Exploring the genetic diversity of the Japanese Population: Insights from a Large-Scale Whole Genome Sequencing Analysis

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Short title: Genomic variation characterization of ancestry in Japan

61 Abstract

The Japanese archipelago is a terminal location for human migration, and the contemporary

Japanese people represent a unique population whose genomic diversity has been shaped by

multiple migrations from Eurasia. Through high-coverage whole-genome sequencing

(WGS) analysis of 9,850 samples from the National Center Biobank Network, we analyzed

the genomic characteristics that define the genetic makeup of the modern Japanese

population from a population genetics perspective. The dataset comprised populations from

the Ryukyu Islands and other parts of the Japanese archipelago (Hondo). Low frequency

detrimental or pathogenic variants were found in these populations. The Hondo population

underwent two episodes of population decline during the Jomon period, corresponding to

the Late Neolithic, and the Edo period, corresponding to the Early Modern era, while the

Ryukyu population experienced a population decline during the shell midden period of the

Late Neolithic in this region. Genes related to alcohol and lipid metabolism were affected

by positive natural selection. Two genes related to alcohol metabolism were found to be

12,500 years out of phase with the time when they began to be affected by positive natural

selection; this finding indicates that the genomic diversity of Japanese people has been

shaped by events closely related to agriculture and food production.

Author summary

The human population in the Japanese archipelago exhibits significant genetic diversity, with the Ryukyu Islands and other parts of the archipelago (Hondo) having undergone distinct evolutionary paths that have contributed to the genetic divergence of the populations in each region. In this study, whole genome sequencing of healthy individuals from national research hospital biobanks was utilized to investigate the genetic diversity of the Japanese population. Haplotypes were inferred from the genomic data, and a thorough population genetic analysis was conducted. The results indicated not only genetic differentiation between Hondo and the Ryukyu Islands, but also marked differences in past population size. In addition, gene genealogies were inferred from the haplotypes, and the patterns were scrutinized for evidence of natural selection. This analysis revealed unique traces of natural selection in East Asian populations, many of which were believed to be linked to dietary changes brought about by agriculture and food production.

Introduction

The Japanese archipelago is located in the eastern part of the Eurasian continent and is one of the final destinations of the human migration out of Africa. While the identity of the first human groups to reach the Japanese archipelago is uncertain, the Jomon people, who were hunter-gatherers known for their pottery, lived in the region after 16,000 years ago. The genetic diversity of the peoples of the Japanese archipelago underwent a dramatic transformation following the Yayoi Period, which began around 3,000 years ago with the migration of agriculturalists from Eurasia. Genome analysis of ancient and modern humans has shown that they admixed with the originally inhabited Jomon people, resulting in the genetic diversity of the modern Japanese population from the Yayoi people. This process is thought to have started on Kyushu Island and then gradually spread throughout the archipelago. Although the Ryukyu Islands are separated from Kyushu Island by a significant distance, the agricultural culture known as the Gusuku period began 800 years ago, and it is believed that this agriculture was introduced by migrants from the mainland. These long histories of migration and admixture have shaped the genetic diversity of the peoples of the Japanese archipelago. Previous genome analyses have attempted to reveal this genetic diversity, but most have only sampled specific regions and therefore have been insufficient to fully examine the genetic diversity of the Japanese archipelago as a whole. In this study, we used whole-genome sequencing data from subjects from a wide range of regions in the Japanese archipelago to more fully understand the genetic diversity of the peoples of the archipelago.

There are six national research hospitals in Japan that specialize in advanced medical care

and research, and each of them maintains its own biobank that collects and stores biological

samples from patients. National Center Biobank Network (NCBN) is a federation of these

centers that collaborate to provide samples, genomic and clinical information, and public

relations. In this study, we performed WGS of 9,850 individual DNA specimens stored in

the biobanks of NCBN. These biobanks are located in three distinct regions of Japan:

NCGM, NCCHD, and NCNP in the Tokyo area; NCGG in Aichi Prefecture in the central

area in the Honshu Island; and NCVC in Osaka Prefecture in the western area in Honshu

Island. Therefore, the genomic information obtained in the present study is expected to

reflect the regional diversity of Japan to some extent. Here, we characterized the data

obtained from this analysis and described the genetic diversity in the Japanese population.

Results

Whole genome sequencing analysis

DNA samples from 9,850 individuals from five National Center Biobanks were analyzed

using WGS, and the data in FASTQ format were received from the outsourced laboratory.

The received data were processed through the primary data analysis pipeline to obtain

mapping results and variant call results. Quality control (QC) metrices were calculated to

confirm that stable quality analysis was obtained (Fig 1). The autosomes had an average

read depth of 34.0 ± 2.4, and the average insert length of the reads was 703 +/- 30 bp. The

mapping rate per sample was $99.99\% \pm 0.39\%$. These statistics did not vary significantly

between samples, and there was no clear bias between biobanks except for saliva samples.

The saliva samples showed lower mapping rates than the blood samples, probably due to

the foreign DNA in the saliva.

