

1 **Whole exome sequencing study identifies**
2 **candidate loss of function variants and locus**
3 **heterogeneity in familial cholesteatoma**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Cholesteatoma is a rare progressive disease of the middle ear. Most cases are
22 sporadic, but some patients report a positive family history. Identifying functionally
23 important gene variants associated with this disease has the potential to uncover the
24 molecular basis of cholesteatoma pathology with implications for disease prevention,
25 surveillance, or management.

26 We performed an observational WES study of 21 individuals treated for
27 cholesteatoma who were recruited from ten multiply affected families. These family studies
28 were complemented with gene-level mutational burden analysis. We also applied
29 functional enrichment analyses to identify shared properties and pathways for candidate
30 genes and their products.

31 Filtered data collected from pairs and trios of participants within the ten families
32 revealed 398 rare, loss of function (LOF) variants co-segregating with cholesteatoma in 389
33 genes. We identified six genes *DENND2C*, *DNAH7*, *NBEAL1*, *NEB*, *PRRC2C*, and *SHC2*, for
34 which we found LOF variants in two or more families. The parallel gene-level analysis of
35 mutation burden identified a significant mutation burden for the genes in the *DNAH* gene
36 family, which encode products involved in ciliary structure. Functional enrichment analyses
37 identified common pathways for the candidate genes which included GTPase regulator
38 activity, calcium ion binding, and degradation of the extracellular matrix.

39 The number of candidate genes identified and the locus heterogeneity that we
40 describe within and between multiply affected families suggest that the genetic
41 architecture for familial cholesteatoma is complex.

43 **Introduction**

44 Cholesteatoma is a disease characterized by the proliferation of a pocket of
45 keratinizing epithelium arising from the lateral tympanic membrane, and invading into the
46 middle ear, leading to a progressive destructive lesion that erodes bone of the middle and
47 inner ear [1]. Cholesteatoma can only be cured by microsurgical excision, and most patients
48 suffer lifelong hearing loss due to the disease and/or the surgery. Although classified as a
49 rare disease, there are over 7000 operations for cholesteatoma each year in the UK [2]; and
50 a mean annual incidence of 9.2 per 100,000 was reported for surgically treated
51 cholesteatoma in Finland [3] over ten years.

52 The aetiology of cholesteatoma is uncertain. Chronic otitis media in childhood is a
53 predisposing factor, but only a small proportion of those with chronic otitis media will
54 develop cholesteatoma [4, 5]. Animal models confirm the role of chronic mucosal
55 inflammation in inducing cholesteatoma [6-8] but have also failed to illuminate how or why
56 this occurs. Cholesteatoma grows as a self-perpetuating mass into the middle ear with
57 activation of local osteoclasts, possibly as a result of an infection within the lesion [9]. The
58 outer epithelial layer of the tympanic membrane has the unique property of centrifugal
59 migration: carrying debris toward the outer ear canal [10]. Many theories have been
60 presented about the pathophysiology of cholesteatoma and how it should be sub-
61 classified; it has been called a pseudo-neoplasm but is perhaps more accurately described
62 as an abnormal wound healing process [11]. In their review, Olszewska *et al.* [11], identified

63 key clinical and histological features of cholesteatoma that warranted further research;
64 these include disease recurrence, invasion, migration, hyperproliferation, altered
65 differentiation, increased apoptosis, and the infiltration of stroma with immune cells.

66 Studies of differential gene expression of cholesteatoma compared with control
67 tissue samples have been used to investigate underlying molecular and cellular pathology
68 [12-17], through immunocytochemistry, PCR, microarray analysis, and RNA sequencing.
69 Candidate-gene approaches (analysing molecules known to regulate pathways altered in
70 cholesteatoma) have found increased expression of interleukin-1 (IL1), tumor necrosis
71 factor-alpha (TNF α), and defects in the regulation of epidermal growth factor receptor
72 (EGFR) [11]. Agnostic (hypothesis-free) transcript analyses [14-16] have found several
73 hundred genes differentially regulated in cholesteatoma samples compared with normal
74 skin, including pathways involved in growth, differentiation, signal transduction, cell
75 communication, protein metabolism, and cytoskeleton formation, with a recent study
76 identifying the proteins ERBB2, TFAP2A, and TP63 as major hubs of differential expression
77 [16]. Studies of differential expression have been heterogeneous because of variations in
78 tissue sampling and molecular detection. They also measure gene expression once
79 cholesteatoma has formed, so may identify factors that result from the disease process
80 rather than factors that initiate the disease. By contrast, genetic sequencing studies can
81 identify constitutional or underlying risk factors, and therefore provide a route for studying
82 causal biological pathways.

