

# Novel Genetic Determinants of Dental Maturation in Children

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Dental occlusion requires harmonious development of teeth, jaws, and other elements of the  
3 craniofacial complex, which are regulated by environmental and genetic factors. We performed  
4 the first genome-wide association study (GWAS) on dental development (DD) using the  
5 Demirjian radiographic method. Radiographic assessments from participants of the Generation R  
6 Study (primary study population,  $N_1= 2,793$ ; mean age 9.8 years) were correlated with ~30  
7 million genetic variants while adjusting for age, sex, and genomic principal components (proxy  
8 for population stratification). Variants associated with DD at genome-wide significant (GWS)  
9 level ( $P<5\times 10^{-8}$ ) mapped to 16q12.2 (*IRX5*) (lead variant rs3922616,  $B=0.16$ ;  $P=2.2\times 10^{-8}$ ). We  
10 used Fisher's combined probability tests weighted by sample size to perform a meta-analysis  
11 ( $N=14,805$ ) combining radiographic DD at mean age 9.8 years from Generation R with data  
12 from a previous GWAS ( $N_2=12,012$ ) on number of teeth (NT) in infants used as proxy of DD at  
13 mean age 9.8 years (including the ALSPAC and NFBC1966). This GWAS meta-analysis  
14 revealed three novel loci mapping to: 7p15.3 (*IGF2BP3*:  $P=3.2\times 10^{-8}$ ), 14q13.3 (*PAX9*:  $P=1.9\times 10^{-8}$ )  
15 and 16q12.2 (*IRX5*:  $P=1.2\times 10^{-9}$ ), and validated eight previously reported NT loci. A polygenic  
16 allele score constructed from these 11 loci was associated with radiographic DD in an  
17 independent Generation R set of children ( $N=703$ ;  $B=0.05$ ,  $P=0.004$ ). Furthermore, profiling of  
18 the identified genes across an atlas of murine and human stem cells observed expression in the  
19 cells involved in the formation of bone and/or dental tissues ( $>0.3$  Frequency Per Kilobase of  
20 transcript per Million mapped reads), likely reflecting functional specialization. Our findings  
21 provide biological insight into the polygenic architecture of the pediatric dental maturation  
22 process.

23

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# 1 INTRODUCTION

2 Dental development (DD) is a biological process which begins in the eighth week of  
3 gestation with primary teeth formation and completes postnatally around the age of 18-25 years  
4 (Nanci 2008). **Tooth structures' formation**, eruption, and emergence are intertwined processes  
5 and integral components of human tooth maturation (Nanci 2008). Delayed DD typically results  
6 in inadequate dental occlusion, and consequent problems with mastication, pronunciation, and  
7 appearance (Dhamo et al. 2018).

8 DD is a multifactorial process under distinct environmental and genetic influences. Tooth  
9 eruption is influenced by multiple factors such as trauma, surgery, nutrition, and medication  
10 (Suri et al. 2004; Poureslami et al. 2015). Furthermore, secular acceleration in tooth (root)  
11 formation most likely reflects changes in environmental influences over time (lessening of  
12 disease, better nutrition, decrease in energy expenditure resulting in high BMI) (Cardoso et al.  
13 2010). Conversely, various gene families have also been associated with DD (FGF, WNT, BMP)  
14 mostly in animal models (Frazier-Bowers and Vora 2017). Previous genome-wide association  
15 study (GWAS) meta-analysis studying tooth eruption identified 10 loci associated with the age  
16 of the first erupted tooth (AFTE) and 11 loci with the number of teeth at one year of age (NT)  
17 (Fatemifar et al. 2013). Demirjian and colleagues developed a radiographic method to estimate  
18 DD based on dental mineralization, shape, and proportions (Demirjian et al. 1973) which has  
19 never been surveyed following a GWAS approach.

20 We performed the first GWAS on radiographic DD and strengthened our results by  
21 combining them with a previously performed meta-analysis studying NT at 12 or 15 months of  
22 age (**proxies of DD**) (Fatemifar et al. 2013). We also constructed a polygenic allele score (PGS)  
23 for DD and tested its association with radiographic DD in independent samples. In addition, we

1 sought supporting evidence for the functional involvement of the discovered candidate gene(s)  
2 by investigating the local expression profiles in murine and human cell lines.