Summary and accuracy of SNP and short insertion and deletions

Variants were characterized by joint calling to integrate individual variant information. In

this analysis, we performed joint calling of the gVCFs of 9,287 samples from NCBN,

analyzed at the time of writing, together with 2,504 samples from the International 1000

Genomes project (S1 Table). The VCF obtained after the joint call contained a total of

208,785,859 records, of which 88.5% (184,864,563) passed the filtering using Variant

Quality Score Recalibration (VQSR). We found 122,459,307 variants after focusing only

on the variants in the NCBN samples, and 86.3% (105,729,588) of them passed the filter of

VQSR. Of the variants that passed the filter, 87,246,166 were single nucleotide variants

(SNVs) and 18,483,422 were short insertion and deletions (INDELs); 47% (41,046,547) of

the SNVs and 39.8% (7,361,318) of the INDELs that passed the filter were novel variants

not registered in dbSNP151. Most of the novel variants were very rare. For example,

34.56% of the known SNVs were singletons found as the heterozygous genotypes of one

sample out of 9,287 individuals, and 86.73% were observed at a very low frequency of less

than 0.5%. Conversely, 67.46% of the novel variants not registered in dbSNP were

singletons, and the percentage of SNVs with a frequency less than 0.5% was more than

99.99%. This is consistent with previous reports that most novel variants are found

privately [3–6].

We evaluated the accuracy of the variants using two approaches. First, we performed the

genotyping using SNP array to estimate the degree of genotype concordance with WGS

results. For this purpose, genome-wide genotyping using the SNP array on the DNA

samples of 448 individuals who had undergone WGS analysis was conducted. The 639,508

autosomal SNPs remaining after variant QC in the SNP array were compared with the

results obtained after WGS analysis. The number of mismatches ranged from 66 to 7,205

per sample, with an average of 408.7. As a result, the average discordance rate between the

two sets of variants was 0.063%. This estimate appears to be a conservative estimate of the

error, as it is primarily concentrated in a region that is easy to analyze and for which probes

are designed on SNP arrays. Then, we compared the genotypes of the trio samples to

estimate the frequency with which the offspring of a trio had heterozygous or non-reference

homozygous variants whose parents' genotypes did not follow the pattern expected from

Mendelian low. The sample analyzed in this study contained 148 trios of parents and

offspring. We observed the inheritance pattern of genotypes from an average of 4,284,264

variants per trio. Of these, 6,448.4 (0.15%) had an abnormal inheritance. This percentage

became more pronounced when stratified by the novelty of the variants, e.g., the known

SNVs and INDELs had error rates of 0.09% and 0.42%, respectively, with errors in the

inheritance pattern, whereas the novel SNVs and INDELs had error rates of 2.26% and

10.9%, respectively. The Mendelian heritability errors can include the sequencing or

genotyping error, *de novo* mutations, and gene conversions in the parents' gametes.

However, our estimates approximate the error rate of genotyping in this study.

Ancestry inference and allele frequency distribution

We conducted the principal component analysis (PCA) to identify the ancestry of NCBN

samples. After removing 20 samples with a call rate below 95%, Identical-by-Descent

(IBD) was used to detect related samples, resulting in 8,972 and 2,493 unrelated samples

from NCBN and the International 1000 Genomes project, respectively. PCA using these

samples detected 21 NCBN samples not belonging to the East Asian populations (Fig 2A).

Furthermore, when PCA was performed only on East Asians, the samples were divided into

two clusters: one consisting of continental populations (Han Chinese in Beijing; CHB, Han

Chinese South; CHS, Kinh Vietnamese; KHV, Chinese Dai in Xishuangbanna, China;

CDX) and the other including Japanese in Tokyo (JPT) from 1000 Genomes and NCBN

samples (Fig 2B). In addition, the latter cluster was divided into large and small clusters

consistent with the previous studies [7–9] in which the larger one was called the Hondo

population and the smaller one was called the Ryukyu population [7]. In this study, we

followed this convention (S1 Fig). The Hondo cluster consisted of 8,524 people, whereas

the Ryukyu cluster consisted of 182 people. We compared the allele frequencies of the

Japanese population (GEM Japan Whole-genome Aggregation) estimated based on the

WGS analysis in previous studies with those of the Hondo sample and found significant

frequency agreement (Fig 3A). While the allele frequencies between the Hondo and

Ryukyu populations also showed high agreement, the breadth of the distribution was wider

than the comparison between Hondo and GEM Japan (Fig 3B). This could be due to the

difference in the mainland and Ryukyu populations and the subsequent genetic drift.

Functional landscape of variants

The variants identified by WGS analysis were annotated for their biological functions. The

impact of the variants was classified based on the criteria of the annotation software and the

database as described in the Methods section. Deleterious mutations are more likely to be

kept at low frequencies in the population, as such mutations are less likely to spread in the

population because of negative selection. In fact, variants with a high impact on annotation

showed a clear tendency to have a low frequency in the population. The LOFTEE plugin of

Variant Effect Predictor was used to detect loss-of-function (LoF) variants in the Hondo

and Ryukyu populations. For comparison, we also detected LoF variants in 26 populations

in the 1000 Genomes Project phase 3 dataset [10]. 14,145 SNVs and 16,823 INDELs were

detected as high confident LoF specific to the Hondo population. For the Ryukyu

population, 211 SNVs and 288 INDELs were detected. The vast majority of LoF SNVs

exhibited a very low frequency in the Hondo population (Fig 4A). In fact, 76.0% of these

SNVs exhibited allele frequencies below 0.01%. We compared the number of LoF alleles

and the number of homozygous of LoF alleles per individual for Hondo, Ryukyu, and

populations in the 1000 Genomes Project (Fig 4 B and C, S2 Fig). Since homozygous LoFs

result in a complete loss of gene function, the number of homozygous LoFs in an

individual's genome can be used to measure the individual's genetic burden. Both indices

were highest in Africa, lowest in West Eurasia, and moderate in Hondo and Ryukyu. The

number of homozygous LoF alleles per individual by allele frequency was generally higher

in Africa across all allele frequencies (Fig 4D), which is consistent with the trend observed

in a previous study [11].