83 A clinical observation of familial clustering and the possibility of a heritable
84 component for cholesteatoma was reported by one of the authors in 2009 [18]. A
85 systematic review on the genetics of cholesteatoma identified 35 relevant studies, including

86 case reports describing the segregation of cholesteatoma within families in a pattern
87 consistent with a monogenic, oligogenic, or multifactorial trait [19], and in a recent survey,
88 more than ten percent of cholesteatoma patients reported a positive family history [20].
89 Identifying functionally important gene variants associated with disease has the potential
90 to uncover the molecular basis of cholesteatoma pathology, and whole exome sequencing
91 (WES) can identify variants in coding DNA that co-segregate with the phenotype. We
92 recently reported candidate loss of function (LOF) and missense variants in a pilot WES
93 study of three affected individuals from a single family [21]. Here we build on this pilot to
94 report findings from WES of ten additional families.

95

96 **Materials and methods**

97 **Study design**

98 This was an observational study to explore genetic associations for cholesteatoma
99 within and between families. A linkage strategy was used to detect co-segregating variants
100 in the exomes of affected individuals within each kindred. For WES, we selected the most
101 distantly related participants within each family for whom we had extracted DNA, to reduce
102 shared non-pathogenic variation filtering for bioinformatics analysis. In addition, we used
103 an overlapping strategy to identify candidate genes of interest; that is, we identified genes
104 with rare, loss-of-function (LOF) variants in two or more families. Further bioinformatic
105 analyses were carried out to annotate candidate genes and variants of interest.

106

107 Our study objectives were

- 108 1. To establish a database of multiply affected families; to record their family histories
109 (for otology and genetics); and to collect biological samples from participants for
110 DNA extraction and storage in a biobank.
- 111 2. To undertake WES of selected affected individuals in the recruited families.
- 112 3. To deposit sequencing data and variant candidate filtering files (VCFs) in the
113 European Genome-phenome archive (EGA).
- 114 4. To complete bioinformatic steps to filter for rare, functionally important variants
115 within and between families.
- 116 5. To perform gene-level mutational burden analysis to identify genes that have a
117 statistically higher proportion of deleterious mutations than would be expected in
118 the general population.

119 **Setting, research governance, and participants**

120 The study was approved by the East of England Cambridge Research Ethics
121 Committee (reference REC 16/EE/01311, IRAS ID:186786), sponsored by the University of
122 East Anglia, and registered on the National Institute for Health Research portfolio (CPMS ID
123 31548). Informed written consent was obtained from all participants. Participants were
124 recruited from patients attending four hospital sites.

125

126 Inclusion criteria:

- 127 • Patients with a clinical diagnosis of cholesteatoma affecting at least one ear, and who
128 have a family history of cholesteatoma.

129 • Families of patients in which there are one or more other affected individuals.

130

131 Exclusion criteria

132 • Only one affected individual with a confirmed case of cholesteatoma in the family.

133 • Families unwilling to consent to study participation.

134

135 A family history was collected from the index case of 10 families and any relatives
136 who subsequently joined the study. For each family member recruited, we recorded on a
137 REDCap [22] database the following: relationship to index case; date of birth; age at
138 diagnosis and/or age at the time of surgery; unilateral or bilateral disease; secondary
139 otology phenotypes; and diagnosis of genetic disease/congenital disorders.

140 **Biological samples and DNA extraction**

141 Blood samples from 21 participants were collected in 3ml EDTA tubes and DNA was
142 extracted using the QIAamp DNA Blood Mini Kit (Qiagen, UK). Samples were then
143 quantified and checked for purity using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermo
144 Scientific). All biological samples (blood and/or DNA) were stored by the Department of
145 Molecular Genetics at the Norfolk and Norwich University Hospital. Before DNA extraction
146 and quantitation were completed, samples were stored at 4 °C. Purified DNA was stored at
147 - 80 °C.

148 **Whole Exome Sequencing (WES): Library preparation,** 149 **target capture, and sequencing methods**

150 Two different service providers completed the next-generation WES and library
151 construction from >500 ng of each high molecular weight DNA sample: the Genomics
152 Pipelines Group at the Earlham Institute and Novogene (Cambridge, UK).

