ARTICLE OPEN

Check for updates

Combined approaches, including long-read sequencing, address the diagnostic challenge of *HYDIN* in primary ciliary dyskinesia

Andrew Fleming¹, Miranda Galey^{2,3}, Lizi Briggs¹, Matthew Edwards ¹, Claire Hogg ^{4,5}, Shibu John¹, Sam Wilkinson¹, Ellie Quinn ¹, Ranjit Rai⁴, Tom Burgoyne^{4,6}, Andy Rogers⁴, Mitali P. Patel^{6,7}, Paul Griffin⁴, Steven Muller¹, Siobhan B. Carr ^{4,5}, Michael R. Loebinger^{4,5}, Jane S. Lucas ^{8,9}, Anand Shah^{4,10}, Ricardo Jose⁴, Hannah M. Mitchison ^{6,7}, Amelia Shoemark^{4,11}, Danny E. Miller ^{2,3,12,13} and Deborah J. Morris-Rosendahl ^{1,5,13 ×}

© Crown 2024

Primary ciliary dyskinesia (PCD), a disorder of the motile cilia, is now recognised as an underdiagnosed cause of bronchiectasis. Accurate PCD diagnosis comprises clinical assessment, analysis of cilia and the identification of biallelic variants in one of 50 known PCD-related genes, including *HYDIN*. *HYDIN*-related PCD is underdiagnosed due to the presence of a pseudogene, *HYDIN2*, with 98% sequence homology to *HYDIN*. This presents a significant challenge for Short-Read Next Generation Sequencing (SR-NGS) and analysis, and many diagnostic PCD gene panels do not include *HYDIN*. We have used a combined approach of SR-NGS with bioinformatic masking of *HYDIN2*, and state-of-the-art long-read Nanopore sequencing (LR_NGS), together with analysis of respiratory cilia including transmission electron microscopy and immunofluorescence to address the underdiagnosis of *HYDIN* as a cause of PCD. Bioinformatic masking of *HYDIN2* after SR-NGS facilitated the detection of biallelic *HYDIN* variants in 15 of 437 families, but compromised the detected a single heterozygous *HYDIN* variant. LR-NGS was also able to confirm true homozygosity in 2 families when parental testing was not possible. Utilising a combined genomic diagnostic approach, biallelic *HYDIN* variants were detected in 17 families from 242 genetically confirmed PCD cases, comprising 7% of our PCD cohort. This represents the largest reported *HYDIN* cohort to date and highlights previous underdiagnosis of *HYDIN*-associated PCD. Moreover this provides further evidence for the utility of LR-NGS in diagnostic testing, particularly for regions of high genomic complexity.

European Journal of Human Genetics (2024) 32:1074-1085; https://doi.org/10.1038/s41431-024-01599-7

INTRODUCTION

Primary ciliary dyskinesia (PCD) comprises a group of genetically heterogenous disorders of the motile (9 + 2) cilia that contributes to a growing number of ciliopathies [1]. There is increasing awareness that PCD is underdiagnosed as a cause of bronchiectasis and therefore its accurate and comprehensive diagnosis is essential [2, 3]. Individuals with PCD present with a spectrum of clinical findings, including neonatal respiratory distress, chronic upper and lower respiratory tract disease, sinus and ear infections, laterality defects, and infertility [4–8]. Phenotypic heterogeneity, influenced by the underlying genetic cause, is observed among individuals with PCD [4]. Recent work has estimated the global

prevalence of PCD is approximately 1:7500 individuals, although the prevalence has been shown to vary greatly among different populations [9].

PCD is almost exclusively an autosomal recessive condition, however, rare X-linked forms and an autosomal dominant form have been reported [10]. Currently, pathogenic variants in at least 50 genes encoding various components of the cilia as well as trafficking proteins are known to cause the condition [11–13]. Pathogenic variants in these genes usually cause associated defects in the axonemal ultrastructure of the motile cilia, or, more rarely, reduced cilia numbers [13]. Disruption in these cilia components typically causes defects in ciliary motility and

Received: 11 December 2023 Revised: 8 March 2024 Accepted: 18 March 2024 Published online: 11 April 2024

¹Clinical Genetics and Genomics Laboratory, Royal Brompton and Harefield Hospitals, Guy's and St. Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust, London SW3 6NP, UK. ²Division of Genetic Medicine, Department of Pediatrics, University of Washington and Seattle Children's Hospital, Seattle, WA, USA. ³Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathology, University of Washington and Seattle Children's Hospital, Seattle, WA, USA. ³Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathology, University of Washington and Seattle Children's Hospital, Seattle, WA 98105, USA. ⁴Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia Centre, Royal Brompton and Harefield Clinical Group, Guy's and St. Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust, London SW3 6NP, UK. ⁵National Heart and Lung Institute, Imperial College London, London SW3 6LY, UK. ⁶Genetics and Genomic Medicine Department, University College London, UCL Great Ormond Street Institute of Child Health, London WC1N 1EH, UK. ⁷MRC Prion Unit at UCL, Institute of Prion Diseases, UCL, London W1W 7FF, UK. ⁸Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia Centre, University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation Trust, Southampton SO16 6YD, UK. ⁹Clinical and Experimental Sciences Academic Unit, University of Southampton Faculty of Medicine, Southampton SO16 6YD, UK. ¹⁰MRC Centre of Global Infectious Disease Analysis, Department of Infectious Disease Epidemiology, School of Public Health, Imperial College London, London W2 1PG, UK. ¹¹Respiratory Research Group, Molecular and Cellular Medicine, University of Dundee, DD1 9SY, UK. ¹²Brotman Baty Institute for Precision Medicine, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195, USA. ¹³These authors jointly supervised this work: Danny E. Miller, Deborah J. Morris-Rosendahl. ^{Semanlic} d.morris-rosendahl@rbht.nhs.uk

waveform that characterise the motile ciliary dysfunction observed in individuals with PCD. Of note, some genes, such as *DNAH11* [14], are known to be associated with normal axonemal ultrastructure, often due to subtle defects that are missed by clinical transmission electron microscopy (TEM).

In view of the highly variable clinical phenotypes and genetically heterogenous ciliary disruptions observed in PCD, diagnosis requires a specialist multidisciplinary approach. Current guidelines for PCD diagnosis recommend integration of nasal nitric oxide concentration measurement, cilia structure-function assessment by high-speed video microscopy analysis (HSVMA), immunofluorescence (IF), TEM and genotyping [15, 16].

Currently, a genetic diagnosis is made in up to 75% of clinically confirmed cases, following detailed clinical and cilia studies [12]. Although PCD is genetically heterogeneous, it is well documented that pathogenic variants in some genes are observed more frequently than in others, although this distribution differs between populations [9, 17]. For example, biallelic variants in *DNAH11* and *DNAH5* are the most common causes of PCD in Europe, accounting for ~30% of genetically confirmed cases [9]. Mutations in *CCDC39*, *CCDC40* and *DNA11* are also recognised as common causes of PCD whilst mutations in the remaining PCD-associated genes are identified more rarely [9, 12, 18].

