

1 **Novel disease-causing variants and phenotypic features of X-linked**

2 **megalocornea**

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34 **ABSTRACT**

35 **Purpose:** The aim of the study is to describe the phenotype and molecular genetic causes of
36 X-linked megalocornea (MGC1). We recruited four British, one New Zealander, one
37 Vietnamese and four Czech families.

38 **Methods:** All probands and three female carriers underwent ocular examination and Sanger
39 sequencing of the *CHRD1* gene. Two of the probands also had magnetic resonance
40 imaging (MRI) of the brain.

41 **Results:** We identified nine pathogenic or likely pathogenic and one variant of uncertain
42 significance in *CHRD1*, of which eight are novel. Three probands had ocular findings that
43 have not previously been associated with MGC1, namely pigmentary glaucoma, unilateral
44 posterior corneal vesicles, unilateral keratoconus, and unilateral Fuchs heterochromic
45 iridocyclitis. The corneal diameters of the three heterozygous carriers were normal, but two
46 had abnormally thin corneas, and one of these was also diagnosed with unilateral
47 keratoconus. Brain MRI identified arachnoid cysts in both probands, one also had a
48 neuroepithelial cyst, while the second had a midsagittal neurodevelopmental abnormality
49 (cavum septum pellucidum et vergae).

50 **Conclusion:** The study expands the spectrum of pathogenic variants and the ocular and
51 brain abnormalities that have been identified in individuals with MGC1. Reduced corneal
52 thickness may represent a mild phenotypic feature in some heterozygous female carriers of
53 *CHRD1* pathogenic variants.

54

55 **KEY WORDS:** *CHRD1*, brain MRI, megalocornea, heterozygous carriers, keratoconus,
56 posterior corneal vesicles

57 **Introduction**

58 X-linked megalocornea (MGC1; OMIM # 309300) is characterised by congenital bilateral
59 enlargement of the anterior segment of the eye with a horizontal corneal diameter of ≥ 13 mm
60 after the age of two years, with reduced corneal thickness, an abnormally deep anterior
61 chamber, and normal intraocular pressure (IOP). Other features that develop with age
62 include corneal arcus, mosaic stromal corneal degeneration (shagreen), iris changes and
63 cataract (Meire et al. 1991; Meire 1994; Roche et al. 2002; Webb et al. 2012). These
64 features have not been reported in female carriers although detailed corneal imaging has not
65 been presented (Mackey et al. 1991; Davidson et al. 2014). MGC1 is not associated with
66 systemic disease, although magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) has identified structural brain
67 abnormalities, with the focal loss of myelin in the white matter of two patients (Webb et al.
68 2012).

69
70 MGC1 is caused by hemizygous pathogenic variants in *CHRD1* (Webb et al. 2012). This
71 gene encodes chordin-like protein 1, an antagonist of bone morphogenetic protein 4 (BMP4),
72 which has a role in embryonic bone formation, regulation of retinal angiogenesis, neuronal
73 differentiation and development of the anterior segment of the eye (Nakayama et al. 2001;
74 Sakuta et al. 2001; Webb et al. 2012; Liu et al. 2019). To date, 21 different *CHRD1* disease-
75 causing variants have been identified, predicted to result in loss-of-function (Davidson et al.
76 2014; Pfirrmann et al. 2015). In this study we report seven novel *CHRD1* pathogenic/likely
77 pathogenic variants and describe ocular features that have not previously been observed in
78 individuals with MGC1. Importantly, we suggest that some heterozygous female carriers can
79 have mild corneal thinning.

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81

82 **Materials and Methods**

83 The study was approved by institutional review boards of the General University Hospital in
84 Prague (964/15 S-IV), the NHS Health Research Authority (17/LO/167) and the Ministry of

