SCIENTIFIC REPORTS

Received: 29 June 2018 Accepted: 9 October 2018 Published online: 22 October 2018

OPEN Gene expression dataset for whole cochlea of Macaca fascicularis

Hideki Mutai¹, Fuyuki Miya^{2,3}, Hiroaki Shibata^{4,5}, Yasuhiro Yasutomi⁴, Tatsuhiko Tsunoda ^{2,3} & Tatsuo Matsunaga^{1,6}

Macaca fascicularis is a highly advantageous model in which to study human cochlea with regard to both evolutionary proximity and physiological similarity of the auditory system. To better understand the properties of primate cochlear function, we analyzed the genes predominantly expressed in M. fascicularis cochlea. We compared the cochlear transcripts obtained from an adult male M. fascicularis by macaque and human GeneChip microarrays with those in multiple macaque and human tissues or cells and identified 344 genes with expression levels more than 2-fold greater than in the other tissues. These "cochlear signature genes" included 35 genes responsible for syndromic or nonsyndromic hereditary hearing loss. Gene set enrichment analysis revealed groups of genes categorized as "ear development" and "ear morphogenesis" in the top 20 gene ontology categories in the macaque and human arrays, respectively. This dataset will facilitate both the study of genes that contribute to primate cochlear function and provide insight to discover novel genes associated with hereditary hearing loss that have yet to be established using animal models.

Although the basic histological components of cochlear tissues are consistent among mammalian species¹, each species has a unique range of auditory frequencies² to perceive environmental change and communicate. This physiological variation can be explained not only by the morphological properties of conductive auditory organs such as the auditory canal, eardrum, and ear ossicles but also by the magnitude of expression of cochlea-specific genes. Macaca fascicularis (also called long-tailed, cynomolgus, or crab-eating macaque) is one of the best-studied nonhuman primate models for biomedical research; the entire genome has been sequenced, and most of the genes have been annotated^{3,4}. The extremely high similarity between human transcripts and those of *M. fascicularis* as well as Macaca mulatta (rhesus macaque) has enabled investigators to study the gene expression profiles of macaque tissues using both the macaque and human microarray platforms⁵. The hearing range of *M. fascicularis* is from <0.1 to >32 kHz⁶, which overlaps with human hearing rage from <0.1 to 20 kHz. Therefore, M. fascicularis is considered a highly advantageous model to study human cochlea with regard to both the evolutionary proximity and physiological similarity of the auditory system.

To date, more than 100 genes have been identified that are associated with nonsyndromic hearing loss in humans⁷, and the number is increasing. While most of the genetic studies of cochlea have been carried out using rodents or other vertebrate species, the number of genetic studies using human cochlea is limited, mainly due to the difficulties in obtaining fresh cochlear tissues. Gene expression analysis from postmortem, formalin-fixed human cochlea is challenging due to fragmentation of the nucleic acids during fixation followed by decalcification and paraffin-embedding⁸, therefore would provide limited information for biomedical research. In this study, we sought to generate the profile of genes predominantly expressed in freshly-dissected whole cochlear tissue of M. fascicularis, which should include genes critical to cochlear function.

¹Division Hearing and Balance Research, National Institute of Sensory Organs, National Hospital Organization Tokyo Medical Center, 2-5-1 Higashigaoka, Meguro-ku, Tokyo, 152-8902, Japan. ²Department of Medical Science Mathematics, Medical Research Institute, Tokyo Medical and Dental University, 1-5-45 Yushima, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo, 113-8510, Japan. ³Laboratory for Medical Science Mathematics, RIKEN Center for Integrative Medical Sciences, 1-7-22 Suehirocho, Tsurumi-ku, Yokohama, Kanagawa, 230-0045, Japan. ⁴Tsukuba Primate Research Center, National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition, 1-1 Hachimandai, Tsukuba-shi, Ibaraki, 305-0843, Japan. ⁵Center for Development of Advanced Medical Technology, Jichi Medical University, 3311-1, Yakushiji, Shimotsuke-shi, Tochiqi, 329-0498, Japan. ⁶Medical Genetics Center, National Hospital Organization Tokyo Medical Center, 2-5-1 Higashigaoka, Meguro-ku, Tokyo, 152-8902, Japan. Hideki Mutai and Fuyuki Miya contributed equally. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to H.M. (email: mutaihideki@kankakuki.go.jp)