153 At the Earlham Institute, samples were processed using the NimbleGen SeqCap EZ
154 Exome Kit v3.0 (bait library: SeqCap_EZ_Exome_v3_hg38) using an amended v5.1 protocol
155 (NimbleGen 2015) producing 75bp paired-end reads and then sequenced on the Illumina
156 HiSeq4000 platform. Libraries prepared by Novogene were processed using the
157 SureSelect Human All Exon kit (bait library: S07604514 SureSelect v6) producing 180-
158 280bp paired-end reads and sequenced on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000. Alignment
159 statistics are described in S1 Table.

160 **Bioinformatics**

161 **Alignment and variant calling**

162 All tool versions and associated data files are listed in S2 and S3 Tables, respectively.
163 Briefly, reads were mapped to the Human reference genome (GRCh38) using the sanger
164 cgpMAP pipeline which utilises BWA-MEM [23]. All sequence data are stored in the
165 European Genome-Phenome Archive (EGAD00001008671; EGAS00001006147; Table 1).
166 Following quality control, SNPs and Indels were detected using two pipelines: one utilising
167 GATK HaplotypeCaller [24] and the other FreeBayes [25] (S1 Supporting Information).

168 Variants were overlapped from both variant callers to give consensus on high-confidence
169 variants for analysis.

170 **Variant filtering**

171 Following alignment, variants were filtered using specific thresholds for several
172 annotations, defined as hard filtering, for GATK and FreeBayes variant files (filtering
173 parameters are detailed in S1 Supporting Information). Variants were annotated for allele
174 frequency using Slivar [26] which utilizes the Genome Aggregation Database (gnomAD)
175 popMax AF [27] and the Trans-Omics for Precision Medicine Program (TOPMed) databases
176 [28]. Variants were also annotated using the Ensembl variant effect predictor (VEP) tool
177 giving SIFT/PolyPhen prediction for missense deleteriousness and PhastCons (7-way) for
178 conservation scores. Variants with a population allele frequency ≥ 0.01 (1% in either
179 gnomAD and TOPMed), a conservation score (PhastCons 7-way > 0.1), and predicted to be
180 of functionally 'low impact' by Slivar [26] (<https://github.com/brentp/slivar/wiki/impactful>)
181 were removed. Missense variants were annotated using SIFT [29] and PolyPhen [30]; those
182 labelled to be 'benign' or 'tolerated' were excluded.

183 **Statistical analyses**

184 In the family-based analyses, common variants shared between participants within
185 a family were determined by intersecting the detected SNPs and Indels. Bcftools isec was
186 used to identify identical SNPs. Indels were identified as identical if they overlapped by
187 more than 10% using bedtools [31]. Families with greater than two samples were
188 sequentially intersected to give indels with $>10\%$ across all family members.

189

190 A gene-based mutation burden analysis was performed on individual samples
191 utilizing TRAPD software [32], with the v2 gnomAD dataset providing a large and high-
192 quality control cohort for analysis. Control positions with good sequencing depth (>10) in
193 90% of samples were used. Dominant and recessive models were determined by TRAPD
194 software using the sample variant allele frequencies for cholesteatoma and gnomAD
195 control samples. Two-sided Fisher's exact test was used to determine genes with
196 enrichment in deleterious variants above the gnomAD background, as recommended by
197 Guo *et al* 2016 [33].

198 Wilcox rank sum tests were performed using the rstatix (0.6.0) [34] package in R
199 (version 3.1.4) [35]. Functional enrichment analysis was performed using gProfiler2 (v0.2.0)
200 [36] utilising KEGG, Reactome, CORUM, and the GO Molecular Function database for
201 terms. The gSCS (Set Counts and Sizes) correction method was used to determine
202 significantly enriched pathways and ontology terms with significance $p < 0.05$.

203

204 Results

205 Participants

206 Twenty-one eligible participants were identified from our database who were
207 members of ten multiply affected kindreds, Demographic, clinical features, and
208 relationships between family members, are summarized in Table 1. Thirteen participants
209 were female (13/21 = 62%) and six (6/21 = 29%) had bilateral disease at diagnosis or time
210 of surgery. The median age for diagnosis or first surgical procedure for cholesteatoma was
211 11 (range 1 to 63). The participants within each kindred studied were either first-degree or
212 second-degree relatives.

213

214 **Table 1. Study Participants.** Participants within families share numeric IDs. Age of diagnosis is given
215 unless unavailable, where age at first surgery* is given instead. Cholesteatoma in both ears is
216 described as bilateral disease (Y=yes) while disease in one ear is described as not bilateral disease
217 (N=no). Familial relationships are described with respect to the index case. Sequencing data and
218 VCFs were uploaded for each participant to the EGA data repository (EGAD00001008671;
219 EGAS00001006147).

