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# ▶ To cite this version:

Manfei Zhang, Sijie Wu, Siyuan Du, Wei Qian, Jieyi Chen, et al.. Genetic variants underlying differences in facial morphology in East Asian and European populations.. Nature Genetics, 2022, 54 (4), pp.403-411. 10.1038/s41588-022-01038-7 . hal-03643281

# HAL Id: hal-03643281 https://hal.science/hal-03643281v1

Submitted on 12 Feb 2024

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# Title

Genetic variants underlying differences in facial morphology in East Asian and European populations

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#### Abstract

Facial morphology, a conspicuous feature of human appearance, is highly heritable. Previous studies on the genetic basis of facial morphology were mainly performed in European-ancestry cohorts (EUR). Applying a data-driven phenotyping and multivariate genome-wide scanning protocol to a large collection of 3D facial images of individuals with East Asian ancestry (EAS), we identified 244 variants in 166 loci (62 novel) associated with typical-range facial variation. A newly proposed polygenic shape analysis indicates that the effects of the variants on facial shape in EAS can be generalized to EUR. Based on this, we further identified 13 variants related to differences between facial shape in EUR and EAS populations. Evolutionary analyses suggest that the difference in nose shape in EUR and EAS populations is caused by a directional selection, mainly due to a local adaptation in Europeans. Our results illustrate the underlying genetic basis for facial differences across populations.

## 1 Main Text

Facial morphology has substantial variations at the individual and population 2 level. Multiple studies show significant differences in craniofacial morphology 3 across people from different geographic regions<sup>1-18</sup>. For example, individuals of 4 European ancestries (EUR) have a more protruding nose and brow ridges than 5 those of East Asian ancestries (EAS)<sup>19</sup>. Such differences must have a strong 6 7 genetic basis, which remains unknown, largely due to the low number of studies in performed in EAS populations compared to EUR. Previous genetic studies 8 9 collectively reported about 219 loci associated with facial morphology in EUR populations, but only 24 were reported in EAS or Eurasian-ancestry populations, 10 about 20 in Latin American-ancestry populations, and four in African-ancestry 11 populations (Supplementary Table 1)<sup>3-5,9,12-14,16,17</sup>. Large-scale studies in EAS 12 populations and other non-European populations are much needed to provide 13 a complete architecture of the genetic basis of facial morphology, particularly 14 the observable differences across populations. 15

Here we performed a genome-wide association study (GWAS) based on a large 16 collection of 3D facial images from the Han Chinese population. Using a data-17 driven phenotyping approach, we identified hundreds of associated variants<sup>10,18</sup>. 18 In addition, we identified specific variants distinguishing facial appearance 19 between EUR and EAS populations. We further provided evidence that those 20 population-based facial differences, especially for nose shape, were under 21 selection. A schematic overview of our study design can be found in Extended 22 Data Figure 1. 23

#### 25 **GWAS on facial phenotypes discovered 244 leading variants.**

To study facial variation from a global to local scale, we used 3D facial surface 26 scans from a large-scale EAS population (Methods, Supplementary Table 2) in 27 a discovery (n = 6,968) and replication cohort (n = 2,706), and subsequently 28 combined them in a meta-analysis. A semi-supervised phenotyping procedure 29 defined 63 hierarchically arranged facial segments using the discovery cohort 30 31 (Methods). Next, we performed a canonical correlation analysis (CCA) based GWAS on each facial segment's group of principal components (Methods). 32 Subsequently, we identified 50 independent tests using parallel analysis and 33 permutation test (Methods, Supplementary Note)<sup>18,20,21</sup>. Thus, besides 34 conventional genome-wide significant threshold ( $P = 5 \times 10^{-8}$ ), we set a stricter 35 study-wide significant threshold to  $P = 9.8 \times 10^{-10}$  ( $P = 5 \times 10^{-8}/51.41$ ) after 36 Bonferroni correction for multiple testing. In the discovery datasets, we 37 identified 153 genome-wide significant variants ( $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ , minor allele 38 frequency (MAF)>0.05) in 124 loci after condition analysis and peak selection 39 (Methods). In the replication dataset, 119 out of 153 (77.8%) variants were 40 replicated at nominal significance (p<0.05), 118 (77.1%) were replicated at 41 FDR<0.05, 75 (49.0%) were replicated at a Bonferroni-corrected significance 42  $(P < 3.28 \times 10^{-4})$ . For the 84 variants that passed the study-wide significance (P 43 44 < 9.8×10<sup>-10</sup>), 80 out of 84 (95.2%) were replicated at nominal significance (p<0.05) and FDR<0.05, 65 (77.4%) were replicated at a Bonferroni-corrected 45 significance ( $P < 5.95 \times 10^{-4}$ ). To increase statistical power, we performed a 46 meta-analysis using Stouffer's method to combine the P-values obtained from 47 the discovery and replication cohort<sup>18,22</sup>. As a result, we identified 244 48 independent variants in 166 loci under the genome-wide threshold associated 49

with normal range facial variation (Fig. 1a; Supplementary Table 3) where 151 50 variants in 106 loci were study-wide significant. According to the anatomical 51 structure, we classified the 244 genome-wide significant variants in ten facial 52 regions (Supplementary Note), including forehead, glabella, eye, tempora, 53 zygoma, nose, maxillary, upper mouth, lower mouth, and mandible (Fig. 1b; 54 Supplementary Table 4). The nose was the feature associated with the most 55 56 variants (107) out of the ten regions. The numbers of variants associated with the other nine regions were: glabella (35), upper mouth (32), eye (29), zygoma 57 58 (28), maxillary (25), mandible (20), forehead (16), lower mouth (13) and tempora (12). In addition, we calculated the genome-wide heritability of each 59 3D facial segments at each level. The 3D facial segments' heritability ranged 60 from 7.47% to 52.3%. As we expected, the nose segments were also among 61 the most heritable area (42.17% to 46.86%, Supplementary Fig. 1). 62

We considered a variant as novel when it was not in linkage disequilibrium (LD, 63  $r^2 < 0.1$ ) with previously reported variants in facial GWASs (P < 5×10<sup>-8</sup>, 64 Supplementary Table 1) in any East Asian (EAS), European (EUR), and African 65 (AFR) populations in the 1000 Genomes Project phase 3 (1000GP, Methods)<sup>23</sup>. 66 As such, 130 of the 244 leading variants under the genome-wide threshold were 67 novel, while 65 of the 151 under the study-wide threshold were novel 68 (Supplementary Table 3). We considered a genetic locus as novel when it did 69 not overlap with previously reported genomic loci associated with facial 70 variation. As such, 62 out of 166 loci were novel. 71

We used FUMA and GREAT to annotate the leading variants<sup>24,25</sup>. As a result, we identified 206 candidate genes potentially associated with facial variation, among which 100 genes were not reported in previous facial GWASs 75 (Supplementary Table 3). We found that the genes associated with the leading variants were highly enriched in biological processes of skeletal system 76 development and morphogenesis (Extended Data Fig. 2a). Moreover, the 77 epigenome and transcriptome datasets showed that the leading variants were 78 mainly enriched for enhancers in craniofacial tissues. Compared with the 79 ectoderm at the later stage of fetal development, candidate genes were 80 81 significantly highly expressed in the mesenchyme (Extended Data Fig. 2b-c), consistent with our expectation and previous studies<sup>18,26-30</sup>. 82

83 We investigated associations ( $P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ ) with other complex traits for the 244 variants through PhenoScanner, a web-based GWAS repository (Methods)<sup>31</sup>. 84 We found that the traits sharing high genetic components with facial shapes 85 mainly involved physical measurements, body composition and hair 86 morphology (Supplementary Table 5). The highest co-association was the risk 87 of atrial fibrillation (*PITX2*, rs6843082,  $P = 3.0 \times 10^{-155}$ ). This variant has been 88 reported to be associated with cardioembolic stroke and ischemic stroke, 89 suggesting that facial features might be a biomarker of cardiovascular disease. 90

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# 92 Characteristics of specific variants in EAS and EUR

By comparing the 244 leading variants identified in our study with the 203 leading variants reported in a recently published EUR study using similar phenotyping and analysis framework, 89 variants were shared in both studies (Methods)<sup>18</sup>. The remaining 155 and 114 variants in the EAS and EUR studies respectively were different (Fig. 2a; Supplementary Table 6). Therefore, we defined three different groups: 89 shared variants, 155 EAS-specific variants, and 114 EUR-specific variants.

