

1 **High prevalence of deleterious germline variants in cancer risk genes among subjects with**
2 **young-onset, sporadic pituitary macroadenomas**

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51

52 **Abstract**

53 **Introduction:** Pituitary adenomas/pituitary neuroendocrine tumors (PitNETs) are common
54 intracranial tumors, clinically affecting 1:1000 individuals and most cases remain genetically
55 unexplained. Emerging research has highlighted the major contribution of germline pathogenic
56 variants to tumorigenesis across many tissue types in young subjects . We investigated whether
57 young-onset (<30 years old) pituitary macroadenomas that were negative for known genetic causes
58 harbor pathogenic or likely pathogenic (P/LP) variants in cancer-risk genes.

59 **Methods:** We retrospectively analyzed 48 subjects (29 males; 96% GH- or PRL-secreting) with
60 sporadic pituitary macroadenomas that were negative for known germline variants (*AIP*, *MEN1*,
61 *CDKN1B*) or duplications (*GPR101*). Whole-exome sequencing (WES) was performed on germline
62 DNA. Bioinformatics analysis including variant calling (for small variants and CNVs), annotation and
63 variant prioritization were performed, using secondary analysis pipelines for WES data and AION
64 predictor platform for tertiary analysis. Variants in established cancer-risk genes were prioritized.

65 **Results:** P/LP germline variants in cancer-risk genes were identified in 14.6% of subjects on
66 ClinVar/ACMG criteria. This rose to 31.3% of subject with deleterious variants when additional *in*
67 *silico* and AION predictor criteria were used. Genes included: *BAP1*, *BRCA1*, *BUB1*, *ELAC2*, *FLCN*,
68 *MCPH1*, *MSR1*, *MUTYH*, *PDE11A*, *POLE*, *POLG*, *PMS2*, *RAD51C*, *RECQL4*, *SDHA*, *SDHD*,
69 *SEC23B*, *TMEM127*, *WRN*.

70 **Conclusions:** Our findings expand the spectrum of genes potentially associated with young-onset
71 pituitary macroadenomas. The identification of a high rate of deleterious germline variants in cancer-
72 risk genes in pituitary adenomas/PitNETs echoes similar findings in young patients across a wide
73 range of tumors. These results may have relevance for genetic counseling and potentially could
74 expand targeted management strategies in young patients with large pituitary tumors.

75

76 **Introduction**

77 The anterior pituitary gland is a neuroendocrine organ that plays a crucial role in regulating many of
78 the body's major functions. Pituitary adenomas (termed pituitary neuroendocrine tumors (PitNETs))
79 occur incidentally in about 20% of the population, whereas clinically-relevant pituitary tumors occur
80 in around 1:1000 of the general population (1–4). Pituitary tumors are also the most frequent primary
81 brain/central nervous system tumors in adolescents and young adults (5,6). Although these tumors
82 very rarely metastasize, some are aggressive and locally invasive, impinging on vital brain structures
83 like cranial nerves and carotid vessels (7). The combination of local tumoral effects and/or hormonal
84 dysregulation leads to classical endocrine diseases like acromegaly-gigantism, prolactinoma,
85 Cushing's disease and clinically non-functioning pituitary adenomas (7).

86 The pathophysiology of pituitary adenomas/PitNETs is only partially understood. At the somatic
87 level, gain of function variants account for up to 40% of cases, such as *GNAS* in acromegaly (8,9) and
88 *USP8* in Cushing's disease (10,11). Other recurrent somatic variants are relatively uncommon, or are
89 still emerging (e.g., *SF3BI* variants in prolactinomas) (12–14). Comprehensive genomic studies have
90 classified tumor tissue by cell lineage and chromosomal instability, which can predict aspects of
91 clinical behavior (3,15–21). Germline genetic causes are infrequent and explain about 5% of pituitary
92 adenomas overall (22). Among these, the most prevalent are rare loss of function (LOF) variants in
93 *AIP* that cause young onset and familial isolated pituitary adenomas (FIPA), primarily acro-gigantism
94 and prolactinomas (23–26). Duplications disrupting a conserved topologically associating domain
95 (TAD) at *GPR101* cause sporadic and familial X-linked acrogigantism (X-LAG) (27–30). Pituitary
96 adenomas also form part of well-characterized syndromes like multiple endocrine neoplasia (MEN) 1,
97 MEN4 and Carney complex due to LOF germline variants in *MEN1*, *CDKN1B*, and *PRKARIA*,
98 respectively (31–33). Pituitary adenomas are rare clinical manifestations of other genetic disorders,
99 such as, pheochromocytoma-paraganglioma syndromes (34–37).

