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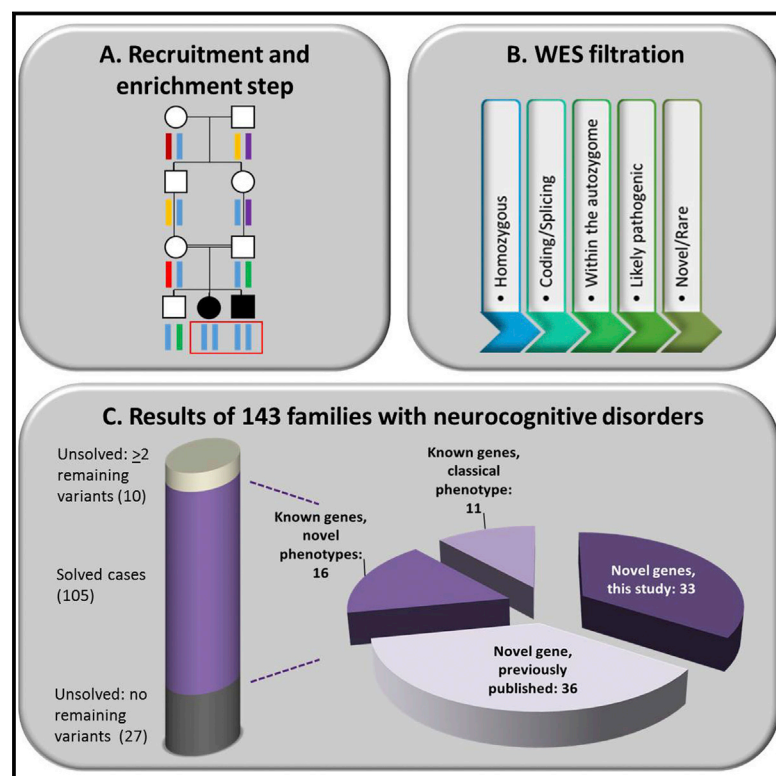
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Accelerating Novel Candidate Gene Discovery in Neurogenetic Disorders via Whole-Exome Sequencing of Prescreened Multiplex Consanguineous Families

Graphical Abstract



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In Brief

Using whole-exome sequencing on prescreened multiplex consanguineous families, Alazami et al. describe the identification of 33 novel candidate genes for various neurogenetic conditions. Such families are rich sources for novel gene discovery.

Highlights

- Multiplex consanguineous families are rich sources for novel gene discovery
- Prescreening these families for known disease genes accelerates gene discovery
- 33 novel candidate genes are reported in this study

Accelerating Novel Candidate Gene Discovery in Neurogenetic Disorders via Whole-Exome Sequencing of Prescreened Multiplex Consanguineous Families

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SUMMARY

Our knowledge of disease genes in neurological disorders is incomplete. With the aim of closing this gap, we performed whole-exome sequencing on 143 multiplex consanguineous families in whom known disease genes had been excluded by autozygosity mapping and candidate gene analysis. This pre-screening step led to the identification of 69 recessive genes not previously associated with disease, of which 33 are here described (*SPDL1*, *TUBA3E*, *INO80*, *NID1*, *TSEN15*, *DMBX1*, *CLHC1*, *C12orf4*, *WDR93*, *ST7*, *MATN4*, *SEC24D*, *PCDHB4*, *PTPN23*, *TAF6*, *TBCK*, *FAM177A1*, *KIAA1109*, *MTSS1L*,

XIRP1, *KCTD3*, *CHAF1B*, *ARV1*, *ISCA2*, *PTRH2*, *GEMIN4*, *MYOCD*, *PDPR*, *DPH1*, *NUP107*, *TMEM92*, *EPB41L4A*, and *FAM120AOS*). We also encountered instances in which the phenotype departed significantly from the established clinical presentation of a known disease gene. Overall, a likely causal mutation was identified in >73% of our cases. This study contributes to the global effort toward a full compendium of disease genes affecting brain function.

INTRODUCTION

Neurogenetic disorders represent the largest category of Mendelian diseases in humans. They encompass a wide array of

clinical presentations that range from the common e.g., intellectual disability (>1%) to the very rare, e.g., neurodegeneration with brain iron accumulation (one to three per 10⁶) (Kalman et al., 2012; Maulik et al., 2011). The highly prevalent involvement of the nervous system in many Mendelian disorders coincides with the observation that >80% of all human genes are expressed at some stage of brain development (Hawrylycz et al., 2012) and suggests that the brain is one of the most vulnerable organs to genetic perturbation. In fact high-resolution microarray analysis of the human genome reveals that intellectual disability is the common phenotypic denominator of genomic disorders that involve losses or gains of genes (Coe et al., 2012).

Variances in clinical presentation are a major obstacle in establishing a working molecular classification of neurological disease, because even where the clinical presentation is highly specific, genetic heterogeneity is the rule. In the setting of autosomal recessive neurogenetic disorders where parents are related, a homozygosity scan can serve as a guide to the underlying genetic cause even when the phenotype is atypical (Alkuraya, 2010). Another major challenge in assigning a molecular classification is that many neurological disease genes have not been identified yet.

Novel disease gene discovery in this field has been tremendously abetted by next-generation sequencing, a tool with the capacity to, theoretically, unravel the genetic cause of all neurological diseases. This full theoretical potential has not yet been reached unfortunately, although the technology continues to evolve. For example, two large studies on the genetics of intellectual disability using whole-exome sequencing (WES) provided a yield of 16%–55%, and even though the collective sample size was >150, only seven novel genes were identified (de Ligt et al., 2012; Rauch et al., 2012). In these studies, samples could not be enriched for novel gene discovery, and simultaneously the anticipated mutations were heterozygous, detection of which poses a challenge for the currently available sequencing technology (especially regarding insertions/deletions) (Harismendy et al., 2009). The presence of these two obstacles likely hindered the authors' ability to obtain a higher yield. Thus, alternative/complementary approaches are required to facilitate the discovery of novel neurogenetic disease genes. In this study, we show that the analysis of the entire set of autozygous intervals per individual (the autozygome) in multiplex consanguineous patients, as a prescreen, can markedly increase the yield of WES to identify candidate genes not previously associated with disease. Even when known genes were identified using this approach, the phenotype was often sufficiently different to explain why the gene had been missed by the autozygosity filter. The 33 candidate disease genes we showcase in this study will augment the global hunt for the genetics of brain development and function.