Family ID	Subject ID	Age at diagnosis	Bilateral Disease	Sex	Index case or relationship to the index	EGA Accession	VCF accession
1	1a	28	Y	Female	Sister	EGAN00003527778, EGAN00003527779	EGAZ00001862733
1	1b	30*	N	Male	Child	EGAN00003527738, EGAN00003527740, EGAN00003527739	EGAZ00001862737
2	2a	23	Y	Male	Index	EGAN00003527754	EGAZ00001862745
2	2b	11	N	Male	Brother	EGAN00003527756	EGAZ00001862744
3	3a	44*	N	Female	Index	EGAN00003527737, EGAN00003527736	EGAZ00001862736

3	3b	3	N	Female	Child	EGAN00003527741, EGAN00003527742, EGAN00003527743	EGAZ00001862742
3	3c	6	Y	Female	Sister	EGAN00003527752, EGAN00003527751, EGAN00003527750	EGAZ00001862741
4	4a	35	N	Male	Index	EGAN00003527762, EGAN00003527755	EGAZ00001862749
4	4b	40*	N	Male	Brother	EGAN00003527753, EGAN00003527757, EGAN00003527759	EGAZ00001862747
5	5a	1	Y	Female	Index	EGAN00003527770, EGAN00003527774, EGAN00003527771	EGAZ00001862746
5	5b	36	N	Male	Child	EGAN00003527773, EGAN00003527766	EGAZ00001862738
6	6a	10	N	Female	Index	EGAN00003527747, EGAN00003527749, EGAN00003527748	EGAZ00001862748
6	6b	5	N	Female	Maternal aunt	EGAN00003527746, EGAN00003527745	EGAZ00001862740
7	7a	1	N	Female	Index	EGAN00003527772, EGAN00003527744	EGAZ00001862734
7	7b	63	N	Male	Maternal grandfather	EGAN00003527769, EGAN00003527768	EGAZ00001862732
8	8a	11	N	Female	Index	EGAN00003527765, EGAN00003527767	EGAZ00001862750
8	8b	6	N	Male	Brother	EGAN00003527781	EGAZ00001862735
9	9a	42*	N	Female	Index	EGAN00003527780	EGAZ00001862739
9	9b	44*	N	Female	Mother	EGAN00003527764, EGAN00003527763, EGAN00003527760	EGAZ00001862730
10	10a	1	Y	Female	Index	EGAN00003527761, EGAN00003527758	EGAZ00001862731
10	10b	5	Y	Female	Granddaughter	EGAN00003527775, EGAN00003527776, EGAN00003527777	EGAZ00001862743

220

221

222 **Exome sequencing and the identification of variants**

223 All DNA samples passed quality control steps, and Whole Exome Sequencing (WES)
224 was completed for all 21 participants with an average of 75.1 million aligned reads per
225 sample and a mean target coverage of 73.9X (S3 Table). Single nucleotide variants,
226 insertions, and deletions were called using GATK and FreeBayes and filtered according to
227 a hard filter. High confidence variants were produced by intersecting variants from both
228 variant callers (Fig 1).

229

230 **Fig 1. Analysis overview.** Variants were called using GATK and FreeBayes, then filtered using a
231 hard filter. High confidence variants were selected based on those that were detected by both
232 variant callers. Variants were further filtered according to population allele frequency (retaining
233 those < 1%) and predicted functional impact. Two distinct analyses were performed to identify
234 potentially important genes, pathways, and ontology terms: 1) Identification of genes that have
235 deleterious variants in multiple families; 2) A gene-based mutational burden analysis.

236

237 9,170,433 variants were detected using FreeBayes (8,048,428 SNPs; 316,886
238 Insertions; 440,166 deletions and 364,953 complex variants) and 631,501 using the GATK
239 haplotype caller (598,794 SNPs; 14,490 Insertions; 18,106 deletions and 111 complex
240 variants; Fig 1), with 229,645 variants detected by both approaches. Rare variants were
241 retained based on a population allele frequency of less than 1% (gnomAD popMAX AF or
242 TOPMed < 0.01) and a conservation score (PhastCons 7-way > 0.1). After further filtering
243 for the most impactful and deleterious variants using Slivar's impactful filter (see methods),
244 1,650 variants remained (1,580 SNPs, 3 insertions, and 67 deletions).