To understand these shared and population-specific variants' characteristics, 100 we examined their allele frequencies in EAS and EUR populations based on 101 the 1000GP<sup>23</sup>. Comparison of cross-population minor allele frequency (MAF) 102 showed that the groups of population-specific variants had higher MAF in their 103 respective population ( $P_{EAS-specific} = 9.0 \times 10^{-12}$ ,  $P_{EUR-specific} = 8.1 \times 10^{-9}$ ). In 104 contrast, the shared variants had no difference of MAF between the two 105 populations ( $P_{shared} = 0.1$ ) (Fig. 2b-e). These results suggest that higher MAFs 106 107 may increase the statistical power to detect the variants associated with facial variation within the respective populations. Moreover, 77.5% (69 out of 89) of 108 the shared variants passed the study-wide significance threshold while only 109 110 54.2% (84 out of 155) EAS-specific variants and 55.2% (63 out of 114) EURspecific variants passed the study-wide significance threshold (chisq.test  $P_{EAS}$ 111  $= 3.2 \times 10^{-4}$ ;  $P_{EUR} = 4.8 \times 10^{-6}$ ). 112

To explore potential biological functional differences between the shared and 113 population-specific variants, we used Metascape to compare the differences of 114 enriched terms for their annotated genes<sup>32</sup>. We found that EAS-specific, EUR-115 specific, and shared genes were all associated with top terms that were 116 previously reported in association with craniofacial variation (Fig. 2f). Moreover, 117 118 we observed a considerable number of functional overlaps among the three groups (Fig. 2g). These results indicate that the associated genes across 119 populations share substantially similar biological processes. We next compared 120 epigenetic regulation patterns of the shared and population-specific variants in 121 various cell-types or tissues. The shared and population-specific variants were 122 all enriched for enhancers in craniofacial tissues (Fig. 2h), again indicating that 123 the potential functions of facial variants across populations are analogous. 124

As expected, we found that the population-specific variants had a significantly 125 higher Wright's fixation index ( $F_{ST}$ ) than random variants from a genome-wide 126 background both in EAS and EUR populations ( $P_{EAS-specific} = 2.42 \times 10^{-10}$ ;  $P_{EUR}$ -127 specific = 0.0063, Extended Data Fig. 3), while the shared variants had no 128 significant difference compared with random variants ( $P_{EAS-shared} = 0.599$ )<sup>33,34</sup>. 129 The same result applied to the Cross Population Extended Haplotype 130 131 Homozygosity (XP-EHH) analysis using REHH2 in these two populations ( $P_{EAS}$ specific = 0.0078;  $P_{EUR-specific} = 0.038$ ;  $P_{EAS-shared} = 0.449$ )<sup>35,36</sup>. These results 132 133 suggest that facial variation across populations could be attributed to random drift and natural selection. The population-specific variants explained a larger 134 proportion of natural selection while the shared variants may mainly explain 135 random drift influencing facial variation. 136

In summary, the population-specific variants found in EAS and EUR were
identified due to cross-population MAF differences and subtle effect sizes.
Nonetheless, similar biological processes underlying facial variation were
shared across populations.

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# 142 **Polygenic shape analysis generalizes results from EAS to EUR**

To explore the genetic basis of EAS facial shape and the genetic factors contributing to the difference in facial shape between EAS and EUR, we first investigated whether the association results of the leading variants in our EAS study could be generalized to EUR.

We introduced a novel polygenic shape analysis to investigate whether the differential accumulated genetic effects between the two populations of the leading variants is in line with the actual population facial differences. Similar to the classic polygenic score analysis, we defined the Polygenic Shape (PS) for an individual as the sum of the number of effect risk alleles weighted by risk allele effect size of all the leading variants<sup>37</sup>. Similarly, the Polygenic Population Shape (PPS) is the average polygenic shape for a given population (Methods). Using data of EUR (n = 404) and EAS (n = 208) individuals from 1000GP, we calculated the PPS of the two populations for the whole face and ten anatomical facial regions.

To visualize and compare this effect to the true population facial shape average 157 158 for each facial region, we constructed EUR and EAS PPS-derived faces by adding and subtracting, respectively,  $(PPS_{EUR} - PPS_{EAS})/2$  to a population 159 neutral average face, which was constructed as the average of the EUR and 160 EAS population average shapes (Methods). We used 3D facial scans of EAS 161 and EUR individuals to calculate each population's average face and therefore 162 163 generated EUR and EAS average faces. Compared with the average face of EUR, we found that EAS had more protrusion in the cheek; more concavity in 164 the forehead, glabella, nose, and mandible (Fig. 3a-i), which were consistent 165 with a previous study<sup>19</sup>. Interestingly, when we amplified the differentiated 166 accumulated genetic effects five times, the PPS-derived faces looked very 167 similar to EAS and EUR's actual average face (Fig. 3a-ii). The EUR and EAS 168 PPS-derived faces showed similar facial variation to the ground truth, especially 169 170 in the glabella and nose region (Fig. 3a-ii).

To test the generalization of the association results from our study to EUR, we compared the EUR and EAS PPS-derived faces of the whole face using all the 244 leading variants with the PPS of the whole face using 244 variants randomly chosen from the genome. The EAS and EUR PPS-derived faces

using the leading variants were significantly more similar to the true population 175 average faces than that using random variants, either measured by Euclidean 176 distance ( $P_{dis} = 0.007$ ) or cosine similarity ( $P_{EUR} = 0.004$ ;  $P_{EAS} = 0.005$ ; Fig. 3b). 177 Moreover, we calculated individual facial polygenic shape for EUR and EAS 178 individuals from 1000GP and measured their East Asian ancestry facial 179 appearance (EAS-FA), defined as the projected length of the individual's 180 181 polygenic shape onto the explicit EAS-EUR shape difference (Methods, Supplementary Fig. 2). The EAS-FA of both EUR and EAS groups were 182 183 significantly separated, with EUR individuals closer to the EUR face and EAS individuals closer to the EAS face (t.test  $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ , Fig. 3c). 184

We also performed the same analyses locally for ten anatomical facial regions. 185 The EAS and EUR PPS-derived shapes using the leading variants were 186 significantly more similar to the population average shapes than those using 187 random variants, involving the upper mouth, nose, maxillary, glabella, eye, 188 tempora and zygoma in all the three measurements of similarity including 189 cosine similarity, Euclidean distance, and EAS-FA (Extended Data Fig. 4a). 190 Notably, the nasal region performed the best among the ten anatomical regions 191  $(P_{dis} = 4.8 \times 10^{-33}; P_{EUR} = 3.7 \times 10^{-37}; P_{EAS} = 3.4 \times 10^{-37};$  Fig. 3d-f). However, we 192 obtained non-significant results for the mandible, forehead, and lower mouth 193 194 (Extended Data Fig. 5). These results indicate that the PPS constructs morphological variations in most facial regions between EUR and EAS. Our 195 results demonstrates that the PPS-derived faces using the leading variants are 196 similar, both visually and statistically, to the true population average shapes at 197 global and local scales, suggesting that the facial shape effects identified from 198 the EAS study generalize well to EUR populations. 199

#### 201 Variants contribute to EAS facial appearance (EAS-FA)

Among the leading variants, we aimed to find those variants that make EAS 202 have more East Asian facial features, in other words, those variants that 203 increase East Asian facial appearance (EAS-FA). We defined the contribution 204 of a variant to EAS-FA as the effect allele frequency weighted projected length 205 of its effect size vector onto the EAS-EUR shape difference (Methods, 206 Supplementary Fig. 3, and Supplementary Table 7). A variant with a positive 207 208 EAS-FA contribution may cause the EAS population's facial morphology to increase EAS-FA. In contrast, a variant with a negative EAS-FA contribution 209 may cause the EAS population to increase EUR facial appearance. In brief, the 210 211 variants with large positive EAS-FA are of our interest. In each facial region, we constructed a distribution of the variant's contribution to EAS-FA using 244 212 leading variants. We further calculated whether each leading variant has 213 significantly higher contribution to EAS-FA than the distribution after Bonferroni 214 correction (P < 0.005, Extended Data Fig. 6, and Supplementary Table 8). As 215 a result, 13 variants that passed filtering were considered to increase EAS-FA 216 (Table1; Supplementary Fig. 4). 217

