CAD PRS in European Ancestry Populations Research has shown that mixing genetic risk ratings, in the form of PRS, with more conventional risk factor tests, such as the Framingham Risk Score, will better predict poor cardiovascular outcomes. One of the first PRS, from the Myocardial Infarction-Genes randomized placebo-controlled clinical trial, found that patients who received both PRS (based on 11 SNPs correlated with CAD) and Framingham 10-year CVD risk score information had lower LDL cholesterol levels and higher statin utilization than those who only received Framingham Risk Scores.^{150, 151} The GeneRisk research in Finland found that delivering customized cardiovascular disease risk information based on a mixture of conventional risk data and PRS encouraged healthier behaviour.¹⁵² Physicians at Massachusetts General Hospital are introducing a Preventive Genomics Clinic to help patients understand their monogenic and polygenic risk for a range of diseases and take measures to reduce the risk.¹⁵³ The goal is for this clinic to act as a blueprint for how individuals can obtain a low-cost report on monogenic and polygenic risk and use the knowledge to develop prevention strategies. However, if PRSs are produced in a single population, they will invariably lack essential genetic variants that lead to risk in other populations.

Obesity PRS

The PAGE research analyzed the performance of a recently released PRS for obesity¹⁵⁴ in the various populations of the PAGE study to explain the variations in PRS performance as a result of population architecture and epidemiology. When comparing PRS to BMI, model fit decreased as genetic distance from European populations increased. The changed R² for the four PAGE populations (Hispanic/Latino, N=19 028, black, N=16 093, Asian, N=4155 [88 percent Japanese, 5 percent Filipino, 4 percent Chinese, 1% South Asian]; and Native Hawaiian, N=2502) ranged from 2.7 percent (Hispanic/Latino) to 0.3 percent (Native Hawaiian) (Native Hawaiian). With a modified R² of 1.7 percent, the Asian community scored poorly as well. When it came to forecasting obesity (BMI 30 kg/m²), however, the Asian participants had the better model fit (though it was still poor), with a region under the curve of 0.587. This seems to be due to the inherent BMI and obesity spread within the classes. Asians had the lowest obesity rate for PAGE users, at 11.4 percent, compared to 44.2 percent for Blacks, 40.4 percent for Hispanic/Latinos, and 35.5 percent for Native Hawaiians, representing obesity prevalence in the general US population. As a result, the risk score distribution was best able to identify the few Asians in the upper percentiles who were at high risk of obesity. The PRS, on the other hand, did not reliably differentiate these risk strata even with a higher modified R² in Hispanic/Latinos, Blacks, and Native Hawaiians since such a significant proportion of participants were obese. Because of heterogeneity in impact sizes (often attributable to differing LD and allele frequencies) and discrepancies in the frequency of a

phenotype, which all combine to hinder the translation of PRS to other populations, this exemplifies the intersection of model fit.

The predictive importance of PRSs is calculated by the related characteristics of the aim (testing) dataset as well as the statistical strength of the discovery (training) dataset—specifically, the enrichment of the genome-wide distribution of interaction test statistics due to aggregate, additive genetic impact. PRSs have been produced so far using publicly accessible GWAS as training results, which have far greater sampling sizes in Europeans than in any other population. 155 PRSs derived from these discoveries may or may not be transferable to other ancestral populations. 156 In fact, PRS precision is a function of recent human demographic background, because in target groups that are genetically more similar to the population observed in the discovery of GWAS, the PRS can describe a greater proportion of phenotypic variation. The polygenic predictive value of PRS decreases as the genetic gap between two populations grows. A practical concern is how to establish polygenic scores for newly admixed individuals or individuals that are genetically distinct from the CMD populations represented by the largest GWAS currently available. Using transethnic data to calculate sufficient weights for more ancestrally diverse samples may improve prediction accuracy.¹⁵⁷ MultiPred is a methodological technique in which PRSs based on European training data are combined with PRSs based on training data from other target populations. 155 The formulation of current approaches is based on best practices for dealing with allele frequency and LD variations within and across populations. Given the difficulties in measuring and evaluating PRS across cultures, understanding variations in PRSs across ancestries should be approached with care.

