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The 2018 Otto Aufranc Award

How Does Genome-wide Variation Affect Osteolysis Risk After THA?

Running title: The Genetics of Osteolysis

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These studies were approved by the National Research Ethics Service in England (NRES 12/YH/0390, October 30, 2012) and by the Directorate of Health in Norway (Ref. 08/8916, October 20, 2008) and the regional Ethical Committee of Western Norway (Ref. 08/10018, September 8, 2008). All work was conducted in accordance with the ethical standards in the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki, and all participants provided written informed consent.

This work was performed at the University of Sheffield, Sheffield, UK; Haukeland University Hospital, Bergen, Norway; and the Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute, Cambridge, UK.

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1 **Abstract**

2 Background Periprosthetic osteolysis resulting in aseptic loosening is a leading cause of THA
3 revision. Individuals vary in their susceptibility to osteolysis and heritable factors may
4 contribute to this variation. However, the overall contribution that such variation makes to
5 osteolysis risk is unknown.

6 Questions/purposes We conducted two genome-wide association studies to (1) identify
7 genetic risk loci associated with susceptibility to osteolysis; and (2) identify genetic risk loci
8 associated with time to prosthesis revision for osteolysis.

9 Methods The Norway cohort comprised 2624 patients after THA recruited from the
10 Norwegian Arthroplasty Registry, of whom 779 had undergone revision surgery for
11 osteolysis. The UK cohort included 890 patients previously recruited from hospitals in the
12 north of England, 317 who either had radiographic evidence of and/or had undergone revision
13 surgery for osteolysis. All participants had received a fully cemented or hybrid THA using a
14 small-diameter metal or ceramic-on-conventional polyethylene bearing. Osteolysis
15 susceptibility case-control analyses and quantitative trait analyses for time to prosthesis
16 revision (a proxy measure of the speed of osteolysis onset) in those patients with osteolysis
17 were undertaken in each cohort separately after genome-wide genotyping. Finally, a meta-
18 analysis of the two independent cohort association analysis results was undertaken.

19 Results Genome-wide association analysis identified four independent suggestive genetic
20 signals for osteolysis case-control status in the Norwegian cohort and 11 in the UK cohort (p
21 $\leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$). After meta-analysis, five independent genetic signals showed a suggestive
22 association with osteolysis case-control status at $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$ with the strongest comprising 18
23 correlated variants on chromosome 7 (lead signal rs850092, $p = 1.13 \times 10^{-6}$). Genome-wide
24 quantitative trait analysis in cases only showed a total of five and nine independent genetic

25 signals for time to revision at $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$, respectively. After meta-analysis, 11 independent
26 genetic signals showed suggestive evidence of an association with time to revision at $p \leq 5 \times$
27 10^{-6} with the largest association block comprising 174 correlated variants in chromosome 15
28 (lead signal rs10507055, $p = 1.40 \times 10^{-7}$).

29 **Conclusions** We explored the heritable biology of osteolysis at the whole genome level and
30 identify several genetic loci that associate with susceptibility to osteolysis or with premature
31 revision surgery. However, further studies are required to determine a causal association
32 between the identified signals and osteolysis and their functional role in the disease.

33 **Clinical Relevance** The identification of novel genetic risk loci for osteolysis enables new
34 investigative avenues for clinical biomarker discovery and therapeutic intervention in this
35 disease.

36 **Introduction**

37 Despite improvements in modern prosthetic design, 5% to 10% of THA prostheses undergo
38 revision within 10 years [28, 32]. Although osteolysis after THA has been mitigated by the
39 use of highly crosslinked polyethylene bearings [22], osteolysis and its sequelae aseptic
40 loosening remain a leading indication for revision surgery, accounting for 55% of THA
41 revision procedures worldwide [43]. Revision surgery carries a three- to eightfold greater in-
42 hospital mortality, higher morbidity, and poorer functional outcome versus primary THA [9,
43 31, 58].