### 3 **METHODS**

#### 4 **Study Population**

5 The present study comprised participants from the Generation R Study (primary study  
6 population), and two other cohorts – Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children study  
7 (ALSPAC) and 1966 Northern Finland Birth Cohort Study (NFBC1966). Details about study  
8 populations and ethical approvals are provided in the *Supplementary Material*.

#### 9 **Dental Development Assessment**

10 The *Generation R Study* quantified DD at a mean age of 9.8 (SD=0.34) years (third cohort visit)  
11 on panoramic radiographs (exclusively available in the Generation R Study) using the method  
12 described by Demirjian (1973) (see *Supplementary Material*).

13 *ALSPAC* provided primary tooth eruption phenotypes of children based on questionnaires  
14 completed by the mothers and included both AFTE and NT (at 15 months) (Fatemifar et al.  
15 2013).

16 *NFBC1966* measured AFTE and NT in primary teeth based on the judgment of public health  
17 professionals during monthly visits of children to welfare centers. AFTE was recorded as the  
18 month of visit at which the first tooth was observed. Hence, the first tooth may have erupted at  
19 any time between the end of the previous month and the recorded month (i.e., ‘interval  
20 censoring’). NT was recorded at 12 months (Fatemifar et al. 2013).

#### 21 **Genotyping and Quality Control**

22 Individuals were genotyped using Illumina HumanHap 610 or 660 Quad chips (Illumina Inc.,  
23 San Diego, USA) in the Generation R Study (Medina-Gomez et al. 2015), Illumina

1 HumanHap550 Quad genotyping platform (23andMe, Cambridge, UK; Burlington, NC, USA) in  
2 ALSPAC, and Illumina HumanCNV370-Duo DNA Analysis BeadChip in NFBC1966. Details  
3 about genotyping and quality control are provided in the *Supplementary Material*.

#### 4 **Gene expression profiling**

5 Candidate genes were prioritized based on expression profiles across relevant cells and tissues.  
6 These profiles were selected from a very large atlas of RNA-seq data obtained by performing  
7 both RNA-sequencing and bioinformatic analysis on >1,000 murine and human RNA samples  
8 using the same experimental procedures and in silico pipeline to facilitate broad comparisons  
9 among many cell types and tissues (AJVW and AD; unpublished data available on request).  
10 Murine RNA-seq data used for the current analysis was obtained for ameloblasts and osteoblasts,  
11 while human RNA-seq data was obtained with bone marrow stromal cells (BMSCs), adipose  
12 tissue-derived mesenchymal stem cells (AMSCs), dental pulp derived stromal cells (DPSCs),  
13 and pluripotent embryonic stem cells (ESCs). Based on the biological characteristics of these cell  
14 lines, gene(s) that directly contribute to DD were expected to be endogenously expressed in one  
15 or more mesenchymal cell types. Conversely, absence of expression would be a potential  
16 disqualification for direct mechanistic contributions to DD regardless of a GWS level of  
17 association. Hence, local expression provided supporting data for the prioritization of the best  
18 candidate(s) genes per locus. We also considered the evidence for mechanistic involvement of  
19 specific genes in bone and tooth formation and mineralization based on the available literature.  
20 Details about cell origin and RNA-sequencing analysis are given in the *Supplementary Material*.  
21 We evaluated expression for all the genes mapping within +/- 400 KB of the index-associated  
22 SNP in the novel loci. Furthermore, for all the loci previously associated with NT (Fatemifar et

1 al. 2013) and GWS in the joint meta-analysis, the expression of the gene closest to the index  
2 SNP was evaluated.

### 3 **GWAS in the Generation R participants**

4 In the Generation R Study – the primary study population ( $N_1=2,793$ ), standardized residuals of  
5 radiographic DD were calculated using a linear regression model adjusted for age, sex, and 20  
6 genomic principal components (to adjust for population stratification) (Price et al. 2006).  
7 Residuals were further used as an outcome in the association analysis with ~ 30 million SNPs  
8 using the mach2qtl software package as implemented in GRIMP (Estrada et al. 2009). Genome-  
9 wide significance (GWS) was set at  $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ .

### 10 **Meta-Analysis**

11 Single GWS SNP(s) look-up was pursued in an already published GWAS meta-analysis  
12 comprising two cohorts (ALSPAC and NFBC1966) ( $N_2=12,012$ ) (Fatemifar et al. 2013) using  
13 proxy phenotypes of DD – NT and AFTE –. In addition, Fisher’s combined probability test  
14 weighted by sample size and implemented in METAL (Willer et al. 2010) was used in the joint  
15 meta-analysis of the discovery cohort in which radiographic DD at mean age 9.8 was assessed  
16 and the published results of ALSPAC and NFBC 1966 in which conversely NT (proxy of DD at  
17 mean age 9.8 years) was evaluated.

### 18 **Genetic correlation**

19 Genetic correlation was evaluated between the summary statistics of the NT-GWAS and  
20 anthropometric traits, blood lipids, hormones, and glyceic traits using LD-Score regression as  
21 implemented in the LD Hub database, making use of the already reported epidemiological  
22 association of these traits with dental maturation/eruption (Lal et al. 2008; Partyka et al. 2018;  
23 Danze et al. 2021). We used only the NT GWAS summary statistics to avoid combining two

1 proxies of dental maturation – NT and radiographic DD - in the LD Hub database (Zheng et al.  
2 2016). Heritability estimate for NT was obtained from the LD Hub output.

### 3 **PGS**

4 Association between PGS (created from loci reported as associated at GWS level with combined  
5 dental traits) and radiographic DD (expressed in years) was tested in an independent subset of  
6 children of European ancestry in Generation R using a linear regression model. Details about the  
7 study population can be found in the *Supplementary Material*.

### 8 **Gene expression**

9 High throughput next-generation sequencing of RNA and read mapping were performed as  
10 discussed previously (Dudakovic et al. 2014; Kalari et al. 2014). Frequency Per Kilobase of  
11 transcript per Million mapped reads (FPKM) expression values were standardized by  $\text{Log}_2(x+1)$   
12 transformation. Log transformation was performed to account for exponential differences in  
13 expression values, while one was added to retain zero-valued observations in the dataset. A  
14 threshold of detectable expression was set at 0.3 FPKM as described previously (Ramsköld et al.  
15 2009). Differential gene expression was defined as a change greater than 1.5 fold (Van  
16 Oudenhove et al. 2016). Fold change in the expression across two cell lines was derived from the  
17 ratio of the mean expression values across cell lines. The non-parametric Mann-Whitney test was  
18 used to assess the differences in gene expression across cell lines. A significance threshold was  
19 set at  $P < 0.05$  for the analysis of expression in murine cells (2 cell lines) and at  $P < 0.017$  ( $0.05/3$ )  
20 for the analysis in human cells after correction for multiple testing (4 cell lines).

## 21 **RESULTS**

22 The characteristics of the discovery sample are presented in **Appendix Table 1**. The  
23 discovery GWAS, showing an adequate control for population stratification (genomic inflation