100 Recently, genetic research in oncology has shifted focus on to the role of deleterious germline genetic
101 variants in the etiologies of various tumor types. Elevated rates of germline pathogenic/likely
102 pathogenic (P/LP) variants in cancer-risk genes have been reported across a wide spectrum of
103 neoplasias (38–40). Such findings have been reported in sporadic thyroid cancer and pancreatic
104 neuroendocrine tumors (41–45). Some studies using limited gene panels suggest that germline P/LP
105 variants in cancer-risk genes might also occur in pituitary tumors (46–53). Identifying novel causes
106 has direct clinical implications for family screening, and for personalized molecular therapies (54).
107 To test the hypothesis that cancer-risk genes could be involved in pituitary tumorigenesis in “high-
108 risk” populations, we performed an analysis of germline whole exome sequencing (WES) data using a
109 comprehensive cancer gene panel in a cohort of subjects with young-onset pituitary macroadenomas
110 in whom established germline genetic causes of pituitary tumors had been ruled out.

111 **Methods**

112 *Subjects*

113 Subjects belonged to a retrospective, international study on the genetic causes of pituitary adenomas.
114 To be included in the current analysis, subjects had to have an isolated pituitary macroadenoma (≥ 10
115 mm maximum diameter) on imaging that was diagnosed before 30 years of age in the absence of
116 FIPA. In addition, using next generation sequencing (NGS) or Sanger sequencing, all subjects had to
117 be negative for pathogenic germline variants in genes associated with early-onset pituitary adenomas
118 or FIPA (*AIP*, *MEN1*, and *CDKN1B*). Copy number variants in those genes were ruled out using
119 MLPA in all patients. Subjects with pediatric-onset gigantism (n=14) had to be negative on array
120 comparative genome hybridization studies (aCGH) for duplications involving *GPR101* on
121 chromosome Xq26.3.

122 Demographic, clinical, and hormonal data were collected. General data on a personal family history
123 of cancer or other medical conditions were not collected systematically.

124 The work was approved by the Ethics Committee of the CHU de Liège-University of Liège under
125 study codes GENOCRINE-2021/213, B70720109577, B707201420418, and B707201111968. All
126 subjects or their guardians provided written informed consent in their own language.

127

128 *Genetic analyses*

129 Germline analyses were performed using leukocyte-derived DNA. Samples were pre-checked for
130 DNA amount and concentration using a fluorescence-based method, Qubit dsDNA BR (Thermo
131 Fisher). Libraries were prepared using 50 ng (ultra-low input), 200 ng (low input) and 1 μ g (standard
132 input) of DNA and a HiSeq platform with 2x100 bp was used. Sequencing reads were demultiplexed
133 with Illumina bcl2fastq (2.19 or 2.20). Adapters were trimmed with Skewer (version 0.2.2) (55).
134 Reads were mapped to the reference genome hg19. The qualities of the FASTQ files were analyzed
135 with FastQC (version 0.11.5-cegat). Plots were created using ggplot2 in R (version 4.0.4) (R Core
136 Team) (56,57).

137

138 *Bioinformatic pipeline*

139 WES data was analyzed by Nostos Genomics for secondary and tertiary analysis. Small Variant
140 detection (SNPs and Indels) was carried out using Sentieon DNAScope 5.0.1. Tertiary analysis for
141 variant annotation and interpretation was performed in the AI-powered platform AION predictor
142 (Nostos Genomics GmbH, Berlin, Germany). The general workflow for this AI-assisted algorithmic
143 platform for genetic variant interpretation is outlined below and in Supplemental Materials.

144 Vcf files obtained from the secondary analysis were submitted to the AION predictor tertiary analysis
145 pipeline that starts with data preprocessing. The primary goal of this step is to read and prepare the
146 input VCF files for subsequent annotation and analysis. Thereafter, the data were annotated to add

147 genetic, molecular and clinical information (e.g., gene involved, prevalence in the population, known
148 disease associations). These annotated variants were then classified by their potential to cause disease
149 using ClinVar classifications, automated implementation of ACMG guidelines and the proprietary
150 AION predictor that integrates comprehensive data from external databases covering epidemiological,
151 molecular and other software prediction sources. Concurrently, the patient's symptoms and physical
152 findings were cataloged using Human Phenotype Ontology (HPO) terms. A comprehensive soft filter
153 was applied to focus the analysis on genes associated with a hereditary propensity to solid tumors,
154 including both endocrine and non-endocrine tissues (Supplemental materials).

155 In the case of missense variants in any of the reported genes, we also applied the AlphaMissense tool
156 to assess the potential pathogenic or benign nature. AlphaMissense is an AI prediction tool that is
157 based on AlphaFold technology (Google Deepmind) that is trained on population frequency data,
158 protein language modeling of amino acid distribution in proteins and protein structure context (58,59).
159 AlphaMissense does not utilize annotations from clinical/human sources. AlphaMissense assigns a
160 score to predict whether a missense variant is classified as likely benign, likely pathogenic, or
161 uncertain (59). For splice-altering variants, we included analyses based on the SpliceAI tool and a
162 new heuristic model for splice altering variant (SAV) interpretation described by Sullivan *et al*
163 (20,60). The SpliceAI tool is based on a 32-layer deep neural network that predicts splicing from pre-
164 mRNA sequences. For SpliceAI, we included splice variants with a score of >0.8 to assign a
165 deleterious effect. In the heuristic model only variants with a high SAV assessment (>90%) were
166 retained.