246 **Table 2. A list of genes with co-segregating LOF variants in two or more families.** NCBI
 247 reference SNPs (rsID) give previously described variants. GnomAD (popMAX/ non-Finnish European
 248 - NFE) and TOPMed allele frequencies were used to give the proportion of variants in the general
 249 population: 1 indicates presence across all individuals in the general population and 0 a complete
 250 absence. SIFT and PolyPhen were used on missense variants to predict the impact on protein
 251 functionality. PhastCons-7-way conservation scores were determined for SNVs: 1 indicates complete
 252 conservation across 7 mammalian species and 0 as no conservation. The families for which a
 253 particular variant is present are listed in the final column by the family ID.

Gene	rsID	GnomAD popmax AF	TOPMED AF	gnomAD NFE AF	Consequen ce	SIFT	PolyPhen	Conservatio n	HGVSc	HGVSp	Families
DENND2C	rs18950655 0	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	missense	tolerated	probably damaging	1	c.842G>A	p.Arg281Gl n	1
DENND2C	rs61753528	0.005	0.003	0.005	missense	deleterious	probably damaging	1	c.2497T>C	p.Tyr833His	10
DNAH7	rs20127365 2	0.005	<0.001	<0.001	missense	deleterious	probably damaging	1	c.3233A>T	p.Glu1078V al	8
DNAH7	rs11547447 9	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	stop gained	NA	NA	0.981	c.6949C>T	p.Arg2317T er	2
NBEAL1	rs19962998 3	0.004	0.001	0.001	missense	deleterious	possibly damaging	0.918	c.5252G>A	p.Arg1751H is	9
NBEAL1	rs18077110 1	0.003	0.002	0.003	missense	deleterious	probably damaging	1	c.987T>G	p.Phe329Le u	2
NEB	rs20154870 0	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	missense	deleterious	probably damaging	0.999	c.22187A> G	p.Lys7396A rg	4
NEB	rs11408959 8	0.005	0.003	0.004	missense	tolerated	probably damaging	0.999	c.4649A>G	p.Lys1550A rg	8
NEB	rs76406421 7	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	missense	tolerated	possibly damaging	0.998	c.6011T>C	p.Val2004Al a	9
PRRC2C	rs14881370 4	0.004	0.003	0.004	missense	deleterious	benign	0.986	c.5980A>G	p.Asn1994A sp	3
PRRC2C	rs13822084 9	0.002	0.001	<0.001	missense	deleterious	benign	1	c.2191A>G	p.Met731Va l	2
SHC2	rs20101041 0	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	missense	deleterious	probably damaging	0.991	c.1595T>G	p.Leu532Ar g	3
SHC2	rs76809548 7	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	missense	deleterious	probably damaging	0.274	c.1510G>T	p.Asp504Ty r	4

254

255 **Variant filtering and family studies**

256 Of the 229,645 variants initially detected, 30,294 variants are shared between
257 affected individuals within families, which we identify as co-segregating shared variants
258 (27,658 SNPs; 962 Insertions; 1661 deletions, and 13 complex variants). After filtering 398
259 high confidence, rare and deleterious variants occurring in 389 genes were identified (S1
260 Additional Data). Of loci with co-segregating variants of interest, only six were found in
261 more than one family (Table 2). Allele frequencies from gnomAD (median 0.002, IQR =
262 0.004), and TOPMed (median <0.001, IQR = 0.002), show these variants to be rare with the
263 most frequent variant identified in only 0.5% of the general population. In addition, variants
264 were shown to occur in highly conserved loci with 12/13 having a conservation score >0.9
265 (PhastCons7; Table 2).

266 Functional enrichment analysis revealed significant enrichment in 11 pathways or
267 ontology terms (Fig 2; $p < 0.01$; Hypergeometric test; S2 Additional Data) for the 389 genes
268 where filtered co-segregating shared variants occurred. This included GTPase regulator
269 activity (GO:MF), calcium ion binding (GO:MF), degradation to the ECM (Reactome), and
270 USH2 complex (CORUM). Genes identified from functional enrichment analysis were only
271 linked to a single family apart from *DENND2C* and *DNAH7* (*DENND2C* - family 1 and 10;
272 *DNAH7* - family 8 and 2; Table 2) - within GTPase activator activity and calcium ion binding,
273 respectively.