1 factor  $\lambda$ : 0.98), identified variants in the 16q12.2 locus associated at GWS level with advanced  
2 DD (*IRX5*; lead variant rs3922616-C, B=0.16; P=2.2x10<sup>-8</sup>; explaining 1% of the variance of  
3 radiographic DD) (**Appendix Figure 2**). The SNP rs12444195, found to be in high LD with  
4 rs3922616 ( $r^2=0.87$ ), was used for the cross-trait replication, as the lead variant was not present  
5 in the NT meta-analysis set. This variant showed significant evidence of cross-trait replication in  
6 the NT and the AFTE meta-analyses (P=2.7x10<sup>-5</sup> and P=1.5x10<sup>-5</sup>, respectively). In the genome-  
7 wide cross-trait meta-analysis between the radiographic DD discovery and the NT sets, including  
8 2,216,657 SNPs common to all three studies (N=14,805), there was no evidence suggesting  
9 population stratification ( $\lambda=1.007$ ) (**Figure 1**). Furthermore, we identified variants associated  
10 with DD in children in three novel loci, including the one locus (*IRX5*) that was already reported  
11 in the discovery set. These new loci are 16q12.2 (*IRX5*; P=1.2x10<sup>-9</sup>), 7p15.3 (*IGF2BP3*;  
12 P=3.2x10<sup>-8</sup>) and 14q13.3 (*PAX9*; P=1.9x10<sup>-8</sup>) (**Table 1, Figure 1, Figure 2**). Given that  
13 mutations in *PAX9* cause tooth agenesis (Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man dataset;  
14 <https://www.omim.org/>, \*167416) (Hamosh et al. 2005), we subsequently adjusted our analysis  
15 for the presence of hypodontia in the discovery set where this variable was available. This  
16 adjustment did not substantially change the findings of the discovery set or the joint meta-  
17 analysis. Furthermore, variants in two loci (1q32.1; *ASCL5* and 14q24.1; *RAD51B*) reached  
18 GWS in the combined meta-analysis (**Figure 1**). However, these genes have already been  
19 implicated in primary and permanent tooth eruption (Pillas et al. 2010; Geller et al. 2011).  
20 Lastly, from the 10 loci reported previously as associated at GWS level with NT (excluding X  
21 chromosome), 8 were GWS after the joint meta-analysis (**Appendix Table 2**). However, only 3  
22 of these 8 loci were nominally (P<0.05) associated with DD in the discovery set (*ADK*, *HMGA2*,  
23 and *MSRB3*) (**Appendix Table 2**).

1 NT SNP heritability was estimated at 24.8% (95% CI 24.70 - 24.90). Borderline significant  
2 genetic correlation of NT with diverse lipid traits was observed while there was no evidence of  
3 genetic correlation with hormones, glycemic and anthropometric traits (**Appendix Table 3,**  
4 **Appendix Figure 3**).

5 There was a significant positive association between the PGS (comprising 11 SNPs from  
6 joint effort; 3 novel and 8 replicated) and radiographic DD in the independent European  
7 subsample of children (B: 0.05 years, P=0.004) (**Appendix Figure 4**).

8 We also evaluated the expression of 28 genes from the GWS loci in human-derived cells  
9 and 20 genes in mouse-derived cells (8 genes did not have orthologs in the mouse genome) after  
10 the exclusion of three recently described genes (*FAM221A*, *NKX2-1-AS1*, and *MIR4503*) that  
11 were not yet annotated in the specific transcriptome scaffold used for the queried RNA-seq  
12 database.

13 Heatmap visualization of gene expression across mouse osteoblasts and ameloblasts  
14 showed two clusters: one comprising genes with higher expression levels in ameloblasts and the  
15 other comprising genes predominantly expressed in osteoblasts (**Figure 3**). However, none of the  
16 differences in expression levels of the genes across the two cell lines reached significance  
17 ( $P \geq 0.1$ ). Nevertheless, *GPNMB* (7p15.3) showed exclusive expression in murine ameloblasts.  
18 More importantly, the DD candidate genes were clearly expressed in either mesenchymal cell  
19 type, consistent with some type of endogenous function in either early or late stages of  
20 craniofacial and DD.

21 Heatmap visualization of gene expression across human cell lines also indicated two  
22 clusters: one comprising genes with higher expression levels in DPSCs and the other  
23 predominantly expressed in ESCs (**Figure 4**). However, after a detailed assessment of gene

1 expression patterns in the novel loci, the only genes showing a clear difference in expression  
2 levels across the four cell lines (expression fold change>1.5, P<0.017) were *GPNMB* (7p15.3;  
3 expression in DPSCs close to the one in BMDCs [P=0.69], 2-fold higher than in AMSCs  
4 [P=0.008], and close to the detection threshold in ESCs), *IGF2BP3* (7p15.3; expression in ESCs  
5 3-fold higher than in AMSCs [P=0.008] and close to the detection threshold in DPSCs and  
6 BMDCs), *PAX9* (exclusively expressed in DPSCs) and *SLC25A21* (expressed in DPSCs and  
7 ESCs, with no significant difference in expression between the two cell lines [P=0.1]). Despite  
8 the differences in the expression levels between cell types, the fact that mRNAs for each of the  
9 genes is expressed at detectable level in distinct cell types suggests that these genes could  
10 directly contribute to growth, differentiation or function of mesenchymal cells.