44 Aseptic loosening is the clinical endpoint of periprosthetic osteolysis, which describes a
45 progressive resorption of bone caused by a host inflammatory response to particulate wear
46 debris [15, 25, 44, 45]. This inflammatory bone loss is mediated by proinflammatory
47 cytokines that upregulate osteoclastogenesis directly or indirectly through receptor activator
48 of nuclear factor κ B ligand signaling [7, 19-21, 24, 52, 56] while also downregulating
49 osteoblastogenesis [27]. The exact mechanisms involved in this process are still not fully
50 understood, although several studies have implicated innate immune signaling through
51 pattern recognition receptor activation by danger and pathogen-associated molecular patterns
52 [3, 5, 41, 48].

53 Evidence from in vitro studies suggest that individuals vary in their immunologic response to
54 wear debris [12, 37]; however, the component of osteolysis that is attributable to heritable
55 factors remain unclear. Similarly, the genes that modulate the time after surgery when
56 osteolysis occurs in patients who develop the disease also remain relatively unexplored, and
57 may differ to those that modulate susceptibility. Several investigators have explored the
58 relationship between genetic variation within candidate genes and susceptibility to
59 periprosthetic osteolysis with the first identified association being with the promoter region of
60 the gene encoding tumor necrosis factor (TNF) [53]. Subsequently, several associations

61 between single nucleotide polymorphism (SNPs) in proinflammatory cytokines and bone
62 turnover pathways and osteolysis have been identified [1, 2, 11, 13, 14, 26, 30, 33-35, 47,
63 51]. However, our knowledge of the genetics of osteolysis is currently based entirely on
64 studies using the “candidate” gene approach in which the threshold for identifying an
65 association is low. The only genetic association with osteolysis identified to date that has
66 been independently replicated is found at the TNF promoter [11, 53].

67 Candidate gene studies, which are based on a priori hypotheses about the role of a selected
68 gene or a group of pathway-related genes, have several limitations. These include low sample
69 sizes leading to low statistical power to detect modest to small effect sizes that are
70 characteristic of most complex diseases and incomplete coverage of variation across the
71 genes of interest. Limited knowledge of the etiopathogenesis of disease also restricts the
72 selection of candidate genes and misses variation in genes lying in previously unsuspected
73 pathways. In contrast, genome-wide association studies utilize a hypothesis-free approach
74 enabling the examination of a set of maximally informative markers capturing variation
75 across the whole genome. This approach has established thousands of reproducible
76 associations with complex diseases (<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas/>) [23, 40]. To date, there
77 have been no systematic studies of the genetic architecture of osteolysis at the whole genome
78 level.

79 We conducted two genome-wide association studies and a subsequent meta-analysis to (1)
80 identify genetic risk loci associated with susceptibility to osteolysis; and (2) identify genetic
81 risk loci associated with time to prosthesis revision for osteolysis.

82 **Patients and Methods**

83 The Norwegian cohort comprised patients with osteolysis and osteolysis-free matched control
84 patients after THA. The participants were identified from the Norwegian Arthroplasty

85 Register and recruited by postal return of a saliva sample for DNA extraction between April
86 2009 and December 2011. All patients had previously undergone primary cemented or hybrid
87 (cemented femur) THA for idiopathic osteoarthritis. The recruitment strategy for the
88 Norwegian cohort was planned to minimize confounders between the patients with osteolysis
89 and those in the control group as follows: All live patients recorded in the Norwegian
90 Arthroplasty Register as having had a revision for the indication of osteolysis or aseptic
91 loosening (n = 2029) were invited to participate. The revision patients were recruited first and
92 the control group patients individually matched at a ratio of approximately three to one to be
93 of the same age (± 2 years), sex, implant fixation method, bearing couple material and head
94 size (22-mm or 28-mm bearing only), and year of primary surgery (± 2 years). Patients who
95 had undergone primary THA for an inflammatory arthropathy, femoral neck fracture,
96 secondary osteoarthritis, or who had a history of infection were excluded. Patients who had
97 previously undergone revision arthroplasty were also excluded as were those of self-reported
98 non-European Caucasian ancestry. This exclusion criteria were also confirmed at genotype
99 screening. In all, 923 patients who had previously undergone revision surgery for osteolysis
100 responded to the invitation and provided a saliva sample for DNA analysis. A matched group
101 of 1957 patients identified within the Norwegian Arthroplasty Register as having primary
102 THA for idiopathic osteoarthritis and with no recorded revision surgery episodes for the
103 operated hip provided a saliva sample as disease-negative controls.