Figure 1. Schematic procedures to extract cochlear signature genes from *M. fascicularis*. (**a**) A dissected cochlea along with the modiolus. Tissues shown within the green dotted line were dissected out as whole cochlea and subjected to RNA extraction. Scale bar = 1 cm. (**b**) Histochemical image of a *M. fascicularis* cochlea stained with hematoxylin and eosin to show that the dissected "whole cochlea" in (**a**) corresponds to the membranous tissues of the cochlea. Scale bar = 500 μ m. (**c**) Evaluation of the quality of RNA extracted from the left cochlea, as assessed with a Bioanalyzer 2100. Arrowheads indicate peaks of 18S and 28S rRNA. (**d**) Procedures of the analysis. Individual gene expression data in the left and right cochleae using the (experiment 1, top) macaque or (experiment 2, bottom) human microarray were compared with averaged expression levels of three or one macaque animals in duplicate and/or pooled human tissues or cells to extract probes that had expression levels >2-fold compared with the average of all the tissues and *P* < 0.05 (Welch's *t*-test with Bonferroni correction). Pentagons indicate array chips.

Results

Bilateral, whole cochlear tissues were freshly dissected from a male *M. fascicularis*, and total RNA was extracted immediately (Fig. 1a-c). We studied gene expression in the tissues and formulated a list of genes with expression levels >2-fold higher in the cochlea compared with (experiment 1) four tissues and a cell line from three independent *M. mulatta* animals⁵ on Rhesus Macaque Genome Array (macaque array) with each biological sample in duplicate; or (experiment 2) four tissues and a cell line from one M. mulatta animal⁵ and 22 pooled human tissues and 2 cell lines⁹ on Human Genome U133 Plus 2.0 Array (human array, Fig. 1d). Since the transcripts between M. mulatta and M. fascicularis show almost 100% identity³, the best platform to study gene expression in M. fascicularis cochlea would be macaque array. However, the platform was less frequently used (300 analyses have been registered in Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO), last visited on August 1, 2018) and predominantly for studies of viral infection or medical interventions in macaques. The number of available datasets of normal, untreated macaque tissues on the macaque array seemed limited to select genes predominantly expressed in the cochleae. The human array has been widely used (6,254 analyses in GEO, last visited on August 1, 2018) including multiple datasets of normal tissues, and was considered useful for meta-analysis to extract genes predominantly expressed in cochlear tissues. While affinities of the probes on the human array to the transcripts in the macaque tissues seemed not identical to those on macaque array⁵, the transcripts between human and *M. fascicularis* show more than 95% identity³, suggesting that profiles of gene expression in macaque cochleae can be analyzed on human array platforms in substitution.

Reproducibility of the datasets in the human microarray data was assessed by measuring Person's correlation coefficient and scatter plot analyses (see Supplementary Fig. S1). Small numbers of probes showing more than 2-fold changes, high values of correlation coefficient (>0.99) between tissue replicates, and the scatter plot analyses also indicated reproducibility of the datasets in each tissue. To verify the tissue-specific gene expression in macaque cochlea, 45,902 probes detected in at least one of the macaque cochleae on human array were subjected to cluster analysis among macaque cochleae and 22 human tissues (see Supplementary Fig. S2), demonstrating that related tissues such as those in central nervous system (cortex, cerebellum, fetal brain, spinal cord) were

clustered in the same group, and the macaque cochleae were closely related to the central nervous systems, suggesting that the datasets obtained in this study reflected actual profile of gene expression in the macaque cochlea.

Finally, we detected 474 probes that reflected the actual profile of 285 gene expression in experiment 1 and detected 99 probes that reflected the actual profile of 91 gene expression in experiment 2, and these genes were called cochlear signature genes (Table 1, see Supplementary Table S1). Of these genes, 32 were detected in both experiments 1 and 2, so the total number of cochlear signature genes was 344. The coincidence of the 32 genes was significant ($p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$, Fisher's exact test), verifying the reproducibility of experimens 1 and 2. The "common" cochlear signature genes and the expression profile among the examined tissues are shown as a heat map in Fig. 2. Intriguingly, the cochlear signature genes included 35 genes responsible for nonsyndromic or syndromic hearing loss such as *COCH* which is responsible for autosomal dominant nonsyndroic heaing loss (DFNA9, OMIM #601369)¹⁰ and predominantly expressed in cochlear lateral wall, and *GJB2* which is responsible for autosomal recessive nonsyndromic hearing loss (DFNB1A, #220290)¹¹, the deafness gene most frequently found world wide (Table 2). Some of other examples were; *TYR* which is associated with ocular albinism and sensorineural deafness (#103470)¹², and *SLC17A8*, a marker gene for spiral ganglion cells in the cochlea and responsible for autosomal dominant nonsyndromic deafness (DFNA25, #605583)¹³.