167 Finally, variants were tabulated, presented and discussed under three separate groupings: (1) variants
168 with P/LP classifications from ACMG and/or Clinvar, including supporting pathogenicity
169 classifications on AION predictor and other models; (2) variant with VUS, conflicting or uncertain
170 significance classifications on ACMG/Clinvar, but with P/LP scores on AION predictor and other
171 models; (3) gene variants with ambiguous classifications on models and/or high population
172 prevalences.

173

174 *Copy number variation analysis*

175 The ExomeDepth pipeline was used as a computational method to detect copy number variants
176 (CNVs) from exome sequencing data using read depth information (61). The input files needed are
177 BAM files (aligned sequencing reads) BED files, to define the targeted region, and a reference cohort
178 with samples from unrelated, unaffected individuals that were processed using the same capture kit
179 during library preparation and the same sequencing platform. For the sample CNV calling
180 ExomeDepth selects the best-matched reference samples to minimize noise and to help correct for
181 biases that might arise due to the inconsistent capture efficiency across exons or targeted regions. For
182 tertiary analysis of the derived data, the following variant criteria were used to filter and report
183 variants from the cancer gene panel listing: pathogenic (P) and likely pathogenic (LP) variants by

184 ACMG classification; VUS (Variant of Uncertain Significance) variants by ACMG classification
185 associated with a known disease gene; variants with gnomAD frequency $\leq 1\%$, if gnomAD data were
186 available. The included deletions and duplications were sorted based on ACMG classification,
187 phenotypic score and ACMG score, ensuring the most clinically relevant and evidence-supported
188 variants were prioritized at the top of the relevant list.

189

190 *Pathway analysis*

191 We performed an enrichment analysis to interrogate genes identified in this study. Metascape is a
192 validated system that includes inputs from a wide range of databases and incorporates computational
193 analysis pipelines that are regularly updated and synchronized (62,63) . Metascape permits gene
194 annotation, membership analyses, and meta-analyses. For the current study we visualized gene
195 enrichment using Gene Ontology/KEGG terms and the DisGeNET database, which were outputted as
196 bar charts. For statistical significance, the cut-off for the expression analysis was taken as $p < 2 \times 10^{-6}$.

197

198

199 **Results**

200

201 *Study population*

202 We studied 48 subjects with isolated, sporadic pituitary macroadenomas that were diagnosed before
203 30 years of age (60.4% males). Demographic and clinical data are shown in Table 1. The median age
204 at diagnosis overall was 18 years (range: 3-30 years). Among the group, 10 were diagnosed aged
205 ≤ 12 , 20 were aged from 13-20 years and 18 were 21-30 years of age at diagnosis (52.1%
206 children/adolescents). There were 35 individuals with GH-secreting pituitary tumors of whom 14 met
207 height/growth criteria for pituitary gigantism (64).

208

209 *Genetic analysis and variant identification*

210 There were 7/48 (14.6%) subjects with heterozygous P/LP germline variants on ACMG and/or
211 ClinVar criteria (Table 2). Another 11 variants in 10 genes were classified as VUS or conflicting
212 interpretation on ACMG/ClinVar: one was the loss of the start codon, one was an early truncating
213 variant, six were missense variants, and two were splice variants. All missense variants had
214 pathogenic scores on AlphaMissense and the two splice variants were scored as pathogenic by
215 SpliceAI/SAV. Finally, two missense variants in *SDHA* and *TSC2* and a relatively prevalent *PDE11A*
216 truncating variant were classed as VUS/conflicting interpretation on ACMG/ClinVar; all three were
217 P/LP on AION predictor but the missense variants were ranked as ambiguous by AlphaMissense and
218 these three variants were not included in the overall calculations. Analysis of the variants using the
219 AION predictor scored 15/48 (31.3%) of subjects as having a deleterious variant.

220 Overall, the deleterious germline variants involved the following genes: *BAP1*, *BRCA1*, *BUB1*,
221 *ELAC2*, *FLCN*, *MCPH1*, *MSR1*, *MUTYH*, *PDE11A*, *POLE*, *POLG* (n=2), *RAD51C*, *RECQL4*, *SDHA*,
222 *SDHD*, *SEC23B*, *TMEM127* and *WRN* (Table 2). All but three subjects had single variants, while two
223 subjects had two variants each.

224

225 *P/LP variants on ACMG and Clinvar*

226 A pathogenic *BRCA1* variant was identified in a male subject with acrogigantism due to a
227 somatotropinoma diagnosed during adolescence. While *BRCA1* is an established risk gene for
228 breast/ovarian and other cancers, there is only one previous case report on *BRCA1* in a subject with a
229 pituitary tumor (65).