The HYDIN gene was first described in mice as a recessive cause of hydrocephalus, with its expression localised to the motile cilia [19]. HYDIN encodes the Hydrocephalus-inducing protein homologue and its expression within the motile cilia was further localised to a single projection from the C2 microtubule of the central pair apparatus, called C2b [20, 21]. The motile cilia in homozygous HYDIN mutant mice are reported to be unable to bend fully and thus have a significantly reduced cilia beat frequency, which leads to impaired fluid flow in the brain and the development of hydrocephalus [21, 22]. In addition, similar ciliary beat defects were observed in mouse tracheal cilia, suggestive of a potential role for HYDIN as a cause of PCD [21, 22].

HYDIN (OMIM 610812), located on chromosome 16g22.2 in humans [19], encodes the HYDIN axonemal central pair apparatus protein and biallelic HYDIN variants cause PCD in humans [22-25]. Unlike most other PCD genes, recessive HYDIN variants do not cause laterality defects, but do otherwise present with typical clinical findings associated with PCD. When observed by HSVMA, cilia on nasal epithelial cells from patients with HYDIN variants show abnormal axonemal bending, as observed in mouse models, which results in a twisting/rotating appearance similar to the beat pattern of 9 + 0 nodal cilia, which lack a central pair complex [22]. Although loss of the C2b projections also occurs in these patients, the small size of this projection from the central pair complex means that it is rarely possible to visualise this absence on TEM, although this is possible to demonstrate using 3D electron microscopy tomography [22]. In clinical screening, IF must be used instead [22]. However, there is a lack of commercially available antibodies for the HYDIN protein within C2b. In addition to C2b, the central pair complex is known to have 6 further projections, including C1b, which anchors the C2b projection to the C1 microtubule [26]. It has been shown that a component of the C1b projection, Sperm Flagellar 2 encoded by the SPEF2 gene, associates directly with HYDIN, and that loss of HYDIN causes concurrent loss of SPEF2. Consequently, IF using antibodies for SPEF2 has been found to be informative for patients with HYDIN variants, where loss of SPEF2 staining is apparent [27].

Humans carry a paralogous copy of *HYDIN* named *HYDIN2* (OMIM 610813, HYDIN axonemal central pair apparatus protein 2) located on chromosome 1q21.2 [28]. This 360 kb duplication includes exons 6–84 of the *HYDIN* gene, with only the first 5 and final 2 exons being unique. The level of homology between the duplicated exons of *HYDIN* and *HYDIN2* exceeds 98% across the entire region [28]. The presence of *HYDIN2* introduces problems with genetic analysis, since the shared homologous regions make it difficult to design

PCR primers that uniquely amplify target regions, to create probes to capture regions of interest for short-read sequencing, or to uniquely map short reads after sequencing. Due to this genomic complexity, *HYDIN* is not included in many PCD diagnostic gene panels [27, 29]. These challenges along with the lack of laterality defects, absence of clearcut diagnostic cilia structural defects, and relative preservation of cilia motility in affected individuals all contribute to the underdiagnosis of *HYDIN*-related PCD.

Short-read sequencing technology is generally limited in its ability to identify structural variants, to sequence repetitive regions, to phase alleles, and to distinguish highly homologous genomic regions [30]. We hypothesised that the relatively low number of pathogenic variants in *HYDIN* reported in individuals with PCD may be due to technical and analytical difficulties in analysing *HYDIN* because of its similarity with *HYDIN2*; and that long-read sequencing (LRS) could be used to identify missing disease-causing variants in these cases [31, 32]. In this paper, we use a combination of short-read and long-read sequencing to identify likely disease-causing variants in *HYDIN* in 17 families who lacked a precise genetic diagnosis, comprising 7% of our PCD diagnostic cohort.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS Individuals and samples

The study cohort comprised individuals with a clinical suspicion of PCD, from 437 families who had been referred for molecular genetic diagnostic testing and, in most cases, analysis of their respiratory cilia. All patients were recruited at the Royal Brompton Hospital and provided written informed consent for genetic testing and the use of their data for research. Ethics approval for genetic studies was obtained from the NHS Health Research Authority, IRAS project ID: 103488 and London-Bloomsbury Research Ethics Committee (REC) reference: 08/H0713/82. DNA was extracted from peripheral EDTA blood or saliva from patients using the QIAGEN EZ1 Advanced XL or QIAGEN QIAsymphony instrument, following the manufacturer's protocol.

Cilia diagnostics

Following a detailed assessment of clinical features and presentation, nasal nitric oxide levels were measured in all individuals >5 years old by chemiluminescence (Logan 2500, Logan Sinclair, Kent, UK) or for patients after 2020 electrochemically (Niox Vero, Circassia). Readings from each nostril were recorded during velum closure manoeuvres (breath holding or breathing against a resistance) and the average value recorded in ppb. Where possible results were converted to nl/min for reporting, or if conversion was not possible (for tidal nasal nitric oxide measurements) results were ported in ppb. All patients underwent a nasal brushing for PCD diagnosis and ALI cell culture was set up as described in Supplementary Material.

High-speed video microscopy was performed on fresh epithelial strips in a chamber slide at 37 °C using a 100× oil immersion objective and Leica upright microscope (DM-LB) with high-speed video camera (Troubleshooter TS-5 Fastec imaging) as described in supplementary material. Ten strips of ciliated epithelium were recorded, including top and side views, and assessed by a diagnostic scientist for beat pattern and frequency as previously described [33]. Samples were subsequently fixed in cacodylate buffered 2.5% glutaraldehyde for transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Electron microscopy was conducted as previously described and summarised in Supplementary Material. 300 ciliary cross sections were counted per section and results reported according to the BEAT-PCD TEM consensus guideline [34]. In cases where variants in *HYDIN* were suspected as a cause, advanced TEM techniques were employed to visualise the C2b projection. These included electron tomography [22] or image averaging via an inhouse developed program (PCD detect) [34].

Samples taken after 2020 were air dried onto slides and stained for SPEF2 by immunofluorescence (supplementary material). Ten cells were assessed per sample, and the co-localisation of SPEF2 protein with acetylated tubulin of the ciliary axoneme was recorded as present or absent.