RESULTS

Clinical Report

In total, 143 multiplex families met our inclusion criteria (a neurogenetic diagnosis, positive family history, consanguineous parents, and no candidates identified by autozygosity mapping). Intellectual disability was the most common clinical feature.

Other phenotypes that were also enriched included global developmental delay, autism, epilepsy, primary microcephaly, ataxia, and neurodegeneration. Table S1 summarizes the clinical features of the entire cohort.

Autozygosity Mapping Is a Powerful Enrichment Tool for Novel Candidate Gene Discovery

As a prescreening step for each case, the regions of homozygosity (ROH), the telltale sign of shared ancestral haplotypes, were interrogated for disease genes that matched the patients' phenotype. These genes were prioritized for Sanger sequencing. If negative, or when no compelling disease genes were evident in the ROH, patient DNA was subjected to WES under the assumption that this will reveal a novel disease gene. This assumption fails, however, to account for certain scenarios. When disease genes within the ROH are examined for a likely candidate, it is possible that the clinical picture may sufficiently deviate from the classical phenotype ascribed to a particular gene such that the gene falls outside our consideration. Specifically, we list in Table 1 cases in which there was sufficient discrepancy between the classical and observed phenotypes that the respective genes were missed in the autozygosity mapping stage. Some phenotypes can even be considered unique rather than an expansion of a known phenotype.

A second reason why WES may reveal a known disease gene is that the causal mutation may lie within an ROH but fail to be detected, which is one of the known "pitfalls" of autozygosity mapping (Alkuraya, 2012). Figure S1 captures the homozygosity pattern of a number of patients for whom the candidate ROH was missed, because it did not meet our ROH size cutoff, or it appeared to be shared by an unaffected member of the family, or the overlap of the gene with the ROH was not clearly discernible. One case (11DG0165) evaded detection due to the presence of a deep intronic mutation, which was later uncovered using RT-PCR. A third scenario for why WES may expose a known disease gene is that the gene was simply overlooked when searching for plausible candidates within an ROH. This occurred in 13DG1803 where *TUSC3*, a known intellectual disability gene, was not noticed during the prescreening stage. Further scenarios include incomplete clinical information at the time of analysis (as occurred with 09DG-00774 and 12DG0926) and poor description in the literature (discussed below). We emphasize, however, that cases of failed autozygosity map prescreening are the exception rather than the rule because they represent only ~7.7% (11/143) of all cases and have reduced the hypothetical yield of WES in revealing candidate genes not associated with disease, or known genes with unique phenotypes, by only 2.2%.

WES Is a Powerful Novel Candidate Gene Discovery Tool in Neurogenetic Disorders

Consistent with our prescreening enrichment step, WES revealed 69 genes that were not known to the authors at the time of exome capture. Of these, 36 have since been published by either us or others (detailed in Table S1), leaving 33 candidate genes that are here reported. The phenotypes associated with these are described in Table 2 and include intellectual disability, autism, progressive cerebellar atrophy, primary microcephaly, brain atrophy and other malformations, and myopathy. Of these

Table 1. Cases with Mutations in Known Disease Genes following WES, Where the Patient Phenotype Diverged from the Established Literature

| ID | Gene | Mutation | Published Phenotype | Observed Phenotype | Reference |
|-----------|----------------|---|---|---|---------------------------------------|
| 09DG0057 | <i>GM2A</i> | NM_000405.4:c.164C > T:p.P55L | GM2-gangliosidosis, AB variant | progressive neurodegeneration with onset at 8 years, no organomegaly and normal retina | this study |
| 12DG0096 | <i>SPG20</i> | NM_001142294:c.1450_1451insA:p.T484fs | spastic paraplegia | speech and motor delay, tremor, microcephaly, and strabismus | this study |
| 12DG1571 | <i>CYP27A1</i> | NM_000784:c.1342C > T:p.R448C | cerebrotendinous xanthomatosis | severe choreoathetosis, no cataract, and normal cholestanol | this study |
| 10DG0672 | <i>NPC2</i> | NM_006432:c.88G > A: p.V30M | Nieman-Pick disease | microcephaly, static encephalopathy, no organomegaly, and normal retina | this study |
| 11DG1951 | <i>ARFGEF2</i> | NM_006420:c.656_657insC:p.P219fs | periventricular heterotopia with microcephaly | global developmental delay, epilepsy, and hydrocephalus | this study |
| 11DG1510 | <i>PNKP</i> | NM_007254:c.1250_1251insAACGGGTCGCCATCGAC;p.R418Tfs*55 | progressive microcephaly, infantile-onset seizures, and developmental delay | primary microcephaly, global developmental delay, no seizures | this study |
| 12DG0975 | <i>RYR1</i> | NM_000540:c.6617C > T:p.T2206M | minicore myopathy | ptosis, no motor delay, and sacral agenesis | this study |
| 12DG0104 | <i>FBN2</i> | NM_001999:c.1064G > A:p.G355D | congenital contractural arachnodactyly | fetal akinesia with brain ischemia and neonatal death | this study |
| 08DG00385 | <i>BRCA2</i> | NM_000059.3:c.9152 delC;p.P3051Hfs*11 | Fanconi anemia | primordial dwarfism | Shaheen et al. (2014) |
| 10DG1721 | <i>EVC2</i> | NM_147127.4:c.3870_3893 dup:p.K1293_K1300 dup | Ellis-van-Creveld syndrome | Meckel-Gruber syndrome | Shaheen et al. (2013) |
| 13DG0583 | <i>DDHD2</i> | NM_015214.2:c.1249_1891 del:p.A417Mfs*23 (large scale deletion) | spastic paraplegia | isolated cerebellar atrophy | this study |
| 13DG0010 | <i>WDR81</i> | NM_001163809:c.845G > A:p.G282E | cerebellar ataxia, mental retardation, and dysequilibrium syndrome-2 | neonatal death due to severe brain malformation (hydranencephaly and severe cerebellar hypoplasia) | this study |
| 12DG0685 | <i>ZNF526</i> | NM_133444:c.479A > C:p.K160T | nonsyndromic intellectual disability | intellectual disability, Noonan-like facies, and pulmonary stenosis | this study |
| 09DG00930 | <i>ADCK3</i> | NM_020247:c.1744 dup:p.S582Kfs*148 | cerebellar ataxia, seizure and cerebellar atrophy | isolated cerebellar hypoplasia | this study |
| 09DG0301 | <i>SBF1</i> | NM_002972:c.1327G > A:p.D443N | Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease type 4B3 | Charcot-Marie-Tooth with microcephaly, ophthalmoplegia and syndactyly | Alazami et al. (2014) |
| 11DG1767 | <i>AP4M1</i> | NM_004722:c.C952T;p.R318* | spastic paraplegia, severe ID, poor speech development | microcephaly, speech delay, spasticity; brain MRI: hypomyelination, hypoplastic corpus callosum, and brain atrophy. | this study |

