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7 **Cilia Ultrastructure Associated with Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia in Omani**

8 **Patients**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 **Objectives:** Primary ciliary dyskinesia (PCD) is a disorder affecting the structure and function
20 of motile cilia. Transmission electron microscopy is one method that can be used to examine
21 ciliary ultrastructure in airway biopsies. Although the role of ultrastructural findings in PCD
22 has been described in the literature, this role has not been well studied in the Middle East or,
23 by extension, Oman. This study aims to describe ultrastructural features in Omani patients with
24 high suspicion of PCD. **Methods:** This retrospective cross-sectional study included 129
25 adequate airway biopsies obtained between 2010–2020 from Omani patients suspected of
26 having PCD. **Results:** Ciliary ultrastructural abnormalities in our study population were outer
27 dynein arm associated with inner dynein arm defects (8%), microtubular
28 disorganisation associated with inner dynein arm defect (5%), and isolated outer dynein arm
29 defect (2%). Most of the biopsies showed normal ultrastructure (82%). **Conclusion:** In Omani
30 patients suspected to have PCD, normal ultrastructure was the commonest feature.

31 **Keywords:** Cilia; Primary Ciliary Dyskinesia; Airway Biopsy; Transmission Electron
32 Microscopy; Ultrastructure; Oman.

33

34 **Advances in Knowledge**

- 35 • Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) is a feasible diagnostic tool for primary
36 ciliary dyskinesia (PCD).
- 37 • Normal ciliary ultrastructure features are common finding when using TEM.

38 **Applications to Patient Care**

- 39 • A normal ciliary ultrastructure finding does not exclude PCD in Omani patients.
- 40 • Other tests need to be considered, including genetic testing, if a ciliary ultrastructure
41 finding is normal.

42

43 **Introduction**

44 Primary ciliary dyskinesia (PCD) is a hereditary disorder affecting the structure and/or
45 function of motile cilia.^{1,2} PCD is particularly challenging to manage and research, and
46 diagnosis is typically delayed due to shared clinical features with other diseases, including
47 cystic fibrosis (CF), immunodeficiency, chronic pulmonary aspiration, asthma and recurrent
48 respiratory viral infection.²⁻⁴

49

50 The symptoms of PCD are initially observed in organs in which cilia motility is essential for
51 normal function and manifest in organs outside the respiratory tract as well as in sinuses and
52 the lungs.³ In the respiratory system, PCD-related mucociliary clearance impairment can
53 cause chronic wet cough, recurrent respiratory tract infections, bronchitis and
54 bronchiectasis.⁴⁻⁷ The effects may vary between patients but are common in that they never
55 fully resolve despite using systemic antibiotics.⁴ Outside the respiratory system, PCD patients
56 can suffer from fertility issues and hearing difficulties due to glue ear, and approximately 45–
57 50% have situs inversus.^{5,7,8} PCD patients also can have inborn heart defects due to situs
58 ambiguus.⁶

59

60 The official American Thoracic Society (ATS) clinical practice guidelines for the diagnosis
61 of PCD recommend testing for PCD if two clinical PCD phenotypes are present.⁴ The
62 recommended testing methodologies are the examination of ciliary ultrastructure using TEM,
63 genetic testing, nasal nitric oxide (nNO) measurement in children five years of age or older
64 and high-speed video microscopy (HSVM).^{3,7,8} Although HSVM is useful for accessing
65 ciliary beat frequency and its pattern and length, such testing is limited to specialised PCD
66 centres.⁴

67

68 Ultrastructural studies of ciliary axonemes by TEM remains one of the most widely used and
69 reliable diagnostic methods for PCD.⁹ Using this diagnostic process, however, is challenging,
70 because obtaining an adequate sample with a sufficient number of cilia that are technically
71 acceptable for interpretation is not easy.^{3,10} However, using TEM to identify a consistent
72 ultrastructural abnormality within the ciliary axoneme helps to expedite disease management
73 as it indicates a definite diagnosis.¹¹ Ciliary ultrastructural features, including the location of
74 the central pair complex, the availability of the dynein arms, orientation of peripheral
75 microtubules (MTs), and epithelial cells abnormalities are definitive clues leading to PCD
76 diagnosis.^{5,10,12}