274

275

276 **Fig 2. Gene ontology and pathway analysis.** Performed on genes from filtered variants detected
277 by the family overlap analysis in at least one family (A) and the TRAPD mutational burden analysis

278 (B). Colours indicate the database used; (red) CORUM: the comprehensive resource of mammalian
279 protein complexes, (green) GO MF: gene ontology for molecular function, and (blue) REAC:
280 Reactome: the comprehensive resource of mammalian protein complexes. Dot size inversely
281 indicates p-value. Only those terms with a $p < 0.01$ are shown (hypergeometric test). See S2
282 Additional Data.
283

284

285 **Mutational burden analysis**

286 We performed mutational burden analysis on the 1,650 variants that passed our
287 strict filtering protocol (including those that were unique to individual members of a family).
288 In the dominant and recessive analysis, we identified 910 and 12 genes respectively to be
289 significantly enriched for deleterious variants in the cholesteatoma cohort compared to the
290 gnomAD control cohort (Fig 3; S3 Additional Data). Functional enrichment analysis
291 revealed significant enrichment of affected genes in 17 pathways or ontology terms (Fig
292 2B, S4 Additional Data), of which six were found in common with our previous analysis (Fig
293 4). These six included extra-cellular matrix (ECM) organization, GTPase activity, and calcium
294 ion binding; each containing a larger number of associated genes in the mutational burden
295 analysis compared to the family overlap analysis (Fig 4).

296

297 **Fig 3. Gene-based mutational burden analysis was performed on individual samples.** Based on
298 allele frequencies from the cholesteatoma and control (gnomAD) cohort variants were split into
299 dominant (A) and recessive (B) groups. The dot colour indicates the number of variants counted
300 across the total cholesteatoma cohort, blue indicates a variant count of 0, and orange with a
301 maximum count of 16. Statistical differences were determined using a two-sided exact Fisher's exact
302 test ($p < 0.05$). Points labelled with gene names have greater than 5 candidate variants in common
303 across all samples. Refer to S3 Additional Data for a comprehensive list of TRAPD genes.

304 **Fig 4. Common pathways enriched.** Common pathway and ontology terms were found to be
305 enriched for genes containing deleterious variants ($p < 0.01$; Hypergeometric test) in both the family
306 overlap (red) and TRAPD (blue) analysis. The number of genes with deleterious variants in each
307 pathway or ontology term is shown. Pathway and ontology terms where there is a significant increase
308 in the genes associated with that pathway in the TRAPD analysis compared to the overlap analysis
309 are highlighted ($p < 0.05$; one-sided 2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity
310 correction).
311

312 **Discussion**

313 **Key results**

314 The primary aim of this study was to identify candidate genetic variants that co-
315 segregate with cholesteatoma within and between families. Bioinformatic analysis was used
316 to annotate the genes of interest, which may have a role in cholesteatoma pathology. Data
317 filtering collected from pairs and trios of participants within the ten families studied
318 revealed 398 rare and damaging/deleterious variants in 389 genes (S1 Additional Data) of
319 which thirteen variants in six genes are of greatest interest, because of overlap in two or
320 three of the families (Table 2). These six genes: *DENND2C*, *DNAH7*, *NBEAL1*, *NEB*, *PRRC2C*,
321 and *SHC2*, encode the following products respectively, DENN domain-containing protein
322 2C (a guanine nucleotide exchange factor); Dynein axonemal heavy chain 7 (a component
323 of the inner dynein arm of ciliary axonemes); Neurobeachin-like protein 1 (thought to be
324 involved in several cellular processes); Nebulin (a giant protein component of the
325 cytoskeletal matrix); Protein PRRC2C (an intracellular protein required for stress granule
326 formation); and SHC-transforming protein 2 (which is part of the ErbB signalling cascade).

327 The predicted impact of the listed variants on gene function, and genotype-
328 phenotype correlations, can be used to infer their pathogenic potential. For example, in
329 previous correspondence [21], we reported on the co-segregation of a stop-gained variant
330 of the gene *EGFL8* (rs141826798) in a family with cholesteatoma, a gene previously
331 associated with the common inflammatory skin disorder psoriasis, which has abnormal
332 growth of the keratinizing epithelium in common with cholesteatoma.