Table 2. Cases with Mutations in Candidate Genes, along with Available Evidence from the Literature to Support Candidacy

| ID | Phenotype | Gene | Mutation | Mutation Type | Gene Description | Supporting Evidence | Reference |
|-----------|---|--------------------------------|---|---|---|---|--|
| 12DG1528 | primary microcephaly and neonatal death | <i>CCDC99</i> (<i>SPDL1</i>) | NM_017785:c.1724_1747 del:p.S575_T582 del | in-frame deletion | spindle apparatus coiled-coil protein 1 | CCDC99 has been demonstrated to control poleward movement of chromosomes along the mitotic spindles. Many primary microcephaly genes encode proteins that are involved in mitotic spindle regulation, e.g., ASPM and WDR62. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 20427577 and 24875059 |
| 11DG0443 | microlissencephaly and global developmental delay | <i>TUBA3E</i> | NM_207312:c.643C > T:p.R215C | missense | tubulin, alpha 3e | Mutations in several tubulins have been linked to lissencephaly and other cortical malformations (TUBA1 A, TUBA8, TUBB2B, TUBB3, TUBB5, and TUBG1). Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 24860126 |
| 10DG1705 | primary microcephaly and global developmental delay | <i>INO80</i> | INO80:NM_017553: c.1501T > C:p.S501P, INO80:NM_017553: c.3737G > A:p.R1246Q | missense | INO80 complex subunit E | INO80 has been shown as necessary for DNA damage repair. Abnormal DNA damage repair underlies multiple forms of microcephaly, e.g., PHC1 and PNKP. Supported by a single linkage peak. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 21947284, 19829069, 24029917, and 20118933 |
| 08DG00041 | hydrocephalus, muscle weakness and global developmental delay | <i>NID1</i> | NM_002508.2: c.3385+1G > A | splicing (in-frame insertion confirmed by RT-PCR) | Nidogen 1 | Mice deficient of NID1 exhibit neurologic deficits including seizure-like symptoms and loss of muscle control in the hind legs and show altered basement membrane morphology in selected locations including brain capillaries and the lens capsule. Additionally, a variant of unknown significance has been reported in a family with brain malformations. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 12480912 and 23674478 |
| 13DG0167 | primary microcephaly and global developmental delay | <i>TSEN15</i> | NM_001127394: c.226T > G:p.W76G | missense | tRNA splicing endonuclease 15 | Mutations in other family members, e.g., TSEN54, have been linked to pontocerebellar hypoplasia. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 18711368 |

(Continued on next page)

Table 2. Continued

| ID | Phenotype | Gene | Mutation | Mutation Type | Gene Description | Supporting Evidence | Reference |
|------------|---|------------------------|---|---------------|---|---|-----------------------------|
| 12DG0929 | global developmental delay, epilepsy and poor weight gain | <i>DMBX1</i> | NM_147192:c.367C > T:p.R123W | missense | diencephalon/mesencephalon homeobox 1 | Mouse model displays hyperactivity and hypophagia. Gene is highly expressed in developing brain. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 15314164 and 17873059 |
| 09DG0405 | myopathy | <i>C2orf63 (CLHC1)</i> | NM_001135598: c.779G > A:p.R260Q | missense | clathrin heavy-chain linker domain containing 1 | Mutation in BICD2 which interacts with CLHC1 causes spinal muscular atrophy. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 23664116 |
| 09DG00102 | global developmental delay | <i>C12orf4</i> | NM_020374:exon6: c.637_638insAAAC: p.K213fs | frameshift | chromosome 12 open reading frame 4 | Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | |
| 11DG1513 | autism spectrum disorder | <i>WDR93</i> | NM_020212:c.280T > C:p.Y94H | missense | WD repeat domain 93 | Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | |
| 11DG2479 | global developmental delay and brain atrophy | <i>ST7</i> | NM_021908:c.489T > G:p.Y163X | stopgain | suppression of tumorigenicity 7 | Disruption of ST7 has been reported in one ASD patient with a translocation (t(7;13)(q31.3;q21)). Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 10889047 |
| 12DG1901 | holoprosencephaly | <i>MATN4</i> | NM_030590:c.515G > C:p.G172A | missense | Matrilin 4 | Gene is highly expressed in developing brain. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 11549321 |
| 12DG2051 | intellectual disability and epilepsy | <i>SEC24D</i> | NM_014822:c.697G > C:p.G233R | missense | SEC24 family, member D (<i>S. cerevisiae</i>) | Mouse model displays early embryonic lethality, but the mouse model of its paralog SEC24B displays abnormal neural tube development. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 23596517 |
| 10DG1069 | primary microcephaly and global developmental delay | <i>PCDHB4</i> | NM_018938.2:c.915 del:p.K305Nfs*12 | frameshift | protocadherin beta 4 | PDCHB4 has been associated with autism. Other protocadherin members have been linked to epilepsy, cognitive impairment as well as autistic features. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 22495309 and 22765916 |
| 08DG-00322 | brain atrophy and global developmental delay | <i>PTPN23</i> | NM_015466:c.3995G > T:p.R1332L | missense | protein tyrosine phosphatase, nonreceptor type 23 | Mouse model displays early embryonic lethality. Gene is highly expressed in developing brain. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 19378249 |