We compared the variants of NCBN samples with ClinVar registered variants [12]. A total

of 103,833 variants found in the Hondo population are registered in ClinVar. Of these,

2,427 were classified as "pathogenic" or "likely pathogenic" variants. Seven variants were

found in the four-star category, the most reliable classification based on the ClinVar review

status. Only one of them was "pathogenic" and a singleton variant (i.e., heterozygous in a

person) of the CTFR gene. The remaining six were polymorphic variants related to drug

responsiveness of CYP2C19. There were 1,130 variants in the 3-star category reviewed by

the expert panel. Of these, 56 were "pathogenic," and 13 were "likely pathogenic." The

frequencies of these variants were the highest, at 1.0%, and most of them were extremely

rare; only a few were observed in the population. Most of the less well-reviewed variants

with <3 stars had frequencies of less than 1%, but 34 variants had a frequency of 1% or

more.

Allele frequency estimation of HLA loci

Three-field HLA calling results from the WGS dataset in the present study were compared

with HLA allele frequencies HLA Foundation Laboratory (Kyoto, Japan) (S3 Fig). All

common HLA alleles (frequencies >1%) were concordant between the two datasets with

observed differences of less than 1%. To further validate our HLA calling results, a subset

of 94 samples was subjected to high-resolution HLA genotyping. Three-field HLA class I

(HLA-A, -C, and -B) accuracies were 96.3%, 97.9%, and 96.8%, respectively, and 3-field

HLA class II (HLA-DRB1, -DQA1, -DPA1, and -DPB1) accuracies were 98.9%, 100.0%,

98.9%, 100.0%, and 96.8%, respectively. The accuracy of 2-field HLA class I (HLA-A, -C,

and -B) increased to 97.9%, 98.4%, and 97.3%, respectively.

Evolutionary perspective of genomic diversity

The recent decrease in population size was detected in Hondo and Ryukyu populations.

Figure 5A shows the population histories of Hondo and Ryukyu populations inferred using

IBDNe [13], which estimated the changes in population size in recent (~200 generations

ago) past based on IBD sharing among individuals. In Hondo, the population size decreased

from about 75 to 50 generations ago, and from 17 to 11 generations ago. In the Ryukyu

population, a reduction in population size was observed from about 100 to 25 generations

ago. The distributions of IBD length were multimodal in both populations, indicating

fluctuations in population size (Fig 5B and 5C). We also estimated the long-term changes

in the effective population size from the genome-wide genealogy using Relate software

[14]. We estimated genome-wide genealogy based on the whole-genome data of 1,000

randomly selected samples from Hondo, 182 samples from the Ryukyu, and the CHB

population from the 1000 Genomes Project. The Ryukyu population showed a bottleneck

that peaked around 2,700 years ago (S4 Fig). Hondo/CHB population and Ryukyu

population diverged around 3,700 years ago, consistent with previous estimations of the

divergence time using SNP arrays [15,16].

We detected positive natural selection based on genome-wide genealogy of 1,000 Hondo

samples and found SNPs with p-values below the genome-wide significance level ($p < 5.0$

$\times 10^{-8}$) (S5 Fig, S2 Table). As the QQ plot suggested inflation of the test statistics (S6 Fig),

it is possible that the results contain false positives. However, the genes reported in

previous studies, which may have undergone positive natural selection, were correctly

included in the results. It is therefore important to consider this when interpreting the

results. For example, ALDH2 rs671 G/A (p-value = 2.0×10^{-17}) and ADH1B rs1229984

T/C (p-value = 6.8×10^{-10}), which are associated with alcohol metabolism, showed positive

natural selection signals [17,18]. The genealogies of the genes showed that the derived

alleles were spreading rapidly through the population (S7 Fig). The second example is

signals of positive natural selection on the non-synonymous rs76930569 C/T (p-value = 1.1

$\times 10^{-12}$) variant in the OCA2 gene. This variant is in complete linkage equilibrium with

rs1800414 T/C, involved in melanin biosynthesis, and has been shown to be associated

with light skin color and tanning ability in Asian populations [19–21]. The third example of

the positive selection is the FADS gene family. Multiple SNPs (rs174599, rs174600,

rs174601, rs97384, rs57535397, rs76996928) showed the signatures of positive selection.

FADS1 and FADS2 encode catalytic proteins, which synthesize long-chain fatty acids from

short-chain fatty acids [22], and have been subjected to natural selection related to diet in

several human populations [22–26]. We further analyzed change in allele frequency with

time for these genes under positive natural selection. We used CLUES software [27] to

estimate the allele frequency trajectory of SNPs in ALDH2, ADH1B, OCA2, and the

FADS gene family. The frequency of the derived alleles in ADH1B rs1229984 increased

about 20,000 years ago (Fig 6A). In contrast, the frequency of ALDH2 rs671 increased

from about 7,500 years ago (Fig 6B). The allele frequency trajectory of OCA2 rs1800414

(Fig 6C) showed that the frequency of derived allele of OCA2 rs1800414 began to increase

due to natural selection around 25,000 years ago. The frequency of derived allele of

rs174599 began increasing around 25,000 years ago, slowed down 15,000 years ago, and

started increasing again 10,000 years ago (Fig 6D).

Discussion

In the present study, we conducted a WGS analysis of samples from five biobanks in Japan.