77

78 International guidelines for reporting PCD using TEM were established to regulate and direct
79 the diagnostic efforts.¹⁰ According to these guidelines, ciliary ultrastructure can be classified
80 as normal, or as class 1 or class 2 defects.¹⁰ Normal ultrastructure is defined as the presence
81 of the well-known 9 + 2 axonemal structure with a clear identification of outer dynein arms
82 (ODA), inner dynein arms (IDA) and the central microtubules in the middle of the axoneme
83 [Figure 1].¹⁰ Class 1 findings are considered as hallmark defects (i.e. diagnostic) while class 2
84 defects may possibly be used to indicate a diagnosis of PCD if it is consistent across multiple
85 samples.¹⁰ In this case, and if clinical symptoms are persistent, it is required to confirm the
86 diagnosis using another mode of testing like for example high-speed video microscopy or
87 genetic testing.¹⁰

88

89 Class 1, or hallmark defects, can include isolated loss of ODA or combined ODA and IDA
90 absence from > 50% of cross-sections. However, when it is < 50 % (i.e. 20 -50%) it is
91 referred to as class 2 defects. In addition, microtubular disorganisation combined with IDA
92 defects is considered a class 1 defect, while microtubular disorganisation when IDA is present
93 is referred to as class 2 defect. .¹⁰ Moreover, central complex defect and the Mislocalisation of
94 basal bodies with few or no cilia are also considered class 2 defects.¹⁰

95

96 PCD is no longer considered a mild disease, and more research is needed to expedite PCD
97 management in order to prevent complications from the disease. The objective of this study,
98 therefore, was to determine the most common ciliary ultrastructural defects in Omani PCD
99 patients and use those results to assist in patient management.

100

101 All airway biopsies sent to the Electron Microscopy Unit (EMU) at Sultan Qaboos University
102 (SQU) from 2010–2020 were included in this study. This sample included biopsies from all
103 Omani patients who were highly suspected of having PCD based on clinical phenotypes and
104 symptoms. Specimens were taken from patients between one month and 70 years of age.
105 These patients had presented to clinics suffering from at least two out of four ATS-defined
106 PCD symptoms. These symptoms included recurrent chest infections; wet, productive cough;
107 the presence of laterality defects and neonatal respiratory distress.⁴

108

109 **Methods**

110 Medical ethics approval was obtained to include all airway biopsies for ciliary ultrastructural
111 examination from 2010–2020 in SQU's EMU. The research was approved by the Medical
112 Research Ethics Committee (MREC), College of Medicine and Health Sciences at Sultan
113 Qaboos University (MREC #2089) and the Scientific Research Committee (SRC) at the
114 Royal Hospital, Ministry of Health, Sultanate of Oman (SRC #23/2020).

115

116 Araldite blocks from samples of patients attending pulmonary clinics at Sultan Qaboos
117 University Hospital (SQUH) and the Royal Hospital (RH) that had been received in the
118 EMU, Department of Pathology at SQU were collected retrospectively. In addition, two
119 adequate normal control samples were obtained from two healthy adult candidates.

120

121 Samples were considered adequate if 50 cross cilia were possible to screen using TEM.
122 Samples of adequate airway biopsies from highly suspected PCD Omani patients were all
123 included if they met the inclusion criteria. They were included if patients had presented with
124 at least two of the following symptoms: recurrent chest infections with no response to
125 antibiotics; laterality defects; respiratory distress during early infancy, year-round wet cough.

126

127 All inadequate samples were excluded as were samples from patients diagnosed with
128 conditions other than PCD after reviewing patients' clinical charts.

129

130 Samples had been collected using the following steps: nasal airway biopsies were taken in
131 outpatient clinics. The clinicians obtained the specimens by scraping the nasal inferior
132 turbinate using either a brush or rhino pro curette. Specimens were received in Karnovsky's
133 fixative and then transferred into sodium cacodylate buffer and kept at 4° C. Specimens were
134 then fixed in osmium tetroxide, washed in distilled water and dehydrated in a series of graded

135 acetone. The dehydrated specimens were infiltrated in a mixture of acetone and araldite resin,
136 embedded in freshly prepared pure araldite resin and polymerised at 60° C overnight. Control
137 specimens were processed following the same protocol that was used for the retrospectively
138 collected specimens.

139

140 The blocks containing ciliated cells were cut using a diamond knife, and thin sections were
141 placed on copper grids. Sections were stained using supersaturated uranyl acetate and
142 Reynolds' lead citrate. In total, 50 cross cilia from each sample were screened at high
143 magnification using a JEOL JEM-1230 TEM at 80 KV (JEOL, Ltd. Tokyo, Japan). Images
144 were captured using a Gatan MSC SI003 1 digital camera system (Gatan, Inc., Pleasanton,
145 California, USA) and analysed.