The Benefits of Increasing Diversity in CMD Research in the Future

The PAGE Study and the authors of this paper have been involved in a number of projects aimed at improving the quality of PRS and promoting the characterization of genomic heterogeneity in ancestrally diverse communities (e.g., the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos¹⁵⁸). Other critical initiatives are now underway to introduce the potential of precision medicine to people of various ethnic backgrounds. MESA (Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis) is a prospective study that was intended to determine subclinical CVD and progression to event CVD in a representative population-based sample. Between 2000 and 2002, MESA hired 6814 participants across four race/ethnic groups (European [39 percent], blacks [28 percent], Hispanic/Latino [22 percent], and Chinese American [12 percent]) at eight recruiting centres. 164 The study's main findings include the predictive power of coronary artery calcification for coronary events through ancestry,¹⁶² the association of air pollution with coronary artery calcification progression,¹⁶³ and extensive explorations of CVD biomarkers, such as lipoprotein-associated phospholipase A2 (Lp-PLA2)¹⁶⁴ and lipoprotein(a),¹⁶⁵ and optimal CVD risk thresholds for these biomarkers by a team of researchers. 165 MESA and PAGE have been pioneers in the production of multi-omics evidence (such as gene expression and methylation) for multi-ethnic communities, and MESA has been a leader in joint initiatives in CVD genetic epidemiology, such as the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institutes' Trans-Omics for Precision Medicine program⁷⁵ and the Cohorts for Heart and Aging Studies in Genetic Epidemiology,¹⁶⁶ 167

More attempts are being made to attract new cohorts (<https://www.the-rural-study.org/about/>) 168 and biobank studies 169–172 for a more representative portrayal of US and global communities. The US National Institutes of Health is developing a large-scale biomedical data resource with the aim of representing the diversity of the US population, and it is sponsored by the US National Institutes of Health. 172 A massive and ethnically diverse cohort of US Veterans is being recruited for the Million Veteran's Program. 173 Color, a population genetics firm, recently unveiled plans to recruit 100,000 volunteers from underrepresented populations in order to help determine the risk of myocardial infarction associated with low coverage WGS. As previously stated⁶⁴, studying African descent populations is especially important because early human migrations out of Africa (both forced and voluntary) brought a portion of genetic diversity into Europe, East Asia, and, eventually, the Americas. As a result, major genetic studies of African descent populations are expected to increase PRS accuracy around the board, as well as precision medicine's potential to target those with the greatest CMD load.

Whole genome sequencing is becoming possible for many thousands of people around the world as the cost of sequencing the human genome continues to fall. offers a nonexhaustive list of global genome sequencing initiatives. Importantly, the ancestry inequalities that plague GWAS arrays will no longer be an issue for sequencing data, and significant work should be put into putting these data together for new discoveries and public health applications. Many countries (e.g., Australia, China, Dubai, Denmark, Estonia, France, Japan, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Turkey) and continental initiatives (e.g., H3Africa, Genome Asia 100K) are still working hard to expand the variety of available genome sequence data globally. Of course, achieving the targets of coordinated exploration and data exchange would undoubtedly take several years, similar to the GWAS that came before them. Furthermore, it will require collective efforts and vigilance on the part of researchers and funders to prioritize these opportunities to ensure that they are used to their maximum potential in order to reduce prejudice in genomic studies and improve global human health. 175

Genetics Research's Ethical, Legal, and Social Consequences

In addition to the broader ethical, legal, and social ramifications of genetic testing, there are particular ethical, legal, and social issues about research in underrepresented communities (see Brothers and Rothstein¹⁷⁶ for a comprehensive review). According to these writers, the growth of genomics-enriched health data and the potential for tailored interventions to intensify health inequalities are important concerns that must be tackled. Furthermore, it is important that the problems of anonymity, possible harassment, and improvements in physician-patient relationships and liability be prioritized in these consultations and subsequent policy decisions. It is argued that the current scarcity of genotype-phenotype information, rising prices, and reduced access to health services, as well as information technologies, are all potential causes of health inequality.

As previously stated, researching a variety of populations is important for science understanding as well as increased diversity and inclusion in the field. To prevent essentializing ethnicity and bigotry and hindering interaction, researchers must carefully analyze how they identify and address individual communities. In the absence of pharmacogenomic

heterogeneity to endorse race-specific ads, the US Food and Drug Administration licensed BiDil to treat heart disease in blacks only,¹⁷⁷ in a recent example of the essentialization of race in cardiovascular medicine. ⁴² This decision was widely condemned, because the FDA's authoritative status may have given the biological reification of race the appearance of authority, despite the fact that the race-specific approval has no biological justification.¹⁷⁸ A second example is the failure to disclose that people with certain CYP2C19 alleles do not react similarly to Plavix (clopidogrel bisulfate), a platelet aggregation inhibitor, since their hepatic ability to transform it into its active metabolite is limited. ¹⁷⁹ In 2014 and 2016, the states of Hawaii and New Mexico brought civil suits against Bristol-Myers for improperly obtaining money from purchases within their territories. East Asians, Native Hawaiians, Pacific Islanders, Native Americans, and Hispanic/Latinos have a higher prevalence of the alleles in question [CYP2C19 * 2, rs4244285 (c.681G > A) and CYP2C19 * 3, rs4986893 (c.636G > A)] than European descent groups. Furthermore, there is growing concern that race-specific medication production, labeling, or promotion could intensify racial/ethnic health inequalities by raising drug prices and rising the need for evidence to justify effectiveness and need in under-represented communities. ⁴²