230 A stop-gain P/LP variant in the *RECQL4* gene was identified in an adolescent male with
231 acrogigantism. This DNA helicase gene is involved in DNA double stranded break repair, nucleotide
232 excision repair, and base excision repair. Biallelic variants are associated with autosomal recessive
233 developmental abnormalities and osteosarcoma risk (66). Recent studies have implicated
234 heterozygous germline *RECQL4* variants with increased risk of ovarian and prostate cancer (67,68).

235 P/LP variants involving *FLCN* (frameshift) and *WRN* (missense) were noted in male pediatric subject
236 that developed a giant prolactinoma (70 mm diameter at diagnosis). Germline *FLCN* variants are
237 associated with renal tumors in sporadic populations and in those with the multisystem disease, Birt-
238 Hogg-Dubé syndrome (69). Other potential neoplastic risks associated with germline *FLCN* variants
239 include adrenal tumors, and one pituitary adenoma case was reported (70,71). This subject also had a
240 missense germline *WRN* VUS that was classified as P/LP on AION predictor/Alpha Missense. *WRN*
241 encodes a DNA helicase/exonuclease involved in DNA replication/repair, and germline variants in
242 this gene lead to Werner syndrome, which is associated with progeria and increased cancer risk (72).
243 *WRN* variants have also been identified in the setting of familial non-medullary thyroid cancer (73).
244 A young female with a GH-secreting tumor had a variant in the DNA damage repair gene *MCPHI*
245 and a concomitant VUS in the cancer risk gene *RAD51C*. A *SEC23B* variant was identified in a
246 young adult female with acromegaly; this missense variant was judged pathogenic by ClinVar and
247 AION predictor, likely pathogenic by ACMG; and Alpha Missense returned a high pathogenicity
248 score (0.994). Germline heterozygous *SEC23B* variants have been identified at increased frequency
249 in thyroid cancer and forms of Cowden syndrome (74).

250 A splice site variant in *ELAC2*, a prostate cancer risk gene, was found in a female subject with early-
251 onset acromegaly; this was rated as P/LP by ACMG and AION predictor, and while the SpliceAI
252 score (0.69) was borderline, the heuristic model from Sullivan *et al* scored it as 99.7% SAV. We also
253 identified a P/LP *MUTYH* splice-site variant in an adolescent subject with acrogigantism due to a GH-
254 secreting pituitary macroadenoma. Biallelic inactivating *MUTYH* variants lead to *MUTYH*-associated
255 polyposis (MAP), that is associated with an increased risk of colorectal cancer. Heterozygous
256 *MUTYH* variants have been linked to moderately-increased cancer risk in some settings (75).

257

258 *Deleterious variants using AION predictor and other tools*

259 Some genes were previously implicated in the etiology of pituitary and other neuroendocrine tumors.
260 One male with acrogigantism had a missense *SDHA* variant and a concomitant missense variant in
261 *POLE* affecting the exonuclease domain of polymerase epsilon. Pathogenic variants in *SDHA*, *SDHD*
262 and *TMEM127* have been identified in the paraganglioma-pheochromocytoma-pituitary adenoma
263 association (3PA) (35,76). Germline *POLE* variants are associated with a familial risk of colorectal
264 and other tumors (77).

265 Other variants affected genes with well-established tumor risk profiles. These included *BRCA-1*
266 *associated protein 1* (*BAP1*) (mesothelioma, melanoma, renal cell cancer risk), *BUB1* (colorectal
267 cancer risk), and *RAD51C* (ovarian, other cancer risks) (78–80). Two male subjects, one with
268 acrogigantism and another with a macroprolactinoma had variants in *POLG*. *POLG* encodes the
269 gamma subunit of mitochondrial DNA polymerase. Rare disorders associated with loss of function of
270 *POLG* include neuromuscular and metabolic diseases in children and adults (81). Germline variants

271 in *POLG* have also been linked to several different cancers, such as, second neoplasms in pediatric
272 cancer patients, and those with mesenchymal tumors or prostate cancer (82,83).

273 One subject with adolescent-onset acrogigantism had a deleterious variant in *MSRI* that was predicted
274 to lead to loss of a splice acceptor site. *MSRI* encodes for a macrophage scavenger receptor, and
275 pathogenic variants in *MSRI* have an established role in several cancer presentations, including
276 hereditary gastric cancer, esophageal adenocarcinoma and prostate cancer (84–86).

277

278 *Ambiguous variants*

279 Three subjects with prolactinomas had P/LP scores on AION predictor but VUS/conflicting
280 significance scores on ACMG/ClinVar, ambiguous scores on Alpha Missense, or had a high
281 prevalence in GnomAD. These were not included as potential P/LP variants. One *SDHA* variant
282 occurred in a female pediatric subject with a macroadenoma; *SDHx* variants are associated with rare
283 instances of pituitary tumors. One missense *TSC2* variant was identified in a teenage male with a
284 macroprolactinoma. *TSC2* variants cause tuberous sclerosis, which has an increased risk of renal
285 tumors and a handful of pituitary adenomas have been reported in tuberous sclerosis patients (87). A
286 female with a macroprolactinoma had a frequently-identified heterozygous truncating variant in the
287 *PDE11A* gene, which has previously been implicated in adrenal tumors, including adrenocortical
288 carcinomas, and potentially pituitary adenomas (88–90).