11 Expression profiles of the genes previously associated with the NT (Fatemifar et al. 2013)  
12 and GWS in the joint effort are also presented in both heatmap visualizations. Likewise,  
13 expression profiles of all the genes across mouse and human cells are presented in **Appendix**  
14 **Figure 5** and **Appendix Figure 6**, respectively.

## 15 **DISCUSSION**

16 Radiographic DD constitutes a refined approach to assess the genetic architecture of dental  
17 maturation. In the joint meta-analysis, we report 3 novel loci associated with combined dental  
18 traits mapping to the vicinity of the *IRX5*, *IGF2BP3*, and *PAX9* genes, beyond confirming 8 (of  
19 10) loci previously associated with dental eruption. Also, we demonstrated dental maturity PGS  
20 as associated with radiographic DD in an independent subsample of children. Moreover, the  
21 analysis of gene expression profiles across murine and human cell lines provided additional  
22 evidence for the functional involvement of the reported genes in DD.

1 Earlier dental maturation in girls as compared to boys, likely governed by earlier pubertal  
2 onset in girls has been reported (Demirjian and Levesque 1980). In line with this contention, at  
3 the mean age of 10 years, in the Generation R Study, girls showed on average more advanced  
4 DD as compared to boys (data not shown). Therefore, our GWAS studies (Fatemifar et al. 2013)  
5 have implemented sex-adjusted statistical models.

6 *IRX5* may be driving the association with DD at the 16q12.2 locus. The *IRX5* expression  
7 profile links it to tooth development and bone metabolism (**Appendix Figures 5 and 6**).  
8 Previously, it has been shown that *IRX5* impacts craniofacial development (Bonnard et al. 2012),  
9 bone development (Li et al. 2014) and the development of the upper jaw in mice (Jeong et al.  
10 2008). Yet, *CRNDE*, showing a similar expression pattern in human cells as *IRX5*, could also  
11 potentially be the gene underlying the reported association. In mice, *Crnde* has been postulated  
12 as a regulator of bone metabolism (Mulati et al. 2020). Interestingly, *CRNDE* and *IRX5* share the  
13 same promoter which could suggest a functional connection of the genes (Yang et al. 2008).  
14 *IRX6* expression was below/close to the detection limit in both mouse and human cell lines and  
15 therefore is less likely to be underlying the association with DD in this locus.

16 In the 14q13.3 locus, *PAX9* is the strongest candidate gene to underlie the reported  
17 association with DD. In line with the implication of *PAX9* in disturbances in the number (Sun et  
18 al. 2020) and size of teeth (Lee et al. 2012), our profiling indicates an enriched expression of this  
19 gene in cell lines of dental origin in both mouse and humans. However, *SLC25A21* can not be  
20 fully discarded as a possible gene underlying the reported association. The ablation of *Slc25a21*  
21 (14q13.3) in mice results in orofacial abnormalities. This finding is consistent with the exclusive  
22 expression of *SLC25A21* in human DPSCs and ESCs. Nevertheless, the effect ascribed to  
23 *SLC25A21* could also be explained by a change in the expression of the neighboring *PAX9*

1 (Maguire et al. 2014). Lastly, *MBIP* shows a broad expression across all cell lines and therefore  
2 may represent a ubiquitous gene that could contribute to DD. However, there is a paucity of data  
3 on its involvement in the development of mineralizing tissues. The other genes in the locus,  
4 exhibit expression values close to the detection threshold and are less likely to play a role in DD  
5 regulation.