Although the data obtained in this study are intended to be provided as control data for

genomic studies of various diseases, the analysis in this study focused on data quality and

population genetics properties. A uniform quality of data was obtained through the use of a

single procedure that encompassed both sequencing and data analysis. Population-based

studies using WGS analysis have been conducted in various populations [5,28,29]. Studies

on Japanese populations have already been reported [28], and the allele frequency

distributions in previous studies are consistent with the results of the present study (Fig

3A). The samples analyzed in the present study were provided by biobanks in three regions

of Japan: NCGM, NCCHD, and NCNP in the Tokyo area; NCGG in Aichi Prefecture in the

central area in the Honshu Island; and NCVC in Osaka Prefecture in the western area in

Honshu Island. Therefore, the genomic information obtained in the present study is

expected to reflect the regional diversity of Japan to some extent. For instance, the

population genetic analysis identified two clusters representing the ancestry of Ryukyu

Islands, comprising Okinawa Prefecture and the islands of Kagoshima Prefecture and the

Hondo region (mainland). This supports the idea that the Hondo and Ryukyu populations

are genetically differentiated, as suggested by anthropological studies [7–9]. We further

found that past population sizes differed between Hondo and Ryukyu. There was a

reduction in the Hondo population from 17 to 11 generations ago (Fig 5A). The

corresponding period was 476 and 308 years ago, and the assumption is that each

generation spanned 28 years; most of this duration overlaps with the Edo period in Japan.

This is consistent with findings from historical demography studies, which suggest that the

population not only increased but also remained stagnant due to limited economic growth,

population concentration in cities, and famine caused by cold weather-related damage

during this period. In contrast, the Ryukyu populations showed population reduction from

100 generations ago to 25 generations ago but then increased until the present (Fig 5A).

This population growth about 700 years ago was close to the beginning of farming in the

Ryukyu Islands (12th century). Assuming that agriculture was brought to the Ryukyu

Islands by migrants from the mainland of Japan, the population decline observed in the

Ryukyu population can be considered a bottleneck associated with the migration. The

population size estimated from the modern genome reflects the past population of the

migrants and should be influenced negligibly by the genetic diversity of the original

inhabitants of the Ryukyu Islands. Indeed, although the several human skeletal remains

have been discovered from Pleistocene sites in Ryukyu Islands [30,31], the previous

population genetic analysis based on genome-wide SNPs suggested minor genetic

contribution of the Pleistocene Ryukyu Island population to the modern Ryukyu population

[15,16]. The estimated time of divergence between Hondo/CHB and Ryukyu was 3,700

years ago (S4 Fig), suggesting that migration to the Ryukyu Islands occurred recently.

Studies of rare genetic diseases require data on the frequency of variants in the population.

Most of the variants we found in this study were rare, and many of them were newly

discovered in this study, as expected from population genetics theory. However, the lower

the frequency of the variants, the more difficult it becomes to distinguish them from errors.

In this study, we evaluated the accuracy of genotype detection, estimating a discordance

rate of 0.063% compared to genotype detection using WGS and SNP arrays. However, this

is an overestimation of the error rate due to the combined error of both technologies. We

also used the data obtained from the WGS analysis of the trio for validation. We estimated

the Mendelian error rate, which is the proportion of genotypes detected in the offspring of a

trio that is inconsistent with Mendel's laws of heredity. This method has the advantage of

being able to examine the entire genome compared to the use of SNP arrays. We found that

the Mendelian error rate is much higher for novel variants, i.e., previously reported

variants. The Mendelian error rate for novel SNVs was 2.26%, much higher than that of the

known SNVs (0.09%). This has important implications for the identification of causative

mutations in rare genetic diseases, as many causative mutations for these conditions are

newly discovered rare variants. This means that the discovery of such pathological variants

in patient sequencing is subject to a non-negligible degree of error.

We conducted the functional annotation of the variants discovered in this study. Consistent

with previous studies [5,28,29], variants that were expected to have a high biological

impact were less common in the population, confirming that negative natural selection

shapes the diversity of variants. Most of the LoF mutations were extremely rare, and most

of them were heterozygous (Fig 4A). The number of LoF mutations in the genome was

comparable to that in other Eurasian populations (Fig 4B). Although the Ryukyu population

has experienced population decline (Fig 5A), the frequency of LoF variants was

comparable to that in the Hondo population, and no evidence of differences in the profile of

rare functional variants due to the bottleneck effect was noted. The number of LoF sites and

homozygous LoF per individual in this study were higher than those detected in a previous

study [32]. Among these, the number of stop gained SNVs was consistent with that

recorded in the previous study [32], whereas the number of splice site SNVs and frameshift

INDELs was higher than that in the previous study [32] (S2 Fig). The number of LoF sites

was generally consistent with the number of LoF sites before manual curation in a previous

study [33]; thus, it may be possible to remove false-positive homozygous LoFs through

manual filtering, as in the previous study [33].

We also examined pathogenic variants that have been reported in the past. Pathogenic

variants assessed by an expert panel (4-star status) on ClinVar were found only in one to a

few individuals in the population. On the other hand, some variants that were less reviewed

were polymorphic with high frequency. These results reinforce the importance of utilizing

the frequency of the variants in the population to evaluate their pathogenicity.