Gene ontology analysis of the datasets identified 434 enriched terms in the macaque array and 685 enriched terms with P < 0.05. As expected, groups of genes categorized to "ear development" and "ear morphogenesis" were included in the list of top 20 gene ontology categories in the macaque and human arrays, respectively (see Supplementary Table S2 and Supplementary Fig. S3).

Among the common cochlear signature genes, we attempted to compare expression levels of *COCH*, *IL17B*, and *NEK1* in the macaque cochleae with those in a human brain by quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR, see Supplementary Fig. S4). Comparison of gene expression/*GAPDH* ratios indicated expression of the all three genes in the macaque cochleae was significantly higher than the human brain, partially reproducing the predominant expression of cochlear signature genes in the macaque cochlea.

Discussion

Our study presents the profile of cochlear signature genes obtained from bilateral whole cochleae dissected from an adult male *M. fascicularis*. Based on the facts that 1) datasets detected in the macaque cochleae were suggested to reflect actual profile of gene expression by cluster analysis; 2) cochlear signature genes were enriched in genes associated with nonsyndromic or syndromic hearing loss in both microarray platforms; 3) genes categorized to ear development or ear morphogenesis were highly enriched by gene set enrichment analysis in both microarray platforms, we coclude that the method to extract cochlear signature genes using the two microarray platforms was valid.

There have been transcriptomic analyses of sensory hair cells and the progenitor cells in zebrafish lateral line¹⁴, regenerating chicken utricle hair cells after ototoxic drug treatment¹⁵, embryonic to newborn mouse inner ear sensory cells¹⁶ or ganglion cells¹⁷, or proteomic analysis of newborn mouse inner ear hair cells¹⁸, all of which have focused mainly on differentiation and/or regeneration of inner ear sensory hair cells or neurons. Cell type-specific analysis results in paying less attention to the surrounding non-sensory cochlear tissues, which play significant roles in normal cochlear function. Using whole cochlear tissues, we have successfully detected cochlear signature genes including $MLANA^{19}$ as well as TYR^{12} , both of which are marker genes for the melanocyte (also called as intermediate cell) in the stria vascularis. COCH¹⁰ and GJB2¹¹, both of which are responsible for hereditary hearing loss and are expressed predominantly in the cochlear tissues other than organ of Corti were also included in the gene list, supporting the anticipation that the genes with significant roles in the cochlea show predominant expression levels in the tissues. More than 10% of the cochlear signature genes (35 out of 344) was estimated to associate with hereditary syndromic or nonsyndromic hearing loss. Since several hundreds, but not thousands of genes have been roughly predicted to associate with hereditary hearing loss²⁰⁻²² in all the human genes $(approximately 19,000-20,000)^{23,24}$, cochlear signature genes are presumably rich in deafness genes. Regarding the fact that novel genes associated with hearing loss have been reported every year, it raises the possibility that unreported deafness genes are included in the cochlear signature genes. One possible application of the cochlear signature genes would be to use the list to prioritize the candidate deafness genes from the results of whole exome/ genome sequencing when there are no other evidence of clinical data or animal experiments associated with hearing loss.

Limitation of this study is that the gene expression data was based on bilateral cochleae from one animal, and it was not possible to conduct the statistical analysis among multiple animals to show the variance among animals. During tissue dissection, we found it extremely challenging to obtain high quality total RNA from whole cochlear tissues surrounded by thick temporal bones in macaque. During our limited opportunities to optimize how to extract RNA from several euthanized macaques, we found that only the fresh cochlear tissues dissected within 30 minutes after sacrifice and before formalin perfusion enabled recovery of total RNA with high quality (that is, RIN \geq 7.0) for microarray analysis. The datasets presented here were obtained to minimize degeneration of RNA in the macaque cochleae and therefore valuable, even if the data came from bilateral cochleae from one individual animal. Increasing the number of macaques for the examination will enable the statistical analysis in the future and, perhaps, decrease the number of cochlear signature genes. The reason that cochlear signature genes extracted from the macaque array outnumbered those of the human array was considered to reflect the fact that a limited number of datasets was used for comparison in the case of the macaque array.