(Continued on next page)

Table 2. Continued

| ID | Phenotype | Gene | Mutation | Mutation Type | Gene Description | Supporting Evidence | Reference |
|----------|---|-----------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------|--|--|--------------------------|
| 11DG0932 | global developmental delay and dysmorphism | <i>TAF6</i> | NM_005641.3:c.212T > C:p.I71T | missense | TAF6 RNA polymerase II, TATA box binding protein (TBP)-associated factor | Independently identified by another group (B. Yuan, D. Pehlivan, E. Karaca, N.P., W.-L. Charng, T. Gambin, C. Gonzaga-Jauregui, V.R. Sutton, G. Yesil, S.T. Bozdogan, T. Tos, A. Koparir, E. Koparir, C.R. Beck, S. Gu, H. Aslan, O.O. Yuregir, K. Al Rubeaan, D. Alnaqeb, M.J.A., Y. Bayram, M.M. Atik, H. Aydin, B. Geckinli, M. Seven, H. Ulucan, E. Fenercioglu, M. Ozen, S. Jhangiani, D.M. Muzny, E. Boerwinkle, Baylor-Hopkins Center for Mendelian Genomics, B. Tuysuz, F.S.A., R.A. Gibbs, and J.R. Lupski, unpublished data). Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | |
| 10DG1670 | global developmental delay, epilepsy, dysmorphism, hypotonia, and VSD | <i>TBCK</i> | NM_033115:c.1708+1G > A | splicing (frameshift) | TBC1 domain containing kinase | TBCK knockdown significantly suppresses mTOR signaling, which plays a critical role in multiple neurological disorders. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 23977024, 19963289 |
| 13DG1472 | macrocephaly, ID, dolichocephaly, and mild obesity | <i>FAM177A1</i> | NM_001079519:c.297_298insA:p.L99fs | frameshift | family with sequence similarity 177, member A1 | Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | |
| 13DG1900 | Dandy-Walker malformation, hydrocephalus, flexed deformity, club feet, micrognathia, and pleural effusion | <i>KIAA1109</i> | NM_015312.3:c.1557T > A:p.Y519* | stopgain | KIAA1109 | Deletion in <i>Drosophila</i> results in lethality, and the rare homozygous flies that reach adulthood exhibit severe neurological signs: seizures and inability to walk or stand for prolonged period. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 19640479 |
| 10DG0264 | neurodegeneration and brain iron accumulation | <i>MTSS1L</i> | NM_138383:c.1790C > T:p.T597M | missense | metastasis suppressor 1-like | This mutation affects a poorly characterized isoform of <i>VAC14</i> deficiency of which in mouse results in severe neurodegeneration. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 17956977 |

(Continued on next page)

Table 2. Continued

| ID | Phenotype | Gene | Mutation | Mutation Type | Gene Description | Supporting Evidence | Reference |
|-------------|--|---------------|---------------------------------------|---------------|---|--|----------------|
| 13DG1935 | primary microcephaly | <i>XIRP1</i> | NM_194293:c.4495G > A:p.E1499K | missense | xin actin-binding repeat containing 1 | Gene is highly expressed in the brain in response to oxidative stress. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 22366181 |
| 13DG2274 | severe psychomotor retardation, seizure, and cerebellar hypoplasia | <i>KCTD3</i> | NM_016121:c.1036_1073 del:p.P346Tfs*4 | frameshift | potassium channel tetramerization domain containing 3 | Gene is enriched in copy number changes associated with intellectual disability. Supported by a single linkage peak. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 19623214 |
| 13DG0832 | global developmental delay and ADHD | <i>CHAF1B</i> | NM_005441:c.496A > G:p.I166V | missense | chromatin assembly factor 1, subunit B | CHAF1B is part of the chromatin assembly complex deficiency of which results in loss of asymmetry during nervous system development in <i>C. elegans</i> . Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 22177093 |
| 08DGRC00077 | neurodegenerative disease | <i>ARV1</i> | NM_022786:c.565G > A:p.G189R | missense | ARV1 homolog (<i>S. cerevisiae</i>) | ARV1 is required for normal sphingolipid metabolism, a process known to be defective in other neurodegenerative diseases such as Nieman-Pick disease. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 12145310 |
| 14DG0152 | neurodegeneration with marked white matter changes with high lactate peak in the brain, consistent with mitochondrial encephalopathy | <i>ISCA2</i> | NM_194279:c.229G > A:p.G77S | missense | iron-sulfur cluster assembly 2 homolog | Maps to the only shared haplotype in the extended family. ISCA2 is a member of mitochondrial iron-sulfur cluster (ISC) assembly machinery. Depletion of ISCA2 results in massively swollen mitochondria that are devoid of cristae membranes indicating that it is required for normal mitochondrial biogenesis. Same mutation was identified in other families with identical presentation (Z.N.A.-H., M. Al-Dosary, M. Alfadhel, E.F., M. Alsagob, R. Kenana, R. Almas, O.S. Al-Harazi, H. Al-Hindi, O.I. Malibari, F.B. Almutari, T. Al-Sheddi, S. Tulbah, F. Alhadeq, R. Alamro, A. AlAsmari, M. Almontashri, H. Alshaalan, F.A. Al-Mohanna, D. Colak, N.K., unpublished data). Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 22323289 |