Genes that have undergone positive natural selection in the East Asian populations are

related to the metabolism. This study supported that the dietary changes in the ancestors

seem to have shaped gene frequencies. Candidate regions undergoing positive natural

selection were found on a genome-wide scale using genealogy analysis (S5 Fig). ADH1B is

involved in metabolizing alcohol to acetaldehyde, and ALDH2 is involved in metabolizing

acetaldehyde. Both the non-synonymous A allele of ALDH2 rs671 and the C allele of

ADH1B rs1229984 affect the retention of acetaldehyde in the body and cause alcohol flush

in Asians [17,18]. These alleles have been suggested to be associated with Japanese dietary

habits and diseases, such as esophageal cancer [34,35]. Previous studies have hypothesized

that positive selection may have acted to maintain acetaldehyde in the blood against

parasite infection, which correlates with large-scale rice cultivation [36–39]. We also

observed that the increase in the frequency of ADH1B occurred earlier than that of

ALDH2, indicating that positive selection began to act at different times for these two

genes (Fig 6A and 6B). Based on the geographic distribution of haplotype structures around

ADH1B and ALDH2, according to Koganebuchi et al., positive selection on ADH1B

rs1229984 started before the beginning of the Jomon period, while positive natural

selection on ALDH2 began around 8,000 years ago, in association with the beginning of

rice cultivation in China [39]. Our dating by genome-wide genealogy of the Japanese

population genome is consistent with the above consideration. Using HapMap data, OCA2

rs1800414 has been shown in previous studies to be the effect of positive natural selection

on East Asians [19]. For the OCA2 gene, positive natural selection signals were found in

the European population for skin color-related SNPs other than those detected in this study

[19]. As natural selection works for light skin color, a previous study mentioned that it

enhances vitamin D synthesis capacity in regions with low sunlight [20]. For East Asians as

well, positive natural selection may have operated in relation to vitamin D synthesis in

regions with low sunlight. However, since the derived allele of rs1800414 is not necessarily

more frequent at the high latitudes of East Asia, other possibilities, such as sexual selection,

cannot be ruled out at this time [19]. The derived allele of rs1800414 has been shown to be

associated with light skin color and tanning ability in Chinese and Japanese populations

[20,21] and is widely observed in modern East Asians [19], suggesting that the derived

allele of rs1800414 originated in the common ancestor of East Asians and spread

throughout East Asia at very early stages of the East Asian population history. We

estimated that the derived allele of OCA2 rs1800414 began to increase in frequency around

25,000 years ago (Fig 6C). Future analyses of older East Asian lineages, such as the ancient

genome of the Jomon people, may reveal the original variant of this allele that led to

positive natural selection. FADS1 and FADS2 participate in fatty acid metabolism. For

example, in the Inuit population, which relies heavily on a marine animal diet, there are

positive natural selection signals on SNPs of FADS2 genes, which are responsible for the

increase in the concentrations of short-chain fatty acids [40]. Signals of positive natural

selection on alleles that promote long-chain fatty acid synthesis have also been identified in

African [22], European [25,26,41], and South Asian populations [24]. In particular, studies

in European populations have shown that the derived alleles of rs174594 and rs1714546 are

associated with increased total cholesterol and LDL cholesterol levels, increased expression

of FADS2, and decreased expression of FADS1 [25]. In European populations, increased

reliance on plant diets seemed to have resulted in positive natural selection on alleles that

promote long-chain fatty acid synthesis pathways of the FADS gene family [23,25,26]. The

SNPs in the FADS gene family detected in this study were associated with total cholesterol

and LDL cholesterol levels, increased expression of FADS2, and decreased expression of

FADS1 (S3 Table), like the SNPs subjected to natural selection in the European population

(S3 Table). These results suggest that in Hondo populations, as in Europeans, the dietary

change was accompanied by positive natural selection for alleles that promote the long-

chain fatty acid synthesis. The frequency of the derived allele of rs174599 in FADS2 began

to increase around 25,000 years ago, but the increase was not continuous, and there was a

period of stagnation from 15,000 years ago for 5,000 years (Fig 6D). Interestingly, the

frequency of this allele varies widely among East Asian populations. The derived allele was

major in CHB (64%) and Japanese (63%), whereas it was minor in Dai (Chinese Dai in

Xishuangbanna, China) (22%), Han Chinese in South (42%), and Kinh Vietnamese (20%);

these data suggest that the positive natural selection of the FADS gene family in East

Asians may reflect the association with agriculture and the complex dietary differences

among regional populations. Notably, Mathieson and Mathieson (2018) disproved the

simple idea that these derived alleles underwent positive natural selection in relation to the

introduction of agriculture and speculated that there were complex underlying factors, such

as unknown dietary changes [26].

In this study, we demonstrated that the data presented here can be used as a foundation for

analysis of human genetics. While this study focused on population genetic characterization

of the Japanese population, the data can be used in disease studies, as a resource for

genotype imputation in studies of common diseases, and as a control in studies on rare

diseases.

Materials and Methods

Sample preparation

DNA samples stored in the biobanks of five national centers (National Cerebral and

Cardiovascular Center; NCVC, National Center for Geriatrics and Gerontology; NCGG,

National Center for Global Health and Medicine; NCGM, National Center of Neurology

and Psychiatry; NCNP and National Center for Child Health and Development; NCCHD)

were submitted for WGS analysis. Samples derived from healthy individuals or patients

with some common diseases were selected as control groups for future disease studies. This

study was conducted with approval from the ethics review committee of the NCGM.

Informed consent for the analysis of these samples was received from all subjects in each

biobank. Approximately 50 μl of DNA at a concentration of 80 ng/μl per sample was

aliquoted into 96-well plates and shipped to an outsourced laboratory (TakaraBio, Shiga,

Japan) for WGS analysis.