333 No pathogenicity has been reported for the thirteen candidate variants identified
334 from the overlap analysis (in their dbSNP database descriptions) [37]. One of the variants
335 (rs115474479) is classified as an indel (stop gained) mutation in the gene *DNAH7*, the
336 others are all classified as damaging/deleterious missense variants (Table 2). *DNAH7*
337 variants are of interest because they encode a protein component of human cilia, where
338 other functionally important mutations have been associated with primary ciliary dyskinesia
339 (PCD). Cholesteatoma is associated with PCD [38, 19] and many children with PCD are
340 treated for recurrent and chronic otitis media (COM) which in turn is an aetiological risk
341 factor for cholesteatoma. Mutations in *DNAL1* and *DNAH5* are commonly reported in those
342 affected by PCD, although some mutations in *DNAH7* (rs114621989 and rs770861172)
343 have also been reported in PCD patients in the dbSNP database [37]. Damaging variants
344 co-segregating in three families were identified in the very large gene, *NEB*, that encodes
345 NEBULIN, an actin-binding cytoskeletal protein. *NEB* mutations typically cause inherited
346 myopathies [39], but interestingly, cilia-related pathology could be associated with
347 missense *NEB* variants because the process by which cilia form is dependent on the actin
348 cytoskeleton [40]. These findings suggest that genetic factors that alter cilia structure and
349 function may contribute to the development of some cases of cholesteatoma. Other non-
350 constitutional risk factors and different disease pathways are inevitable given that most
351 cases of cholesteatoma are sporadic cases and the complexity of the phenotype. A 2009
352 study of 86 individuals showed a reduced beat frequency of cilia in the middle ear of
353 children with COM [41], but earlier smaller studies in such populations have shown
354 conflicting results [42-44], and there is also debate whether any ciliary abnormalities found
355 are the cause or effect of inflammation.

356 **A parallel analysis of mutation burden in the whole** 357 **exomes**

358 We supplemented our family studies with a gene-based mutational burden analysis
359 to characterise genes with a higher proportion of mutations than observed in the gnomAD
360 control cohort [45]. This analysis focused on deleterious variants from individual samples
361 over variants shared within families to take a more generalised approach, comparing the
362 exomes from participants with cholesteatoma and control exomes. Fig 3 shows the results
363 presented for a dominant model and a recessive model, highlighting the genes that were
364 significantly enriched for loss of function (LOF) alleles in cholesteatoma individuals
365 compared to the control. The significant mutation burden for the genes *DNAH5*, *DNAH7*,
366 and *DNAH8* from the dynein axonemal heavy chain (DNAH) family provides further
367 evidence for the relevance of ciliary abnormalities to the molecular pathology of
368 cholesteatoma.

369 **Functional enrichment analysis**

370 We also considered gene function through functional enrichment analysis to identify
371 terms linked to candidate variants from the family overlap and mutation burden analyses.
372 This analysis can highlight genes over-represented for biological processes, cellular
373 localisations, and molecular pathways for gene products. Fig 2A illustrates the results of our
374 functional profiling of gene lists carried out as part of the overlap analysis between families
375 - common terms that were statistically enriched included GTPase regulator activity, calcium
376 ion binding, and degradation of the ECM. ECM proteins, *COCH* and *TNXB*, were

377 consistently down-regulated in cholesteatoma samples across several transcriptomic [46-
378 48] and proteomic studies [49, 50]. In addition, several S100 genes known to regulate
379 calcium binding and regulate ion channels show dysregulated expression patterns in
380 cholesteatoma [14, 47, 48]. The agreement between cholesteatoma functional profiling
381 and gene expression data suggests that the deleterious variants described are likely to have
382 contributed to the disease.

383 **Interpretation and comparison with data from published** 384 **transcriptomic studies**

385 We compared our highlighted ontology and pathway terms from the family overlap
386 study with terms identified from the studies described in our introduction [16, 17].
387 Significant and differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in cholesteatoma tissues were
388 extracted from two previously published datasets to perform functional enrichment and GO
389 term analysis. Imai *et al.* identified DEGs using RNA sequencing on a small cohort ($n = 6$) of
390 cholesteatoma patients; a total of 733 genes were significantly downregulated. Jovanovic
391 *et al.* analysed samples from COM patients ($n = 4$) and cholesteatoma patients with pre-
392 existing COM ($n = 2$) which were analysed by microarray; 158 genes were significantly
393 downregulated in cholesteatoma samples. In 8 of these genes identified as down-regulated
394 in Imai *et al.* or Jovanovic *et al.* we detected a high confidence, rare and deleterious variant
395 in our family-based analysis for at least one family. Similarly, in 12 genes we found variants
396 in the mutational burden analyses. *CYP24A1*, *MUC16*, *MMP10*, *COL17A1*, *TJP3*, and *PPL*
397 were identified in all three analyses (TRAPD, family overlap, and transcriptomics; S4 Table).
398 Interestingly, *MMP10* and *COL17A1* are identified by the functional enrichment and GO

399 analysis to regulate the degradation of the ECM, perhaps indicating the ECM has an
400 important role in cholesteatoma aetiology. From a survey of cholesteatoma literature
401 utilising transcriptomics, *MMP10* has been identified in 3 studies to be downregulated in
402 cholesteatoma samples compared to the control tissues [15-17].