The 13 variants had a higher  $F_{ST}$  than the other variants (t.test  $P < 1.0 \times 10^{-16}$ ), indicating that they have significant allele frequency differences between EUR and EAS populations. The Population Branch Statistics (PBS) values of the variants were significantly higher in EAS ( $P < 1.0 \times 10^{-16}$ ) relative to EUR and YRI (Yoruba), but not in EUR (P = 0.188) relative to EAS and YRI, which suggests that these variants may be under selection in EAS<sup>38</sup>. Thus, these variants potentially contribute to the morphological differences between EUR

and EAS. Most of the EAS-FA variants might be standing genetic variations, as 225 the alternative allele frequency was relatively high, given the evolutionary time, 226 as shown in Table 1. Notably, six variants had  $F_{ST}$  above 0.5 between EUR and 227 EAS. Furthermore, three of these variants affected the glabella segments, and 228 two affected the nasal region. This result suggests that local adaptation might 229 play a role in forming facial variation between EAS and EUR. Among the 13 230 231 variants, six were reported to be associated with facial shape variation. Wellknown facial genes such as EDAR, TBX15 and MRPS22 were associated with 232 craniofacial morphology in many studies<sup>3,4,6,10,13,15,16,18,39-43</sup>. Our study showed 233 a variant in an intron of TBX15 (rs10923710, NC\_000001.10:g.119502774G>T) 234 contributing to maxillary and tempora shape in EAS, consistent with the 235 observation that this locus had multiple spatial effects on the face<sup>18</sup>. The 236 rs12632544 (NC 000003.11:g.138946868T>A) is an intergenic variant near 237 *MRPS22* on chromosome 3q23. It is in LD ( $r^2 = 0.932$ ) with rs12633011, which 238 was reported associated with morphology of eyes in a previous EAS study<sup>16</sup>. 239 MRPS22 was reported to be associated with human earlobe size and a mouse 240 skeleton phenotype<sup>3,44,45</sup>. A reanalysis of a GWAS study on cranioskeletal 241 variation in outbred mice showed that variants in the region of chromosome 9, 242 overlapping with *Mrps22*, were significantly associated with craniofacial 243 variation (FDR < 5%, Supplementary Fig. 5). These variants were associated 244 with the protrusion of the maxillary bone, the shrinkage of the eye and malar 245 bone. In our study, rs12632544 contributes to EAS-FA in the glabella, eye and 246 tempora (Extended Data Fig. 4b), in line with the result in the outbred mice. We 247 also identified seven novel variants contributing to EAS-FA, five out of which 248 are located closely to novel genes. Some of these have been reported in the 249

context of craniofacial dysmorphology. For instance, the rs6669519 250 (NC 000001.10:g.75584009T>A), which contributes to the shape of glabella, 251 is an intergenic variant near LHX8 on chromosome 1p31.1. LHX8 (LIM 252 Homeobox 8) was reported to be associated with cleft palate, forebrain neuron 253 differentiation<sup>46,47</sup>. development 254 and The rs12473319 (NC\_000002.11:g.232880971G>C), an intronic variant of the DIS3L2 gene, 255 256 showed association with EAS-FA in glabella (Extended Data Fig. 4c). *DIS3L2* was found to affect a skeleton phenotype in a mouse genome study<sup>45,48</sup>. In 257 258 addition, DIS3L2 is a candidate gene for the Perlman syndrome, characterized by craniofacial abnormalities. Moreover, the frequency of the derived C allele is 259 higher in EAS (47.8%) than EUR (2.2%). The estimated allele age of this variant 260 is about 7,875 years old (Table 1), when EAS and EUR were already separated, 261 suggesting that this variant arose in East Asian populations<sup>49</sup>. 262

Interestingly, there are four independent variants associated with nose 263 morphology in the SOX9 locus in our EAS GWAS (Extended Data Fig. 7). 264 Although SOX9 is a well-known gene contributing to the variation in nose shape, 265 rs8068343 (NC\_000017.10:g.69447706T>C) is a novel variant that affects 266 nose shape differences between populations<sup>7,9,10</sup>. In contrast, the other three 267 variants may affect nose shape within populations. Compared with the variants 268 previously identified near SOX9, the reference (T) allele of rs8068343 has a 269 lower frequency in EUR (0.04) than in EAS (0.46). Moreover, this variant had a 270 significantly higher  $F_{ST}$  (0.528) between EUR and EAS than any other variants, 271 272 and the Integrated Haplotype Score (iHS) of this variant was also significantly higher in CHB (Han Chinese, 2.55)<sup>50</sup>. These results indicate that this variant 273 contributes to EUR-EAS nose shape difference. 274

#### 276 Nose-associated variants are under positive selection

To assess whether the variation of facial morphology in EAS and EUR 277 populations is due to natural selection or random drift, we conducted several 278 selection analyses of the leading variants discovered here. The  $F_{ST}$  enrichment 279 test showed that regions of the whole face and nose had a significantly higher 280  $F_{ST}$  than random variants after Bonferroni correction ( $P_{whole face} = 8.22 \times 10^{-7}$ , 281  $P_{nose} = 1.00 \times 10^{-4}$ , Supplementary Table 9; Fig. 4a), indicating that facial 282 283 morphology has been under natural selection in EAS and EUR, especially in the nose region<sup>51</sup>. XP-EHH enrichment analysis showed a consistent result 284  $(P_{whole face} = 3.78 \times 10^{-3}, P_{nose} = 1.27 \times 10^{-3}, Supplementary Table 9; Fig. 4b).$ 285

Next, the mean PBS values for the nose-associated loci were significantly 286 higher than random variants in EUR ( $P = 6.90 \times 10^{-4}$ ) but not in EAS (P = 0.15) 287 (Supplementary Table 9, Fig. 4c), indicating that nose shape may be under 288 subtle local selection in Europeans rather than in East Asians. In addition, we 289 found that mean PBS values for the nose-associated loci in a recent published 290 EUR facial GWAS were significantly higher in EUR ( $P_{EUR} = 9.46 \times 10^{-3}$ ) but not 291 in EAS ( $P_{EAS} = 0.464$ ; Fig. 4d)<sup>18</sup>. The results support that nose shape may be 292 under local selection in EUR rather than in EAS populations. 293

Based on a study of He et al., we estimated and tested differences using the selection coefficients for nose variants with positive contribution to East Asian nose appearance (EAS-FA in the nose segment)<sup>52</sup>. The EUR population showed higher selection coefficients for nose EAS-FA increasing variants than the EAS population ( $P = 4.88 \times 10^{-2}$ , Supplementary Table 9, Fig. 4e). Moreover, by comparing the mean genetic prediction of EAS and EUR's facial variation to 300 the expected difference under random drift (Methods), the nose and glabella morphology in EUR was more protruding than EAS and the divergence of the 301 nose was greater than expected under the neutral model (Fig. 4f)<sup>34</sup>. 302 Furthermore, by comparing the PPS using the leading variants with the 303 expected PPS under random drift in the EUR and EAS, we obtained the 304 direction (and significance) of natural selection on facial morphology in each 305 306 population<sup>34</sup>. Similar to the population differences, the nose, glabella, and zygoma were under significant natural selection in EUR (Fig. 4g). However, in 307 308 EAS, the effects of natural selection were not significant (Fig. 4h). These results suggest that facial morphology in EUR may undergo local adaptation, 309 producing a more protruded nose, glabella, and flatter zygoma. 310

Based on the above results, we speculate that facial features underlying EUR-EAS differences are potentially due to the adaptive selection that occurred in the EUR population, which makes European-ancestry populations have protruded and narrow noses, significantly different from those of East Asianancestry populations.

316

# 317 Discussion

As a large-scale East Asian population facial GWAS using a data-driven globalto-local phenotyping, our study broadens the knowledge of craniofacial genetics outside frequently investigated European-ancestry populations. Compared to previous facial GWASs, we identified 130 (out of 244) novel variants associated with typical range facial variation, which have similar biological functions as the variants identified previously<sup>1-18</sup>. A considerable number of shared variants were independently identified in a EUR study and

our EAS study, using the same facial phenotyping approach. Among the 114 325 known variants, 96 were associated with consistent facial regions reported in 326 the previous facial GWASs. When we compared shared variants with EUR 327 study of White et al., 82 out of 89 were associated with the same facial regions, 328 which indicates that different segmentation patterns could obtain similar GWAS 329 results (Supplementary Table 3, 6)<sup>18</sup>. These results suggest that the 244 330 variants identified in our study are reliable and the genetic factors underlying 331 facial variation might be universal across populations. 332

333 We further extended the concepts of polygenic scores (PGS) to polygenic shapes (PS) in order to verify whether the association found in EAS could be 334 generalized to EUR<sup>37</sup>. Both visual and statistical evidence supported this 335 hypothesis on the whole face and major anatomical facial regions. However, 336 the PPS of the mandible, forehead, and lower mouth showed some difference 337 from the corresponding EUR and EAS average shapes, which is mainly due to 338 the insufficient number of significant variants associated with these facial 339 regions. Besides smaller phenotypic variation in these regions in EAS, 340 environmental factors contributing to facial variation may also impact the results. 341 In addition, the  $Q_{ST}$  analysis suggests that mandible, lower mouth, and 342 forehead exhibit fewer signals of facial shape differences between EAS and 343 344 EUR<sup>19</sup>. This could explain some reason for the inconsistency of the PPS for these facial regions. Of future interest is to calculate the PPS by combining all 345 the variants identified in EAS and EUR studies. This might further improve the 346 PPS in representing population facial shapes. 347

348 Our study also provides insights into the genetic basis of the facial shape 349 differences between European-ancestry populations and East Asian-ancestry

populations. In addition to identifying 13 primary variants contributing to EUR-350 EAS facial differences, we provided a method to investigate the genetic factors 351 associated with inter-population facial variation. These 13 variants all had 352 positive and larger effects on EUR-EAS facial differences, shaping the faces of 353 East Asian populations to be more EAS-FA. Again, corresponding with the PPS 354 results, due to the innate limitation of GWAS, our study may overlook rare or 355 356 fixed variants that lead to more EAS-FA in EAS population. By applying our method to EUR populations, additional variants affecting EAS-FA might be 357 358 discovered. Moreover, for those rare or fixed variants with opposite alleles between EUR and EAS, a single population GWAS has limitations, and an 359 admixture population instead is needed. 360

Due to the large number of significant variants identified in the nose region, our evolutionary analysis further supports the hypothesis proposed by Zaidi et al. that human nose shape has evolved in response to selection pressures<sup>53</sup>. Again, the PBS analyses showed that nose shape difference between EUR and EAS is mainly due to natural selection in European-ancestry populations rather than in East Asian-ancestry populations<sup>18</sup>.