WGS

To avoid quality fluctuations and batch effects, all samples were analyzed by a single

outsourced laboratory. WGS analysis was performed using NovaSeq6000 (Illumina, San

Diego, CA, US), and sample preparation was performed using the procedures and reagents

recommended by the manufacturer. DNA molecules were sonicated with a protocol

targeting an average size of 550 bp. DNA libraries were prepared using the TruSeq DNA

PCR-Free HT Library Prep Kit, and index sequences were added for multiplex analysis.

The insert size was confirmed by electrophoresis in the range of 400–750 bp before

sequencing runs. WGS was performed at 150 bp paired-end and repeated in multiplex until

an output of >90 Gbases without duplicated reads was obtained.

Data analysis

We received the quality controlled FASTQ data from the outsourced laboratory and

performed mapping and variant calling in an in-house data analysis pipeline. The mapping

and variant calls were performed using the Parabricks v3.1.0 (Nvidia, Santa Clara, CA,

US), which provides the capability to perform the analysis recommended by GATK at high

speed using a GPU [42]. The GRCh38 was used as the reference sequence. The pipeline

used in this study implements algorithms equivalent to those of bwa (v0.7.15) [43] and

GATK (v4.1.0). We flagged duplicates from mapped reads but did not perform realignment

and base quality score recalibration to reduce the computational time. The mapped data

were outputted in BAM format and converted into CRAM format using samtools [44] to

reduce the file size. Variant calls were output in gVCF format for joint calling. QC metrics

were obtained to evaluate the quality of the analyzed data. The depth and map rate were

calculated using GATK's CollectWgsMetrics tool. These QC metrics were continuously

monitored throughout the analysis. The sex chromosomes were analyzed assuming both

male and female genders. Variant calls were performed for chromosome X in the diploid (-

ploidy 2) model for females and the monoploid (-ploidy 1) model for males. Variant calls

of the pseudoautosomal region were performed in the diploid model. Variants of

chromosome Y were called in the monoploid mode regardless of the sample's gender.

Finally, the appropriate gVCF file for each sex was used during joint calling. Data from the

high-coverage WGS analysis of 2,504 individuals of the International 1000 Genomes

Project phase 3 [10] were used as population references for this study. The CRAM files

reanalyzed using high depth WGS were downloaded from a public database, and variant

calls were performed with the protocol described in this study.

Integrated analyses

To properly estimate the frequencies of variants found after WGS in the population, we

integrated the gVCF files. The joint calling was conducted by combining samples from the

biobank of NCBN and samples from the International 1000 Genomes Project phase 3. For

the joint calling, we used the gVCFtyper program of the Sentieon package [45]. This

program produces results equivalent to those of GeomicsDBImport followed by

GenotypeGVCFs programs for the joint calling of GATK. To perform efficient

computation in a cluster computation environment, we divided the autosomes into 29

regions evenly. Each variant was scored using VQSR to filter the integrated VCF. The

VarCal and ApplyVarCal programs of the Sentieon package corresponding to GATK's

VariantRecalibrator and ApplyVQSR, respectively, were used for this process. The

HapMap and International 1000 Genomes Omni2.5 sites, the high-confidence SNPs of the

International 1000 Genomes Project, and the dbSNP151 sites were used as true, training,

and known datasets, respectively. Variants identified as PASS, which correspond to

filtering with 99.9% sensitivity, were used in subsequent analyses unless otherwise noted.

The INDELs in the present variant set were normalized by performing left align, and

multiallelic variants were split into multiple variant records using the norm subcommand in

bcftools [44].

Variant annotation

502 Variants were annotated with the Variant Effect Predictor v102 [46]. We ran the loftee

503 plugin to evaluate the effects of the LoF variants. For the other evaluation of the functional

504 effects, dbNSFP4.1 [47] was used to assign precomputed evaluation values to the variants.

505 The metrics used for the assignment included LRT, SIFT, MutationTaster, and Polyphen2.

Genotyping by SNP array

Using JaponicaArray [48], genome-wide genotyping was performed on a subset of samples

for comparison with WGS results. Ninety-four samples each from five biobanks were

analyzed using the residual DNA after WGS analysis. The analysis was performed by an

outsourced laboratory (Toshiba, Tokyo, Japan), and the raw data in CEL format was

received. Four samples were dropped from the genotyping due to a low call rate (<97%) in

the first step of genotyping. Clustering for SNP genotyping of variants was performed on

the data of 466 individuals using the Analysis Power Tools (ver. 2.10.2.2, Thermo Fisher

Scientific, MA, USA). The clustering results for each probes' intensity were classified

using the SNPolisher program bundled with the Analysis Power Tools, and the 639,508

SNPs classified as "Recommended" in autosomes were used for subsequent analyses. The

genotype concordance with WGS was estimated using the hap.py software. To compare the

positions for which probes were designed in the SNP array, SNVs with the same position as

the SNP array were extracted from the results of WGS analysis. The SNP array results were

used as true data and the WGS results as query data. The genotype discordance rate

between the SNP array and WGS was calculated by dividing the number of false positives

by 639,508, which is the total number of SNPs compared.

Allele frequency estimation

To calculate the accurate allele frequencies, the ancestry of the samples was estimated

using PCA. Variants were filtered under more stringent criteria for this purpose.

Individual's genotypes were considered no calls if they had a genotype quality (GQ) of less

than 20, a depth outside the range of 11 to 64, or if less than 25% of the reads supported the

minor allele for heterozygous calls. Then, sites with SNPs that had a VQSR filter of PASS,

a minor allele frequency of >1%, and a call rate of >95% were retained. The KING

program [49] selected samples of unrelated individuals in the third-degree kinship or more.