403 **Study strengths and limitations**

404 We have achieved our objective to identify and share data about candidate genetic
405 variants that co-segregate with cholesteatoma, and that may contribute to its pathology.
406 We have provided a comprehensive and thoroughly annotated data set including links to
407 our files in the EGA repository. The use of bioinformatic tools for mutation burden analysis
408 and GO analysis has provided additional evidence and curation about common biological
409 processes, and identified molecular pathways and genetic variants associated with the risk
410 of familial cholesteatoma that warrants further investigation. The rare deleterious mutations
411 listed in S1 and S3 Additional Data, from our family overlap and TRAPD analyses, are
412 candidate variants of interest because they are predicted to be functionally important with
413 respect to gene expression. As for most disease traits, we predicted that any genetic
414 architecture (defined as the number and effect size of any contributing variants) would be
415 complex for cholesteatoma. Heterogeneity in genetic risk factors is suggested by the
416 number of co-segregating rare deleterious variants found in the family overlap and
417 mutation burden analyses in this study and from our previous study [21]. We have identified
418 a potential disease pathway for cholesteatoma development through the inheritance of
419 genetic variants that alter cilia structure and function, and in pathways involved in cellular
420 proliferation.

421 There are some limitations to discuss. We describe a hypothesis-generating
422 observational study of exome data from 21 participants, so there is a risk of both false
423 discovery (type 1 error) and missing variants of interest (type 2 error). Our primary study
424 was small: it included only ten families and the filtering and quality assurance steps were
425 stringent. Furthermore, our sample bank did not include DNA samples from many affected
426 individuals from individually large pedigrees, limiting the reduction of shared non-
427 pathogenic variation filtering for the individual family studies. We also only studied and
428 curated exome sequences which preclude the identification of pathogenic variants in most
429 non-coding regions of the genome. Our filtering and prioritization could result in
430 pathogenic variants being discarded or overlooked. The rare minor allele frequency
431 threshold of 1% was selected because cholesteatoma is classified as a rare disease; our
432 approach would favour the identification of variants associated with a dominant inheritance
433 pattern but could miss more common variants associated with a recessive model and or
434 with complex genetic architecture. Therefore, our search for candidate pathogenic variants
435 cannot be considered exhaustive and should be expanded in studies of large, affected
436 pedigrees to identify more variants of interest, and to consider the penetrance of candidate
437 variants. Our findings will now be applied to an analysis of sequencing data from a much
438 larger cohort of individuals treated for cholesteatoma and recruited to the UK Biobank [51].
439

440 **Conclusions**

441 Our WES studies of familial cholesteatoma cases identified candidate rare LOF
442 variants in genes that encode products involved in ciliary structure, GTPase regulation,
443 calcium ion binding, and degradation of the ECM. The locus heterogeneity suggests a
444 complex genetic architecture for cholesteatoma, and we have identified molecular
445 mechanisms and disease development pathways that warrant further characterisation.

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457

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600

601 **Supporting information captions**

602 **S1 Supporting Information. Supplementary Methods**

603 **S1 Table. Alignment statistics for DNA-seq exome samples.** The number of reads mapped to the
604 hg38 assembly was calculated to give aligned and unaligned statistics. Exome target coverage was calculated
605 using the manufacturer's bed files for DNA-seq library preps (see Material and methods). Maximum and mean
606 coverage was calculated at target regions. The proportion of target regions with no coverage was also
607 calculated.

608 **S2 Table. Bioinformatics tools and versions used to process variants.**

609 **S3 Table. A list of the files and their versions used by the bioinformatics tools.**

610 **S4 Table. Underexpressed and mutated genes.** Genes identified from the family overlap and
611 mutation burden analysis (TRAPD) were overlapped with genes that were significantly under-expressed in the
612 transcriptomics studies from Imai *et al* (2019) or Jovanovic *et al* (2020).

613 **S1 Additional data. Complete table for deleterious variants identified from the family overlap**
614 **analysis.**

615 **S2 Additional data. Complete table for pathway and functional enrichment analysis for the**
616 **family overlap analysis.**

617 **S3 Additional data. Comprehensive mutational gene-based analysis output.**

618 **S4 Additional data. Complete table for pathway and functional enrichment analysis for gene-**
619 **based mutational burden analysis.**

620

621