85 Health, Northern A Health and Disability Ethics Committee, Auckland (NTX/06/12/161) and
86 we adhered to the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. Ten probands and all affected
87 and unaffected first-degree relatives that agreed to participate were included into the study.
88 Each participant, or their legal guardian, provided informed consent prior to enrolment.
89 Clinical examination included Snellen best corrected visual acuity (BCVA) converted to
90 decimal values, slit lamp biomicroscopy and IOP measured by applanation tonometry.
91 Corneal tomography was assessed by Scheimpflug imaging (Pentacam, Oculus, Wetzlar,
92 Germany) and/or spectral domain optical coherence tomography (SD-OCT) (Spectralis,
93 Heidelberg Engineering GmbH, Heidelberg, Germany), which was also used for
94 measurement of the retinal nerve fibre layer (RNFL). Corneal ectasia was detected by the
95 Pentacam build-in software utilizing Topographic Keratoconus Classification (TKC) with
96 following grading TKC: 1 early disease, TKC: 1–2, 2, moderate, TKC: 2-3, 3, 3-4, 4, severe)
97 (Wahba et al. 2016; Goebels et al. 2017). Horizontal white-to-white (WTW) corneal diameter,
98 axial length (AL) and anterior chamber depth (ACD) were recorded (IOL-Master V.5, Carl
99 Zeiss Meditec AG, Jena, Germany). Endothelial cell density was assessed by specular
100 microscopy (Topcon SP-3000P, Topcon Corp, Tokyo, Japan, or Noncon ROBO Pachy SP-
101 9000, Konan Medical Inc, Irvine, CA, USA).

102

103 MRI was performed on two probands. The first was examined with a 3 Tesla (T) MRI scanner
104 (MAGNETOM Skyra, Siemens Healthcare, Erlangen, Germany). The protocol comprised 3D
105 T1 magnetization-prepared rapid acquisition with gradient echo (MPRAGE), 3D fluid
106 attenuated inversion recovery (FLAIR), 2D T2 weighted images (T2WI) and diffusion
107 weighted images (DWI). Whole brain volume and regional brain volumes were measured.
108 The second proband was examined on a 1.5T MRI scanner (Achieva, Philips Healthcare,
109 Best, the Netherlands) with a protocol that comprised 2D FLAIR, 2D T2WI and DWI.

110

111 We performed Sanger sequencing of the entire coding region of *CHRD1* gene (reference
112 sequence NM_001143981.2) in all probands (Webb et al. 2012). Direct sequencing was then

113 used to confirm the identified pathogenic/likely pathogenic variant in available relatives.
114 Evaluation of variant pathogenicity was based on evidence categories outlined by the
115 American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics (ACMG) (Richards et al. 2015). Briefly,
116 because the disease-causing mechanism for MGC1 is known (loss-of-function), frameshifting
117 variants and variants located in canonical splice sites, conserved essential cysteine residues,
118 and nonsense variants were considered pathogenic unless located in the last coding exon.
119 For the missense variants that does not alter a cysteine residue, *in silico* analysis was
120 performed using a range of tools including assessment of the possible effect on pre-mRNA
121 splicing. General population frequency of the detected sequence changes was mined from
122 gnomAD v.2.1.1. (Karczewski et al. 2020). Given that MGC1 is a very rare disease (Webb et
123 al. 2012; Davidson et al. 2014; Mackey et al. 1991), only variants with minor allele frequency
124 ≤ 0.0005 were evaluated for possible pathogenicity.

125

126

127 **Results**

128 ***CHRD1* variants**

129 We detected ten rare variants in *CHRD1*, all absent from gnomAD v.2.1.1. Two of the
130 sequence changes have been described previously as a cause of MGC1, eight were novel
131 (Table 1, Fig. 1). Three novel missense changes were identified, c.207G>C; p.(Glu69Asp) in
132 proband 5, c.436T>G; p.(Cys146Gly) in family 7 and c.968G>T; p.(Cys323Phe), that were
133 predicted to be pathogenic by the majority of the algorithms used (Supplementary Table 1
134 and 2). The cysteine residues within the highly conserved cysteine-rich von Willebrand factor
135 type C domains are hot-spots for pathogenic variants in X-linked megalocornea (Davidson et
136 al. 2014). The substitution c.207G>C; p.(Glu69Asp) was located at the intron/exon boundary
137 so we hypothesized that it may affect pre-mRNA splicing rather than exerting a pathogenic
138 effect through changing the amino acid at position 69. Of the four algorithms used for
139 assessing splicing, two predicted that the variant abolishes the splice donor site
140 (Supplementary Table 2). According to the ACMG standards the p.(Glu69Asp) was classified

141 as a variant of uncertain significance (Richards et al. 2015). The remaining variants were
142 frameshift (x1), nonsense (x3) or affecting the canonical splice site positions +1 and +2
143 (Table 1) and are predicted to lead to loss-of-function.