In conclusion, this study presents a large EAS population GWAS on 3D facial 367 shapes. Our study identified a large number of novel variants associated with 368 normal range facial shape variation. Using newly introduced polygenic shapes, 369 we successfully depicted perceptually recognizable population average faces. 370 making our results more tangible, comprehensive, and intuitive. We identified 371 372 13 variants contributing to more EAS-FA and revealed natural selection in shaping EUR-EAS nose shape difference. Our findings will greatly facilitate the 373 understanding of human facial morphology across populations. 374

# 376 Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the participants of the NSPT, NHC, and TZL cohorts who consented to participate in research, and the related teams, which include interviewers, computer and laboratory technicians, clerical workers, research scientists, volunteers, managers, receptionists, and nurses.

381 This project was funded by the following grants and contracts: Shanghai Municipal Science and Technology Major Project (2017SHZDZX01 to L.J. and 382 383 S.Wang, 2018SHZDZX01 to W.Q.); National Key Research and Development Project (2018YFC0910403 to S.Wang); CAS Interdisciplinary Innovation Team 384 Project (to S.Wang); "Strategic Priority Research Program" of the Chinese 385 Academy of Sciences (XDB38020400 to S.Wang); Max Planck-CAS Paul 386 Gerson Unna Independent Research Group Leadership Award (to S.Wang); 387 National Natural Science Foundation of China (31521003 to L.J.,.31900408 to 388 M.Z.): National Science & Technology Basic Research Project (2015FY111700 389 to L.J.); CAMS Innovation Fund for Medical Sciences (2019-I2M-5-066 to L.J.); 390 The 111 Project (B13016 to L.J.); China Postdoctoral Science Foundation 391 (2019M651352 to M.Z., 2020M670984 to W.Q.). 392 We thank for all suggestions collected during the poster exhibition of ASHG 393

- 2019 Annual Meeting. We thank all the participants in these studies.
- 395

#### **Author Contributions Statement**

S.Wang., L.J., J.L., and M.Z. conceptualized the study (ideas; formulation or
evolution of overarching research goals and aims). M.Z, S.Wu., S.D., W.Q. and
J.L. carried out the data curation (management activities to annotate, scrub)

data and maintain research data for initial use and later re-use). M.Z, S.Wu., 400 S.D., W.Q., J.L. and J.C. carried out the formal analysis (application of 401 statistical, mathematical, computational, or other formal techniques to analyze 402 or synthesize study data). M.Z, S.Wu., S.D., W.Q. and J.L. did the visualization 403 (preparation, creation and/or presentation of the published work, specifically 404 visualization/data presentation). K.T. and L.Q., Y.Y. and J.T. collected the 3D 405 facial scans of the TZL cohort. J.W., Z.Y., J.T, K.T. and L.Q. collected the 3D 406 facial scans of the NSPT cohort. S.Wu, Y.L, and Q.P. contributed to generating 407 408 the SNP array data. S.Wu., S.D., and J.L. registered the 3D facial scans of the Northern Han Chinese cohort and conducted the PCA of discovery cohort. N.N. 409 and A.R.L. performed the analysis of MPRS22/Mprs22 and human/mouse 410 craniofacial shape. M.Z, S.Wu., S.D., W.Q. and J.L. wrote the original draft. 411 S.Wang., L.J., P.C., J.L., M.Z, S.Wu., S.D., and W.Q. reviewed and edited the 412 final manuscript. All authors participated in preparing the manuscript by reading 413 and commenting on drafts before submission. 414

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# 416 **Competing Interests Statement**

- 417 The authors declare no competing interests.
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# 420 Tables

rsID	CytoBand	A1	A2	P-value	EUR	EAS	PBS_EAS	PBS_EUR	<i>F</i> st_EURvEAS	Seg	Candidate gene	Allele age
rs7516137	1p36.32	С	G	9.75×10 <sup>-29</sup>	0.318	0.553	0.077	0.036	0.107	18	PRDM16	537708
rs6669519*†	1p31.1	Т	А	3.40×10 <sup>-08</sup>	0.173	0.781	0.831	0.000	0.547	24	LHX8	51373
rs10923710	1p12	G	Т	1.20×10 <sup>-44</sup>	0.193	0.507	0.262	0.000	0.207	19, 26	TBX15	88185
rs3827760	2q12.3	А	G	2.17×10 <sup>-13</sup>	0.000	0.921	2.587	0.306	0.945	27	EDAR	36410
rs12473319*¶†	2q37.1	G	С	1.35×10 <sup>-10</sup>	0.022	0.478	0.554	0.161	0.511	24	DIS3L2	39385
rs12632544	3q23	Т	А	1.87×10 <sup>-65</sup>	0.000	0.500	0.571	0.332	0.595	24, 25, 26	MRPS22	626678
rs147468294	6q14.3	А	AC	9.02×10 <sup>-17</sup>	1.000	0.690	0.299	0.207	0.397	7	TBX18	46640
rs111847181	8p23.1	G	GAC	5.28×10 <sup>-09</sup>	0.454	0.964	0.779	0.000	0.424	18	PPP1R3B	788343
rs4749259*¶†	10p12.1	Т	С	3.88×10 <sup>-29</sup>	0.936	0.584	0.370	0.037	0.334	26	MKX	298528
rs12258832*¶†	10p12.1	А	G	1.61×10 <sup>-24</sup>	0.892	0.690	0.133	0.005	0.129	26	MKX	64715
rs3740550*	10q26.11	A	G	6.70×10 <sup>-43</sup>	0.994	0.875	0.127	0.029	0.145	19	RAB11FIP2,	64603
											EMX2	
rs8068343*	17q24.3	С	т	3.32×10 <sup>-51</sup>	0.959	0.462	0.470	0.281	0.528	18	SOX9	1261665
rs9980535*¶†	21q21.3	А	G	3.99×10 <sup>-11</sup>	0.176	0.762	0.357	0.380	0.521	18	LINC00161	1030805

421 Table 1: The 13 variants mainly associated with East Asian facial appearance (EAS-FA)

422 \*Novel variants in our GWAS finding, which are not in LD ( $r^2 < 0.1$ ) with variants reported in previous facial GWAS studies, see in ST1, ST3.

423 <sup>¶</sup>Novel loci in our GWAS finding, which are not within the same loci (<500kb) in previous facial GWAS studies, see in ST1, ST3.

<sup>424</sup> <sup>†</sup>Novel genes in our GWAS finding, which are not reported in previous facial GWAS studies.

# 425 **Figure Legends**



Fig. 1: Overall results of genome-wide association meta-analyses in Han 427 Chinese cohort. a) The Manhattan plot on the ring represents the meta-analyses P-428 values, with chromosomes colored and labelled. P-values are -log10 scaled. Using 429 500kb windows, peak variants are colored in red (novel variants) and green (known 430 431 variants). Inside the Manhattan plot, a binary tree of facial segments illustrates the 432 hierarchical facial segmentation up to level four. On the whole face and ten selected facial segments (colored), variants in the segment itself (colored) and in its derivative 433 segments (gray) are plotted, with the number of variants listed (#variants in derivative 434 435 segments in parenthesis). b) Visualization of ten selected facial segments and number of significant variants. 436



Fig. 2: Comparison of shared and population-specific variants. a) Number of 439 specific and shared variants of two study cohorts (EAS and EUR). b-e) Cross-440 population MAF comparisons of b) specific variants of EAS (n = 155). c) Shared 441 variants (n = 178 (89 in EAS study and 89 in EUR study), shared variants in both 442 studies are used), and d) specific variants of EUR (n = 114). In b-d), P-values are 443 provided using a two-sided Mann-Whitney U-test. When MAF < 0.001, MAF was 444 truncated to 0.001 to fit the log scale (1000GP). e) MAF ratio comparison of three 445 groups. Boxplots show medians (center lines), first and third quartiles (lower and upper 446 447 box limits, respectively), 1.5-fold interquartile ranges (whisker extents) and outliers (black circles). Colors are corresponding with a). f) Metascape analysis shows the 448 biological processes associated with genes in the three groups of genes. g) Each 449

outside arc represents a group, and each inside arc represent a gene list. On the inside,
each arc represents a gene list, where each gene has a spot on the arc. The dark
orange color represents overlapping genes among groups. Same genes (purple lines)
and different genes fell into the same ontology term (blue lines) of three groups. h)
Heatmap indicates the global enrichment of trait-associated variants of each group (y
axis) in enhancer of different tissue (x axis).



