

## 1 **SUPPLEMENTARY METHODS**

### 2 **Ethical approval**

3 This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board Committee at the National  
4 Center for Child Health and Development, and was performed after obtaining written  
5 informed consent from all individuals. Furthermore, we obtained written informed  
6 consent to publish molecular, clinical information and facial photographs of two patients  
7 with maternal uniparental disomy of chromosome 16 (UPD(16)mat).

### 8 **Patients**

9 We summarised the inclusion criteria in online supplementary figure 1. A total of 330  
10 patients were referred to us for genetic testing for Silver-Russell syndrome (SRS) by  
11 their presenting physicians from 2002 to 2017. Because presenting physicians did not  
12 accurately evaluate clinical features related to the Netchine-Harbison clinical scoring  
13 system (NH-CSS) before 2017 when an international consensus statement for SRS was  
14 published,[1] we did not have enough clinical information of NH-CSS criteria in all of  
15 our patients. After excluding patients with loss of methylation on chromosome 11p15  
16 (11p15 LOM) (n=90) and with maternal uniparental disomy of chromosome 7  
17 (UPD(7)mat) (n=24), we asked the attending physicians of the remaining patients about  
18 clinical features related to NH-CSS using questionnaires. Attending physicians were  
19 mainly general paediatricians unfamiliar with SRS and some paediatric endocrinologists  
20 and paediatric geneticists who were more familiar with SRS. Because of insufficient  
21 clinical information, 51 patients were excluded from this study, and 43 patients were  
22 also excluded from this study due to low score in NH-CSS. A total of 122 patients  
23 without 11p15 LOM and UPD(7)mat satisfied NH-CSS or met three NH-CSS criteria,  
24 but were clinically suspected as having SRS. For these patients, we performed  
25 methylation analysis for six differentially methylated regions (DMRs), namely,  
26 *PLAGL1*:alt-TSS-DMR, *KCNQ1OT1*:TSS-DMR, *MEG3/DLK1*:IG-DMR, *MEG3*:TSS-  
27 DMR, *SNURF*:TSS-DMR and *GNAS A/B*:TSS-DMR to detect other imprinting

28 disorders, and array comparative genomic hybridisation (aCGH) analysis to detect  
29 pathogenic CNVs (PCNVs) causing known genetic diseases. After excluding 21 patients  
30 with abnormal methylation levels of these DMRs and seven patients with PCNVs, 94  
31 aetiology-unknown patients with SRS phenotype were included in our study. Of the 94  
32 patients, 63 satisfied NH-CSS and the remaining 31 patients met only three NH-CSS  
33 criteria, but were clinically suspected as having SRS. We performed aCGH analysis  
34 using the SurePrint G3 Human CGH Array Kit  $8 \times 60K$  (catalog number G4450A,  
35 Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA).[2] Methylation analysis was performed by  
36 combined bisulfite restriction analysis or pyrosequencing as previously reported.[3, 4]  
37 All patients were Japanese except for two patients who were from Canada and the USA.

38         Clinical diagnosis as SRS was based on the NH-CSS, which includes six items:  
39 (1) small for gestational age (birth weight and/or birth length  $\leq -2$  SD score (SDS) for  
40 gestational age), (2) postnatal growth retardation (height at  $24 \pm 1$  months  $\leq -2$  SDS or  
41 height  $\leq -2$  SDS below mid-parental target height), (3) relative macrocephaly at birth  
42 (head circumference at birth  $\geq 1.5$  SDS above birth weight and/or length SDS), (4)  
43 protruding forehead (forehead projecting beyond the facial plane from the side view  
44 among toddlers), (5) body asymmetry (leg length discrepancy (LLD) of  $\geq 0.5$  cm or arm  
45 asymmetry or LLD  $< 0.5$  cm with at least two other asymmetrical body parts (one non-  
46 face)), (6) feeding difficulties and/or low body mass index (BMI) (BMI  $\leq -2$  SDS at 24  
47 months or current use of a feeding tube or cyproheptadine for appetite stimulation).[1]  
48 Patients meeting four or more of these six criteria received a diagnosis of SRS.[1] In  
49 addition, patients meeting NH-CSS criteria including both protruding forehead and  
50 relative macrocephaly, but normal in all molecular testing, received a diagnosis of  
51 clinical SRS.[1] In our patients, 25 out of 63 patients got a diagnosis of clinical SRS.  
52 For patients younger than 23 months old, the criterion for postnatal growth retardation  
53 was excluded from the NH-CSS criteria.