144

145 ***Ocular phenotype of affected males***

146 Males with hemizygous *CHRD1* pathogenic variants displayed the characteristic phenotype
147 of MGC1 with an increased horizontal corneal diameter (range 13.5-16.0 mm), a reduced
148 central corneal thickness (CCT) (range 354-456 μ m), and an abnormally deep anterior
149 chamber (range 4.66-6.31 mm) (Fig. 2A, D, E). Iris atrophy was documented in 7 of 10
150 patients. Other phenotypic features such as arcus, cataract and shagreen varied according
151 to the age of the proband (Fig. 2B, C).

152

153 Of note were the additional clinical findings in four probands. The proband from family 5
154 developed visual field defects at age 39 years from bilateral secondary glaucoma. Optic disc
155 cupping and RNFL loss from advanced glaucoma was present in the left eye (Table 2).
156 Gonioscopy showed pigment deposition in the angle and fine vessels crossing the trabecular
157 meshwork. In addition to medical therapy, selective laser trabeculectomy was required to
158 control the IOP in the left eye.

159

160 Patient II:1 from family 7 (Fig. 1) was noted at birth to have enlarged corneas and was
161 managed as a glaucoma suspect until the age of 6 years, when he was discharged. He was
162 referred again at the age of 39 years because of raised IOP in the right eye. At examination
163 the best corrected visual acuity BCVA was 1.0 bilaterally and the IOP was 22 mmHg in the
164 right eye and 13 mmHg in the left eye. There were two bands at the level of Descemet
165 membrane in the right cornea, initially considered to be Haab striae secondary to arrested
166 congenital glaucoma, but more likely to be linear posterior corneal vesicles (PCVs) (Fig. 2F).
167 He had bilateral iris transillumination defects with pigment dispersion, and left Fuchs
168 heterochromic iridocyclitis manifesting as stellate keratic precipitates and pigment dispersion,

169 which we thought was unrelated to the MGC1 phenotype. With gonioscopy, both anterior
170 chamber angles were noted to be underdeveloped with fine vessels crossing the trabecular
171 meshwork (Fig. 2G). The optic discs were mildly asymmetric (cup disc ratio 0.2 right eye, 0.3
172 left eye) but the visual fields were normal. He had an uneventful bilateral phacoemulsification
173 with intraocular lens insertion at age 43 and 47 years, respectively. He is currently managed
174 as a glaucoma suspect on treatment with timolol 1mg/g gel once daily to both eyes.

175

176 The proband from family 8, who had no family history for MGC1 or keratoconus, was noted
177 to have abnormal eyes from birth and was diagnosed with MGC1 at age 21 years, when he
178 was also noted to have advanced keratoconus in the left eye with typical inferotemporal
179 corneal steepening and thinning (TKC grade 3-4). The keratoconus did not progress over the
180 subsequent 10 years and he has not developed ectasia of the right cornea. The most recent
181 central corneal thickness (CCT) measurements were 418 μm in the right eye and 411 μm in
182 the left eye taken when the proband was aged 31 years (Fig. 2H, I). At this examination, the
183 BCVA with scleral contact lenses was 1.0 bilaterally, but he had developed a left exotropia
184 with diplopia.

185

186 The proband from family 9 was aware that he had abnormal eyes but the diagnosis of MGC1
187 was not made until he was referred with cataract at age 52 years. He had an uncomplicated
188 left phacoemulsification with intraocular lens implantation, but subsequently there was partial
189 zonular dehiscence with phacodonesis that caused uveitis, intraocular bleeding and
190 secondary glaucoma [Uveitis-Glaucoma-Hyphaema (UGH) syndrome]. This could not be
191 controlled with medical therapy and glaucoma tube drainage surgery was performed at age
192 56 years, with a vitrectomy and removal of the intraocular lens at age 57 years.

193 Ocular findings in the affected males including additional, and possibly related but previously
194 unreported features in MGC1, are summarized in Table 2.