Genetic diagnosis

Targeted short-read next generation sequencing. Targeted short-read NGS (SR-NGS) was performed on a custom 182-gene panel, using Agilent

1076

SureSelect QXT library preparation and sequencing on a NextSeg550 platform (Illumina, San Diego, USA). Library preparation used a paired-end protocol, resulting in fragment lengths between 150-300 bp. Negative controls were added to each library prep to ensure minimal contamination occurred. Sequence data from targeted SR-NGS was analysed using an automated in-house bioinformatics pipeline (details provided in supplementary material). For individuals from all 437 families, first line SR-NGS analysis was targeted to 47 genes associated with PCD, including all coding exons of the HYDIN gene. The HYDIN2 region (chr1:146472566-146914294, GRCh38 reference) was programmatically masked using bedtools v2.27.0 maskfasta feature, so that all four alleles of HYDIN and HYDIN2 were aligned to HYDIN. Variants were filtered and classified according to in-house decision trees, which included multiple parameters, such as allele frequency in the gnomAD database (http:// exac.broadinstitute.org; www.gnomad.org), presence in HGMD, presence in our in-house variant database, ClinVar (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ clinvar/) and PubMed (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/). Missense variants were assessed for their effect on protein structure and function using SIFT, Polyphen2, LRT, Grantham score, MutationTaster, MutationAssessor and FATHMM. NNSplice, MaxEntScan, SpliceSiteFinder-like and SpliceAl [35] were used to assess the impact of variants potentially affecting splicing. Copy number variants (CNVs) were called from SR-NGS data using an ISO15189-accredited and validated in-house method based on read-depth analyses of all targeted exons (further bioinformatic details are provided in supplementary material).

Manual review and final variant classification was performed by a Clinical Scientist according to the ACMG/AMP guidelines [36] with subsequent modifications [37, 38]. The results of all clinical, cilia and genetic tests were discussed at a monthly multidisciplinary meeting.

Targeted long-read sequencing. Long-read sequencing (LRS) was performed on the Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) platform for individuals from 4 families where SR-NGS alone was unable to confirm a genetic diagnosis. Libraries for sequencing were prepared using the Oxford Nanopore ligation kit (SQK-LSK110; further details provided in Supplementary Materials and Methods). Libraries for targeted LRS (T-LRS) were loaded onto a R9.4.1 flow cell on a Nanopore GridlON running MinKNOW version 21.10.8. Adaptive sampling was performed using ReadFish to target *HYDIN* (chr16:70300000–71700000) and *HYDIN2* (chr1:146000000–147000000), as well as two control regions (*COL1A1*, chr17:50000000–50250000 and *FMR1*, chrX:147800000–14800 0000) using GRCh38 as the reference (https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/ 33257864/).

Raw sequencing data was base called with Guppy 5.0.12 (ONT) using the super accurate (SUP) model with 5mC modification detection. FASTQs were generated from unaligned bam files using Samtools Fastq [39] and aligned to GRCh38 using minimap2 [40]. Depth of coverage for *HYDIN* and *HYDIN2* was calculated using Samtools depth. Single nucleotide and indel variants were called using Clair3 [41] then phased using LongPhase using variant calls from Clair3 [42]. Single nucleotide (SNVs) and indel variants were annotated using VEP [43] including CADD and SpliceAl scores as well as allele frequency from gnomad version 3 [44, 45]. Structural variants (SVs) were called using Sniffles2, CuteSV, and SVIM [46–48]. Variants in *HYDIN* with allele frequencies in gnomad less than 1% or that had never been observed before as well as all SVs were prioritised for analysis. Compelling variants were visualised using IGV [49].

Targeted variant testing and primer design. Targeted testing for SNVs and indels identified by both SR-NGS and LRS was performed using bidirectional Sanger sequencing (details provided in supplementary material). Any potential CNVs identified by SR-NGS and LRS were confirmed by digital droplet PCR (ddPCR) (BioRad, CA, USA) (supplementary material).

RESULTS

Characteristics of the cohort

A clinical diagnosis of PCD was based on nasal nitric oxide measurement and a history or presence of clinical features such as neonatal respiratory distress in a term infant, chronic productive wet cough, bronchiectasis, rhinorrhoea, and serous otitis media. Some individuals had cilia analysis on nasal brushing samples (Table 1). As previously described for PCD caused by pathogenic variants in *HYDIN*, none of the individuals in the families found to

have at least one pathogenic variant in *HYDIN* presented with laterality defects.

Short read NGS to identify pathogenic variants in HYDIN

A custom panel was used to evaluate individuals from all 437 families, and this identified potentially disease-causing variants in one of the 47 PCD-associated genes in 242 families. Candidate pathogenic variants in *HYDIN* were found in 17 unrelated families comprising 29 affected individuals (Fig. 1, Table 2). Sixteen individuals from 11 of these families were compound heterozygous for the identified variants in *HYDIN*, while 13 individuals in six families where consanguinity was known or suspected, were homozygous for a single variant. Where possible, parental testing was performed to phase the identified variants (Fig. 1, Table 2). The majority of *HYDIN* variants identified in these families were truncating or splice-site variants that were classified as pathogenic or likely pathogenic based on ACMG criteria [36]. Three missense and one potential splice variant were classified as variants of uncertain significance (VUS).

Consistent with the high sequence homology between HYDIN and HYDIN2, the majority of variants detected in our cohort were in exons present in both genes and thus demonstrated skewed allele balance by SR-NGS. Of the 24 different HYDIN variants reported here, only c.283C>T p.(Gln95Ter) in family 10 and c.15037_15048delinsGATGATAT p.(Tyr5013_Pro5016delinsAspAsplle) in families 1 and 2 were within sequences unique to HYDIN, being located in exons 4 and 86 respectively. These variants had allelic ratios of approximately 50%, as assessed by SR-NGS and Sanger sequencing. Due to the masking of HYDIN2 prior to read alignment, the majority of the remaining variants demonstrated skewed allelic balances in SR-NGS and Sanger sequencing (Fig. 2A variant c.1529del, B, F), with a heterozygous variant present in 25% of reads rather than 50% (Fig. 2C) and a homozygous variant being present in 50% of reads rather than 100% (Fig. 2D). For a small number of variants it was possible to design primers utilising known sequence differences between HYDIN and HYDIN2, to produce HYDIN-specific sequencing and a normal 50% level of heterozygous allelic balance (Fig. 2A, variant c.8487 8489delinsCA).

Of the HYDIN variants identified, only three have previously been reported in individuals with PCD (c.6669+1G>A [24], c.10012G>T [17] and c.1147C>T [50]) (Table 2). Of the previously reported variants, only the c.6669+1G>A variant is present in population databases (15/398,136 alleles in gnomAD, v2 and v3) and was detected in two families in our cohort, indicating it is likely a relatively common pathogenic HYDIN variant. Even within our large cohort of HYDIN PCD families, only two variants, the c.6669+1G>A variant and the previously unreported c.1529del variant, were identified in more than one family (Table 2), suggesting that most disease-causing HYDIN variants are likely to be private. In families 1 and 2, who were both referred to our laboratory from Northern Ireland, the same homozygous in-frame indel variant, c.15037 15048delinsGATGATATA, was found. Although these families are not known to be closely related, they are all part of the same Irish traveller community, suggesting it may represent a founder variant in this population.