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Table 2. Continued

| ID | Phenotype | Gene | Mutation | Mutation Type | Gene Description | Supporting Evidence | Reference |
|---------------------------|---|---------------|----------------------------------|---------------|---|--|----------------|
| 13DG0215 | global developmental delay, hearing loss, and ataxia | <i>PTRH2</i> | NM_016077.3:c.254A > C:p.Q85P | missense | peptidyl-tRNA hydrolase 2 | Null mice show ataxia and weakness; tissue examination revealed delayed development. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 18218778 |
| 08DG0048510DG070313DG1542 | (08DG00485) global developmental delay, severe dystonia, and congenital cataract (10DG0703) global developmental delay and congenital cataract (13DG1542) global developmental delay, congenital cataract, tubulopathy, and severe osteopenia | <i>GEMIN4</i> | NM_015721:c.2452T > C:p.W818R | missense | gem (nuclear organelle) associated protein 4 | Maps to the only shared haplotype in the three families. GEMIN4 is part of the SMN complex, and reduced SMN protein results in spinal muscular atrophy. Supported by a single linkage peak. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 11914277 |
| 13DG1549 | intellectual disability and epilepsy | <i>MYOCD</i> | NM_001146312:c.1252A > G:p.I418V | missense | myocardin | Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 12867591 |
| 13DG0274 | global developmental delay, typical Joubert syndrome, MRI findings | <i>PDPR</i> | NM_017990:c.1360G > T:p.G454C | missense | pyruvate dehydrogenase phosphatase regulatory subunit | Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | |
| 10DG0934 | cerebellar vermis hypoplasia, Dandy-Walker malformation, hydrocephalus, developmental delay | <i>DPH1</i> | NM_001383.3:c.701T > C:p.L234P | missense | diphthamide biosynthesis 1 | Diphthamide is a unique posttranslationally modified histidine found only in translation elongation factor-2 (eEF2), which is linked to spinocerebellar ataxia. Diphthamide modification of eEF2 is essential for normal mouse development. Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | PMID: 18765564 |
| 11DG0417 | global developmental delay, light complexion, early onset focal segmental glomerulosclerosis | <i>NUP107</i> | NM_020401:c.303G > A:p.M101I | splice site | nucleoporin 107 kDa | Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | |
| 14DG0221 | cerebellar atrophy, hydrocephalus, and global developmental (cognitive, speech, and motor) delay | <i>TMEM92</i> | NM_001168215:c.95+3A > G | splice site | transmembrane protein 92 | Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | |

(Continued on next page)

Table 2. Continued

| ID | Phenotype | Gene | Mutation | Mutation Type | Gene Description | Supporting Evidence | Reference |
|----------|---|------------------|-------------------------------|---------------|--|--|-----------|
| 10DG0840 | spastic paraplegia, failure to thrive. | <i>EPB41L4A</i> | NM_022140:c.1298C > T:p.S433L | missense | erythrocyte membrane protein band 4.1 like 4A | Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | |
| 12DG0321 | coarse facial features (open mouth, bilateral ptosis, and hypertelorism), scoliosis, pectus excavatum, skin laxity, hypotonia, GERD, chronic lung disease, undescended testicles. | <i>FAM120AOS</i> | NM_198841:c.743C > T:p.T248I | missense | family with sequence similarity 120A opposite strand | Only surviving variant and segregates in family. | |

mutations, ten are truncating or located at splice sites. For the missense changes, we determined pathogenicity based on the in silico prediction of at least two established algorithms, as well as 3D modeling of wild-type and mutant residues whenever structure information on homologous proteins was available (Figure S2). Our minimum threshold for assigning candidacy to a gene was that the variant had to be the only one to survive the stringent pipeline illustrated in Figure 2. A total of 37 cases remain “unsolved,” some because more than one variant survived our filters. Table S1 lists these, and it is important to note that some of these variants may indeed represent bona fide novel disease genes.

In addition, WES revealed what appears to be phenotypes that have not been described for the respective genes in 16 cases (Table 1). One striking example is case 10DG0672 in which we identified a previously reported homozygous mutation in *NPC2*, a known gene for Nieman-Pick disease. Neither the index nor his sibling had the typical presentation of progressive neurodegeneration or hepatosplenomegaly, thus making the diagnosis of Nieman-Pick nearly impossible on clinical grounds. Finally, WES also revealed mutations in known genes for cases with classical phenotypes, where the gene was missed either due to a pitfall in autozygosity mapping or incomplete phenotyping (nine cases, discussed above) or because the phenotype was not well described in the literature as in two instances. The first such instance is *MGAT2*-related dysmorphism, which had only been documented by a single photograph (Cormier-Daire et al., 2000). The second instance involves *CTSD*, which was described as causing congenital neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis when, in fact, the detailed description of the case was severe microlissencephaly and hyperekplexia, which is identical to the phenotype of our case 09DG00288 (Fritchie et al., 2009). Overall, the yield of WES in our cohort was 105 out of 143 (73.4%).

Although we used autozygosity mapping coupled with WES, an alternative strategy is to simply use the mapping information provided by WES analysis. Although most autozygous regions can indeed be inferred by this second strategy, we had previously shown that the use of high-throughput genotyping results in cleaner ROH data with sharper overall resolution (Carr et al., 2013).