6 Information arising from gene expression profiling was not conclusive at the 7p15.3 locus,  
7 as multiple genes showed broad expression patterns across many/all cell types. Yet, the *GPNMB*  
8 and *IGF2BP3* emerge as attractive candidates deserving further experimental consideration.  
9 Exclusive expression of *GPNMB* in murine ameloblasts and expression in human DPSCs (and  
10 BMDCs) suggest that this gene may be involved in dental and/or bone phenotypes, consistent  
11 with previous results in mouse models (Frara et al. 2016). There is also evidence of *GPNMB* as a  
12 negative regulator of miR-508-5p during the odontogenesis of DPSCs (Liu et al. 2019; Zhou et  
13 al. 2020). However, the index SNP in this locus maps closer to *IGF2BP3*. This gene shows the  
14 largest differential expression in ESCs as compared to the other cell lines. *IGF2BP3* encodes a  
15 protein that regulates insulin-like growth factor II (Igf2) translation during late embryonic  
16 development in mice and humans (Nielsen et al. 1999). Overexpression of Igf2 is associated with  
17 Beckwith–Wiedemann syndrome characterized by abnormal growth of different skull parts  
18 (Hamosh et al. 2005).

19 The association between dental maturation PGS and radiographic DD suggests that genes  
20 reported here may have multiple functions in both dental eruption and mineralization, and  
21 indicates that these two processes are interdependent components of overall dental maturation.

22 Generation R is to our knowledge the only large pediatric cohort with dental panoramic  
23 radiographs available. This represents a great opportunity to investigate DD but also poses the

1 limitation of the lack of replication necessary to allow extrapolation of our findings. Hence, in  
2 this particular study, we chose proxy phenotypes. Such a decision relied on the successful  
3 replication of our discovery findings in the NT meta-analysis and a previously reported negative  
4 partial correlation between DD and tooth eruption (ranging from 0.60-0.80 after adjustment for  
5 BMI;  $P < 0.001$ ) (Nicholas et al. 2018). However, combining proxy traits of DD (radiographic DD  
6 and NT at 12 or 15 months) in the current work may have decreased our statistical power to  
7 detect associations confined to one of the phenotypes. Another limitation of our study is the low  
8 number of RNA samples obtained both from human ( $N=5$ ) and murine ( $N=3$ ) cell lines which  
9 could result in low statistical power or false-positive findings. Lastly, it is important to know that  
10 the association signal in the discovery sample explained only 1% of the variance in radiographic  
11 DD. Based on a twin study, it was reported that 2/3 of the variation in the mineralization of root  
12 of third molars can be attributed to genetic effects, while 1/3 can be attributed to environmental  
13 components (Trakinienė et al. 2019). In other words, environmental factors (such as nutrition,  
14 different diseases, and BMI) have an important impact on DD. While beyond the scope of this  
15 manuscript, the study of these factors and their possible interaction with genetic markers, should  
16 be addressed in future research.

17 In conclusion, in the first GWAS meta-analysis including radiographic DD, we identified  
18 3 novel loci affecting dental maturity. The association of dental maturity PGS with radiographic  
19 DD and cross-trait replication indicated that radiographic DD and tooth eruption are reliable  
20 proxies for each other, and may thus serve as mutually corroborating parameters for the general  
21 assessment of dental maturation in genetic studies. Taken together, our study provides new  
22 biological insights into dental maturation by showing that DD is a complex polygenic process.

1 Among genes mapping to the identified loci, the *IRX5*, *PAX9*, *GPNMB* and *IGF2BP3* have been  
2 shown as functionally involved in the normal development of mineralized tissues.

3

4 **Authors' Contributions:** Olja Grgic contributed to the conception of this work, performed data  
5 analysis, interpreted them, and wrote the manuscript. Vid Prijatelj gave his suggestions when  
6 performing polygenic score analyses, interpreting them, and critically revising the manuscript.

7 Strahinja Vucic contributed to the conception of this work, statistical analyses, interpretation of  
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## TABLES

**Table 1. Novel loci associated with DD obtained from the joint meta-analysis.** SNP – single nucleotide polymorphism, CHR – chromosome, BP – base pair, EA – effect allele, EAF – frequency of the effect allele, N – sample size, B – beta, SE – standard error, GENE – closest gene. SNPs position – given in GRCh37/hg19.