Fig. 3: Visualization of PPS derived whole faces and nose of EAS and EUR and 458 the statistical validations for PPS approach. a) Visualization of facial morphology 459 of EAS and EUR. i) from top to bottom, representing the ground truth of EUR average 460 461 face, overall average face (EUR and EAS), and EAS average face respectively; ii) from 462 top to bottom, the PPS derived whole faces of 244 leading variants by adding  $PPS_{EUR} - PPS_{EAS}$  +5, +1 to -1, -5 times on the overall average facial shape. 463 Differences are visualized using the normal displacement (displacement in the 464 direction locally perpendicular to the facial surface), blue and red refer to depression 465 466 and protrusion in local shape respectively. b) The null distribution (blue) of i) Euclidean distance, ii) Cosine similarity with EUR average face, and iii) Cosine similarity with EAS 467 average face using 1,000 simulations from 244 random variants on the whole face, red 468 line infers the statistics of the 244 leading variants, black line infers 95% quantile of 469 470 distribution from the random variants. c) The EAS-FA of polygenic shapes (whole face) 471 for individuals in 1000GP. The squares represent the mean EAS-FA score and the horizontal lines represent 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> quantile. d) The  $PPS_{EUR} - PPS_{EAS}$  difference of 472 nose region in three views. i), ii), and iii) Front, side, and vertical views, respectively. 473 The PPS derived nose of EUR and EAS are presented in the blue and orange color 474 475 respectively. e) The distribution of i) Euclidean distance. ii) Cosine similarity with EUR average nose and iii) Cosine similarity with EAS average nose using 1,000 simulations
from random variants, red line infers the statistics of the 107 leading variants
associated with nose, black line infers 95% quantile of distribution from the random
variants. f) The EAS-FA of polygenic shapes (nose only) for individuals in 1000GP.
The squares represent the mean EAS-FA score for the nose and the horizontal lines
represent 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> quantile.



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Fig. 4: Natural selection analyses and enrichment test of the differentiation of 483 facial-associated variants among the EAS and EUR populations. a, b) P-values (-484 log10 scale) of a)  $F_{ST}$  and b) XP-EHH for the whole face and 10 anatomical regions. 485 The red line is the P-value threshold of 0.05. c, d) Observed mean PBS value for the 486 leading variants c) the 244 variants in this EAS study, and d) the 203 variants from 487 study of White et al against the null distribution among EAS, EUR and YRI for the nose 488 region. e) Selection coefficients for the nose region against the underlying null 489 distribution (blue). The red line corresponds to the observed selection coefficients. The 490 black line is 95% guantile of the null distribution. f) Differentiated accumulated genetic 491 492 effects of the 244 leading variants (visualized using the local surface normal displacement) and P-values (-log10 scale) of each guasi-landmark. g) Effects and P-493 values (-log10 scale) of each quasi-landmark compared with random drift in the 494 European population and in h) the East Asian population. 495



Extended Data Fig. 1: Study design. We first start with a face segmentation 498 procedure to get 63 face segments from which we defined 10 anatomical face regions. 499 Then by using a CCA based GWAS, we identified 244 variants with a P value lower 500 501 than 5×10-8, in which 151 are also lower than 9.8×10-10. To investigate what affects the similarity of an EAS face, we used polygenic population shape (PPS) analyses to 502 fit EUR and EAS faces and identified 13 variants mainly contributing to EUR-EAS facial 503 differences. To investigate selection on facial variation, we used FST and XP-EHH to 504 505 find which parts of the face are under selection. These results, we further compared with random drift and random PPS to find out, which from the two populations, EUR or 506 EAS, experienced selection. 507



509 510 Extended Data Fig. 2: Enrichment analysis of leading variants. (a) Geno Ontology 511 enrichment for genes annotated from leading variants by GREAT24. (b) Heatmap indicating the global enrichment of trait-associated variants in different chromatin state 512 (y axis) and in different tissue (x axis). The fold change was calculated by GREGOR28. 513 The embryonic craniofacial tissue was previously published by epigenomic atlas, while 514 the other was previously published by Roadmap Epigenome27. The description of the 515 found 516 25-state chromatin model be at: can https://egg2.wustl.edu/roadmap/web\_portal/imputed.html#chr\_imp. (c) Expression 517 levels of the candidate genes in craniofacial tissues. Each point (n=3 biologically 518 independent replicates for each condition) represents an estimated fold change 519 compared to control genes at different times (E10.5, E11.5, E12.5), in different 520 prominences (Frontonasal, FNP: circle; Maxillary, MxP: square; Mandibular, MnP: 521 522 triangle), and tissue layer (Ectoderm, Ect: red; Mesenchyme, Mes: blue). Data are 523 presented as mean values +/- 95% confidence intervals (1.96×SEM).



526 **Extended Data Fig. 3 XP-EHH and FST enrichment analysis for shared and** 527 **differentiated variants.** XP-EHH and FST enrichment analysis for (a, d) EUR 528 differentiated variants, (b, e) EAS differentiated variants, and (c, f) shared variants in 529 EAS study. The blue color is the null distribution. The red line is the mean XP-EHH or 530 FST score of shared or differentiated variants. The black line is the 95% quantile of the 531 null distribution.



533 Extended Data Fig. 4 Validation of PPS in 10 anatomical segments. (a) The null distribution (blue) of Euclidean distance, cosine similarity with EUR average face and 534 EAS average face using 1,000 simulations derived from random variants on the 10 535 anatomical regions, red line infers the statistics of the leading variants associated with 536 537 corresponding regions; black line infers 95% quantile of distribution from the random variants with corresponding regions; (b) The genetic effects of rs12632544 and (c) 538 539 rs12473319 weighted by their effect allele number difference of EUR and EAS 540 (visualized using the local surface normal displacement).



Extended Data Fig. 5 The EAS-FA of polygenic shapes in 10 anatomical regions
for EAS and EUR individuals in 1000GP. The EAS-FA of polygenic shapes in a)
mandible, b) forehead, c) lower mouth, d) upper mouth, e) nose, f) maxillary, g) glabella,
h) eye, i) tempora, and j) zygoma for EAS and EUR individuals in 1000GP. The squares
represent the mean EAS-FA score in 10 anatomical regions and the horizontal lines
represent 1st and 3rd quantile.

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difference. The distributions (blue) of EAS-FA derived from 244 leading variants 551 associated with a) whole face and b) - k) 10 anatomical segments. The black dotted 552 line is the EAS-FA threshold of each region (mean + 3×SD). The red arrow is the variant 553 over threshold. 554



- 557 Extended Data Fig. 7 Multi peak in 17q24.3 region. (a) Association variants in the
- 558 SOX9 locus and genomic environment surrounding SOX9 across a 2-Mb window. Four
- independent variants, represented by (1) rs34476511 (blue), (2) rs9900242 (green), (3)
- 560 rs8068343 (red), and (4) rs2193052 (purple) are observed; (b) Allele frequency in AMR,
- 561 SAS, AFR, EUR and EAS population of the four variants from 1000GP; (c) The effects
- 562 of the four variants in the nose region.