Some social scientists have also voiced reservations about etiologic science, which looks at the hereditary causes of disease and how they vary by race or ethnicity as markers for shared ancestral history. They are afraid that the population will be driven to conclude that ethnic groups are biologically distinct categories as a result of this study. If genetic variations play a role in disease risk differentials, the public can assume that this holds true for other human traits as well. ¹⁸¹ Phelan et al¹⁸¹ used a nationally representative poll to test this theory. Respondents were randomly assigned to one of four circumstances, each of which consisted of reading a different vignette accompanied by a test of beliefs in biologically important racial distinctions. (1) the Backdoor vignette, which describes a genetic mutation that is more closely correlated with heart disease in Blacks than in European Americans, (2) a vignette describing

race as completely socially formed, (3) a vignette describing ethnic groups as narrowly genetically distinct from one another, and (4) a no-vignette control group. Individuals assigned to the Backdoor vignette were more likely to support important racial distinctions than those assigned to the race as a social construction vignette or the nonvignette control category. Both groups assigned the Backdoor vignette and race as basic biological category vignettes, and there was no difference in support for essential racial distinctions.¹⁸³ According to these results, researchers should expect misinterpretations of findings and specifically clarify what conclusions can and can not be derived from them.

It is becoming increasingly apparent that most genetic research's fundamental knowledge base may not adequately reflect the same groups that have traditionally been underrepresented in genomic research—and that both the amount and accuracy of accessible data can be problems. ¹⁸² Potential study subjects' skepticism and mistrust of the research enterprise ^{183,184} has been proposed as one reason for the prevalence of genomics-related data access inequalities. This is an important concern because the advancement of personalized health care and learning healthcare programs necessitates the incorporation of health and genomics data from

underrepresented communities. The number 182 Implementation science principles are certainly well suited in this domain, with the goal of improving genomics knowledge base participation and equity in CMD and health care in general. 185.

In general, biomedical science has concentrated on the legal aspects of genetic research in terms of acceptable transparency and correct analysis of primary research outcomes and unintended findings. 186 In particular, there is growing uncertainty that using genetic testing to avoid CMD would not result in measurable improvements in either improved enthusiasm for dietary improvement or healthy eating and physical activity habits. The number 187 In the United States, racial/ethnic minorities still face cultural obstacles to healthier lifestyles and unhealthy built environments. 188 As compared to patients with more environmentally driven obesity, elevated PRS estimates for obesity, or a clinician's understanding of obesity, have been found to result in higher-quality patient-provider experiences. Increased use of genetic testing can overemphasize the relative value of biological versus social determinants of health,¹⁹⁰ diverting scarce resources away from those without insurance or failing to address the social or systemic determinants of health, which both affect some US groups differently. 188 According to a new study, a popular prediction algorithm used to classify patients in high demand underestimated the probability of black patients relative to European Americans. This was due to the fact that the algorithm used hospital costs as a metric for healthcare needs, and Blacks get fewer services on average. 192 If European Americans use CMD genetic testing more often, their overall healthcare expenses will rise, as will the underestimation of need for Black patients.

CMD genetic research, PRS prediction, and other precision medicine practices focused on genetic data may have various effects on racial/ethnic communities or other marginalized individuals that have historically faced prejudice or stigma.

First, as CMD genetic research is increasingly used to predict risk and classify individuals as high risk, to identify those who may benefit from behavior change or therapeutic interventions¹⁹², or to find those who may or may not respond to standard therapies¹⁹³, such labels may exacerbate the discrimination and stigma already experienced by individuals in underrepresentation. number is 188. Second, the portability of PRS forecasts based on ancestors and environmental exposures is a major concern.^{147,455} As a consequence, direct-to-consumer prediction algorithms for complex conditions are often marketed as being exclusive to a single race. 192 Furthermore, traditional methodologic approaches to approximate ethnicity, classify ancestral outliers, and/or stratify samples into relatively homogeneous ancestral classes, for ancestrally diverse individuals and populations, can disagree with their own self-identities¹⁹⁵ and tend to support the essentialization of racial categories.