289

290 *Copy number variations (CNV)*

291 Germline DNA was also assessed for duplications and deletions affecting genes related to pituitary,
292 neuro-endocrine and general cancer risk. One subject with acrogigantism due to a 65 mm GH-
293 secreting macroadenoma diagnosed as a teenager had a small deletion on chromosome 7p22.1. This
294 deletion included the DNA mismatch repair gene, *PMS2*, and was judged as pathogenic by ACMG.

295

296 *Pathway analysis*

297 The gene ontology term enrichment analysis among the genes with P/LP variants is shown in Figure
298 1A. The top ranked significantly enriched heading was for DNA repair pathways-full network
299 (WP4946; logP: -7.9). DisGeNET database assessment identified Hereditary Neoplastic Syndromes
300 (GO term: C0027672; logP: -21.0) as the highest ranked disease term that was associated with the
301 genetic variants identified in the young pituitary adenoma patients in the study.

302

303 Discussion

304

305 Deleterious germline variants are a rare but established cause of isolated anterior pituitary tumors,
306 mainly restricted to clinical subgroups like pediatric patients. Even accounting for established risk
307 genes like *AIP*, the etiology of most young-onset pituitary tumors remains obscure. In the current
308 study we addressed this issue by performing WES analysis in a cohort with pituitary macroadenomas
309 occurring before the age of 30, that were negative for known genetic causes. Using a comprehensive
310 cancer gene target list of >200 genes, we identified deleterious germline sequence variants in 14.6%-
311 31.3% of subjects, depending on the classification methodology. Apart from *SDHA* and *SDHD* none
312 of the identified genes has been reliably implicated in pituitary adenomas. These results suggest that a
313 wider range of inheritable tumorigenic pathways might contribute to pituitary tumorigenesis in
314 children and young adults, particularly those with large somatotropinomas and prolactinomas.

315 Most germline genetic studies to date have employed multi-gene panels comprised of known
316 endocrine/neuroendocrine tumor genes. Even in these, deleterious variants in *AIP*, *CDKN1B*, *MEN1*,
317 *SDHx* and related genes are rarely identified (91–95). More recently, expanded gene sets that include
318 some DNA mismatch repair genes have been deployed in pituitary adenoma populations. Using WES
319 in a Saudi Arabian cohort of 134 non-familial pituitary adenomas, Alzahrani *et al* found germline
320 P/LP variants in 6.7% of their cohort, including *AIP*, *CDH23*, *SDHA*, *DICER1*, *USP48*, *MSH2*, and
321 *MLH1* (52). A Portuguese study of isolated sporadic macroadenoma subjects aged <40 years recently
322 identified P/LP variants in 16/225 individuals (7.1%), although 6/16 variants affected the established
323 pituitary tumor risk genes *AIP/MEN1* (53). As the Saudi cohort, that group used a limited panel of
324 predominantly endocrine tumor-related genes (n=29). The Portuguese cohort was older by a decade
325 than our population, and the Saudi study was performed in an older and milder population (>50% over
326 30 years at diagnosis; microadenomas included) than our study. By focusing on an extensively
327 prescreened population using a comprehensive cancer gene panel, we expand the range of deleterious
328 germline variants that may contribute to previously unexplained pituitary macroadenoma etiology in
329 children and young adults.

330 While other groups have studied germline sequence variants, we also examined CNV affecting the
331 cancer risk genes of interest. One subject had a small *PMS2* deletion, which would affect an
332 established DNA mismatch repair gene that causes Lynch syndrome. Senter *et al* reported two
333 pituitary adenomas in a large database analysis of pathogenic *PMS2* variant Lynch syndrome kindreds
334 (96). In a Swedish national cohort of patients with Lynch syndrome due to mismatch repair gene
335 pathogenic variants, Bengtsson *et al* reported three subjects with pituitary tumors, one of whom had a
336 *PMS2* variant and a non-functioning pituitary adenoma (46). As noted above, the recent Portuguese
337 report also identified subjects with germline *PMS2* variants (53). In contrast, we did not identify any
338 sequence or copy number variants in other classical Lynch syndrome-associated genes
339 (46,52,53,97,98).

340 Pituitary gigantism is a rare manifestation of acromegaly that is usually caused by a somatotropinoma
341 during childhood or adolescence. Unlike acromegaly in general, the genetic pathophysiology of
342 pituitary gigantism is known in about 50% of cases (99). In the current cohort that was negative for
343 *AIP/CDKN1B/MEN1* variants/deletions and *GPR101* duplications, nine of the 14 gigantism subjects
344 (64.3%) had sequence variants in *BRCA1*, *BUB1*, *MSR1*, *MUTYH*, *POLE/SDHA*, *RAD51C*, *RECQL4*,
345 *POLG* or *SDHD*. These results further underline the importance of germline genetic factors in
346 pituitary gigantism and suggests that the number of molecular pathways involved might be wider than
347 previously thought.