195

196

197 ***Ocular phenotype of carrier females***

198 We were also able to examine three females confirmed to be heterozygous carriers of
199 *CHRD1* pathogenic variants. Individual II:4 from family 4 (Fig. 1), was noted to have
200 keratoconus pattern on corneal topography in the right eye at the age of 26 years during an
201 assessment for laser refractive surgery. She had no known allergies. At age 36 years her
202 BCVA was 1.0 bilaterally. In addition to mild right keratoconus on corneal topography with an
203 asymmetric bowtie and inferior steepening (TKC grade 1-2) (Rabinowitz et al. 1996) both
204 corneas were abnormally thin (thinnest pachymetry 428 μm in the right and 434 μm left eye)
205 (Table 3, Fig. 3A, B). Her sister (individual II:2), who was confirmed to be a heterozygous
206 carrier for the same *CHRD1* variant, also had reduced corneal thickness with a thinnest
207 pachymetry of 466 μm in the right eye and 465 μm in the left eye (Fig. 3C, D). However, all
208 other parameters were normal (Table 3). There was no family history for keratoconus in
209 family 4. A third female carrier (individual I:1 from family 3) had bilaterally normal corneal
210 thickness (Table 3) with no evidence of keratoconus.

211

212 ***Assessment of structural brain changes in affected males***

213 The MRI of the proband from family 2 demonstrated an arachnoid cyst in the right temporal
214 region and mid-sagittal malformations (cavum septum pellucidum et vergae) (Fig. 4A-C).
215 There was also a small T2 hypersignal lesion in the white matter of the left frontal lobe (Fig.
216 4D). The MRI of the proband from family 5 showed small arachnoid cysts in the infratentorial
217 and left temporal regions, and a neuroepithelial cyst in the right ventricle (Fig. 4E-G). There
218 were also three nonspecific small T2 hyperintensity lesions in the white matter of the frontal
219 lobes (Fig. 4H). Total brain volume and regional volumes showed no significant atrophy.

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225 **Discussion**

226 We report twelve individuals with MGC1 from ten families and identify eight novel *CHRD1*
227 variants. Four of the probands had phenotypic features that have not previously been
228 associated with MGC1. The c.207G>C p.(Glu69Asp) was considered as either a missense or
229 splicing variant, however, in silico analysis precluded unequivocal support of this change as
230 pathogenic, and the change is therefore listed as variant of uncertain significance. The
231 remaining six novel pathogenic variants either lead to a frameshift, predicted to disrupt
232 splicing or introduce a premature stop codon. Two variants were missense affecting a
233 conserved functional cysteine residue, consistent with previous reports (Webb et al. 2012;
234 Davidson et al. 2014).

235

236 Although subjects with MGC1 have an abnormal anterior segment and trabecular meshwork
237 they are not considered to be at increased risk of developing glaucoma (Mackey et al. 1991;
238 Meire et al. 1991; Webb et al. 2012; Davidson et al. 2014). However, two individuals in this
239 series developed secondary raised IOP in their third or fourth decade, one with advanced
240 visual field loss and one managed with topical medications as a glaucoma suspect. The
241 mechanism is uncertain, but pigment deposition onto the trabecular meshwork may
242 predispose the eye to aqueous outflow obstruction and secondary glaucoma (Scuderi et al.
243 2019). As standard IOP measurements may not be accurate due to corneal thinning and
244 maldevelopment, regular RNFL measurement as a non-invasive examination might be of
245 benefit to the MGC1 patients. One of the individuals reported in the current study had Fuchs
246 heterochromic iridocyclitis, which is also a risk for secondary glaucoma and may share other
247 overlapping features with MGC1 such as early-onset cataract (Mohamed et al. 2005). A third
248 individual developed glaucoma secondary to a dislocated intraocular lens implant, which was
249 probably the result of chronic intraocular lens induced inflammation.

250

251 Unilateral keratoconus was identified in one of the twelve MGC1 individuals; although the
252 diffusely thinned cornea in MGC1 may be a risk factor for corneal ectasia, keratoconus has

253 not previously been associated with MGC1 (Webb et al. 2012; Davidson et al. 2014).

254

255 We also examined three female heterozygous carriers of pathogenic MGC1 variants. Two of
256 them, who were sisters (II:2 and II:4) from family 4, had abnormally thin corneas, and
257 individual II:4 also had mild unilateral keratoconus. However, the female carrier I:2 from
258 family 3 had a normal corneal thickness bilaterally.