104 The 890 patients in the UK cohort had been previously recruited into a research program
105 examining the genetics of osteolysis, having previously undergone either cemented or hybrid
106 THA with a metal-on-conventional polyethylene bearing couple for primary osteoarthritis.
107 The osteolysis group comprised 317 patients with any osteolysis, with or without aseptic
108 loosening, diagnosed on plain AP and lateral radiographs of the hip using the Harris criteria
109 [16, 17], and the control group comprised 573 asymptomatic patients at a minimum of 7

110 years after primary THA and who had not undergone any revision surgery and were free from
111 plain radiographic evidence of osteolysis at the time of recruitment. These participants were
112 identified through hospital records from the north of England and recruited between April
113 2000 and August 2010 as part of previous ethically approved osteolysis studies [13, 30, 53]
114 and had DNA archived in South Yorkshire and North Derbyshire Musculoskeletal Biobank.
115 In both cohorts, patients in the osteolysis group were younger, and a greater proportion were
116 men when compared with the control group (Table 1). Patients in the control population also
117 had a longer time since primary THA than the patients with osteolysis, and a greater
118 proportion in the Norway cohort had fully cemented prostheses and ceramic-on-polyethylene
119 bearing couples. These findings are consistent with known osteolysis risk factors [15, 18, 49]
120 and were adjusted for by inclusion as covariates in all subsequent analyses.

121 DNA Sample Quality Control, Genotyping, and Association Analyses

122 Genomic DNA from the Norwegian cohort was genotyped on the Infinium Illumina
123 HumanCoreExome-24 BeadChip Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). Genotypes were
124 called using the Illumina Genome Studio Gencall calling algorithm. All samples underwent
125 standard quality control (QC) procedures with exclusion criteria as follows: (1) call rate <
126 80%; (2) gender discrepancy; (3) excess heterozygosity (separately for minor allele frequency
127 (MAF) $\geq 1\%$ and $< 1\%$); (4) duplicates and/or related; (5) ethnicity outliers; and (6) Fluidigm
128 concordance (this identity check looks at sample concordance between Illumina and Fluidigm
129 genotypes). Variants were excluded based on the following: (1) call rate < 98%; (2) Hardy-
130 Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) $p \leq 1 \times 10^{-4}$; (3) cluster separation score < 0.4; (4) MAF <
131 0.01; and (5) < four minor allele counts in cases and controls separately. In total, after the
132 exclusion of samples and variants that failed the QC criteria, 785 osteolysis patients, 1846
133 control patients, and 508,957 directly typed SNPs remained. Phasing and imputation were
134 carried out remotely on the Haplotype Reference Consortium (HRC) free servers using

135 IMPUTE2 and SHAPEIT3 software (<http://www.haplotype-reference-consortium.org/>).

136 Briefly, the HRC reference panel consists of 64,976 human haplotypes at 39,235,157 SNPs
137 using whole-genome sequence data from 20 studies of predominantly European ancestry
138 [38]. After imputation and additional QC exclusions (variants with $MAF < 0.05$, $HWE\ p \leq$
139 10^{-4} , and imputation info score ≤ 0.4), the number of variants reached 5,397,933 and
140 5,397,567 for case-control status and time-to-revision analyses, respectively. In all, 2631
141 individuals (779 patients with osteolysis and 1846 patients in the control group) passed the
142 QC criteria and were used in the case-control analysis, and in the time-to-revision analysis,
143 only cases were used.