As previously observed in *HYDIN*, as well as in other genes associated with PCD, the majority of variants reported in these families were loss-of-function variants (~85%), with missense variants being observed only in families 5, 7, and 15. Of note, in family 5, no truncating variants were detected, and both affected siblings were found to be compound heterozygous for two missense variants in *HYDIN*, c.1949G>A and c.3640A>G (Fig. 2B). Nasal brushing TEM and HSVM results were consistent with a *HYDIN* phenotype, as a complete loss of *SPEF2* staining was observed by IF and absence of the C2b projection of the central pair microtubular complex was observed by 3D tomography in the affected siblings (Table 1, Fig. 3A–C). Moreover, the typical

A. Fleming et al.

Family	Individual	Age at presentation	Clinical findings	Clinical laboratory testing	
Family 1	II:4	22 years	Bronchiectasis, recurrent LRTI, chronic productive cough	- NNO: 152.5 nl/min - HSVM: Stiff with mixed beat pattern	
	III:3	Birth	Respiratory distress at birth, LRTI's, bronchiolitis, chronic wet cough, glue ear, rhinitis	 NNO: 26ppb (tidal) HSVM: Stiff and uncoordinated with circling observed EM: Normal ultrastructure with 'smudging' of central pairs 	
	III:4	Birth	Respiratory distress at birth, LRTI's, rhinitis	 NNO: 66ppb (tidal) HSVM: Stiff and uncoordinated with circling observed 	
	III:5	Birth	Respiratory distress at birth, LRTI's, ear infections	 HSVM: Stiff and uncoordinated EM: Normal ultrastructure with 'smudging' of central pairs 	
	III:6	Birth	Chronic productive cough, LRTI's	- HSVM: Stiff and uncoordinated	
Family 2	II:5	Unknown	Bronchiectasis and LRTI	- NNO: 29 nl/min	
	ll:6	Unknown		 NNO: 29 nl/min HSVM: Predominantly stiff, reduced beat amplitude and weak residual movement 	
Family 3	ll:1	Unknown	Wet cough, recurrent otitis media. Hearing problems	 HSVM: Stiff and reduced beat amplitude some subtle rotation EM: Absence of some central pairs 	
	II:2	Unknown	Chronic productive cough, glue ear	 NNO: 80 nl/min HSVM: Stiff and reduced beat amplitude some subtle rotation 	
Family 4	II:1	3 years	Chronic bronchiectasis and rhinosinusitis	 NNO: 50 nl/min HSVM: Dyskinetic with a circling beat pattern EM: Disarrangement 	
	II:2	5 years	Bronchiectasis, rhinorrhoea	- Not undertaken	
Family 5	II:1	Birth	Chronic wet cough, Rhinitis	 NNO:25 nl/min HSVM: Dyskinetic with a circling beat pattern EM: Absence of some central pairs IF: Loss of SPEF2 staining 	
	II:2	Birth	Neonatal pneumonia, chronic wet cough, LRTI's, ear infections, rhinorrhoea	 NNO:15/min HSVM: Dyskinetic with a circling beat pattern EM: Absence of some central pairs IF: Loss of <i>SPEF2</i> staining Tomography: Absence of C2b protein 	
Family 6	II:1	Unknown	Bronchiectasis, Type II respiratory failure	- Not undertaken	
Family 7	ll:1	12	Bronchiectasis	 NNO: 16 nl/min HSVM: Stuff with circling patches EM: Normal ultrastructure IF: Loss of SPEF2 staining 	
	II:2	5	Bronchiectasis, rhinitis	- Not undertaken	
Family 8	II:1	Birth	Respiratory distress, ear infections, rhinitis, glue ear and impaired hearing	 NNO: 11 nl/min HSVM: Stiff and uncoordinated beat with circling observed EM: Normal ultrastructure Tomography: Absence of C2b protein 	
Family 9	II:1	Birth	Bronchiectasis	 HSVM: Stiff and uncoordinated beat with circling observed EM: Absence of some central pairs 	
Family 10	ll:1	Birth	Bronchiolitis, glue ear, chronic wet cough	 NNO: 38 nl/min HSVM: Dyskinetic with circling observed EM: Normal ultrastructure IF: Loss of SPEF2 staining 	
Family 11	ll:1	Birth	Bronchiectasis, rhinitis, glue ear	- NNO: 11 nl/min - HSVM: Stiff and dyskinetic - EM: Normal ultrastructure	

Table 1. Phenotypic information and results of clinical diagnostic testing in affected individuals from the 17 families reported here.

Table 1. continued							
Family	Individual	Age at presentation	Clinical findings	Clinical laboratory testing			
Family 12	II:1	Birth	Bronchiectasis, chronic sinusitis and poor hearing	 NNO: 15 nl/min HSVM: Stiff and dyskinetic with a circling beat pattern EM: Absence of some central pairs IF: Loss of SPEF2 staining 			
Family 13	II:1	27	Mild bronchiectasis, chronic rhinosinusitis, polyps, glue ear, fertility difficulties	- NNO: 6 nl/min - HSVM: Uncoordinated, stiff - EM: Normal ultrastructure			
	II:2	29	Bronchiectasis, ear infections, glue ear, fertility difficulties	 NNO: 42 nl/min HSVM: Uncoordinated, stiff, weak residual movement, occasional rotation EM: Normal Ultrastructure IF: SPEF2 present 			
Family 14	ll:1	Unkown	Rhinorrhoea, chronic productive cough	 NNO: 4 nl/min HSVM: Stiff with circling observed EM: Normal ultrastructure IF: Loss of SPEF2 staining 			
Family 15	II:1	3 years	Chronic productive cough	- NNO: 170 nl/min - HSVM: Stiff with circling observed - EM: Absence of some central pairs			
Family 16	II:1	13 years	Bronchiectasis	- NNO: 14 - HSVM: Circling observed - EM: Normal ultrastructure			
Family 17	II:1	Unknown	Chronic wet cough, bilateral hearing aids	- NNO: 31ppb (tidal) - HSVM: Stiff with circling observed - EM: Normal ultrastructure			

NNO Nasal Nitric Oxide, HSVM High Speed Videomicroscopy, EM Electron Microscopy, LRTI Lower Respiratory Tract Infections.

rotational beat pattern of HYDIN-deficient cilia was observed (Supplementary Fig. 1). Although these variants were both classified as VUS, in the absence of other *HYDIN* variants in these siblings, we consider these variants likely to be the cause of their PCD. Separately, the proband in family 12 was found to be compound heterozygous for two variants, each affecting splicing: the previously reported c.6669+1G>A variant and a deeper intronic variant, c.5789-39A>G. Splice prediction tools, including SpliceAl, suggested that the c.5789-39A>G variant would create a new splice acceptor site in intron 36, which would lead to the inclusion of an additional 38 nucleotides in the transcript, introducing a frameshift and likely inducing nonsense-mediated decay. The inclusion of additional intronic sequence to the beginning of exon 37 was confirmed in cDNA from the patient.