146

147 **Results**

148 A total of 421 airway biopsies were received and processed during the study period, out of
149 which 129 biopsies (30%) were adequate. From the adequate samples, 114 were from
150 individuals between 1 month and 18 years old, and only 15 were from patients above 18
151 years old. These samples were of patients from different regions in the country. A sample
152 was considered adequate when 50 cross cilia could be examined and photographed with a
153 TEM.

154

155 Image analysis was done following ATS international guidelines for reporting PCD using
156 TEM.¹⁰ Out of the 129 adequate samples, 23 (18%) showed alterations in the ciliary
157 ultrastructure [Table 1]. The absence of ODA and IDA was the most frequently observed
158 abnormality in the studied group (n = 10; 8%) [Figure 2] followed by the microtubular
159 disorganisation associated with an IDA defect (n = 6; 5%). Both of these abnormalities are
160 considered class 1 defects. The least common class 1 ultrastructural defects were the isolated
161 absence of ODA (n = 3; 2%) [Figure 3]. Additionally, 3 samples (n = 3; 2%) showed central
162 complex defects [Figure 4] and one sample (n = 1) showed microtubular disorganisation
163 without IDA defect. These types of defects are classified as class 2 defects and would require
164 another mode of testing (e.g., testing for genetic mutations) to confirm PCD diagnosis.

165

166 Most of the sample (n = 106; 82%) showed normal ultrastructure of the ciliary axoneme
167 [Figure 5]. On review, it was found that all of these individuals had fulfilled the ATS clinical
168 criteria for testing. PCD was highly suspected due to their presentation with at least two out

169 of four PCD clinical phenotypes. Furthermore, 65 patients (50%) from this group had
170 negative sweat chloride test, and 57 (44%) had a negative workup for immunodeficiency.
171 However, 37 patients (29%) were not tested for immunodeficiency or sweat chloride for
172 clinical reasons.

173

174 **Discussion**

175 Ciliary ultrastructure analysis requires special expertise. Analysts require knowledge of
176 normal versus abnormal ciliary structures and TEM availability.¹³ It is important that
177 healthcare institutions overcome these challenges, however, because this type of analysis is
178 essential to the process of diagnosing PCD.^{8,9} TEM is feasible in about 70% of PCD patients,
179 but TEM alone is not sufficient to achieve reliable diagnosis.¹⁴ In this study, most of the
180 current studied sample showed normal ultrastructure on TEM (n = 106; 82%). Other
181 researchers have achieved similar findings.^{7,13,14} In their study, Papon *et al.* found that more
182 than half of their PCD-positive sample showed normal ultrastructure.¹⁴

183

184 Other researchers' findings and those of the current study suggest the potential role of gene
185 mutations in causing normal ciliary ultrastructure.^{7,11,15-17} *DNAH11* gene mutations, for
186 example, have been found to cause PCD but are associated with normal ciliary
187 ultrastructure.¹⁶ These mutations affect the structural proteins and subsequently the function
188 of ODA, but the structure still looks normal through a TEM.¹⁶ The *HYDIN* autosomal
189 recessive gene mutation is also associated with normal ultrastructure.¹⁸ This gene is involved
190 in the production of proteins for the central pair complex.¹⁸

191

192 Due to high rates of consanguinity in Oman, it is expected that certain PCD-associated genes
193 are predominant in the Omani population. If the most common PCD-associated gene
194 mutations in this region are associated with normal ciliary ultrastructure, then this may
195 explain the current study results. Genetic testing, however, is needed to confirm this
196 theory. In Omani cases of suspected PCD, it is recommended to re-evaluate clinical
197 phenotypes in individuals who show repetitive normal ciliary ultrastructure. If symptoms of
198 PCD persist, then other diagnostic investigations are highly recommended to confirm PCD. A
199 similar recommendation should be followed if ultrastructural features suggest class 2 defects.
200 As with class 1 defects, a final diagnosis of class 2 defects requires confirmation of disease
201 by applying, for example, genetic testing.¹⁰