144 Genomic DNA from patients in the UK cohort was genotyped using the Illumina 610k
145 beadchip. After QC, the data set was phased and imputed using the HRC reference panel by
146 applying the same QC metrics used for the Norwegian cohort. After QC, 5,314,896 variants
147 in 895 individuals proceeded to case-control analysis and 5,415,184 variants in 317
148 individuals proceeded to time-to-revision analysis.

149 Association analyses for osteolysis case-control status and time to revision in those patients
150 with osteolysis were conducted separately for the Norwegian and UK cohorts and made using
151 the frequentist likelihood ratio test and method ml in SNPTEST v2.5.2

152 (https://mathgen.stats.ox.ac.uk/genetics_software/snpctest/) [36]. To account for population
153 stratification, the first 10 principal components were included as covariates in the association
154 testing. Sex, age at operation, prosthesis fixation method, bearing couple material
155 combination, and lysis-free survival were also used as covariates in the association analysis.

156 The same covariates were used for the time-to-prosthesis revision analysis. Because of the
157 large number of variants tested in genomic studies and the variable levels of linkage
158 (nonindependence) between the variables, p values of $\leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$ were taken as indicating a
159 suggestive association between variant and disease status and $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$ as indicating

160 genome-wide significance. Power was calculated using Quanto v1.2.4 [38] using $p = 5 \times 10^{-8}$
161 and fixed the sample size to the size of each cohort separately.

162 Meta-analysis

163 We performed a meta-analysis of the two analyzed cohorts using the fixed-effects inverse-
164 variance weighted model implemented in METAL

165 (<http://www.sph.umich.edu/csg/abecasis/metal/>) [54]. The total sample size in the combined
166 cohort consisted of 1096 patients and 2419 control group participants. Variants with per-
167 cohort MAF 0.05, imputation information score > 0.4 , and HWE $p \geq 10^{-4}$ were included in
168 the analysis. To test the heterogeneity of the results, we computed Cochran's Q and the I^2
169 statistic.

170 Data Availability

171 Anonymized genotypes of the Norwegian cohort included in this study are publicly available
172 through the European Genome-Phenome Archive (EGA) under accession number
173 EGAS00001001883, data set EGAD00010001289.

174 Results

175 Genetic Loci Associated With Osteolysis Case-control Status

176 In the Norwegian cohort, we found a total of 12 SNPs comprising four independent signals
177 (Manhattan Plot [Fig. 1A], QQ Plot [Fig. 1B]) that were associated with osteolysis case-
178 control status at $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$. A summary of the loci associated with osteolysis is shown
179 (Supplemental Table 1 [Supplemental materials are available with the online version of
180 CORR[®].]). The variant with the most statistically significant p value was rs8101944, an
181 upstream variant of PLPP2 (phospholipid phosphatase 2; PPAP2C [phosphatidic acid
182 phosphatase type 2C]) on chromosome 19 (effect allele [EA] T, effect allele frequency [EAF]
183 0.06, odds ratio [OR], 0.68; 95% confidence interval [CI], 0.51-0.89; $p = 1.26 \times 10^{-6}$).

184 In the UK cohort, we identified a total of 61 SNPs comprising 11 independent signals
185 (Manhattan Plot [Fig. 2A], QQ Plot [Fig. 2B]) that were associated with osteolysis case-
186 control status at $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$. A summary of the loci associated with osteolysis case-control
187 status is shown (Supplemental Table 2 [Supplemental materials are available with the online
188 version of CORR[®].]). The variant with the most statistically significant p value was
189 rs12135813, an intergenic variant (EA C, EAF 0.37; OR, 0.60; 95% CI, 0.49–0.74; $p = 4.34 \times$
190 10^{-7}) and lies between the PLXNA2 (plexin A2) and MIR205HG genes on chromosome 1.