The profile of cochlear signature genes obtained from high-quality RNA, two array GeneChip platforms (including the widely used human array), and extensive comparison with five macaque tissues and 24 human tissues or cell lines constitutes a valuable resource for studies of genes that contribute to cochlear structure and function in primates, and provide insight to discover novel genes associated with hearing loss that have yet to be established in rodent models.

Macaque array chip			Human array chip	
MLANA	EBF2	FRMD3	KRTDAP	
СОСН	GFRA1	IL17B	СОСН	
PSMD12	SULF1	ANXA3	EPYC	
SLCO2B1	WDR86	ARL9	OTOS	
MPZ	MEPE	TMPRSS11E	NEFH	
\$100B	SFRP4	PROM1	DNASE1	
οτος	SLC4A11	PLEKHG7	FLG2	
SMPX	100693624	RPI 24	SI C17A8	
COLIDAI	ANXA4	DMKN	MIANA	
TUEM	KIA A 1024	UACA		
CIB6	TNNT1	ERE3	SLC1746	
NEEH	VIE21A	ECED2	SLC1/A6	
ANOS	OSMB	CDVM2		
ANUS	USMR MGAACA	CPAM2	C17. (77	
MLIP	MS4A6A	COLEC12	C1/orj6/	
LOR	UBA6	ABLIMI	MPZ	
SHC4	CRABP1	B3GN15	NRG1	
SLC22A2	BMP6	GSN	COL10A1	
PVALB	SIGLEC9	CDK2	OTOR	
ZIC2	MAB21L1	LXN	cDNA FLJ43186 fis	
UGT8	RTFDC1	MEGF10	KCNJ13	
SCEL	PPARGC1A	SLC26A4	LANCL3	
LRP2	HKDC1	MRPS26	TYR	
LOC718942	HTRA1	LASS3	PLEKHA4	
SLC27A6	CRISP3	CYP26A1	LOC100288310	
SLCO1A2	DUT	NIPSNAP3B	DEFB122	
TYR	LTBP4	CYB5R3	cDNA IMAGE:1625225	
SLC17A8	KRT23	VASH2	OGN	
KRT24	ALDH1A3	S100A10	GJB2	
SCIN	SPTLC3	OAS1	CALCA	
SV2C	RDH10	IRX6	LECT1	
GAS2	TM4SF18	IL18	LOR	
SPP1	SMCO3	HPGD	PCP4	
DMP1	CTXN3	SLCO1B1	EYA1	
DCLK3	SCN7A	HOXD1	SHC4	
Mamu_482871	GPR87	MORF4L1	KCNB2	
PTN	ITGB8	RBMS3	IRX5	
PheRS	CRTAC1	DACH1	PTN	
SERPIND1	UPK1B	LOC696306	IL17B	
CLDN8	MRAP2	MFAP3L	KIAA 1024	
TNFRSF11B	WDR18	FIBIN	POU4F2	
DSC2	FIG4	GRHL1		
VTCN1	STAC	TFAP2B	POU4F1	
C19H19orf33	SCARA5	CPSE6	PLCR4	
100717747	TNEDSE10	100720402	rL004	
CRVAR	MGP	DIK 3 P 1	FRF1	
LCD5	MGP	PIKSKI		
LGRS	BCASI	GAL3STI		
UVUS	CLICS	WDR11	FLG	
1825	OLFM4	SCUBE2	KUNN2	
CP	CCDC114	FREM1	LKKNI	
PAPSS2	SVIP	C10RF162	KCNQ4	
P2RY2	MS4A7	GANC	AADACL2	
KLK7	F13A1	UST	MAGI1	
GJB4	CST6	ACSL1	KRT24	
ESRRG	INSC	GDPD3	CARD18	
CLCA2	CDH19	WNK3	ESRRG	
OGN	RERGL	ERMP1	RAB12	
DEFB122	PAX3	GPC6	SLC13A4	
Continued				