3D Modeling of Missense Variants to Support Pathogenicity

3D modeling was performed for selected gene products using the web-based homology modeling engine Phyre2 (Kelley and Sternberg, 2009). Four of the models were built with very high confidence and suggested a pathogenic nature for the identified mutations. In the case of *TUBA3E*, the model was built based on the structure of tubulin alpha-3E (PDB ID: 3EDL) (Tan et al., 2008) that shares 97% sequence identity with the *TUBA3E* gene product (Figure S2A). The R215C mutation changes the charge distribution on the surface of the protein. Although not participating in microtubule formation (Tan et al., 2008), this site might be involved in the binding of microtubule to other proteins or cofactors. The structure of the gene product of *TSEN15*, human tRNA splicing endonuclease, has been solved by nuclear magnetic resonance (Song and Markley, 2007) (PDB ID: 2GW6). The

conserved W76 is embedded inside the protein and is critical in protein folding (Figure S2B). Mutation of W76G would leave a void in the core of the protein and very likely lead to misfolded proteins. PTRH2 encodes peptidyl-tRNA hydrolase 2. The crystal structure of a domain of PTRH2 has been solved (PDB ID: 1QSR). The observed mutation at Q85 is located in the middle of a helix and forms a hydrogen bond with the side chain of T157 (Figure S2C). Mutation of Q85P would destabilize PTRH2 as it would disrupt the hydrogen bond. Furthermore, the mutation to a proline may cause a kink in the helix and distort the overall fold of the structure. Iron-sulfur cluster assembly 2, or ISCA2, was also modeled with the structure of its homolog of IscA from *Thermosynechococcus elongatus* (PDB ID: 1X0G), which is a α 2 β 2 heterotetramer. ISCA2 has modest sequence identity (27% to PDB ID: 1X0G) to the α chain of the IscA. However, Phyre2 predicted the same structural fold with 100% confidence. The protein is involved in the maturation of iron-sulfur proteins. According to the model, the G77S mutation occurs in a loop that is directly involved in iron-sulfur cluster binding by providing a chelating cysteine, C79 (Figure S2D). We speculate that such a mutation might affect the stability or flexibility of the loop and therefore interfere with its efficiency of binding to the iron-sulfur cluster.

DISCUSSION

Several attempts have been made in the recent past to accelerate the discovery of novel neurological disease genes. One of the earliest attempts was the high-throughput Sanger sequencing of all coding exons on the X chromosome in a large cohort of >200 families with suspected X-linked intellectual disability (Tarpey et al., 2009). In addition to the laborious nature of this approach, the yield was somewhat modest (three novel genes) partly because enrichment for novel gene discovery was not feasible, and also partly due to a large proportion of X-linked disease genes having already been established (de Brouwer et al., 2007). High-resolution molecular karyotyping is a powerful tool to identify a large number of DNA gains and losses that are associated with various neurological phenotypes, but the yield is typically <15%, and it rarely identifies single genes due to the nature of the assay (Miller et al., 2010). Morrow et al. used autozygosity mapping in nearly 90 consanguineous families with autism, followed by Sanger sequencing of candidate genes within the linked ROH, to identify five novel autism genes (Morrow et al., 2008). The lower yield of that study likely originates from the use of conventional sequencing methods, coupled with the potentially non-Mendelian behavior of autism genes.

The advent of next-generation sequencing has revolutionized the search for Mendelian neurocognitive genes. Rauch et al. and de Ligt et al. studied >150 cases of intellectual disability using a trio-exome design, and, although that approach is compatible with identifying recessive disease genes, they only identified heterozygous de novo mutations, including seven novel genes (de Ligt et al., 2012; Rauch et al., 2012). The known bias of current WES against heterozygous mutations, especially insertions and deletions, as well as the inability of the investigators to enrich their cohort for novel genes are likely explanations for the lower

yield. In 2011, Najmabadi et al. reported the identification of 50 novel candidate genes (Najmabadi et al., 2011). Although that study, similar to ours, combines autozygosity mapping with next-generation sequencing of candidate ROH, their cohort was not enriched for novel gene discovery. Consequently, there were numerous cases that, upon exome sequencing, identified a gene that was classically linked to the clinical presentation (as per their Table 1). More importantly, the pipeline used in that study did not strictly require that the candidate variant be the only one to survive filtering in that family; hence, 24 of their candidate genes (48%) were not the sole surviving variant. Of the remainder, one variant (*HIST3H3*) is present at sufficiently high frequency in our collection of 485 exomes to be excluded (allele frequency 0.0082).

Beyond our analytic pipeline, the candidacy of many of our candidate genes can be corroborated through other lines of evidence. In the case of *INO80*, *KCTD3*, *GEMIN4*, and *ISCA2*, each of these genes maps to the only shared haplotype genome-wide across multiple or extended multiplex families (Figure S3). TUBA3E belongs to a family of proteins that are known to be involved in brain malformation syndromes including lissencephaly, which is present in the affected patient (Figure S4) (Jaglin et al., 2009; Keays et al., 2007; Poirier et al., 2010). As well, TSEN15 belongs to a family of proteins (t-RNA splicing endonucleases) that have been found mutated in patients with pontocerebellar hypoplasia and microcephaly, which is what we observed in our patient (Budde et al., 2008; Cassandrini et al., 2010; Namavar et al., 2011). SPDL1 controls poleward movement of chromosomes along the mitotic spindles, analogous to many of the known primary microcephaly genes that are involved in mitotic spindle regulation (Barisic et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2014); our patient exhibits an extreme reduction in overall brain volume resulting in an almost empty skull (Figure S4). ISCA2 is involved in mitochondrial protein maturation, and depletion of the protein results in massively swollen mitochondria that are devoid of cristae membranes (Sheftel et al., 2012). This is consistent with the mitochondrial encephalopathy detected in our patient. Table 2 summarizes what is known of the 33 candidate genes and available evidence that supports candidacy.