For this dataset, independent SNPs were extracted using PLINK1.9 [50] with "-indep-

pairwise 500 50 0.1", and PCA was performed to calculate the principal component values

for each sample using PLINK1.9 [50]. Clusters were identified visually on the scatter plot

of the first and second principal components.

Allele and genotype frequencies were estimated for each ancestry group and biobank. The

fill-tags plugin of bcftools was used for these calculations. To compare the allele

frequencies in the Japanese population, we downloaded the GEM Japan frequency panel

information from TogoVar. Since the GEM Japan panel only provides information in hg19

coordinates, we converted it to GRCh38 coordinates. We used GATK's LiftoverVcf

program for the conversion.

HLA analysis

Three-field HLA alleles calling was performed using HLA-HD v1.3.0 [51] based on IPD-

IMGT/HLA v3.43.0 [52]; a score based on the weighted read counts considering variations

in and outside of the domain for antigen presentation was calculated to select the most

suitable pair of alleles amongst the candidate HLA alleles. To validate the accuracies of

HLA calling from WGS, HLA allele frequency distribution was compared with the HLA

frequency dataset from HLA Foundation Laboratory (Kyoto, Japan). To evaluate the

accuracy of HLA calling from the WGS dataset, a subset of the samples (n = 94) was

subjected to high-resolution experimental HLA genotyping for eight HLA genes (HLA-A, -

C, -B, -DRB1, -DQA1, -DQB1, -DPA1, and -DPB1) using next-generation sequencing and

AllType assay (One Lambda, West Hills, CA, US). Experimental HLA genotyping was

carried out following the vendor instructions, which consist of HLA gene amplification,

HLA library preparation, HLA template preparation, and HLA library loading onto an ion

530v1 chip (Thermo Fisher Scientific) in the Ion Chef (Thermo Fisher Scientific), followed

by final sequencing on the Ion S5 machine (Thermo Fisher Scientific). HLA genotype

assignments were carried out using HLATypeStream Visual (TSV v2.0; One Lambda,

West Hills, CA, US) and NGSengine® (v2.18.0.17625, GenDX, Utrecht, the Netherlands).

Haplotype phasing

Variant phasing was performed using shapeit v4.2 [53] in a haplotype-based analysis. SNPs of unrelated samples identified using the ancestry inference were extracted for phasing. The variant phasing was performed by dividing the autosomes into regions containing overlaps for efficient computation. Each region was about 10 Mb in length, with a 500 kb overlap margin at both ends. After phasing, VCFs were concatenated using the concat subcommand in bcftools.

Estimation of recent population size change

We estimated the effective population size change of the Japanese population from IBD sharing, which can estimate the population size change in the recent past (~200 generations ago) using WGS data [13]. Population size change was estimated for each population based on the whole-genome data of Hondo (8,524 individuals) and Ryukyu (182 individuals). First, the hapibd software [54] was used to detect the IBD segments shared by each individual. For the genetic distance, we referred to the HapMap genetic map data distributed with hapibd. We then estimated the population size change of the Hondo and Ryukyu populations using IBDNe (ibdne.23Apr20.ae9.jar). The shortest threshold of the IBD segment length was set at 2 cM.

Estimation of genome-wide genealogy, estimation of population size change, and detection of positive natural selection

We conducted the analysis of gene genealogy using the Relate software [14] to detect long-

term population size change and positive natural selection in Hondo and Ryukyu

populations. Relate is a software that can estimate genealogy on a genome-wide scale for

over 10,000 samples [55]. In this study, we used 1,000 randomly selected individual

genomes of Hondo, 182 Ryukyu samples, and 103 CHB samples of 1000 Genomes Project

[10]. First, input files (.haps, .samples) were created from vcf files using the

PrepareInputFiles.sh script in Relate software. We retrieved the Homo sapiens ancestral

sequences (GRCh38) of Ensembl 103 for the ancestral sequence and StrictMask of 1000

Genomes Project for genomic mask. Next, genome-wide genealogy was estimated using

the "Relate" command of Relate software packages. The mutation rate was set to 1.25×10^{-8}

per base per generation and the effective population size was set to 30,000. We assumed

28 years as the generation time in humans. The estimated genome-wide genealogy

(.anc, .mut) was used as input for population size estimation of Hondo and Ryukyu

populations using the EstimatePopulationSize.sh script. This script simultaneously

conducts estimation of population sizes, re-estimation of branch lengths using the estimated

population sizes, and estimation an average mutation rate. Finally, based on genome-wide

genealogy, we detected the target SNPs of positive natural selection acting on Hondo and

Ryukyu populations. Relate calculates a p-value of each SNP for positive selection that

quantifies how quickly a mutation has spread in the population. The p-values were

calculated for each SNP using the DetectSelection.sh script using the output genealogies of

population size estimation (.anc, .mut). We evaluated the quality of each SNP by

"RelateSelection –mode Quality," and SNPs inferred to be inaccurate tree estimation were

excluded.

Estimating the allele frequency trajectory

Changes in the allele frequency through the time were estimated using CLUES to infer

allele frequency trajectories [27]. CLUES uses the genome-wide genealogy inferred by

Relate. First, the sampleBranchLengths.sh script implemented in Relate was used to

MCMC sample the gene trees for the focal SNPs. Then, using the sampled tree file (.timeb)

as input, we estimated the allele frequency trajectory using CLUES's inference.py

command. The coalescence rate estimated by Relate (.coal file) can be used as an input to

modify the population size change using the -coal option. In this study, we estimated the

allele frequency trajectory by focusing on ALDH2 rs671, ADH1B rs1229984, OCA2

rs1800414, and FADS2 rs174600 among the SNPs that showed signals of natural selection

in Relate.