202

203 Defects of ODA and IDA and microtubular disorganisation combined with IDA defects were
204 among the ciliary ultrastructural abnormalities reported in the current study. Both of which
205 are considered class one defects and confirm PCD.¹⁰ In the current study, ODA associated
206 with an IDA defect was reported in 10 patients (8%), and microtubular disorganisation
207 associated with an IDA defect was reported in seven patients (5%). On the other hand, an
208 isolated ODA defect was reported in only 2% (n = 3) of the studied group. In these cases,
209 PCD diagnosis was confirmed by TEM, and testing for gene mutations causing these
210 abnormalities become an option but were not a priority.¹⁰

211

212 The high inadequacy rate of samples submitted for TEM analysis was a challenge in the
213 current study. However, inadequacy might also indicate a specific cause of PCD. It is now
214 well known that if multiple specimens from the same patient all show a low percentage of or
215 no cilia in the epithelial cells, then it may indicate specific PCD gene mutations.¹⁸ This type
216 of finding suggests that something is not right in the ciliogenesis process. In such cases, re-
217 evaluating the clinical presentation is highly recommended. If symptoms persist with no other
218 explanation, then genetic testing for PCD to explore certain gene mutations as in the protein
219 coding *CCNO* or *MCIDAS* genes may be considered.¹⁸ Future research should examine
220 possible genetic mutations in Omani PCD patients and correlate them with the clinical and
221 ultrastructural phenotypes of patients.

222

223 **Conclusion**

224 The current research group recommends ciliary ultrastructural studies for PCD patients in
225 Oman. If class 1 defects are identified, early PCD management might limit or even prevent
226 lung damage due to disease complications. In this case, genetic testing is optional and may
227 not be necessary unless it is required for family planning. The percentage of cases diagnosed
228 using TEM is not high, but TEM cannot exclude PCD upon normal ultrastructure findings
229 nor when multiple specimen inadequacy is observed within the same patient. At this time, a
230 combination of tests are required to confirm PCD including TEM, genetic testing, nNO and
231 HSVM.

232

233 **Conflict of Interest**

234 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

235

236

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239

240 **Acknowledgment**

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242 providing the specimens and equipment used in this research and in special Ms. Marwa Al
243 Shukri for the great help in producing the diagrams of the abnormal cilia.

244

245 **Authors' Contribution**

246 KAA Carried out the electron microscopy laboratory work related to this research and
247 prepared the samples. Then screened them, captured the images and analyzed the results of
248 the research under the supervision of the team. TB was the main supervisor for this research
249 and reviewed the ultrastructure of cilia and helped in the results analysis. MAR authorized
250 the final reports of the ultrastructure for the patients included in this research. AAA and HAK
251 were the co-supervisors for this research and participated in the analysis of results. HAK is
252 also one of the clinicians who participated in the analysis of the clinical features for the
253 patients included in this research. NAS and KAS were the clinicians who reviewed the
254 clinical features and participated in the setup of this research. All authors approved the final
255 version of this manuscript.

256

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312

313 **Table 1:** Shows the ultrastructure detected by TEM from 2010 to 2020

Ultrastructural defect	Number of specimens
Class 1 defect	
ODA + IDA defects	10 (8%)
Microtubular disorganisation with IDA defect	7 (5%)
ODA defect)	2 (2%)
Class 2 defect	
Central Complex defect	3 (2%)
Microtubular disorganisation with IDA present	1 (1%)
Normal Ultrastructure	106 (82%)
Total Adequate airway biopsies	129