348 Recent years have seen a re-assessment of the role of P/LP variants in the etiology of various cancers
349 driven by widespread use of clinical exome/genome sequencing. Large studies have shown that
350 universal germline sequencing in cancer patients increases the yield of P/LP variants markedly over
351 that obtained with a stricter guideline focused sequencing approach (100). For example, Samadder *et al*
352 found P/LP variants to be present in up to 12.5% with solid tumors treated in the Mayo Clinic
353 group; importantly, only young age at cancer diagnosis was significantly predictive for identification
354 of a genetic variant (101). Findings in common solid tumors have also been extended to the rarer,
355 neuroendocrine tumor space. Perez and colleagues studied small bowel neuroendocrine neoplasms
356 and 9-11% of subjects had a P/LP variant (43). Furthermore, Riechelmann *et al* reported that P/LP
357 variant were present in nearly 16% of 108 subjects with gut or lung neuroendocrine neoplasms that
358 occurred at a young age (18-50 years) (42). The most frequently implicated genes in that study were
359 those related to DNA repair, as found in our cohort. Mohindroo *et al* had similar findings in a
360 pancreatic NET population derived from two other major reference centers in the United States.
361 Among 132 subjects with high-risk profiles (young age, personal/family history of cancer, and
362 syndromic disease), P/LP variants were found in 33% of cases, most frequently *MEN1* or DNA repair
363 pathway genes. In a validation cohort of 106 unselected pancreatic NET patients, 21% had a P/LP
364 variant (41).

365 In contrast to the cancer studies mentioned above, pituitary lesions in our cohort were universally
366 benign. This raises a question as to whether germline genetic variants driving malignancy in other
367 tissues can be of relevance for benign pituitary neoplasia. The example of syndromic conditions like
368 *MEN1* is instructive in this regard. The same *MEN1* germline pathogenic variant acting on the
369 regulation of cell behavior across multiple tissue subtypes can lead to benign tumors in certain tissues
370 (anterior pituitary, parathyroid) and malignant tumors (pancreatic NETs) in others (102). This is also
371 seen in endocrine tumor syndromes with lower penetrance than *MEN1* (35,103). Following a similar
372 model, it is possible that deleterious variants in DNA repair genes typically associated with hereditary
373 breast/ovarian, or colorectal cancers could also manifest as pathologically benign adenomas in the
374 anterior pituitary. The epidemiology of pituitary adenomas/PitNETs is relevant. Pituitary tumors are
375 often found incidentally as tiny innocuous lesions in imaging and pathology studies (prevalence of
376 about 1:5), whereas very few progress to cause clinically apparent disease (prevalence of 1:1000)

377 (104). Only a small minority of pituitary tumors progress to aggressive or locally invasive tumors and
378 vanishingly few become carcinomas. Due to its extreme importance regulating multiple vital
379 pathways, the anterior pituitary may be a molecularly privileged tissue that is relatively protected
380 against malignant transformation. Somatic events play an important role in removing the brakes on
381 neoplastic proliferation, as activating *GNAS* and *USP8* are frequent causes of acromegaly and
382 Cushing's disease, respectively, but do not seem to cause aggressive disease (10,105,106). Although
383 germline factors like *AIP* can lead to tumors with an unfavorable clinical phenotype, these almost
384 never undergo malignant transformation (25). Aggressive pituitary adenomas and pituitary
385 carcinomas are among the most challenging patients to manage therapeutically (107–110). Somatic
386 DNA studies of resected pituitary adenoma tissue have revealed recurrent pathogenic variants in
387 genes such as *ATRX* and *TP53*, in patients with aggressive corticotroph tumors or carcinomas (111–
388 114). Germline studies in these aggressive adenomas and carcinomas have been limited to case
389 reports and small series, although cases involving *CHEK2* support a role for “traditional” cancer
390 genes in pituitary adenoma etiology (49,51,115). Taken together we suggest that deleterious germline
391 variants in cancer-risk genes play a more important role than considered to date in the etiology of
392 pituitary adenomas/PitNETs.

393 Guidelines for acromegaly and other pituitary tumor subtypes do not yet include specific management
394 recommendations regarding genetic testing, possibly due to the relative rarity of established germline
395 genetic causes overall (<5% of cases) (22). The 2022 WHO classification of pituitary tumors as
396 PitNETs focuses by necessity on surgically resected tissues and does not yet extend to outcomes in
397 pre-surgical patients (2,3,116,117). Recently, Ho and colleagues have proposed a novel scoring
398 system that incorporates multiple clinically relevant features of pituitary adenomas at presentation and
399 during treatment (1). This system introduces germline genetic variants in *AIP*, *MEN1* and other genes
400 into predicting disease severity (1). Such a systematic approach to classify pituitary tumor patients
401 could be expanded to include newer genetic factors, once these have been established and validated.