54         The diagnosis of SRS can be difficult, as the condition varies widely in

55 severity among affected individuals and many of its features are nonspecific.[1]  
56 Furthermore, in our study, many general paediatricians unfamiliar with SRS evaluated  
57 the clinical features for their patients. Because triangular face, fifth finger clinodactyly  
58 and/or brachydactyly were frequently observed in SRS patients[3] and many general  
59 paediatricians suspected their patients as having SRS based on these features before  
60 2017 when the consensus statement was published, we adopted these features as clinical  
61 features related to continued clinical suspicion of SRS.

## 62 **Molecular analysis**

63 To detect UPD(16)mat, we first performed methylation analysis with pyrosequencing for  
64 the paternally methylated *ZNF597*:TSS-DMR on chromosome 16 using bisulfite-treated  
65 genomic DNA (gDNA) from the leucocytes as previously reported.[4, 5] Furthermore,  
66 we examined the methylation levels of the maternally methylated *ZNF597*:3' DMR in the  
67 patients with low methylation levels of the *ZNF597*:TSS-DMR. Next, we performed  
68 microsatellite analysis for chromosome 16 in patients with abnormal methylation levels  
69 of these DMRs using gDNA from the leucocytes of these patients and their parents. In  
70 addition, to detect hidden mosaic trisomy 16, we also examined patients' gDNA from  
71 buccal cells obtained with Oragene OG-575 (DNA Genotek, Ottawa, Canada). Because  
72 the mother of patient 1 had severe short stature, we also performed methylation analysis  
73 for nine DMRs related to imprinting disorders and the *ZNF597*:TSS-DMR using gDNA  
74 samples from her leucocytes. Sequences of the primer sets for pyrosequencing and  
75 microsatellite analyses are shown in online supplementary table 1. Furthermore, we  
76 carried out aCGH and SNP array analysis using the SurePrint G3 Human CGH+SNP  
77 4×180K Kit (catalog number G4890A, Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA) in  
78 patients with the abnormal methylation levels of the *ZNF597*:TSS-DMR and *ZNF597*:3'  
79 DMR. When we could not diagnose UPD(16)mat based on the results of the microsatellite  
80 and SNP array analyses, we carried out SNP array analysis in the parents of the patients  
81 with abnormal methylation levels of these DMRs.

82 Finally, for the patients with UPD(16)mat, we performed whole-exome  
83 sequencing of these patients and their parents to detect gene mutations associated with  
84 their phenotypes. Because the mother of patient 1 showed severe short stature, we also  
85 searched causative genes for growth failure in her. Enriched libraries generated with  
86 SureSelect Human All ExonV6 kit (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) were  
87 sequenced on a Hiseq 4000 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) operated in a 150 bp  
88 paired-end mode (patient 1) and a Hiseq 2500 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA)  
89 operated in a 101 bp paired-end mode (patient 2). Sequence reads were processed,  
90 mapped and analysed as previously reported.[6] In brief, the paired-end reads were  
91 mapped against the human reference genome data (hg19/GRCh37) using the Burrows-  
92 Wheeler Aligner 0.7.13. The PCR duplicates were removed by Picard 2.1.1. The  
93 Genome Analysis Toolkit 3.5 was then used to produce calibrated BAM files for each  
94 sample. Subsequently, we excluded common variants on the basis of the 1000 Genomes  
95 Project data, Exome Aggregation Consortium, Human Genetic Variation Database and  
96 in-house control data. Then, the rare variants were screened for 356 genes related to  
97 growth failure[7] and 25 known causative/candidate/susceptible genes for non-  
98 syndromic hypospadias[8] (online supplementary table 2). Furthermore, these rare  
99 variants were also examined as to whether they would lead to known genetic syndromes  
100 or not, based on the Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man.[9]

### 101 **Statistical analysis**

102 The frequencies of clinical feature differences between patients with UPD(16)mat,  
103 11p15 LOM and UPD(7)mat were analysed by Fisher's exact test using the R  
104 environment (<http://cran.r-project.org/bin/windows/base/old/2.15.1/>). A value of  $p < 0.05$   
105 was considered significant.

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