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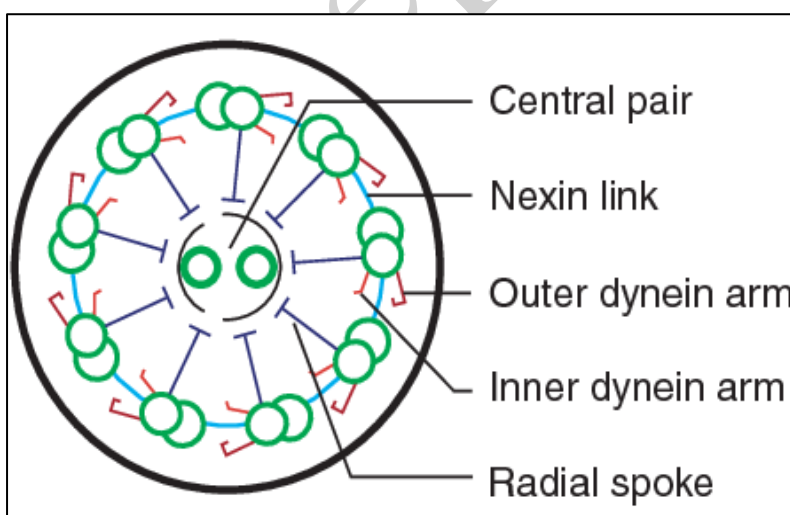
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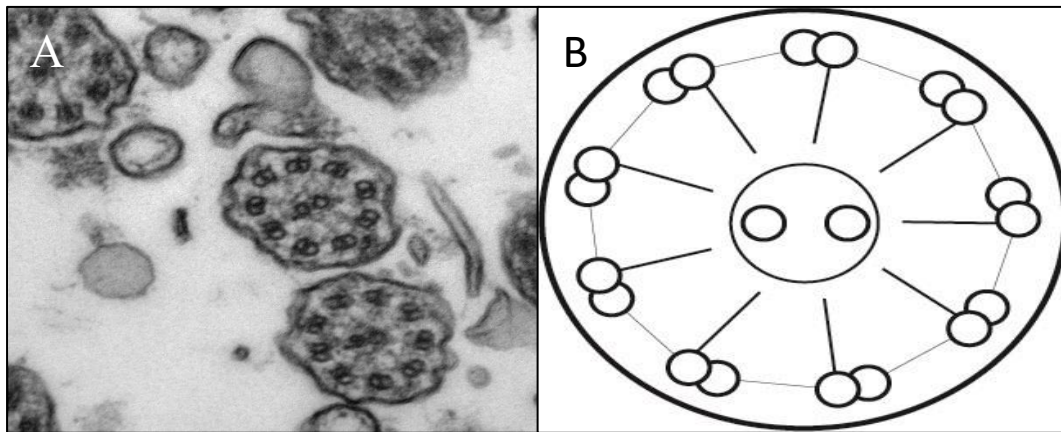


325 **Figure 1:** A schematic diagram of the cross section of a motile cilium illustrating the normal

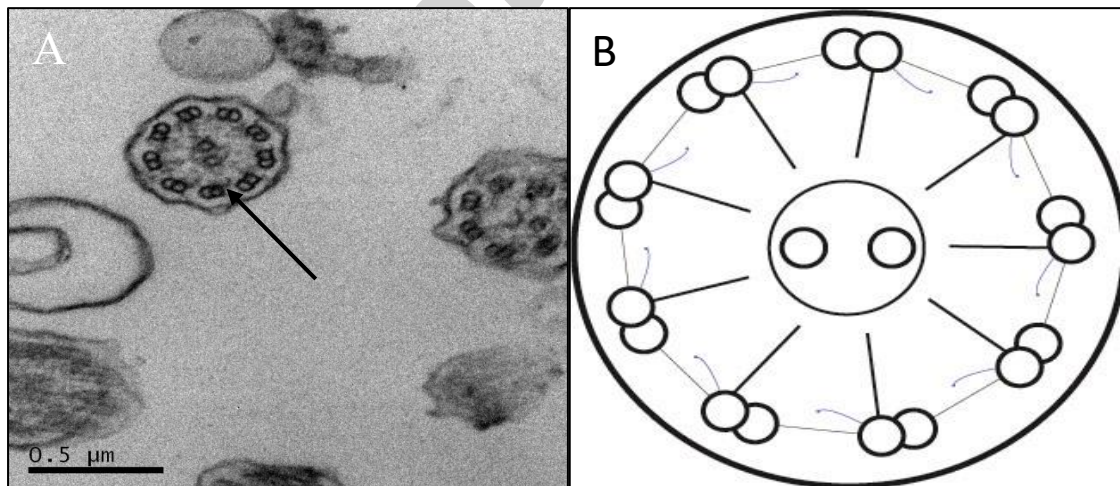
326 9+2 microtubular structure. The 9 fused doublet microtubules with outer and inner dynein

327 arms are arranged in the outer periphery surrounding a pair of singlet microtubules in the