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<ul> <li><i>Nat Genet</i> 53, 45-53 (2021).</li> <li>Guo, J. <i>et al.</i> Variation and signatures of selection on the human face. <i>J</i> <i>Hum Evol</i> 75, 143-52 (2014).</li> <li>Li, J. &amp; Ji, L. Adjusting multiple testing in multilocus analyses using the eigenvalues of a correlation matrix. <i>Heredity (Edinb)</i> 95, 221-7 (2005).</li> <li>Kanai, M., Tanaka, T. &amp; Okada, Y. Empirical estimation of genome-wide significance thresholds based on the 1000 Genomes Project data set. <i>J</i> <i>Hum Genet</i> 61, 861-866 (2016).</li> <li>Stouffer, S.A. Adjustment during army life. (1965).</li> <li>Genomes Project, C. <i>et al.</i> Aglobal reference for human genetic variation. <i>Nature</i> 526, 68-74 (2015).</li> <li>McLean, C.Y. <i>et al.</i> GREAT improves functional interpretation of cis- regulatory regions. <i>Nat Biotechnol</i> 28, 495-501 (2010).</li> <li>Watanabe, K., Taskesen, E., van Bochoven, A. &amp; Posthuma, D. Functional mapping and annotation of genetic associations with FUMA. <i>Nat Commun</i> 8, 1826 (2017).</li> <li>Bernstein, B.E. <i>et al.</i> The NIH Roadmap Epigenomics Mapping Consortium. <i>Nat Biotechnol</i> 28, 1045-8 (2010).</li> <li>Kundaje, A. <i>et al.</i> Integrative analysis of 111 reference human epigenomes. <i>Nature</i> 518, 317-30 (2015).</li> <li>Schmidt, E.M. <i>et al.</i> GREGOR: evaluating global enrichment of trait- associated variants in epigenomic features using a systematic, data- driven approach. <i>Bioinformatics</i> 31, 2601-6 (2015).</li> <li>Wilderman, A., VanOudenhove, J., Kron, J., Noonan, J.P. &amp; Cotney, J. High-Resolution Epigenomic Atlas of Human Embryonic Craniofacial Development. <i>Cell Rep</i> 23, 1581-1597 (2018).</li> <li>Som, P.M. &amp; Naidich, T.P. Illustrated review of the embryology and development of the facial region, part 2: Late development of the fate face and changes in the face from the newborn to adulthood. <i>AJNR Am J Neuroradiol</i> 35, 10-8 (2014).</li> <li>Staley, J.R. <i>et al.</i> PhenoScanner: a database of human genotype phenotype associations. <i>Bioinformatics</i> 32, 2207-3209 (2016).</li> <li>Weir, B.S. &amp; Cockerham, C.C. Estimating F-Statistics</li></ul>	611	18.	White, J.D. <i>et al.</i> Insights into the genetic architecture of the human face.
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<ul> <li>eigenvalues of a correlation matrix. <i>Heredity (Edinb)</i> 95, 221-7 (2005).</li> <li>Kanai, M., Tanaka, T. &amp; Okada, Y. Empirical estimation of genome-wide significance thresholds based on the 1000 Genomes Project data set. <i>J Hum Genet</i> 61, 861-866 (2016).</li> <li>Stouffer, S.A. Adjustment during army life. (1965).</li> <li>Genomes Project, C. <i>et al.</i> Aglobal reference for human genetic variation. <i>Nature</i> 526, 68-74 (2015).</li> <li>McLean, C.Y. <i>et al.</i> GREAT improves functional interpretation of cisregulatory regions. <i>Nat Biotechnol</i> 28, 495-501 (2010).</li> <li>Watanabe, K., Taskesen, E., van Bochoven, A. &amp; Posthuma, D. Functional mapping and annotation of genetic associations with FUMA. <i>Nat Commun</i> 8, 1826 (2017).</li> <li>Bernstein, B.E. <i>et al.</i> The NIH Roadmap Epigenomics Mapping Consortium. <i>Nat Biotechnol</i> 28, 1045-8 (2010).</li> <li>Kundaje, A. <i>et al.</i> Integrative analysis of 111 reference human epigenomes. <i>Nature</i> 518, 317-30 (2015).</li> <li>Schmidt, E.M. <i>et al.</i> GREGOR: evaluating global enrichment of traitassociated variants in epigenomic features using a systematic, datadriven approach. <i>Bioinformatics</i> 31, 2601-6 (2015).</li> <li>Wilderman, A., VanOudenhove, J., Kron, J., Noonan, J.P. &amp; Cotney, J. High-Resolution Epigenomic Atlas of Human Embryonic Craniofacial Development. <i>Cell Rep</i> 23, 1581-1597 (2018).</li> <li>Som, P.M. &amp; Naidich, T.P. Illustrated review of the embryology and development of the facial region, part 2: Late development of the fetal face and changes in the face from the newborn to adulthood. <i>AJNR Am J Neuroradiol</i> 35, 10-8 (2014).</li> <li>Staley, J.R. <i>et al.</i> PhenoScanner: a database of human genotype-phenotype associations. <i>Bioinformatics</i> 32, 3207-3209 (2016).</li> <li>Weir, B.S. &amp; Cockerham, C.C. Estimating F-Statistics for the Analysis of Population Structure. <i>Evolution</i> 38, 1358-1370 (1984).</li> <li>Robinson, M.R. <i>et al.</i> Population genetic differentiation of height and body mass index across Eu</li></ul>	615	20.	Li, J. & Ji, L. Adjusting multiple testing in multilocus analyses using the
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## 696 Materials and methods

## 697 **Ethics statement**

All participants provided written informed consent, and all study protocols were 698 approved by the institutional review boards of the pertinent research institutions. 699 The National Survey of Physical Traits (NSPT) is the sub project of The National 700 Science & Technology Basic Research Project which was approved by the 701 Ethics Committee of Human Genetic Resources of School of Life Sciences, 702 Fudan University, Shanghai (14117). The Northern Han Chinese (NHC) cohort 703 704 was approved by the Ethics Committee of Human Genetic Resources at the Shanghai Institute of Life Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences (ER-SIBS-705 261410-A1801). The Taizhou Longitudinal Study (TZL) was approved by the 706 Ethics Committee of Human Genetic Resources at the Shanghai institute of life 707 Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences (ER-SIBS-261410). Written informed 708 consent was granted for each participant before enrollment in the study. We 709 confirm that our study is compliant with the Guidance of the Ministry of Science 710 and Technology (MOST) for the Review and Approval of Human Genetic 711 Resources. 712

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# 714 Sample and recruitment details

The samples in this study were collected from three independent cohorts, the National Survey of Physical Traits (NSPT) cohort (n = 3,322), the Northern Han Chinese (NHC) cohort (n = 4,767), and the Taizhou Longitudinal Study (TZL) cohort (n = 2,881). For the NSPT sample, individuals were recruited at three Chinese cities: Nanning, Guangxi province (n = 1,326); Taizhou, Jiangsu Province (n = 986); Zhengzhou, Henan province (n = 1,010). In the NHC cohort, participants were recruited in Tangshan, Hebei province. These two cohorts
constituted the discovery dataset. The TZL cohort, where individuals were
recruited in Taizhou, Jiangsu province, were used as the replication dataset.
The characteristics of the datasets is shown in Supplementary Table 2.

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# 726 Genotyping and imputation

Since we used two different genotyping platforms in the discovery and replication datasets (details in the Supplementary Note), we chose to impute the two data sets separately, then combine the imputed results.

For each dataset, standard data cleaning and quality assurance practices were performed based on the GRCh37 genome assembly. Phasing was performed using SHAPEIT2 (v2.17) <sup>54</sup> and imputation to the 1000GP Phase 3 reference panel using IMPUTE2 (v2.3.2) <sup>55</sup>. After post-imputation quality control, 8,018,212 shared variants were obtained for analysis.

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# **3D image acquisition, registration, and quality control**

3D images of all individuals in the three cohorts were captured and acquired using the 3dMDface (3dMD) camera system. When capturing, participants were asked to close mouth, open eyes, and hold faces with a neutral expression.

The 3D surface images were registered using the MeshMonk (v0.0.6)<sup>56</sup> in MATLAB<sup>™</sup> 2018a. This performed a homologous configuration of 7,906 spatially dense landmarks, allowing the 3D image data to be standardized. We performed Generalized Procrustes analysis (GPA) and symmetrization, then investigated every mapped image manually and identified outlier images. 3D facial images with poor quality were removed or re-processed, with details
 available in the Supplementary Note.

As a result, 6,968 (n = 4,089 in NHC cohort, n = 2,879 in NSPT cohort) and 2,706 unrelated individuals with good quality 3D images in the discovery and replication dataset are used for further analysis.

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# 751 Facial phenotyping

Like the approach of White et al., we performed a semi-supervised facial 752 753 segmentation based on the phenotypic correlation between facial landmarks using the discovery dataset<sup>18</sup>. To calculate the phenotypic correlations, we first 754 corrected the symmetrized facial shapes for the covariates of age, age squared, 755 756 sex, body mass index (BMI), and four SUGIBS components using a partial least-squares regression (PLSR, function plsregress from MATLAB<sup>™</sup> 2018a) in 757 both the discovery and replication cohort<sup>18</sup>. SUGIBS is a method for genetically 758 robust genome-wide ancestry inference based on the spectral (S) 759 decomposition of an unnormalized genomic (UG) relationship matrix 760 generalized by an Identity-by-State (IBS) similarity degree of individuals' matrix, 761 which was also used by White et al<sup>18,57</sup>. 762

To study global and local effects on facial variation, we refined the data-driven facial segmentation method to avoid isolated point and cluster specific facial regions. We performed a hierarchical spectral clustering on a combined matrix, as 0.9×RV similarity matrix + 0.1×distance matrix, up to level five, resulting in a total of 63 facial segments (Supplementary Fig. 6, Supplementary Note). In each segment, we performed principal component analysis (PCA) on the PLSR residuals of the discovery cohort and obtained the PC scores as the phenotypic scores for the discovery cohort. In the replication cohort, we projected the PLSR
residuals onto the PCA space build in the discovery cohort to obtain the PC
scores as the phenotypic scores. We described the methods in detail in the
Supplementary Note.