Macaque array chip			Human array chip	
OMD	HEY2	CSRP2	CST6	
SLC13A4	ELOVL7	IFIT1	cDNA DKFZp686P21116	
DNASE1	MALL	MPP6	LOC283143	
KCNB2	PPP1R1C	BGLAP	FIGN	
OTOGL	PROS1	MPZL2	FAM190A	
SSBP1	HHATL	MTMR6	RAD54B	
KCNJ13	CALML5	EEF1D	GRIK2	
MAPK8IP2	LOC693471	NPNT	RBMS3	
DSC1	LDLRAD3	FAM162A	MAF	
EYA4	EGR2	CD55	ZFHX4	
FMO3	PTPRU	GTPBP8	LOC220077	
PMP22	LOC694405	RORA	DDR2	
TRPM1	EFEMP1	TMCC3	NFIB	
TMEM213	IGHV4OR15-8	NEK1	AKAP12	
ABCA10	PRX	NT5DC1	ITGA10	
RDH5	OLR1	GSTM4	CADM1	
PLLP	SERTAD4	DLGAP5	TMEM117	
CA14	SPAG11	PXK	RARB	
CA13	ECM2	CCL26	PLAG1	
COL4A4	STX1B	PBX3	SECISBP2L	
METTL7B	EIF5A2	COL11A2	LPIN1	
ITIH2	SLC25A13	C15H9orf3	NEK1	
PRH2	KCNE1	APBB2	ANK3	
FILIP1	MAF	SCCPDH	ECM2	
RARRES1	WNT16	EPM2A	SESN3	
FOXC1	ZFHX3	TAB2	NT5DC1	
SOST	OR51E2	FNTA	CCDC126	
EBF1	ID4	SBF2	EGFL8	
COL8A2	SLC5A3		cDNA IMAGE:3565734	
C2ORF40	PFKFB3		ITSN1	
ASPA	SOX17		USP32	
CES1	CFB		DST	
CHST9	WFDC5		PSMA2	
COL2A1	ABI3BP		C15orf40	
AADACL2	MCOLN3			
ABCA9	LOC702904			
MUC15	GPR137B			
CRISPLD1	SPTBN1			
IPO5	TM7SF2			
SPATA22	MEOX2			
IL20RB	COL9A3			
CTDSP2	EGFL8			
DCP2	ZFHX4			

Table 1. List of Cochlear signature genes detected on macaque or human array chip platform. Gene symbol in bold indicates that the gene is found on both macaque and human array chip platforms.

.....

Methods

Animal care. The test animal was a 5-year-old male Malaysian *M. fascicularis* housed at the Tsukuba Primate Research Center (TPRC), National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition (NIBIOHN), Tsukuba, Ibaraki, Japan. The animal was cared for, handled, and sacrificed according to the guidelines and regulations established by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of NIBIOHN and the standard operating procedures for macaques at TPRC. The animal was housed individually in a size-appropriate cage, and the light cycle consisted of 12 h of artificial light from 7 am to 7 pm. Temperature and humidity were maintained at 25 ± 2 °C and $60 \pm 10\%$ in the animal room. The animal was fed 70 g of commercial monkey chow (Type AS; Oriental Yeast Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and 100 g of apples daily. Water was supplied *ad libitum*. All experimental procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of NIBIOHN. Although the macaque subjected for this study had not been examined by auditory brainstem response nor by otoacoustic emissions, the animal had never shown any behaviors suspicious for hearing impairment while kept in the facility, such as ignorance to the sound. The animal was kept in the room with the environmental noise kept to below



Figure 2. The 32 cochlear signature genes that were common to both the macaque array and the human array. Their expression levels are shown as a heat map that includes genes that clustered together in each of the macaque and human tissues. Gene symbols, gene names, Bonferroni-corrected *P*-values, and expression ratios with other tissues are shown on the right side of the map. "1" or "2" in each tissue or cell line indicates replication number.

60 dB. The animal did not have history of obesity, treatment with ototoxic drugs, nor exposure to loud sound, all of which are risk factors of age-related hearing loss²⁵. Therefore, we considered that the animal had normal hearing at the time of experiment.