SNP	CHR	BP	GENE	EA	EAF	Generation R N=2,793			ALSPAC+NFBC19 66 N=12,012			Meta N=14,805	
						B	SE	P	B	SE	P	Z	P
<b>rs12444195</b>	16	55044333	<i>IRX5</i>	A	0.57	-0.16	0.03	3.0x10 <sup>-8</sup>	-0.10	0.02	2.7x10 <sup>-5</sup>	-6.1	1.2x10 <sup>-9</sup>
<b>rs6967145</b>	7	23517468	<i>IGF2BP3</i>	C	0.4	-0.07	0.02	7.0x10 <sup>-3</sup>	-0.12	0.02	5.8x10 <sup>-7</sup>	-5.5	3.2x10 <sup>-8</sup>
<b>rs7156439</b>	14	37100738	<i>PAX9</i>	T	0.62	-0.10	0.03	2.3 x10 <sup>-4</sup>	-0.11	0.02	4.6x10 <sup>-6</sup>	-5.6	1.9x10 <sup>-8</sup>

## FIGURES

**Figure 1. Manhattan plot of association statistics for DD in the joint meta-analysis (2,216,657 SNPs tested; N=14,805).** Each dot represents one SNP, the x-axis is its chromosomal position-build 37 NCBI, on the y-axis the  $-\log_{10}$  (P-value) is reported, horizontal red and yellow lines mark the GWS threshold ( $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ ) and suggestive threshold ( $P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ ), respectively, SNPs which were GWS in previously published meta-analysis investigating NT are colored in red. Q-Q plot (in the upper left corner) is obtained from the joint meta-analysis; the plot shows the distribution of expected against observed P values, the diagonal red line represents the null distribution, each dot represents one SNP.

**Figure 2. Regional plots for three novel loci associated with DD: 16q12.2 (a), 7p15.3 (b) and 14q13.3 (c).** The lead variant in the locus is presented as a purple diamond and the flanking variants as circles in different colors according to the level of their linkage disequilibrium (LD) with the lead variant. The x-axis shows all the genes in the region in the window of  $\pm 500$  Kb from the lead variant. Y-axis presents the  $-\log_{10}$  (P-value). Regional plot was created using <http://locuszoom.org>.

**Figure 3. Heat-map representation of expression patterns of the genes mapping to GWS loci reported in the joint meta-analysis across ameloblasts and osteoblasts.** Expression is measured by RNA-seq analysis with values expressed as Frequency Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads (FPKM). Expression of the genes was available for 3 samples per cell line. Gene expression level is shown in the legend with the darkest blue representing the lowest expression in a certain row (gene min) and the darkest red the highest expression in that row (gene max). Gene clusters are marked with dots (Cluster 1 – black dot, Cluster2 – green dot). The cytogenetic band is presented next to each gene; \* genes in the novel loci. Expression from *SLC25A21* (14q13.3), *NKX2-1* (14q13.3), *STK31* (7p15.3), and *IRX6* (16q12.2) was below the detection threshold in both cell lines.

Figure is created in <https://software.broadinstitute.org/morpheus/>



**Figure 4. Heat-map representation of expression patterns of the genes mapping to GWS loci reported in the joint meta-analysis across 4 types of cell lines.** BMSCs- bone marrow stromal cells, AMSCs- adipose tissue-derived mesenchymal stromal cells, DPSCs- dental pulp stem cells, ESCs- embryonic stem cells. Expression measured by RNA-seq analysis with values expressed as Frequency Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads (FPKM). Expression of the genes was available for 5 donors for every cell line. Gene expression level is shown in the legend with the darkest blue representing the lowest expression in a certain row (gene min) and the darkest red the highest expression in that row (gene max). Gene clusters are marked with dots (Cluster 1 – black dot, Cluster2 – green dot). The cytogenetic band is presented next to each gene; \* genes in the novel loci. Expression from *IRX6* (16q12.2), *STK31* (7p15.3), *CLK2P* (7p15.3), *KLHL7-ASI* (7p15.3), *RPS2P32* (7p15.3), *NKX2-1* (14q13.3), *NKX2-8* (14q13.3), and *SFTA3* (14q13.3) was close to the detection threshold in all cell lines. Figure is created in <https://software.broadinstitute.org/morpheus/>