We were unable to identify a causal mutation in 25.9% of cases. Many of these have two or more variants that remained after filtering (Table S1), leaving open the possibility that one of these surviving variants may indeed be causal. Some of these are strong candidates. For instance, case 11DG0375 with brain atrophy has the first reported null mutation in *SNCG*, which encodes synuclein- γ , and, although a role in neurodegeneration has been suspected, such a role has remained elusive (Gretchen-Harrison et al., 2010). Similarly, TRIM4 is a member of a family of proteins that has been implicated in a number of neurological disorders (TRIM2 in Charcot-Marie-Tooth, TRIM32 in Limb-Girdle Muscular Dystrophy, and TRIM18 in Opitz-GBBB (a syndromic form of intellectual disability) (Balastik et al., 2008; Frosk et al., 2002; Quaderi et al., 1997). Thus, the homozygous *TRIM4* truncation we identified in 12DG2083 may prove causal if additional mutations in this gene are identified in the future.

Cases in which no variants survived our filters may harbor classes of mutations that either the sequencing technology or our analysis pipeline are biased against e.g., compound

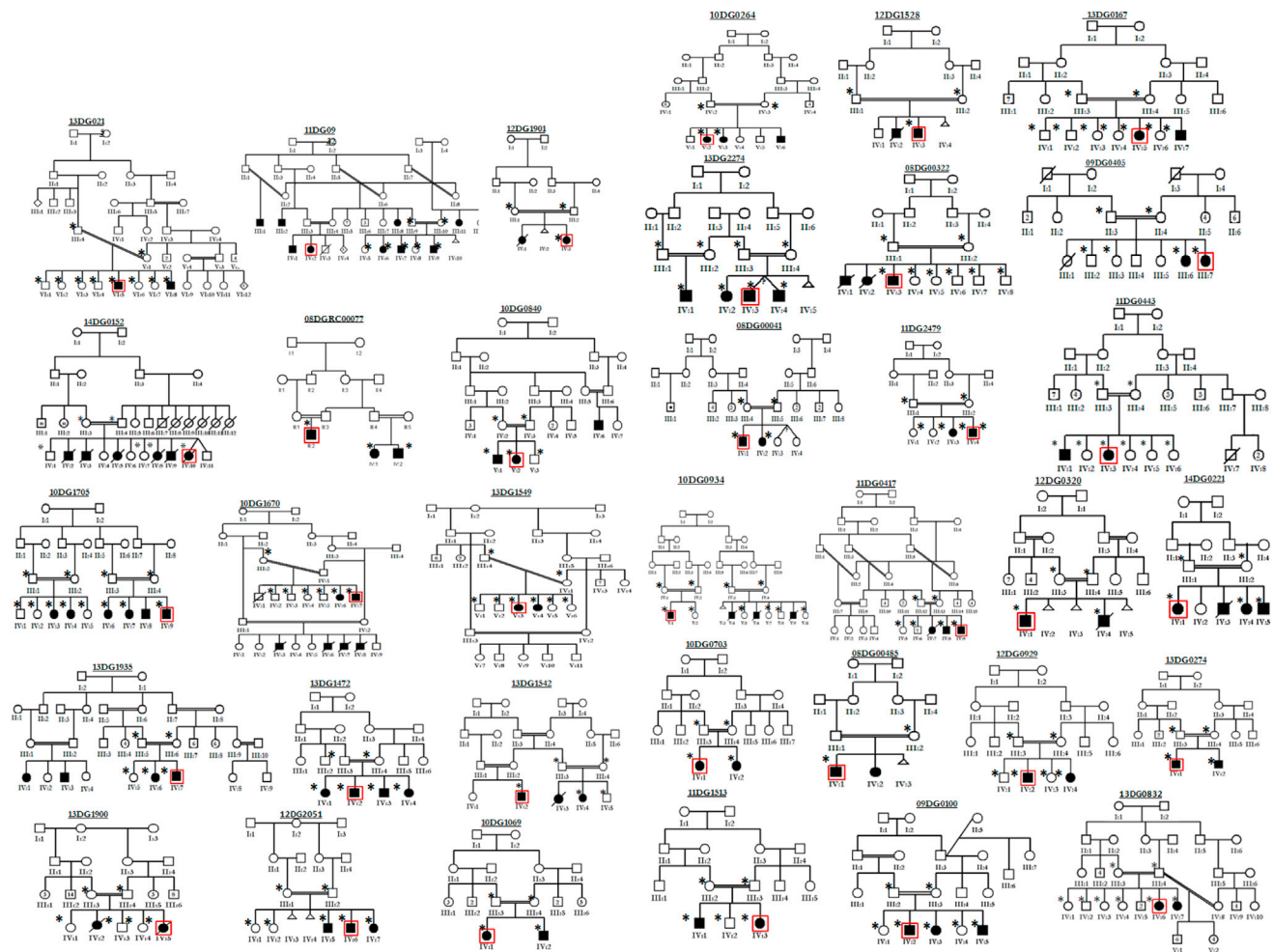


Figure 1. Pedigrees of Families with Novel Candidate Genes following WES Analysis

The family ID is presented above each pedigree. A red box indicates the affected family member who was submitted for WES, and asterisks denote all the family members we had access to for confirming segregation.

heterozygous mutations, X-linked mutations, or mutations involving introns, UTRs, regulatory elements, and repeats. Nonetheless, our study clearly shows the utility of our approach when applied in the right population. Our pipeline as mentioned here has been very successful historically. Many unpublished genes we highlighted as novel and disease causing at the time of data analysis were subsequently published and verified by others, and this lends weight to the candidacy of the genes we report here. Indeed, such reports appeared as recently as a few months from this submission, e.g., *DIAPH1*, *PIGQ*, and *WVOX* (Ercan-Sencicek et al., 2014; Mallaret et al., 2014; Martin et al., 2014). This is also true for certain variants in “unsolved” cases where more than one variant remained, e.g., *SLC13A5* (Thevenon et al., 2014). Our aim in publishing these 33 candidate genes is to accelerate the discovery of other independent mutations, thereby confirming pathogenicity and assisting in genetic diagnosis. Scaling of our study is feasible given the availability of the appropriate patient samples and the dropping cost of sequencing technology, with the promise that all autosomal

recessive neurogenetic disease genes can be mapped within the timeframe required by the global brain initiatives.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Human Subjects

Consanguineous families with history of a neurological disorder were clinically evaluated and recruited for this study using a King Faisal Specialist Hospital and Research Center institutional-review-board-approved protocol (RAC# 2121053) with informed consent. All families were multiplex, and all parents were confirmed to be healthy. Pedigrees of families with the 33 candidate genes are given in Figure 1. For each family, blood was collected in EDTA tubes from all available members, and families were only included if at least one affected individual was available for sampling. DNA was extracted from whole blood using standard protocols.