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# 775 Multivariate genome-wide association meta-analyses

The association analysis is similar to that in White et al<sup>18</sup>. For all three phases 776 (discovery, replication, and meta-analysis), the genotypes were coded as the 777 778 number of major alleles present (0, 1 or 2). In the discovery phase, in each of the 63 facial segments, we used canonical correlation analysis (CCA) to define 779 the linear combination of the facial segments PCs that are mostly correlated 780 with each variant, which represent the phenotypic effect in shape space. When 781 one of the two sets of variables has only one variable, CCA reduces to multiple 782 regression<sup>58</sup>. The resulting vector  $\omega_i$  is the effect size vector of this variant in 783 the shape PCA space (Supplementary Note). The correlation can be tested for 784 significance based on Rao's exact F-test (one-sided, right tail)<sup>59</sup>. For each 785 variant, we obtained a direction  $\omega_i$  in the shape PCA space most correlated 786 with the genotype of that variant and a P-value representing the strength of 787 correlation in the discovery phase. In the replication phase, we first projected 788 the phenotypic scores onto the CCA direction and calculated the Pearson's 789 correlation between the projected scores and the genotypes in the replication 790 cohort. To test the correlation's significance, we used the Student's t-test where 791

$$t = \frac{\sqrt{\rho^2 (1 - \rho^2)}}{\sqrt{n - 2}}$$

the t-statistics is defined as  $\sqrt{n-2}$ . We performed a one-sided right tail test for each variant to ensure that the effective direction of the variant within the two datasets is the same. Next, the P-values obtained in the discovery and
replication phase were combined in a meta-analysis using Stouffer's method
weighted by the sample sizes<sup>22</sup>. We used the corresponding implementations
of these methods in the SNPLIB package (available at <a href="https://github.com/jiarui-1/">https://github.com/jiarui-</a>
11/SNPLIB) to accelerate the analyses.

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#### 800 **Conditional analysis and GWAS peak selection**

For every variant, the meta-analysis described above yielded 63 P-values 801 802 representing 63 facial segments. In the conditional analysis and peak selection, we selected the lowest P-value for each variant. For the initial selection, we 803 selected the variants with P-value below the genome-wide threshold ( $P = 5 \times 10^{-10}$ 804 <sup>8</sup>) and calculated the pairwise  $r^2$  between these variants. In each chromosome, 805 we grouped the selected variants consecutively in a way that the r<sup>2</sup> between 806 every two neighbor selected variants in the group is larger than 0.05, which 807 resulted in 230 groups. Then, we selected the variant with the lowest P-value 808 as the conditional variant for each group and performed association tests of the 809 remaining variants on the condition of the conditional variant. The variant with 810 the most significant P-value still lower than the genome-wide threshold was 811 selected as conditional variants. We repeated these two steps until no variant 812 813 remains significant. Finally, we obtained 244 leading SNPs from all groups. We considered  $\pm 500$  kb genomic region of each leading variant as a genomic locus. 814 If nearby genomic regions overlapped, we merged them into one genomic locus. 815 816

#### 817 **Permutation test of study-wide P-value threshold**

To determine the study-wide Bonferroni P-value threshold, we calculated the number of independent tests by both the eigenvalues of the correlation matrix of the segments and the permutation analysis scheme used in the study of White et al<sup>18,20,21</sup>. The numbers of independent tests obtained from the eigenvalues of the correlation matrix and the permutation analysis are 50 and 51.41, respectively. Here, we used the more stringent threshold  $5 \times 10^{-8}/51.41 =$ 9.8×10<sup>-10</sup>. The details can be found in the Supplementary Note.

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# 826 Heritability of Facial Segments

In each facial segment, we first calculated the genome-wide heritability of each 827 retained shape PCs using the discovery cohort and calculated the facial 828 segment's heritability as the mean of the PCs' heritability weighted by each 829 PC's eigenvalue (variance). To calculate the genomic relationship matrix (GRM) 830 for heritability estimation, we first removed SNPs based on high levels of 831 pairwise LD by PLINK v1.9 with window size of 50, step size of 5 bases, and 832 r<sup>2</sup>>0.1, remaining 266, 241 SNPs. The heritability of all facial segment PCs was 833 estimated by GCTA<sup>60,61</sup>. 834

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# **Gene mapping and functional annotation**

Candidate genes of the genome-wide-significant leading SNPs were first identified using the NCBI, HaploReg V4.1, UCSC genome browser and Ensemble genome browser<sup>62-65</sup>. We also used three gene-mapping criteria implemented in Functional Mapping and Annotation (FUMA, v1.3.6) to identify the most likely candidate gene per leading variant<sup>25</sup>. First, we map variants to

genes based on physical distance (within a 10,000 base pair window) from the 842 known protein-coding genes in the human reference assembly. Second, we 843 included the genes which have a significant cis- expression quantitative trait 844 locus (eQTL; 1 Mb distance to the leading variant) association with the leading 845 variants, using 10 tissue types from the GTEx v8 database<sup>66-68</sup>. We used an 846 FDR of 0.05 to define significant eQTL associations. Finally, we also identified 847 848 candidate genes for each leading variant if there is chromatin interaction. To further prioritize candidate genes, we limited interaction-mapped genes to those 849 850 who interact with a predicted enhancer region identified in any of the 111 tissues or cell types from the Roadmap Epigenomics Mapping Consortium (ROADMAP) 851 and/or a gene promoter region (from 250 bp upstream to 500 bp downstream 852 of the transcription start site (TSS) and predicted by the ROADMAP to be a 853 promoter region)<sup>27</sup>. We expected that the resulting candidate genes are more 854 likely to have a plausible biological function. We used an FDR of 1×10<sup>-6</sup> to 855 define significant interactions. To further narrow down the candidate genes, we 856 investigated whether any gene in the window was previously associated with 857 craniofacial development or morphology through normal-range facial 858 association studies, genetic disorders with facial dysmorphology phenotypes, 859 or animal models. To investigate the potential biological process of the 860 candidate genes, FUMA (v1.3.6) and GREAT (v4.0.4) were performed using 861 preset parameters<sup>24,25</sup>. 862

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# 864 Chromatin state association in embryonic craniofacial tissue

We used GREGOR (v1.4.0) to evaluate global enrichment of trait-associated variants in different chromatin states<sup>28</sup>. This method tests for an increase in the

number of facial-associated index variants, or their LD proxies ( $r^2 > 0.8$ ), 867 overlapping with the regulatory feature more often than expected by chance by 868 comparing to permuted control sets (random control variants are selected 869 across the genome that match the index variant for several variants in LD, minor 870 allele frequency and distance to nearest intron). The reference epigenomes of 871 127 human tissues and cell types were obtained from the NIH Roadmap 872 Epigenomics Mapping Consortium<sup>26</sup>. The human embryonic craniofacial 873 chromHMM states were obtained from each Carnegie stage by Wilderman et 874 al<sup>29</sup>. 875

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# 877 Gene expression enrichment analysis

We selected a set of transcriptome datasets from critical periods of mouse face formation that enable gene expression to be analyzed with respect to time, prominence, and tissue layer (GSE62214). We evaluate the expression level (fold change) of the candidate genes compare to a set of control groups where the genes were randomly selected from the genome. Then we regressed the fold change of gene expression on time, prominence, and tissue layer to test their associations.

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# 886 **The EAS and EUR average facial shapes**

We recruited 89 individuals with self-reported European ancestry (32 females and 57 males) between 16 and 57 years old in Shanghai<sup>25</sup>. They were required to have complete European ancestry over the last three generations. Their 3D facial images were captured using the same protocol as used in the Chinese cohort. In each segment, we aligned these EUR facial shapes to the corresponding sample full Procrustes mean shape. We then calculated the male and female average facial shapes separately and used the average facial shapes of the two average shapes as the EUR average facial shapes. To calculate the EAS average facial shapes, we selected five individuals in the Han Chinese cohort with matched age and gender to the individuals in the EUR cohort. We finally selected 445 (5×89) individuals to calculate the EAS average facial shapes in the same manner as in the EUR cohort.

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# 900 Polygenic shape analysis (PSA)

901 One can calculate the effect size vector  $\beta_i$  in the original shape space by:

902

903

where  $\Sigma_k$  is a diagonal matrix of the largest k singular values and the column

 $\beta_i = V_k \Sigma_k \omega_i$ 

(1)

904 vectors of  $V_k$  are the corresponding k right singular vectors obtained from the 905 PCA (Supplementary Note).