191 Genetic Loci Associated With Time to Prosthesis Revision

192 In the Norwegian cohort, we identified 32 SNPs comprising five independent signals
193 (Manhattan Plot [Fig. 3A], QQ Plot [Fig. 3B]) that were associated with time to revision at p
194 $\leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$. A summary of the loci associated with time to revision is shown (Supplemental
195 Table 3 [Supplemental materials are available with the online version of CORR[®].]). The
196 variant with the most statistically significant p value is rs282329 (EA T, EAF 0.66; beta \pm
197 standard error [SE] 0.25 ± 0.05 ; $p = 3.06 \times 10^{-7}$) and lies between the VEZT (vezatin,
198 adherens junctions transmembrane protein) and METAP2 (methionyl aminopeptidase 2)
199 protein coding genes on chromosome 12.

200 Genome-wide analysis in the UK cohort identified 19 signals comprising nine independent
201 signals (Manhattan Plot [Fig. 4A], QQ Plot [Fig. 4B]) that were associated with time to
202 revision at $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$. A summary of the loci associated with time-to-revision status is
203 shown (Supplemental Table 4 [Supplemental materials are available with the online version
204 of CORR[®].]). The variant with the most statistically significant p value was rs184396151 (EA
205 G, EAF 0.67; beta \pm SE 1.34 ± 0.17 ; $p = 6.70 \times 10^{-7}$) and lies within CUX2 (cut-like
206 homeobox 2) protein coding gene on chromosome 12.

207 Genetic Loci Association Meta-analyses

208 The results showed that 5,411,522 variants with $MAF \geq 0.05$ were common to both the
209 Norwegian and UK osteolysis case-control analyses. After meta-analysis, no signals
210 approached the genome-wide significance threshold of $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$ (Manhattan Plot [Fig.
211 5A], QQ Plot [Fig. 5B]). A summary of the loci that associated with osteolysis case-control
212 status at $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$ is shown (Supplemental Table 5 [Supplemental materials are available
213 with the online version of CORR[®].]). Twenty-nine SNPs, with the same direction of effect in
214 both cohorts and comprising five independent signals, showed suggestive evidence for an
215 association with osteolysis susceptibility with $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$. The strongest signal was in
216 chromosome 7 (Fig. 6) with 18 correlated variants showing $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$. The lead variant
217 rs850092 (EA A, EAF 0.72; OR, 1.41; 95% CI, 1.23–1.61; $p = 1.13 \times 10^{-6}$), is located within
218 DPY19L2P3 (DPY19L2 pseudogene 3).

219 In a meta-analysis across the Norwegian and UK cohorts for time to revision, a total of
220 5,418,572 variants were analyzed (Manhattan Plot [Fig. 7A], QQ Plot [Fig. 7B]). A summary
221 of the loci that were associated with time to revision at $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$ is shown (Supplemental
222 Table 6 [Supplemental materials are available with the online version of CORR[®].]). In all,
223 209 variants with the same direction of effect in both cohorts and comprising 11 independent
224 signals showed suggestive evidence for association with time-to-prosthesis revision with $p \leq$
225 5×10^{-6} . rs10507055 (Fig. 8) had the most statistically significant p value (EA T, EAF 0.37;
226 $\beta \pm SE -0.22 \pm 0.04$; $p = 1.40 \times 10^{-7}$) and is in the same region of chromosome 12 as
227 rs282329, which had the most statistically significant p value in the Norwegian cohort
228 association analysis. A block of 174 correlated variants with $p \leq 5 \times 10^{-6}$ was found in
229 chromosome 15 (Fig. 9). rs12899987 is the lead variant and lies within the gene OTUD7A
230 (EA T, EAF 0.81; $\beta \pm SE 0.26 \pm 0.05$; $p = 2.80 \times 10^{-7}$).