Autozygome-Guided Mutation Analysis

Genome-wide SNP genotyping and homozygosity mapping was performed using the AxiomGWH SNP Chip platform (Affymetrix). See Supplemental Information for more details. Genes known to cause a neurological disorder compatible with the patients’ phenotype, and present within the autozygome,

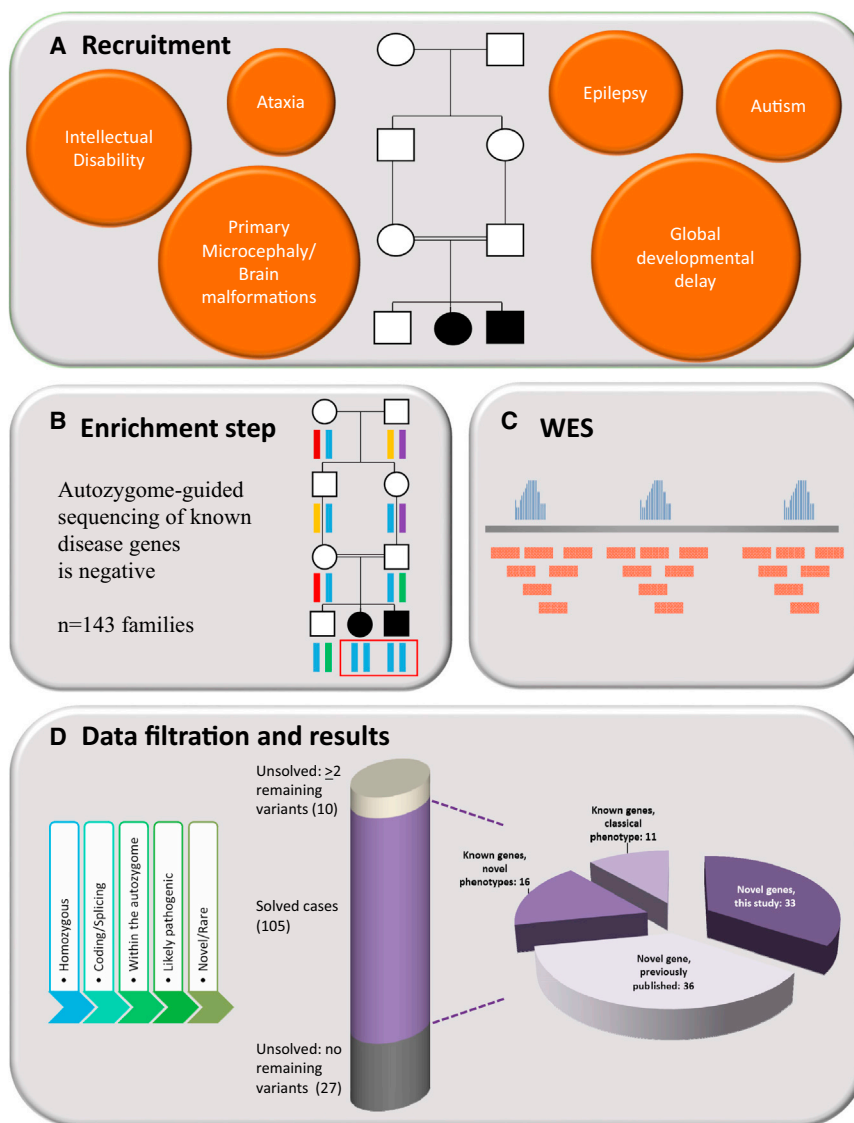


Figure 2. Schematic of the Experimental Pipeline for This Study

A total of 143 multiplex consanguineous families with history of a neurological disorder were found negative for known disease genes following autozygome-guided analysis and were recruited for this study. The bar illustrates the breakdown based on the number of cases, whereas the pie chart is based on the number of distinct genes identified in the solved cases.

were screened by PCR and Sanger sequencing. If no such genes existed, or if they did exist but were excluded by sequencing, exome capture was performed. In total, individuals from 143 families were exome sequenced, and these families formed the cohort for this study.

Exome Sequencing

Exome capture was performed using the TruSeq Exome Enrichment kit (Illumina). See [Supplemental Information](#) for more details. A summary of the quality control data for exome sequencing is provided in [Table S2](#).

Analysis of Exomic Variants

Exome-derived data were filtered according to the schematic in [Figure 2](#). See [Supplemental Information](#) for full details. Segregation was assessed for all surviving variants, using all family members we had access to ([Figure 1](#)).

ACCESSION NUMBERS

All variants within the 143 exomes in this study can be accessed through the following link (part of the Saudi Variome Database): [http://shgp.kfshrc.edu](http://shgp.kfshrc.edu.sa/bioinf/db/variants/dg/index.html).

[sa/bioinf/db/variants/dg/index.html](http://shgp.kfshrc.edu.sa/bioinf/db/variants/dg/index.html). The likely pathogenic variants reported in this study have also been uploaded to ClinVar, and this section will be updated with the corresponding accession number.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes two figures and two tables and can be found with this article online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2014.12.015>.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.M.A. collected and analyzed data and wrote the manuscript, N.P. collected and analyzed data and wrote the manuscript, H.E.S. collected and analyzed data and wrote the manuscript.

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