259

260 Individuals with MGC1 have been reported to have a normal corneal endothelial cell
261 morphology and density, consistent with an excessive growth of the cornea, rather than the
262 reduced endothelial cell density that follows the IOP-induced distension associated with
263 congenital glaucoma (Skuta et al. 1983). In individual II:1 from family 7, who was a glaucoma
264 suspect, we identified linear lesions at the level of Descemet membrane with a reduced
265 corneal endothelial cell density, an appearance that we considered was consistent with
266 PCVs (Pardos et al. 1981; Noguchi et al. 2018). However, we recognise that further studies
267 are required to confirm whether these observations represent an expanded phenotype for
268 MGC1 or are chance associations.

269

270 The pigment dispersion that is a feature of MGC1 is usually accompanied by iris
271 transillumination defects, which are common in adults with MGC1. It is unclear whether the
272 abnormal appearance of the iris is the result of congenital iris hypoplasia or secondary
273 atrophy. We suspect that the mechanism for the pigment dispersion in MGC1 is distinct from
274 the abnormal iris and zonule contact with the lens that is thought to be the cause for the
275 more common pigment dispersion syndrome (Scuderi et al. 2019). However, although we
276 documented iris abnormalities as early as nine years of age, we are not aware of
277 documented reports of iris abnormalities in infants with MGC1.

278

279 Brain MRI has previously been reported in two individuals with MGC1, in which 3T scans and
280 voxel-base morphometry demonstrated a reduction in the white matter volume but with tract

281 integrity that did not compromise brain function (Webb et al. 2012). In the current study we
282 performed brain MRI on two additional unrelated individuals with MGC1. As well as the
283 previously reported nonspecific changes in the white matter (Webb et al. 2012), we detected
284 arachnoid cysts, a neuroepithelial cyst, and a midsagittal neurodevelopment pathology.

285

286 In conclusion, we have expanded the spectrum of pathogenic variants in *CHRD1* and
287 identified additional phenotypic features in individuals with MGC1. Our study suggests that
288 heterozygous female carriers may show a minimal phenotype represented by corneal
289 thinning possibly, evolving into a keratoconus pattern in some individuals. Brain MRI
290 confirmed the presence of structural abnormalities in MGC1, but our data also show
291 previously unreported findings. The recruitment and assessment of further affected
292 individuals and carriers is required to ascertain the association of these ocular and brain
293 abnormalities in MGC1 cohorts.

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306

307 **Conflicts of Interest**

308 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Fig. 1. Pedigrees and sequence chromatograms of *CHRD1* variants identified in ten families with X-linked megalocornea. Variant status is shown in all affected individuals as well as family members that were available for genotyping.

Fig. 2. Ocular findings observed in males with X-linked megalocornea. A) Lateral photograph documenting enlarged corneal diameter and deep anterior chamber (left eye), B) slit-lamp photograph showing iris hypoplasia and arcus (arrow) (right eye), and C) mosaic stromal corneal degeneration (shagreen) (right eye); individual IV:1, family 5, age 40 years. D) diffuse reduction in corneal thickness imaged with spectral-domain optical coherence tomography (right eye) and E) deep anterior chamber on Scheimpflug image (right eye); individual II:1, family 2, age 47 years. Photograph showing linear bands at the level of Descemet membrane (white arrows) in direct illumination (right eye) (F), and the anterior chamber angle with pigment deposited on the trabecular meshwork (right eye) (G), of individual II:1, family 7, age 38 years. Front sagittal curvature, pachymetry and posterior elevation maps of the right (H) and left eye (I) of individual II:1, family 8, age 31 years; note inferonasal steepening and thinning in the left eye confirming the presence of keratoconus.

Fig. 3. Corneal tomography of two female heterozygous carriers. Front sagittal curvature, pachymetry and posterior elevation maps of the right (A) and left eye (B) of female II:4 from family 4 and the right (C) and left eye (D) of female II:2 from family 4. Note inferior steepening in A and thinning in A-D.

Fig. 4. Brain magnetic resonance imaging of two individuals with X-linked megalocornea. A) Proband from family 2; an arachnoid cyst in the right temporal region, B) cavum septum pellucidum and C) cavum vergae, D) hyperintensity lesion in the white matter of the left frontal lobe (red arrows). E) Proband from family 5; small left arachnoid cysts in the infratentorial and F) temporal regions, G) neuroepithelial cyst in the right ventricle, H) hyperintensity lesion in white matter of the frontal lobes (red arrows).