Clarifying previously identified variants using long-read sequencing

In the absence of parental samples to confirm phasing in Family 8, targeted LRS was used to confirm homozygosity for the c.12444-1G>A variant. Figure 4A shows the presence of the homozygous G>A change in HYDIN at c.12444-1 (represented as C>T). This is consistent with the 46%:54% C:T allelic ratio observed in Fig. 2D, with approximately half of the reads contributed by HYDIN2 (due to the masked alignment), which has a normal C at this position. SR-NGS of proband II:1 in family 16 identified a homozygous frameshift variant, c.7214_7215del p.(Ser2405CysfsTer2), and a heterozygous frameshift variant, c.7956dup p.(Glu2653ArgfsTer26), both of which occurred in a region of high homology between the two genes. Homozygosity for the c.7214_7215del was consistent with the reported consanguinity in the family, and we considered it highly unlikely that only one parent had both the c.7214_7215del and c.7956dup variants in cis. This suggested that one of the two variants may be in HYDIN2. The proband's mother

was found to be heterozygous for the c.7214_7215del variant and not the c.7956dup variant by Sanger sequencing, however, paternal testing was not possible. Using targeted LRS, we confirmed that the proband was indeed homozygous for the c.7214_7215del variant in *HYDIN* and that the c.7956dup was present in *HYDIN2*.

Long-read sequencing to identify missing disease-causing variants

First-line SR-NGS testing in the probands of families 11 (II:1) and 13 (II:1 and II:2) detected a single likely pathogenic variant in HYDIN: c.2419_2422del p.(Val807llefsTer13) in family 11 and c.1095del p.(Phe365LeufsTer64) in the two affected siblings in family 13 (Fig. 2E, F, Table 2). Due to the high clinical suspicion for PCD, we questioned whether these families harboured variants that were difficult to detect by prior testing approaches. Targeted LRS was therefore used to identify second hits, both CNVs, in both families (Fig. 4B, C). This approach resulted in approximately $2-5\times$ enrichment of the target regions, with coverage of both HYDIN and the pseudogene HYDIN2, and allowed us to evaluate the region for candidate pathogenic variants in HYDIN (Supplementary Table 1). In family 11 a heterozygous likely pathogenic 1678bp deletion that included the 36th coding exon of HYDIN (chr16:70963530-70965207) was identified that would result in a frameshift and subsequent premature termination codon early in exon 37. In family 13 a heterozygous 9900-bp deletion that included the 17th coding exon of *HYDIN* (chr16:71051501-71061418) was found. While the exon 17 deletion is in-frame it would remove 50 highly conserved amino acids, and therefore it is likely to alter protein function. Both deletions were confirmed by ddPCR of the relevant exons. Exons 17 and 36 both lie within a region of high homology between HYDIN and HYDIN2 and were not detected by initial SR-NGS CNV analysis, due to the skewed allelic balance resulting from the masking of HYDIN2.



Fig. 1 Pedigrees of the 17 families in whom *HYDIN* **variants were found to be causative of PCD.** The variants identified in each of the families are listed with each pedigree (**a**–**q**). Circle: Female; Square: Male; Filled symbols: confirmed clinical diagnosis of PCD; Half-filled symbols: clinical suspicion of PCD; Dot symbol: Carrier; Slash through: Deceased; +/+: homozygous variant; +/-: heterozygous variant; -/-: reference genotype.

DISCUSSION

In a cohort of 437 unrelated families referred for genetic testing with a clinical diagnosis or strong clinical suspicion of PCD, we were able to diagnose 29 affected individuals from 17 unrelated families as carrying potentially pathogenic variants in *HYDIN*. In four of the 17 families, a complete genetic diagnosis was only possible using LRS. This study comprises the largest *HYDIN* cohort reported to date and confirms that comprehensive 1080

Table 2. Summary of variants identified as the cause of t CD in 17 families, together with their Acido classification
--

	,		. 5		
Family	Variant	Variant (cDNA)	Variant (amino acid)	ACMG classification	Individuals found in
Family 1	1, 2	c.15037_15048delinsGATGATATA	p.(Tyr5013_Pro5016 delinsAspAsplle)	LP	ll:1, ll:2, ll:4, lll:3, lll:4, lll:5, lll:6, lll:7
Family 2	1, 2	c.15037_15048delinsGATGATATA	p.(Tyr5013_Pro5016 delinsAspAsplle)	LP	II:2, II:5: II:6
Family 3	1	c.8487_8489delinsCA	p.(Pro2830Hisfs*23)	LP	I:1, II:1, II:1
	2	c.1529del	p.(Phe510Serfs*43)	Р	I:2, II:1, II:1
Family 4	1	c.1529del	p.(Phe510Serfs*43)	Р	II:1, II:2
	2	c.6669+1G>A	p.?	LP	II:1, II:2
Family 5	1	c.1949G>A	p.(Arg650His)	VUS	II:1, II:2
	2	c.3640A>G	p.(lle1214Val)	VUS	II:1, II:2
Family 6	1	c.10886_10902del	p.(Asp3629ValfsTer9)	LP	ll:1
	2	c.14157T>G	p.(Tyr4719Ter)	LP	II:1
Family 7	1	c.3252dup	p.(Val1085ArgfsTer15)	Р	I:2, II:1, II:2
	2	c.1670G>C	p.(Arg557Thr)	LP	II:1, II:2
Family 8	1,2	c.12444-1G>A	-	LP	ll:1
Family 9	1,2	c.10012G>T	p.(Glu338Ter)	Р	I:1, I:2, II:1
Family 10	1	c.283C>T	p.(Gln95Ter)	LP	ll:1
	2	c.13680-3A>G	p.?	VUS	ll:1
Family 11	1	c.2419_2422del	p.(Val807llefsTer13)	LP	I:2, II:1
	2	c.5620-311_5788+1198del	p.?	LP	ll:1
Family 12	1	c.6669+1G>A	p.?	LP	ll:1
	2	c.5789-39A>G	p.?	VUS	ll:1
Family 13	1	c.1095del	p.(Phe365LeufsTer64)	LP	II:1, II:2
	2	c.2376+752_2529+9004del	p.?	LP	II:1, II:2
Family 14	1	c.1147C>T	p.(Arg383Ter)	Р	l:1, ll:1
	2	c.4888A>T	p.(Lys1630Ter)	Р	I:2, II:1
Family 15	1	c.12144dup	p.(Thr4049HisfsTer9)	LP	ll:1
	2	c.2702G>T	p.(Gly901Val)	VUS	II:1
Family 16	1,2	c.7214_7215del	p.(Ser2405CysfsTer2)	LP	I:2, II:1
Family 17	1,2	c.13709del	p.(Pro4570LeufsTer22)	Р	I:1, I:2, II:1

LP LP, P P, VUS variant of uncertain significance.

genetic testing using different techniques can be used to identify variants in challenging regions of the genome. *HYDIN* is revealed as a relatively common cause of PCD in our cohort, representing ~7% of our genetically diagnosed cases. This is in line with a recent report of *HYDIN* being shown to be causative in 8.7% of families with PCD in Quebec, Canada, although 5 of 8 families in that study shared the same founder variant [29].