231 Discussion

232 Although osteolysis after THA has been mitigated substantially by the use of highly
233 crosslinked polyethylene bearings, osteolysis and its sequelae aseptic loosening remain a
234 leading indication for revision surgery. Previous studies have observed that interindividual
235 differences in susceptibility to osteolysis may have a genetic basis [1, 2, 34, 53], but this
236 question has not been examined systematically at the genome-wide level. In this study, in two
237 European cohorts, we explored the contribution that variation across the human genome
238 makes to osteolysis and found evidence of a modest heritable contribution to disease
239 susceptibility. We found replicating evidence for suggestive association of several genetic
240 loci with susceptibility to osteolysis and with time to revision in those patients with
241 osteolysis. The largest association block in the case-control meta-analysis centered on the
242 gene encoding DPY19L2 pseudogene 3 on the short arm of chromosome 7 (intronic variant
243 rs850092). This gene has not been characterized previously and its function is unknown.
244 However, this signal also lies adjacent to microRNA 550a-3 (MiR550A3). MicroRNAs are a
245 recently discovered group of RNAs that function to regulate the production of other peptides
246 and are currently being explored as putative biomarkers and treatments for musculoskeletal
247 and other diseases [4, 6, 39, 42]. In our quantitative trait meta-analysis of time-to-prosthesis
248 revision, we identified a large block of 174 correlated variants in chromosome 15. The lead
249 signal for this block was intronic variant rs12899987 that lies within the gene encoding OTU
250 deubiquitinase 7A (OTUD7A). OTUD7A is an intracellular enzyme that modulates NFκB
251 signaling through TRAF6 that is pivotal in proinflammatory cytokine signaling in
252 periprosthetic osteolysis [55] and represents a potentially actionable target in its prevention
253 [29]. The most statistically significant signal in the time-to-revision analysis lies within the
254 gene LOC105369917. The function of this gene has not been explored. However, this signal
255 also lies adjacent to two further microRNA sites, MiR331 and MiR3685. Further exploration
256 by fine mapping of these loci is required to identify the causal variants at each signal.

257 This study has several limitations. Although these cohorts represent a nationwide and a large
258 regional cohort purposely collected for the study of osteolysis genetics, the sample sizes
259 remain small compared with other population-based genomic studies [10, 50, 57]. For the
260 case-control analysis, we had > 80% power to detect ORs of 1.5 to 1.9 for variants with MAF
261 5% to 15% using the combined sample size and combined case/control ratio (1:2.2). For the
262 continuous trait, we assumed a population mean of 0 and a SD of 1. The combined sample
263 size had > 80% power to detect variants at genome-wide significance ($p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) with
264 modest effect size (beta of 1.3 to 1.5) for common variants (MAF, 0.5 to 0.15) and moderate
265 effect size (beta of 1.6 to 2.0) for variants with MAF 0.14 to 0.05. However, similar sample
266 sizes have been used previously to identify the genetic underpinnings in other complex
267 musculoskeletal diseases, including the association of Wnt signaling with Dupuytren's
268 disease (n = 960 cases) [8].

269 The case-ascertainment approach also differed between the cohorts. The UK participants
270 were recruited face to face using the primary hospital record and included radiographic
271 evidence of osteolysis or the revision operative record, as described previously, and
272 comprised all patients who fit the relevant inclusion and exclusion criteria. The known
273 epidemiologic risk factors for osteolysis were therefore also reflected in the UK study
274 population. Although this provides evidence for the generalizability of our findings to other
275 populations, we had to adjust for these covariates in the genetic association analyses. All
276 analyses are shown postadjustment for these clinical risk factors as well as for unidentified
277 population and analytical stratification using principal component and regression analysis.
278 The Norwegian cohort study design and recruitment were made using the Norwegian
279 Arthroplasty Register as the source data set with documented revision events and indications
280 recorded by the operating surgeon. The patients with osteolysis were recruited before the
281 control patients and at a control:case ratio of 3:1 with screening to match the demographic