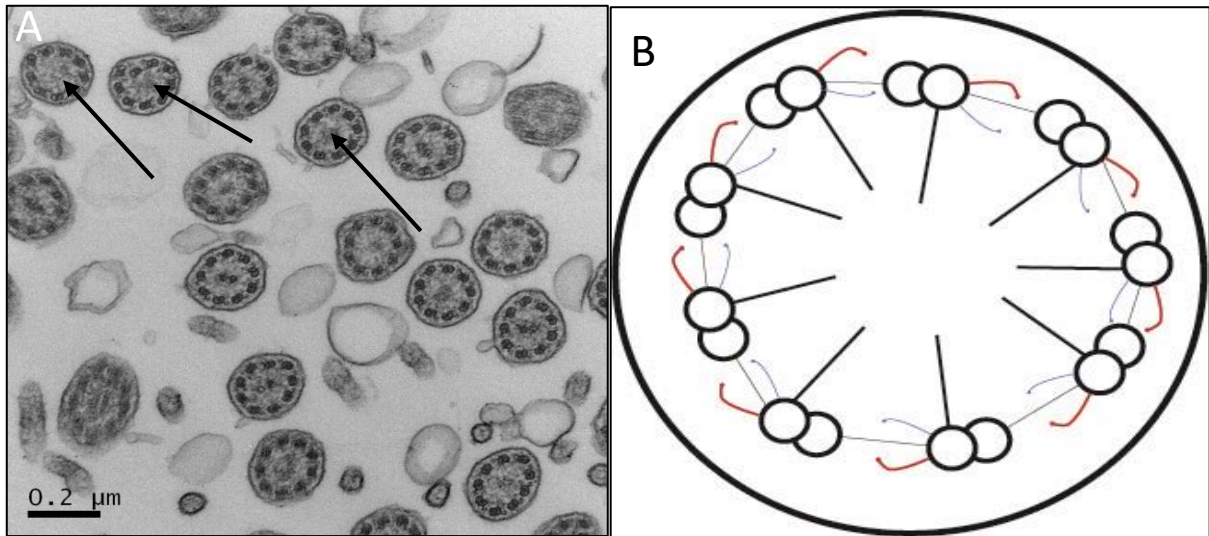
328 middle of the ciliary axoneme. The central pair is surrounded by a central sheath and radial
329 spokes are radiating between them and the outer doublets. Diagram was taken from:
330 Ishikawa, H., & Marshall, W. F. (2017). Intraflagellar Transport and Ciliary Dynamics. Cold
331 Spring Harb Perspect Biol. 2017; 9(3):a021998. Published 2017 Mar 1.
332 <https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a021998>



343 **Figure 2:** (A) An electron micrograph of a class 1 defect showing the absence of both ODA
344 & IDA in the 9+2 ultrastructure of the ciliary axoneme from an adequate patient's sample.
345 (B) A schematic diagram of the cross section of a motile cilium illustrating the absence of
346 both ODA + IDA.
347



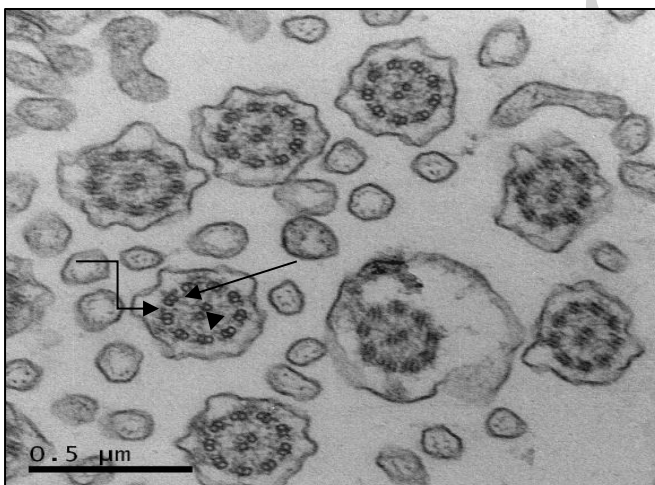
348 **Figure 3:** (A) an electron micrograph showing a class 1 defect, ODA is missing from the ciliary
349 axoneme, while IDA (black arrow) can be identified. (B) A schematic diagram of the cross
350 section of a motile cilium illustrating the absence of ODA.
351



353

354 **Figure 4:** (A) Electron micrograph of a class 2 defect. The majority of the cilia in this sample
 355 showed the absence of central complex (black arrows). However, ODA & IDA can be
 356 identified in those cilia. (B) A schematic diagram of the cross section of a motile cilium
 357 illustrating the absence of the central complex.

358



359

360 **Figure 5:** Electron micrograph showing normal 9+2 ultrastructure of the ciliary axoneme from
 361 an adequate patient's sample, ODA (elbow arrow), IDA (arrow) & central complex (arrow
 362 head) are identified in this image.