While advances in molecular genetic testing have revolutionised the approach to diagnosis of individuals with suspected genetic disorders, several notable challenges remain. One example includes the difficulty associated with analysing repetitive or highly homologous regions of the genome, such as those observed in HYDIN and HYDIN2. Initially, we addressed this problem computationally by masking HYDIN2 during sequence alignment to ensure that reads from HYDIN and HYDIN2 would be mapped to HYDIN. This approach ensures that no HYDIN sequence is incorrectly mapped to HYDIN2, and therefore eliminates the possibility of true HYDIN variants being excluded from analysis. Although this approach overcomes mapping inconsistencies, it results in skewed variant allelic balances, since there are four potential copies of the sequence, two from HYDIN and two from HYDIN2, at positions of homology. However, the identification of variants using skewed allele balance allows for subsequent analysis of candidate variants by targeted approaches such as PCR, SR-NGS and Sanger sequencing, with heterozygous variants having an allelic balance of 0.25 and homozygous variants having an allelic balance of 0.5.

Masking of *HYDIN2* overcame some of the difficulties in the detection of single nucleotide variants and small indels by SR-NGS, as demonstrated by our ability to identify disease-causing variants in 14/17 families in this study. However, as highlighted by families 11 and 13, this method has limitations with detecting deletions spanning exons, since masking interferes with NGS CNV-calling algorithms. After masking of *HYDIN2*, we expected to observe a ~0.25 allelic ratio when a heterozygous deletion was present in either gene. This is likely not sufficient for detection by standard short-read CNV callers, a fundamental limitation of short-read sequencing. It is important to note that generally SR-NGS alone is unable to confirm exactly which gene is affected when a variant is identified in the highly homologous regions of *HYDIN2*, although effective phenotyping does increase the confidence that variants in these cases lie within the *HYDIN* gene.

We hypothesised that long-read sequencing could be used to identify missing variants or refine the classification of candidate variants in cases refractory to our standard approaches. This is because the longer reads generated by this technology are more



Fig. 2 Sequence analysis of variants of note identified in this *HYDIN* PCD cohort. A Sanger sequencing of variant c.1529del in family 3 showing a heterozygous result where primer design specifically for *HYDIN* was not possible, resulting in low allelic ratio of the variant. Sanger sequencing of variant c.8487_8489delinsCA in a heterozygous individual from family 3 where primer design specifically for *HYDIN* was possible and the allelic ratio is 50%. **B** Sanger sequencing of variant c.14157T>G in a heterozygous individual from family 5, both showing skewed allelic ratio in heterozygous individual. **C** SR-NGS example for variant c.14157T>G in a heterozygous individual from family 6 showing skewed allelic ratio due to *HYDIN2* masking. **D** SR-NGS of c.2419_2422del detected in a heterozygous individual in family 11, showing skewed allelic ratio due to *HYDIN2* masking. **F** Sanger sequencing of variant c.1095del in a heterozygous individual from family 13, showing skewed allelic ratios.





Fig. 3 Nasal Cilia brushing diagnostics for siblings in family 5. A Averaged electron microscopy image and corresponding coloured contour map showing absence of c2b protein in these siblings, II-1, II-2 and a healthy control. B Immunofluorescence control sample with DAPI staining of the nucleus, tubulin staining of the cilia and SPEF2 for the c2b protein. C Immunofluorescence showing loss of SPEF2 staining in II:1.

likely to be accurately mapped to low-complexity or repetitive regions, such as the regions in which HYDIN and HYDIN2 are found. We also hypothesised that LR-NGS would identify variants we were not able to identify with SR-NGS, such as intronic variants and structural variants. Using a targeted approach, we were able to identify a second disease-causing variant in 2 families where SR-NGS identified only a single heterozygous pathogenic variant. Specifically, LR-NGS in families 11 and 13, identified deletions of coding exons 36 and 17 respectively, which were missed by SR-NGS because of masking of HYDIN2 and difficulty identifying CNVs with allele frequencies of 0.25. In a third individual, where parental testing was not possible, we used LR-NGS to confirm that the identified pathogenic variant was indeed homozygous (family 8). It is likely that LR-NGS would have been able to detect all the variants reported in the other families and thus would offer additional benefits over SR-NGS, such as confirming phasing of variants without the need for parental samples.

(B)

We have presented two cases where LR-NGS was able to supplement SR-NGS and detect a missed second variant in *HYDIN*. For such individuals, with a phenotype highly in keeping with *HYDIN*, LR-NGS may be indicated following an in normal or incomplete SR-NGS result. Based on the cohort included here, we would not hypothesise many individuals to have two variants only detectable by LR-NGS, however, we recognise that this does represent an avenue for further investigation. As LR-NGS costs continue to fall and bioinformatic pipelines mature we anticipate that LR-NGS will become a first-line test for evaluating genes in which there is high clinical suspicion for a missed variant, but which are difficult to evaluate using short-read approaches, such as *HYDIN*.

In conclusion, *HYDIN* presents a challenge for current SR-NGS and Sanger sequencing due to the presence of *HYDIN2*, and pathogenic variants in *HYDIN* are likely often missed. Moreover, variants in *HYDIN2* may be incorrectly assessed as being present in *HYDIN*. Although bioinformatic masking of *HYDIN2* after SR-NGS reduces the effect of this homology and allows for an increased rate of genetic diagnoses in select cohorts, LR-NGS can overcome all of the challenges presented by this large homology region [32].The proportion of *HYDIN* variants being causative of PCD may vary in different ethnic groups, however we propose that due to the difficulty in identifying pathogenic *HYDIN* variants. *HYDIN* may be an underrepresented cause of PCD in most cohorts. Thus, we

1082

A Family 8



B Family 11



C Family 13



Fig. 4 LR-NGS in this *HYDIN* **PCD cohort. A** Confirmation of homozygosity by LR-NGS for the c.12444-1G>A variant in family 8. **B** *HYDIN* coding exon 36 deletion (chr16:70963530-70965207) detected by LR-NGS in family 11. **C** *HYDIN* coding exon 17 deletion (chr16:71051501-71061418) detected by LR-NGS in family 13.

feel there are clear benefits of LR-NGS in unsolved cases with a strong clinical phenotype, and we provide further support for the future use LR-NGS as a single test in the clinical environment both to increase the diagnostic rate and to reduce the time required to arrive at a genetic diagnosis.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The datasets generated during this study are available upon request from the corresponding, authors. All variants described in this paper have been submitted to ClinVar (submission number SUB14295852).