282 characteristics and implant type and operation year (± 2 years) as closely as possible. This
283 approach allowed the recruitment of a large case-control matched population but increases
284 the risk of ascertainment bias because patients with silent osteolysis may have been recorded
285 as controls and cases could have been misdiagnosed. Despite this approach, small statistical
286 differences in population demographics remained because of the large sample sizes involved,
287 although their clinical relevance may be limited. For example, the mean age at primary
288 operation in the Norwegian control patients was 66 years, whereas it was 64 years in the
289 patients with osteolysis. We adjusted for these residual differences in the Norwegian cohort
290 association analysis in the same manner as we did for the UK cohort.

291 We found more genetic signals within the UK versus the Norwegian population despite the
292 smaller cohort size. These differences may be genuine. The observed differences might also
293 reflect differences in case ascertainment or other unknown biases between the cohorts.

294 However, the population-level genomic architecture of both cohorts by variant allele
295 frequency was similar, indicating no significant genetic heterogeneity between the cohorts.

296 The study participants in each cohort also came from different healthcare economies with
297 potential differences in diagnostic and treatment thresholds. Individual surgeons' clinical
298 practices also differ, resulting in management variation both between and within the cohorts.

299 However, these types of classification differences are unlikely to map to particular genotypes,
300 and thus their likely effect is to create noise limiting the ability of the study to detect genuine
301 genetic signals rather than increasing the false-positive discovery rate.

302 We, and others, have previously shown the association of osteolysis with variation in several
303 candidate genes [11, 30]. In these studies, the genes are selected based on their known
304 biologic function or previous association of the selected variants with other diseases that
305 share biologic similarities. The threshold for statistical significance is also set low (typically
306 at $p < 0.05$), favoring the identification of a positive association. Although these discovery

307 studies lend support to the concept of a disease driven by heritable variation, these
308 associations commonly are not reproduced when examined in independent cohorts [46], and
309 the overall contribution of genetic variation to the disease remains unanswered. In contrast,
310 genome-wide studies allow examination of the overall genetic architecture of the disease that
311 underpins the differences in susceptibility between individuals. However, these studies
312 require larger sample sizes and are accompanied by substantially more stringent thresholds
313 for significance.

314 The data presented here suggest the association of several previously unstudied genomic loci
315 with osteolysis. The observations that such loci may reside within areas of the genome about
316 which we still know very little provide the opportunity for novel avenues for exploration of
317 the disease. However, further replication of the observed associations is required to confirm
318 their validity, fine-mapping to precisely localize causal associations, and experimental study
319 of their biologic function will enable us to clearly understand their role in osteolysis biology
320 and to translate this new knowledge into diagnostic and therapeutic tools.

321

322

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Legends

Figure 1A-B. (A) Manhattan plot of the Norwegian cohort case-control status analysis showing the $-\log_{10} p$ values for each variant (y axis) plotted against their respective chromosomal position (x axis) and illustrating four independent genetic association peaks in 785 patients with osteolysis versus 1846 osteolysis-free patients. (B) Graph showing QQ plot of the p values for the Norwegian cohort case-control status, where the x-axis indicates the expected $-\log_{10} p$ values and the y-axis the observed ones. The red line represents the null hypothesis of no association at any locus and λ is the genomic inflation factor.

Figure 2A-B. (A) Manhattan plot of the UK cohort case-control status analysis showing the $-\log_{10} p$ values for each variant (y axis) plotted against their respective chromosomal position (x axis) and illustrating 11 independent genetic association peaks in 317 patients with osteolysis versus 517 osteolysis-free patients. (B) Graph showing QQ plot of the p values for the UK cohort case-control status association analysis, where the x-axis indicates the expected $-\log_{10} p$ values and the y-axis the observed ones. The red line represents the null hypothesis of no association at any locus and λ is the genomic inflation factor.