Tissue collection and RNA extraction. For RNA extraction, bilateral cochleae were dissected from the test animal within 30 minutes after sacrifice by exsanguination under deep anesthesia (Fig. 1a). First, the bony labyrinths were dissected from left and right temporal bone, then connective tissues were removed and placed in ice-cold saline. RNA from whole membranous cochlear tissues was extracted using ISOGEN-II (Nippon Gene, Toyama, Japan) and purified using an RNeasy micro kit (QIAGEN, Hamburg, Germany). Quality of the RNA extracted from the cochleae was analyzed with a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) (Fig. 1c).

Transcription profiling. Biotinylated antisense RNA (aRNA) from 250 ng total RNA was prepared from left or right cochlea separately according to the manufacturer protocols (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Then, 10 μ g of aRNA was hybridized on the GeneChip Rhesus Macaque Genome Array (macaque array, Affymetrix) and the Human Genome U133 Plus 2.0 Array (human array, Affymetrix) for 16 h at 45 °C (Fig. 1d). The GeneChip microarrays were washed and stained in the Affymetrix Fluidics Station 450. The stained GeneChips were scanned using the Affymetrix), and the data were exported as CEL files. The microarray data were normalized using the MAS5 algorithm (Affymetrix). The intensities were converted to a logarithmic scale (base 2). To correct for bias between arrays, we then performed quantile normalization for all array data using R software ("affy" and "limma" packages). The signal reliability of each probe was determined using the MAS5 Call algorithm (Affymetrix), and each probe was assigned to one of three flags: P, present; M, marginal; A, absent (GEO #GSE111693).

In addition, the pair of gene expression data in the left and right cochleae using the macaque microarray were compared with averaged expression levels of those in four tissues and a cell line (cerebral cortex, pancreas, testis, thymus, and fibroblast, three samples with duplicated data in each tissue or cell) of *M. mulatta* using the same platform (Fig. 1c, top) (GSE7094)⁵.

The pair of gene expression data in the left and right cochleae using the human microarray were compared with averaged expression levels of those in the five tissues (one sample with duplicated data in each tissue or cell line) of *M. mulatta* (GSE9531)⁵ in addition to 24 human tissues or cell lines (bone marrow, cerebellum, colon, cortex, fetal brain, heart, kidney, liver, lung, pancreas, prostate, salivary gland, skeletal muscle, small intestine,

Gene symbol	Disease	OMIM phenotype ID			
Human and Macaque array					
СОСН	Autosomal dominant deafness 9	601369			
MPZ	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease DID, type 1B, 2J	607791, 118200, 607736			
LOR	Vohwinkel syndrome, variant form	604117			
TYR	Albinism, ocular, with sensorineural deafness	103470			
SLC17A8	Autosomal dominant deafness 25	605583			
MAF	Ayme-Gripp syndrome	601088			
Macaque array					
PSMD12	Stankiewicz-Isidor syndrome	617516			
SMPX	Deafness, X-linked 4	300066			
GJB6	Autosomal dominant deafness 3B, 1B	612643, 612645			
LRP2	Donnai-Barrow syndrome	222448			
TNFRSF11B	Paget disease of bone 5, juvenile-onset	239000			
OTOGL	Autosomal recessive deafness 84A, 84B	613391, 614944			
EYA4	Autosomal dominant deafness 10	601316			
PMP22	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease1A, 1E	118200, 118300			
COL4A4	Autosomal recessive Alport syndrome	203780			
FOXC1	Axenfeld-Rieger syndrome type 3	602482			
SOST	Autosomal dominant Craniodiephyseal dysplasia, Van Buchem disease	122860, 239100			
COL2A1	Stickler syndrome, type 1	108300			
SLC4A11	Corneal dystrophy and perceptive deafness	217400			
MGP	Keutel syndrome	245150			
CLIC5	Autosomal recessive deafness 103	616042			
PAX3	Waardenburg syndrome, type 1, 3	193500, 148820			
EGR2	Congenital hypomyelinating neuropathy, Dejerine-Sottas disease	605253, 145900			
PRX	Dejerine-Sottas disease	145900			
KCNE1	Jarvell and Lange-Nielsen syndrome 2	612347			
FGFR2	Crouzon syndrome, Pfeiffer syndrome, Apert syndrome, Antley-Bixler syndrome	123500, 101600, 101200, 207410			
SLC26A4	Autosomal recessive deafness 4 with enlarged vestibular aqueduct, Pendred syndrome	600791, 274600			
PIK3R1	SHORT syndrome, Immunodeficiency 36	269880, 616005			
SBF2	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease 4B2	604563			
COL11A2	Autosomal dominant deafness 13, Autosomal recessive deafness 53, otospondylomegaepiphyseal dysplasia	601868, 609706, 184840			
Human array					
SERPINB6	Autosomal recessive deafness 91	613453			
NDP	Norrie disease	310600			
GJB2	Audtosomal dominant deafness 3A, Autosomal recessive deafness 1A, Keratitis- ichthyosis-deafness syndrome	601544, 220290, 148210			
EYA1	Branchiootorenal syndrome 1, Branchiootic syndrome 1	113650, 602588			
KCNQ4	Autosomal dominant deafness 2A	600101			