<sup>906</sup> Thus, the polygenic shape (PS) of an individual could be calculated as:

907 
$$\mathbf{PS} = \sum_{i}^{n} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i} \boldsymbol{g}_{i}$$
(2)

where  $g_i$  is the genotype value of variant  $i^{37}$ . Subsequently, we calculate the polygenic population shape (PPS) by:

910 
$$\mathbf{PPS} = 2\sum_{i}^{n} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i} \boldsymbol{a}_{i}$$
(3)

where  $a_i$  is the effect allele frequency of variant *i* and two times  $a_i$  is the average number of effect alleles in a given population.

913 Next, we used the PPS difference between EUR and EAS ( $PPS_{EUR} - PPS_{EAS}$ ) 914 calculated by leading variants compared with random variants to evaluate whether leading variants could effectively fit the EUR-EAS shape difference.
We calculated the PPS derived shapes as following:

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$$F_{EAS}^{d} = F_{AVG} - \frac{PPS_{EUR} - PPS_{EAS}}{2}$$
(4)

918 
$$F_{EUR}^d = F_{AVG} + \frac{PPS_{EUR} - PPS_{EAS}}{2}$$
(5)

where  $F_{EAS}^d$  and  $F_{EUR}^d$  are the corresponding PPS derived shapes,  $F_{AVG}$  is the average facial shape of the population average shapes of EUR and EAS (i.e., a population neutral average face).

We performed 1,000 simulations to calculate the random  $PPS_{EUR} - PPS_{EAS}$ . In each simulation, random variants with the same effect allele frequencies in EAS were chosen to calculate random  $PPS_{EUR} - PPS_{EAS}$ . Subsequently, the cosine similarity and the Euclidean distances between the PPS and the corresponding average face were used as measures of shape similarity. P-values of each approach were then calculated using the null distribution established by these 1,000 simulations.

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# 930 Variant's contribution to EAS-FA

We used the projected (vector) length to quantify a variant's contribution to theEUR-EAS face difference:

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$$l_i = \frac{2(a_i^{EUR} - a_i^{EAS}) \times \boldsymbol{\beta}_i \times (\overline{\boldsymbol{F}}_{EUR} - \overline{\boldsymbol{F}}_{EAS})}{|\overline{\boldsymbol{F}}_{EUR} - \overline{\boldsymbol{F}}_{EAS}|}$$
(6)

If a variant has a positive sign of projected length, we regard this variant to be
linked to EAS individuals having more EAS features. In contrast, a variant with
a negative sign is linked with EAS individuals having more EUR characteristic
features.

## 939 Genetic information used from 1000 Genome Project

We used the individuals' genetic information from 1000 GP Phase 3 for related analysis including calculating MAF, PPS analysis,  $F_{ST}$  and PBS calculation, etc. EAS including Han Chinese in Beijing (CHB, n = 103), and Southern Han Chinese (CHS, n = 105); EUR including Toscani (TSI, n = 107), British (GBR, n = 91), Iberian (IBS, n = 107), and Utah residents (CEU, n = 99), without Finnish (FIN); AFR including Yoruba (YRI, n = 103) were used for analysis.

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## 947 Calculation of natural selection signatures

We calculated genome-wide natural selection signatures based on XP-EHH 948 using REHH2 (v3.2.0)<sup>36</sup>. The genome-wide XP-EHH z-scores were 949 standardized through normalization within each derived allele frequency bin 950 (bin widths = 0.01). We estimated two-tailed P-values of the variant according 951 to the normalized z-scores. We calculated the  $F_{ST}$  and PBS for different sets of 952 a population, by using the observed allele frequencies estimated from the 953 1000GP Phase 3<sup>33,38</sup>. On the basis of a previous study, we measured selective 954 pressures by (genic) selection coefficients, which the details of the calculations 955 are described in He et al<sup>52</sup>. 956

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#### 958 **Phenome-wide selection signature analysis**

Similar to the approach used in Guo et al., we compared the mean  $F_{ST}$ /PBS value of the leading variants with that of the control variants with MAF and LD score matched<sup>51</sup>. First, we divided all the variants (1000GP) into 20 MAF bins from 0 to 0.5 with an increment of 0.025 (excluding the SNPs with MAF < 0.01). Each of the MAF bins was further grouped into 20 bins according to the 20

quantiles of LD score distribution. The MAF and LD score values were 964 computed from the EAS or EUR samples in the 1000GP described above. 965 Second, we allocated the leading variants to the MAF and LD stratified bins, 966 randomly sampled a matched number of "control" variants from each bin, 967 computed a mean  $F_{ST}$ /PBS value for the control variants sampled from all bins, 968 and repeated this process 10,000 times to generate a distribution of mean 969 970  $F_{ST}$ /PBS under drift. Third, a P-value was computed from a two-tailed test by comparing the observed mean  $F_{ST}$ /PBS value for the leading variants against 971 972 the null distribution quantified by the control variants, assuming normality of the null distribution. Regarding enrichment analysis of the selection signatures by 973 XP-EHH, we obtained the sum of the squared values of the normalized XP-974 EHH z-scores of the variants (or the proxy variants in LD when available;  $r^2 > r^2$ 975 0.6 in the CHB or CEU data from 1000 Genome Project), which was compared 976 with the X<sup>2</sup> distribution with the degree of freedom equal to the number of the 977 variants. 978

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# 980 **Direction of genetic differentiation**

The analysis below uses a similar method introduced in Robinson et al. to quantify the population genetic differentiation of a complex trait<sup>34</sup>. The leading variants' coefficients were randomized across variants 10,000 times, and 10,000 genetic predictors were created in the EAS or EUR samples from the 1000GP described above. By keeping the effect sizes consistent but attributing these effects across variants at random, the genetic predictors generated reflect the action of genetic drift.

# 989 **Data Availability**

990 The Meta-analysis GWAS summary statistics are available on the National
 991 Omics Data Encyclopedia.

992 NODE: OEP002283 (https://www.biosino.org/node/project/detail/OEP002283).

The participants making up the NSPT, NHC and TZL datasets were not 993 collected with broad data sharing consent. Given the highly identifiable nature 994 995 of both facial and genomic information and unresolved issues regarding risk to participants, we opted for a more conservative approach to participant 996 997 recruitment. Broad data sharing of the raw data from these collections would thus be in legal and ethical violation of the informed consent obtained from the 998 participants. This restriction is not because of any personal or commercial 999 1000 interests. Additional details can be requested from L.J. for the NSPT dataset, and S.Wang for the NHC and TZL datasets. Data usage shall be in full 1001 compliance with the Regulations on Management of Human Genetic Resources 1002 in China. 1003

1004 Publicly available data used were: the 1000 GP Phase 3 data:

1005 (https://www.internationalgenome.org/category/phase-3/)<sup>23</sup>, The Roadmap

1006 Epigenomics Project: (<u>http://www.roadmapepigenomics.org</u>)<sup>26</sup>, NCBI dbSNP

- 1007 database: (<u>http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/SNP</u>)<sup>62</sup>, UCSC genome browser:
- 1008 (<u>http://genome.ucsc.edu</u>)<sup>63</sup>, HaploReg v4.1:
- 1009 (https://pubs.broadinstitute.org/mammals/haploreg/haploreg.php)<sup>64</sup>, Ensemble
- 1010 genome browser: (<u>http://asia.ensembl.org/Homo\_sapiens/Info/Index</u>)<sup>65</sup>, GTEx
- 1011 v8: (<u>https://gtexportal.org/home/</u>)<sup>66-68</sup>, Human genome dating:
- 1012 (<u>https://human.genome.dating/</u>)<sup>49</sup>, and the transcriptome resource from
- separated ectoderm and mesenchyme of the developing mouse face

- 1014 (GSE62214):
- 1015 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE62214).
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# 1017 Code availability

- 1018 The statistical analyses in this work were based on functions of the statistical
- 1019 toolbox in MeshMonk (<u>https://github.com/TheWebMonks/meshmonk</u>,
- 1020 v0.0.6)<sup>56</sup>, MATLAB<sup>™</sup> 2018a, R (v3.6.1), ggplot2 (v3.1.0), Python (v3.5.0),
- 1021 PLINK v1.9, SHAPEIT2 (v2.17), IMPUTE2 (v2.3.2), SNPLIB
- 1022 (https://github.com/jiarui-li/SNPLIB), GCTA-GREML, FUMA (v1.3.6), GREAT
- 1023 (v4.0.4), GREGOR (v1.4.0), Metascape (<u>https://metascape.org</u>), LocusZoom
- 1024 (https://genome.sph.umich.edu/wiki/LocusZoom), and REHH2 (v3.2.0) as
- 1025 mentioned throughout the Methods.

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