Figure 3A-B. (A) Manhattan plot of the Norwegian cohort time to revision association analysis in osteolysis patients only ($n = 785$) showing the $-\log_{10} p$ values for each variant (y-axis) plotted against their respective chromosomal position (x-axis) and illustrating five independent genetic association peaks. (B) Graph showing QQ plot of the p values for the Norwegian cohort time to revision association analysis, where the x-axis indicates the expected $-\log_{10} p$ values and the y-axis the observed ones. The red line represents the null hypothesis of no association at any locus and λ is the genomic inflation factor.

Figure 4A-B. (A) Manhattan plot of the UK cohort time to revision association analysis in osteolysis patients only ($n = 317$) showing the $-\log_{10} p$ values for each variant (y axis)

plotted against their respective chromosomal position (x axis) and illustrating nine independent genetic association peaks. (B) Graph showing QQ plot of the p values for the UK cohort time to revision association analysis, where the x-axis indicates the expected $-\log_{10}$ p values and the y-axis the observed ones. The red line represents the null hypothesis of no association at any locus and λ is the genomic inflation factor.

Figure 5A-B. (A) Manhattan plot of the Norwegian and UK cohort case-control status meta-analysis showing the $-\log_{10}$ p values for each variant (y-axis) plotted against their respective chromosomal position (x-axis) and illustrating five independent genetic association peaks in 1096 patients with osteolysis versus 2419 osteolysis-free patients. (B) Graph showing QQ plot of the p values for the Norwegian and UK cohort case-control status meta-analysis, where the x-axis indicates the expected $-\log_{10}$ p values and the y-axis the observed ones. The red line represents the null hypothesis of no association at any locus and λ is the genomic inflation factor.

Figure 6. Regional association plot showing the lead osteolysis susceptibility signal at rs850092 in the case-control association meta-analysis. Each filled circle represents the p value of analyzed variants (as $-\log_{10}$ p values) plotted against their physical position (NCBI Build 37). The p value at the index variant is represented by a purple circle. The other variants in the region are colored depending on their degree of correlation (r^2) with the index variant according to a scale from $r^2 = 0$ (blue) to $r^2 = 1$ (red). Gene location is annotated based on the UCSC genome browser.

Figure 7A-B. (A) Manhattan plot of the Norwegian and UK cohort time-to-revision association meta-analysis in osteolysis patients only ($n = 1096$) showing the $-\log_{10}$ p values for each variant (y-axis) plotted against their respective chromosomal position (x-axis) and illustrating 11 independent genetic association peaks. (B) Graph showing QQ plot of the p values for the Norwegian cohort time-to-revision association analysis, where the x-axis

indicates the expected $-\log_{10} p$ values and the y-axis the observed ones. The red line represents the null hypothesis of no association at any locus and λ is the genomic inflation factor.

Figure 8. Regional association plot showing the lead time to prosthesis revision signal at rs10507055 in the association meta-analysis. Each filled circle represents the p value of analyzed variants (as $-\log_{10} p$ values) plotted against their physical position (NCBI Build 37). The p value at the index variant is represented by a purple circle. The other variants in the region are colored depending on their degree of correlation (r^2) with the index variant according to a scale from $r^2 = 0$ (blue) to $r^2 = 1$ (red). Gene location is annotated based on the UCSC genome browser.

Figure 9. Regional association plot showing the lead time to revision signal at rs12899987 in the association meta-analysis. Each filled circle represents the p value of analyzed variants (as $-\log_{10} p$ values) plotted against their physical position (NCBI Build 37). The p value at the index variant is represented by a purple circle. The other variants in the region are colored depending on their degree of correlation (r^2) with the index variant according to a scale from $r^2 = 0$ (blue) to $r^2 = 1$ (red). Gene location is annotated based on the UCSC genome browser.