402 Our study has several limitations in terms of scope and interpretation. Ideally, a study would have
403 access to paired germline and tumor DNA to assess whether a second hit in an affected gene is present
404 and to describe the somatic pattern of chromosomal disturbances that are characteristic of pituitary
405 adenomas (15–18,21). A major challenge in clinical genetics is the interpretation of rare variants
406 (particularly missense and splice variants) that lack definitive functional studies to determine
407 pathogenicity. For this reason, *in silico* tools to predict functional effects have proliferated and have
408 become increasingly sophisticated when combined into compendium models or AI-assisted toolsets
409 like we used here. However, no model can reliably replace functional assays, and there remains a risk
410 for the classification of potentially innocuous variants as deleterious, thereby increasing reported
411 rates. In this study we purposely separated more traditional classification criteria from novel *in silico*
412 and AI driven models to acknowledge this uncertainty about classification of cancer gene variants in
413 pituitary tumor patients. Furthermore, the mechanisms by which these putative deleterious variants

414 could influence pituitary neoplastic transformation remain to be studied and established. Also, the
415 patient population does not reflect the general epidemiological profile of pituitary adenomas in the
416 young, which are more often small prolactinomas, patients with Cushing's disease or those with non-
417 functioning adenomas (104). This skewing comes from the recruitment criteria of our ongoing
418 research studies into pituitary gigantism and aggressive/large pituitary adenomas, leading to a relative
419 over-representation of somatotropinomas.

420 When taken as a whole, results to date suggest that deleterious germline variants in cancer risk genes
421 play a more important role in pituitary tumor pathogenesis than was previously thought. In line with
422 similar studies in neuroendocrine and other cancers, pituitary adenomas may be a clinical
423 manifestation of underlying germline cancer risk alleles. In the pediatric-adolescent cohort of
424 pituitary gigantism patients, the high prevalence of deleterious germline variants confirms that
425 somatotropinomas in the young appear to be particularly sensitive to germline genetic pathology. In
426 conclusion, the germline genetics of pituitary adenomas in young subjects appears to mirror that of
427 neoplasia in many other tissues. More widespread use of exome/genome sequencing may allow for
428 the identification of deleterious variants that can permit improved family screening or even identify
429 novel druggable pathways for expanded personalized therapy.

430

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461 **Legend**

462

463 **Figure 1.** Metascape® representations of **(A)** enriched ontogeny terms and **(B)** disease-related
464 DISGENET associations related to germline pathogenic/likely pathogenic variants in cancer-related
465 genes identified in subjects with young-onset pituitary macroadenomas.

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Subject Number	Sex	Pituitary Adenoma Type	Age at Onset (range)	Tumor classification	Max tumor diameter (mm)
1	M	GH	childhood	Macro	20
2	M	GH (acrogigantism)	adolescent	Macro	N/A
3	M	GH (acrogigantism)	childhood	Macro	33
4	M	GH (acrogigantism)	childhood	Macro	N/A
5	F	GH	childhood	Macro	N/A
6	M	GH (acrogigantism)	childhood	Macro	N/A
7	M	GH (acrogigantism)	childhood	Macro	27
8	M	GH (acrogigantism)	adolescent	Macro	30
9	M	GH (acrogigantism)	adolescent	Macro	N/A
10	M	GH (acrogigantism)	adolescent	Macro	N/A
11	F	GH	young adult	Macro	40
12	M	PRL	childhood	Macro	70
13	M	GH (acrogigantism)	adolescent	Macro	60
14	F	GH	childhood	Macro	N/A
15	M	GH (acrogigantism)	adolescent	Macro	N/A
16	F	GH (acrogigantism)	adolescent	Macro	N/A
17	F	PRL	childhood	Macro	N/A
18	F	GH (acrogigantism)	childhood	Macro	N/A
19	F	GH	young adult	Macro	N/A
20	M	GH	young adult	Macro	40
21	M	GH	young adult	Macro	N/A
22	F	PRL	young adult	Macro	N/A
23	F	PRL	young adult	Macro	N/A
24	M	PRL	young adult	Macro	38
25	M	PRL	adolescent	Macro	59
26	F	GH	adolescent	Macro	35
27	F	NFPA	young adult	Macro	29
28	F	GH	young adult	Macro	45
29	F	GH	young adult	Macro	32
30	M	GH (acrogigantism)	adolescent	Macro	65
31	M	PRL	young adult	Macro	N/A
32	F	GH	young adult	Macro	36
33	F	GH	young adult	Macro	37

34	F	GH	young adult	Macro	29
35	M	GH	adolescent	Macro	20
36	M	GH	young adult	Macro	26
37	M	PRL	adolescent	Macro	N/A
38	F	GH	adolescent	Macro	23
39	M	GH	young adult	Macro	18
40	F	GH	young adult	Macro	37
41	M	GH	young adult	Macro	40
42	M	GH	young adult	Macro	33
43	F	GH	young adult	Macro	N/A
44	M	PRL	adolescent	Macro	35
45	M	PRL	young adult	Macro	48
46	M	PRL	young adult	Macro	N/A
47	M	NFPA	adolescent	Macro	N/A
48	M	GH (acrogigantism)	young adult	Macro	N/A

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Table 1. Clinical and demographic details on subjects with young-onset pituitary macroadenomas. Age ranges: childhood (0-12 years); adolescent (13-18 years); young adult (19-30 years). F: female; GH: growth hormone secreting; M: male; Macro: macroadenoma; NFPA: non-functioning pituitary adenoma; PRL: prolactinoma.