When the spectrum and scope of genetic testing grows, new legal concerns can emerge. Currently, healthcare maintenance agencies are working to incorporate genetic screenings into their normal clinical treatment and medical record programs by using the American College of Human Genetics' inventory of 59 genes as actionable incidental discoveries (which includes

many cardiovascular disorders with high penetrance). 194 Routine genetic forecasts for diverse CMD characteristics and disorders are likely to be added in the near future, which may lead to new legal threats to the Genetic Information Nondiscrimination Act in the United States, or comparable laws in other countries¹⁹⁷, or be used to change health care rates or restrict access to families of genotyped patients.

There are a variety of specific ethical questions regarding how human genetic prediction using PRS is used outside of clinical studies. 199 Any organization that offers these forecasts directly to customers may provide lower-quality genetic testing and counselling than laboratories that provide clinical treatment. Genomic Prediction, for example, uses a Scientific Laboratory Improvement Amendments-certified laboratory to provide PRSs for embryos before implantation for a range of CMD diseases and traits (e.g., T2D, CAD, myocardial infarction, hypercholesterolemia, and hypertension). 198 The common use of PRS for multifactorial traits and diseases like CMD remains an ethical issue for the field,²⁰⁰ as it risks reinforcing social intolerance of diversity. 191

Conclusion

Understanding how genetic, behavioral, and sociocultural influences work to affect CMD risk differences is critical for individual and public health. Larger, more diverse genetic studies of CMD are urgently needed so that I can close the study gap between the global burden of CMD and the samples and results available in existing genetic tools and databases. CMD genomic testing has a lot of promise in terms of preventing disease and providing personalized medicine. This opportunity, however, can only be realized if CMD research results, like PRS estimation, are obtained from surveys that accurately represent the target population's ancestral diversity.

Inadequate participation is a major disadvantage of modern CMD genetic studies, and it leads to the difficulties of recruiting people from underrepresented communities. Many academics have outlined some key measures for minority groups in the United States and Canada, many of whom face CMD inequalities, to advance their participation in genetic testing. To prevent future injustices around the commercialization of evidence and medical advances, these initiatives include identifying obstacles to access and implementing community-based participatory testing methods and benefits-sharing models. Furthermore, further resources are needed to tackle obstacles to higher education and to promote the employment of people from underrepresented communities in the field of genetics.

The precise detection of genomic regions related to CMD and other health results has opened up new pathways for human and population health improvement. Simultaneously, it has posed additional problems that will have an effect on the utility of this data and its equal inclusion into the wider healthcare system. I consider the following main issues in this review: (1) a lack of diversity in the genotype-phenotype database for CMD; (2) a lack of diversity in genomic comparison panels, which could limit our ability to classify causal variants for CMD; (3) a lack of well defined designations for race/ethnicity and heritage, which complicate studies of disease genetic contributions; (4) disproportionate generation of health-associate Despite these

obstacles, the inclusive production and usage of genomics data in different communities would have unparalleled prospects for reducing the burden of CMD and enhancing health.

Large-scale exchange and harmonization of GWAS data is already happening, as I reported in this analysis with respect to CMD. These large-scale projects, though, are only getting started, and it is up to us as researchers and consumers to focus on data sharing. The topic of data harmonization around self-identified race/ethnicity is related to this and also relevant for GWAS studies. Despite the fact that race and ethnicity are socially and culturally determined constructs, continued use of self-identified categories in genetic studies can catch unexplained phenotypic heterogeneity. To solve this issue, novel machine learning methods have been developed, such as the HARE system developed for the MVP 211,212. The number is 212. HARE uses both self-identified identifiers and scientifically aware ancestry to include ancestry clustering. In a nutshell, HARE uses a combination of self-identified race/ethnicity and controlled genetic clustering (determined using help vector machines) to boost clustering above that obtained solely by self-identified or genetic ancestors. The number is 212. This helps researchers to establish predictors for stable levels of ancestry, allowing for practical mark harmonization even inside biobanks with minimal or conflicting self-identification.

For CMD and other complex diseases, we must make (1) increased data generation and (2) increased data integration of different communities a public health priority. This goal would entail collaborative actions from social, scholarly, technical, and regulatory partners, as well as the communities most impacted by CMD, and must be focused on equality and social justice values. Nanomedicine applying gene therapy strategies 165-176 have elegantly endeavoured for treatment of various gene polymorphisms and mutations of complex disorders 177-191.

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