CODE AVAILABILITY

The datasets generated during this study are available upon request from the corresponding authors.

REFERENCES

- 1. Horani A, Ferkol TW. Understanding Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia and Other Ciliopathies. J Pediatr. 2021;230:15–22.e1.
- Shoemark A, Griffin H, Wheway G, Hogg C, Lucas JS, Genomics England Research C, et al. Genome sequencing reveals underdiagnosis of primary ciliary dyskinesia in bronchiectasis. Eur Respir J. 2022;60:2200176.

- Morris-Rosendahl DJ. Primary ciliary dyskinesia as a common cause of bronchiectasis in the Canadian Inuit population. Pediatr Pulmonol. 2023;58:2437–8.
- Davis SD, Ferkol TW, Rosenfeld M, Lee HS, Dell SD, Sagel SD, et al. Clinical features of childhood primary ciliary dyskinesia by genotype and ultrastructural phenotype. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2015;191:316–24.
- Knowles MR, Daniels LA, Davis SD, Zariwala MA, Leigh MW. Primary ciliary dyskinesia. Recent advances in diagnostics, genetics, and characterization of clinical disease. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2013;188:913–22.
- Mullowney T, Manson D, Kim R, Stephens D, Shah V, Dell S. Primary ciliary dyskinesia and neonatal respiratory distress. Pediatrics. 2014;134:1160–6.
- Noone PG, Leigh MW, Sannuti A, Minnix SL, Carson JL, Hazucha M, et al. Primary ciliary dyskinesia: diagnostic and phenotypic features. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2004;169:459–67.
- Shapiro AJ, Davis SD, Ferkol T, Dell SD, Rosenfeld M, Olivier KN, et al. Laterality defects other than situs inversus totalis in primary ciliary dyskinesia: insights into situs ambiguus and heterotaxy. Chest. 2014;146:1176–86.
- Hannah WB, Seifert BA, Truty R, Zariwala MA, Ameel K, Zhao Y, et al. The global prevalence and ethnic heterogeneity of primary ciliary dyskinesia gene variants: a genetic database analysis. Lancet Respir Med. 2022;10:459–68.
- Wallmeier J, Frank D, Shoemark A, Nothe-Menchen T, Cindric S, Olbrich H, et al. De Novo Mutations in FOXJ1 Result in a Motile Ciliopathy with Hydrocephalus and Randomization of Left/Right Body Asymmetry. Am J Hum Genet. 2019;105:1030–9.
- Leigh MW, Horani A, Kinghorn B, O'Connor MG, Zariwala MA, Knowles MR. Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia (PCD): A genetic disorder of motile cilia. Transl Sci Rare Dis. 2019;4:51–75.
- 12. Lucas JS, Davis SD, Omran H, Shoemark A. Primary ciliary dyskinesia in the genomics age. Lancet Respir Med. 2020;8:202–16.
- Legendre M, Zaragosi LE, Mitchison HM. Motile cilia and airway disease. Semin Cell Dev Biol. 2021;110:19–33.
- Knowles MR, Leigh MW, Carson JL, Davis SD, Dell SD, Ferkol TW, et al. Mutations of DNAH11 in patients with primary ciliary dyskinesia with normal ciliary ultrastructure. Thorax. 2012;67:433–41.
- Lucas JS, Barbato A, Collins SA, Goutaki M, Behan L, Caudri D, et al. European Respiratory Society guidelines for the diagnosis of primary ciliary dyskinesia. Eur Respir J. 2017;49:1601090.
- Shapiro AJ, Davis SD, Polineni D, Manion M, Rosenfeld M, Dell SD, et al. Diagnosis of Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia. An Official American Thoracic Society Clinical Practice Guideline. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2018;197:e24–e39.
- Fassad MR, Patel MP, Shoemark A, Cullup T, Hayward J, Dixon M, et al. Clinical utility of NGS diagnosis and disease stratification in a multiethnic primary ciliary dyskinesia cohort. J Med Genet. 2020;57:322–30.
- Zariwala MA, Knowles MR, Leigh MW. Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia. In: Adam MP, Everman DB, Mirzaa GM, Pagon RA, Wallace SE, Bean LJH, et al., editors. GeneReviews((R)). Seattle: University of Washington; 1993.
- Davy BE, Robinson ML. Congenital hydrocephalus in hy3 mice is caused by a frameshift mutation in Hydin, a large novel gene. Hum Mol Genet. 2003;12:1163–70.
- Dawe HR, Shaw MK, Farr H, Gull K. The hydrocephalus inducing gene product, Hydin, positions axonemal central pair microtubules. BMC Biol. 2007;5:33.
- 21. Lechtreck KF, Delmotte P, Robinson ML, Sanderson MJ, Witman GB. Mutations in Hydin impair ciliary motility in mice. J Cell Biol. 2008;180:633–43.
- Olbrich H, Schmidts M, Werner C, Onoufriadis A, Loges NT, Raidt J, et al. Recessive HYDIN mutations cause primary ciliary dyskinesia without randomization of leftright body asymmetry. Am J Hum Genet. 2012;91:672–84.
- Chen LL, Yang YG, Wu JZ, Chen XR. Primary ciliary dyskinesia with HYDIN gene mutations in a child and literature review. Zhonghua Er Ke Za Zhi. 2017;55:304–7.
- Paff T, Kooi IE, Moutaouakil Y, Riesebos E, Sistermans EA, Daniels H, et al. Diagnostic yield of a targeted gene panel in primary ciliary dyskinesia patients. Hum Mutat. 2018;39:653–65.
- Benjamin AT, Ganesh R, Gaspar BL, Lucas J, Jackson C, Legendre M, et al. A Novel Homozygous Nonsense HYDIN Gene Mutation p.(Arg951*) in Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia. Indian J Pediatr. 2019;86:664–5.
- Lechtreck KF, Witman GB. Chlamydomonas reinhardtii hydin is a central pair protein required for flagellar motility. J Cell Biol. 2007;176:473–82.
- Cindric S, Dougherty GW, Olbrich H, Hjeij R, Loges NT, Amirav I, et al. SPEF2- and HYDIN-Mutant Cilia Lack the Central Pair-associated Protein SPEF2, Aiding Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia Diagnostics. Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol. 2020;62:382–96.
- Doggett NA, Xie G, Meincke LJ, Sutherland RD, Mundt MO, Berbari NS, et al. A 360-kb interchromosomal duplication of the human HYDIN locus. Genomics. 2006;88:762–71.
- Shapiro AJ, Sillon G, D'Agostino D, Baret L, Lopez-Giraldez F, Mane S, et al. HYDIN Variants Are a Common Cause of Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia in French Canadians. Ann Am Thorac Soc. 2023;20:140–4.