Table 2. List of genes associated with nonsyndromic or syndromic hearing loss detected in this study.

spinal cord, spleen, stomach, testes, thymus, thyroid, trachea, uterus, HeLa, and SHSY5Y, single data in each tissue) (Fig. 1c, bottom) (GSE18674)⁹ and using the same platform. As for human tissues, total RNA of each tissue had been purchased from several providers and pooled from more than 10 individuals on average to minimize individual variations⁹. Cluser analysis was performed by Ward's method using R.

To identify cochlear signature genes, statistical significance was assessed with Welch's *t*-test with Bonferroni correction. Probes were extracted that had expression levels >2-fold compared with the average of all the tissues and corrected P < 0.05. Gene symbols were updated manually. Gene ontology analysis was conducted according to the Gene Set Enrichment Analysis software^{26,27}.

Gene expression levels measurement by qRT-PCR. Total RNA extracted from human brain (purchased from TaKaRa BIO, Shiga, Japan) or from the whole left or right cochlear tissues from the macaque was reverse transcribed by SuperScript III (ThermoFisher Scientific, Massachusetts, USA) and was subjected to qRT-PCR using PowerSybrGreen PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, California, USA) and QuantStudio 3 (Applied Biosystems) according to the manufacture's protocols. Primer sets used in this study were shown in Supplementary Table S3. The experiment was evaluated as Gene expression/endogenously expressed *GAPDH* ratio with triplicate analyses of each experiment. Statistical evaluation was done by 2-way ANOVA.

Data Availability

The data described here can be found at Mutai, H. et al. GEO #GSE111693 (2018).