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Y.G., Y.Mar., Y.Mat., and S.N. contributed to the whole-genome sequencing. Y.O., R.Mi.,

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collection. Y.K., Y.W., and S-S.K. contributed to the data analysis. Y.G., Y.Mar., Y.Mat.,

S.N., and K.T. contributed to the management of biobank. Y.K., W.Y., Y.O., and T.K.

wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

Supporting information

647 Supporting information includes seven figures and three tables.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Web resources

IGSR: The International Genome Sample Resource, https://www.internationalgenome.org

Hap.py, https://github.com/Illumina/hap.py

GEM Japan, https://www.amed.go.jp/en/aboutus/collaboration/ga4gh_gem_japan.html

TogoVar, https://togovar.biosciencedbc.jp/

GATK, https://gatk.broadinstitute.org/hc/en-us

HLA frequency dataset from HLA Foundation Laboratory (Kyoto, Japan),

http://hla.or.jp/index.html

Homo sapiens ancestral sequences (GRCh38),

ftp://ftp.ensembl.org/pub/current_fasta/ancestral_alleles/homo_sapiens_ancestor_GRCh38.t

ar.gz

dbSNP, https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/snp/

Data and code availability

The allele and genotype frequency data are available in the NBDC human database;

Accession: hum0331. The raw genomic data are available upon request to corresponding

authors and will soon be shared on a computational infrastructure currently under

construction by the Japan Agency for Medical Research and Development.

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Figure legends

Fig 1. Quality control metrics of whole-genome sequencing. Quality control metrics for

each sample are plotted against the sample in the horizontal axis direction; QC indices are

(A) average coverage of reads in autosomal loci after excluding duplicated reads, (B)

mapping rate, and (C) average insert length. Saliva-derived samples are colored by yellow.

Fig 2. Genetic structure of NCBN samples. (A) The first and second principal

components are plotted. The continental population of the international 1000 genomes and

NCBN are plotted in different colors and shapes. (B) PCA plots of the East Asian

population of the International 1000 Genomes and NCBN samples are shown. JPT:

Japanese in Tokyo, Japan, CHB: Han Chinese in Beijing, China, CHS: Han Chinese South,

KHV: Kinh in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, CDX: Chinese Dai in Xishuangbanna, China

Fig 3. Comparison of allele frequency between different populations. (A) The non-

reference allele frequencies of the Hondo population of NCBN samples (X-axis) and the

corresponding variants of GEM Japan (Y-axis) were counted and then the numbers were

plotted as density. (B) Same plot for Hondo population (X-axis) and Ryukyu population

(Y-axis).

Fig 4. Analysis of loss-of-function (LoF) variants. (A) The allele frequency distribution

of newly detected HC LoF SNPs in the Hondo population. (B) The number of LoF alleles

and (C) the number of homozygous of LoF alleles per individual for Hondo Ryukyu, and

populations of the International 1000 Genomes. (D) The number of homozygous of LoF

alleles per individual by allele frequency for Hondo, Ryukyu, and the populations of the

International 1000 Genomes.

Fig 5. Estimation of past population size from IBD sharing. (A) Short-term effective

population size change in Hondo and Ryukyu populations by IBDNe. (B) Distribution of

IBD segment length in Hondo. (C) Distribution of IBD segment length in Ryukyu.

Fig 6. Trajectories of allele frequency of genes. Allele frequency trajectories of (A)

ADH1B rs1229984, (B) ALDH2 rs671, (C) OCA2 rs1800414, and (D) FADS1 rs174599

are shown.

Supporting information

S1 Fig. Genetic structure of East Asian populations. The clusters consisting of the
NCBN samples in Figure 2 are classified into Hondo (black), Ryukyu (orange), and others
(blue).

S2 Fig. Analysis of Loss-of-function (LoF) variants. The numbers of LoF sites per
individual by category are presented: (A) and (B) stop gained SNV; (C) and (D) splice site
SNV; (E) and (F) frameshift INDELs.

**S3 Fig. HLA alleles frequencies (%) between NCBN vs HLA Foundation Laboratory,
Kyoto, Japan.** Comparison for class I HLA genes (HLA-A, -C, -B) (left). Comparison for
class II HLA genes (HLA-DRB1, -DQA1, -DQB1, -DPA1, -DPB1) (right). Only common
HLA alleles (HLA frequencies > 1%) are included in this analysis.

**S4 Fig. Long-term effective population size change of Hondo, Ryukyu, and Han
Chinese.** The changes in population size were estimated from the gene genealogy across
the genome.

**S5 Fig. Manhattan plot of the selection scan result of the whole-genome SNPs by
Relate.** The red line represents the genome-wide significance level (5×10^{-8}).

S6 Fig. QQ plot of the selection scan result of the whole-genome SNPs by Relate. The
red line denotes y=x.

908   **S7 Fig. Gene genealogy estimated by Relate.** Genealogy of (a) ALDH2 rs671, (b)

909   ADH1B rs1229984 (c) OCA2 rs1800414 (d) FADS1 rs174599 are presented. The vertical

910   axis represents the age (years before present). Derived allele carriers are shown in red.

Figure 1.

Figure 2.

Figure 3

A

B

C

D

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

B

C

D

Figure 6