- Mantere T, Kersten S, Hoischen A. Long-Read Sequencing Emerging in Medical Genetics. Front Genet. 2019;10:426.
- Watson CM, Dean P, Camm N, Bates J, Carr IM, Gardiner CA, et al. Long-read nanopore sequencing resolves a TMEM231 gene conversion event causing Meckel-Gruber syndrome. Hum Mutat. 2020;41:525–31.
- Miller DE, Lee L, Galey M, Kandhaya-Pillai R, Tischkowitz M, Amalnath D, et al. Targeted long-read sequencing identifies missing pathogenic variants in unsolved Werner syndrome cases. J Med Genet. 2022;59:1087–94.
- Rubbo B, Shoemark A, Jackson CL, Hirst R, Thompson J, Hayes J, et al. Accuracy of High-Speed Video Analysis to Diagnose Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia. Chest. 2019;155:1008–17.
- 34. Shoemark A, Boon M, Brochhausen C, Bukowy-Bieryllo Z, De Santi MM, Goggin P, et al. International consensus guideline for reporting transmission electron microscopy results in the diagnosis of primary ciliary dyskinesia (BEAT PCD TEM Criteria). Eur Respir J. 2020;55:1900725.
- Jaganathan K, Kyriazopoulou Panagiotopoulou S, McRae JF, Darbandi SF, Knowles D, Li YI, et al. Predicting Splicing from Primary Sequence with Deep Learning. Cell. 2019;176:535–48.e24.
- 36. Richards S, Aziz N, Bale S, Bick D, Das S, Gastier-Foster J, et al. Standards and guidelines for the interpretation of sequence variants: a joint consensus recommendation of the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics and the Association for Molecular Pathology. Genet Med. 2015;17:405–24.
- 37. Jarvik GP, Browning BL. Consideration of Cosegregation in the Pathogenicity Classification of Genomic Variants. Am J Hum Genet. 2016;98:1077–81.
- Abou Tayoun AN, Pesaran T, DiStefano MT, Oza A, Rehm HL, Biesecker LG, et al. Recommendations for interpreting the loss of function PVS1 ACMG/AMP variant criterion. Hum Mutat. 2018;39:1517–24.
- Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, et al. The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. Bioinformatics. 2009;25:2078–9.
- 40. Li H. Minimap2: pairwise alignment for nucleotide sequences. Bioinformatics. 2018;34:3094–100.
- Zheng Z. Symphonizing pileup and full-alignment for deep learning-based longread variant calling. Nat Comput Sci. 2022;2:797–803.
- Lin JH, Chen LC, Yu SC, Huang YT. LongPhase: an ultra-fast chromosome-scale phasing algorithm for small and large variants. Bioinformatics. 2022;38:1816–22.
- 43. McLaren W, Gil L, Hunt SE, Riat HS, Ritchie GR, Thormann A, et al. The Ensembl Variant Effect Predictor. Genome Biol. 2016;17:122.
- Rentzsch P, Witten D, Cooper GM, Shendure J, Kircher M. CADD: predicting the deleteriousness of variants throughout the human genome. Nucleic Acids Res. 2019;47:D886–D94.
- Karczewski KJ, Francioli LC, Tiao G, Cummings BB, Alfoldi J, Wang Q, et al. The mutational constraint spectrum quantified from variation in 141,456 humans. Nature. 2020;581:434–43.
- Heller D, Vingron M. SVIM: structural variant identification using mapped long reads. Bioinformatics. 2019;35:2907–15.
- Jiang T, Liu S, Cao S, Wang Y. Structural Variant Detection from Long-Read Sequencing Data with cuteSV. Methods Mol Biol. 2022;2493:137–51.
- Sedlazeck FJ, Rescheneder P, Smolka M, Fang H, Nattestad M, von Haeseler A, et al. Accurate detection of complex structural variations using single-molecule sequencing. Nat Methods. 2018;15:461–8.
- Robinson JT, Thorvaldsdottir H, Turner D, Mesirov JP. igv.js: an embeddable JavaScript implementation of the Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV). Bioinformatics. 2023;39:btac830.
- Mani R, Belkacem S, Soua Z, Chantot S, Montantin G, Tissier S, et al. Primary ciliary dyskinesia gene contribution in Tunisia: Identification of a major Mediterranean allele. Hum Mutat. 2020;41:115–21.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to the patients and their families for participation in this study. We thank Marylka Griffiths, Nahomi Prevost, Francheska Punzal and Charlotte Powell for excellent technical assistance; Farheen Daudvohra, Emily Howieson and Melissa Dixon for the cilia diagnostics and Angie Miller for editorial assistance.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualisation: DM-R, AF, DEM; Data curation: AF, MG, SJ, SM, C.H., ME, HMM, ASho, DEM, DM-R; Formal analysis: AF, MG, LB, ME, SJ, SM, TB, RR, HMM, DEM, DM-R; Writing-original draft: AF, ASho, CH, RR, SJ, HMM, DEM, DM-R; Writing-review & editing: AF, MG, LB, CH, ME, SJ, SW, EQ, RR, TB, AR, MP, PG, SM, SC, ML, JSL, ASha, RJ, H.M.M, A.Sho., DEM, DM-R.

1084

European Journal of Human Genetics (2024) 32:1074-1085

FUNDING

DEM is supported by NIH grant DP5OD033357. ASho is supported by Asthma and Lung UK. HMM acknowledges funding from NIHR GOSH BRC. Some authors are participants of BEAT-PCD: Better Evidence to Advance Therapeutic options for PCD (COST Action BM 1407; European Respiratory Society (ERS) Clinical Research Collaboration). PCD diagnostic testing in England is funded by NHS England.

COMPETING INTERESTS

DEM is on a scientific advisory board at ONT, is engaged in a research agreement with ONT, and they have paid for him to travel to speak on their behalf. DEM holds stock options in MyOme.

ETHICS APPROVAL

All participating institutions received approval from local institutional review boards. Informed consent was obtained from all subjects, and any clinical data has been deidentified.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Supplementary information The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41431-024-01599-7.

Reprints and permission information is available at http://www.nature.com/ reprints

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

© Crown 2024

A. Fleming et al.