References

- 1. Ekdale, E. G. Comparative anatomy of the bony labyrinth (inner ear) of placental mammals. PloS One. 8, e66624 (2013).
- Long, G. R. Psychoacoustics in Comparative Hearing: Mammals. Springer Handbook of Auditory Research (eds Fay, R. R. & Popper, A. N.) Ch. 2, 18–56 (Springer-Verlag, 1994).
- 3. Ebeling, M. *et al.* Genome-based analysis of the nonhuman primate Macaca fascicularis as a model for drug safety assessment. *Genome Res.* **21**, 1746–1756 (2011).
- 4. Higashino, A. S. *et al.* Whole-genome sequencing and analysis of the Malaysian cynomolgus macaque (Macaca fascicularis) genome. *Genome Biol.* **13**, R58 (2012).
- 5. Duan, F., Spindel, E. R., Li, Y. H. & Norgren, R. B. Jr. Intercenter reliability and validity of the rhesus macaque GeneChip. BMC genom. 8, 61 (2007).
- 6. Coleman, M. N. & Ross, C. F. Primate auditory diversity and its influence on hearing performance. Anat. Rec. Part A. 281, 1123–1137 (2004).
- 7. Van Camp, G. & Smith, R. Hereditary Hearing Loss Home Page. http://hereditaryhearingloss.org (2018).
- Kimura, Y. *et al.* RNA analysis of inner ear cells from formalin fixed paraffin embedded (FFPE) archival human temporal bone section using laser microdissection – A technical report. *Hear. Res.* 302, 26–31 (2013).
- Tateno, C. et al. Morphological and microarray analyses of human hepatocytes from xenogeneic host livers. Lab. Invest. 93, 54–71 (2013).
- Robertson, N. G. et al. Cochlin immunostaining of inner ear pathologic deposits and proteomic analysis in DFNA9 deafness and vestibular dysfunction. Hum. Mol. Genet. 15, 1071–1085 (2006).
- 11. Kelsell, D. P. et al. Connexin 26 mutations in hereditary non-synbdromic sensorineural deafness. Nature 387, 80-83 (1997).
- 12. Filimon, A. *et al.* Value of dopachrome tautomerase detection in the assessment of melanocytic tumors. *Melanoma Res.* **24**, 219–236 (2014).
- Ruel, J. et al. Impairment of SLC17A8 encoding vesicular glutamate transporter-3, VGLUT3, underlies nonsyndromic deafness DFNA25 and inner hair cell dysfunction in null mice. Am. J. Hum. Genet. 83, 278–292 (2008).
- 14. Steiner, A. B., Kim, T., Cabot, V. & Hudspeth, A. J. Dynamic gene expression by putative hair-cell progenitors during regeneration in the zebrafish lateral line. *Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA* 111, E1393–1401 (2014).
- 15. Ku, Y. C. et al. The transcriptome of utricle hair cell regeneration in the avian inner ear. J. Neurosci. 34, 3523–3535 (2014).
- Scheffer, D. I., Shen, J., Corey, D. P. & Chen, Z. Y. Gene Expression by Mouse Inner Ear Hair Cells during Development. J. Neurosci. 35, 6366–6380 (2015).
- 17. Lu, C. C., Apller, J. M., Houseman, E. A. & Goodrich, L. V. Developmental profiling of spiral ganglion neurons reveals insights into auditory circuit assembly. *J. Neurosci.* **31**, 10903–10918 (2011).
- 18. Hickox, A. E. Global analysis of protein expression of inner ear hair cells. J. Neurosci. 37, 1320-1339 (2017).
- 19. Locher, H. *et al.* Development of the stria vascularis and potassium regulation in the human fetal cochlea: Insights into hereditary sensorineural hearing loss. *Dev. Neurobiol.* **75**, 1219–1240 (2015).
- 20. Morton, C. C. & Nance, W. E. Newborn hearing screening- a silent revolution. N. Engl. J. Med. 354, 2151-2164 (2006).
- Brownstein, Z. et al. Targeted genomic capture and massively parallel sequencing to identify genes for hereditary hearing loss in Middle Eastern families. Genome Biol. 12, R89 (2011).
- Linden Phillips, L. *et al.* The future role of genetic screening to detect newborns at risk of childhood-onset hearing loss. *Int. J. Audiol.* 52, 124–133 (2013).
- 23. Pennisi, E. ENCODE project writes eulogy for junk DNA. Science 337, 1159 (2012).
- 24. Ezkurdia, I. *et al.* Multiple evidence strands suggest that there may be as few as 19000 human protein-coding genes. *Hum. Mol.Genet.* 23, 5866–5878 (2014).
- Fransen, E. *et al.* Occupational noise, smoking, and a high body mass index are risk factors for age-related hearing impairment and moderate alcohol consumption is protective: a European population-based multicenter study. *J Assoc. Res. Otolaryngol.* 9, 264–276 (2008).
- Mootha, V. K. et al. PGC-1alpha-responsive genes involved in oxidative phosphorylation are coordinately downregulated in human diabetes. Nat. Genet. 34, 267–273 (2003).
- Subramanian, A. et al. Gene set enrichment analysis: a knowledge-based approach for interpreting genome-wide expression profiles. Proc. Nat. Acad. Sci. USA 102, 15545–15550 (2005).

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by Japan Society for the Promotion of Science Grant -in-Aid for Scientific Research (KAKENHI; Grant number 24592573, 18K09336) to HM.

Author Contributions

H.M. designed the study, dissected cochlear tissues and prepared RNA, participated in analyzing data, conducted qRT-PCR, drafted and finalized the manuscript. F.M. participated in designing the experiment, conducted microarray analysis, and drafted the manuscript. H.S. and Y.Y. administered animal health, euthanized the animal, dissected the temporal bones, and drafted the manuscript. T.T. and T.M. conceived the study and contributed to the interpretation of the data.

Additional Information

Supplementary information accompanies this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-33985-9.

Competing Interests: The authors declare no competing interests.

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

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

© The Author(s) 2018