Subject No.	Sex	Age at dx	PA	Gene	Nucleotide change Amino acid change chromosomal location (hg19)	Variant type	GnomAD Freq.	Clin Var	ACMG	AION	AM Class (Score)	SpliceAI effect (site)/ SAV heuristic (%)
P/LP: ACMG/ClinVar												
8	M	adolescent	GH	<i>MUTYH</i>	c.925-2A>G - 1-45797760-T-C	splice acceptor	0.0011	CI	LP	P	-	0.95 (AL)/ 99.7%
9	M	adolescent	GH	<i>BRCA1</i>	c.2217_2218insA p.Val740SerfsTer3 17-41245330-C-CT	frameshift	0	P	P			
11	F	Young adult	GH	<i>ELAC2</i>	c.560-2A>G 17-12915101-T-C	splice acceptor	0.00089	CI	LP	P	-	0.69 (AL)/ 99.7%
12	M	childhood	PR L	<i>FLCN</i>	c.890_893del p.Glu297AlafsTer25 17-17122501-GCTTT-G	frameshift	0.00001	P	P			
15	M	adolescent	GH	<i>RECQL4</i>	c.2398C>T p.Gln800Ter 8-145738666-G-A	stop gained	0.00001	P	LP	P	-	
18	F	childhood	GH	<i>MCPHI</i>	c.1561G>T p.Glu521Ter 8-6302804-G-T	stop gained	0	CI	P	P	-	
43	F	Young adult	GH	<i>SEC23B</i>	c.325G>A p.Glu109Lys 20-18496339-G-A	missense	0.00022	P	LP	P	LP (0.994)	
Deleterious: AION Predictor and AI tools												
1	M	childhood	GH	<i>TMEM127</i>	c.380G>A p.Arg127His 2-96920600-C-T	missense	0	US	VUS	P	LP (0.959)	
2	M	adolescent	GH	<i>MSRI</i>	c.-4-1G>A - 8-16035502-C-T	splice acceptor	0.00085	N/A	VUS	P	-	1.0 (AL) /99.7%
3	M	adolescent	GH	<i>BUB1</i>	c.2T>C p.Met1?	start lost	0	N/A				

Subject No.	Sex	Age at dx	PA	Gene	Nucleotide change Amino acid change chromosomal location (hg19)	Variant type	GnomAD Freq.	Clin Var	ACMG	AION	AM Class (Score)	SpliceAI effect (site)/ SAV heuristic (%)
					2-111435571-A-G							
10	M	adolescent	GH	<i>POLE</i>	c.1274A>G p.Lys425Arg 12-133250246-T-C	missense	0.00002	US	VUS	P	LP (0.84)	
10	M	adolescent	GH	<i>SDHA</i>	c.1334C>T p.Ser445Leu 5-236616-C-T	missense	0	CI	VUS	P	LP (0.9669)	
12	M	childhood	PR L	<i>WRN</i>	c.2114C>T p.Thr705Ile 8-30969156-C-T	missense	0.00033	US	VUS	LP	LP (0.9089)	
16	F	adolescent	GH	<i>SDHD</i>	c.436G>A p.Asp146Asn 11-111965650-G-A	missense	0	US	VUS	LP	LP (0.777)	
18	F	childhood	GH	<i>RAD51C</i>	c.1026+6T>A - 17-56809911-T-A	splice donor	0	CI	VUS	LB	-	0.87 (DL)/ 91.7%
28	F	Young adult	GH	<i>BAP1</i>	c.572T>C p.Ile191Thr 3-52441198-A-G	missense	0.00004	CI	VUS	LP	LP (0.948)	
31	M	Young adult	PR L	<i>POLG</i>	c.2641C>T p.Pro881Ser 15-89864449-G-A	missense	0.00004	US	VUS	P	LP (0.917)	
48	M	Young adult	GH	<i>POLG</i>	c.2615G>A p.Ser872Asn 15-89864475-C-T	missense	0	N/A	VUS	P	LP (0.981)	
Ambiguous												
17	F	childhood	PR L	<i>SDHA</i>	c.1396G>A p.Ala466Thr 5-236678-G-A	missense	0.00086	CI	VUS	P	A (0.4472)	
22	F	Young adult	PR L	<i>PDE11A</i>	c.919C>T p.Arg307Ter	stop gained	0.00301	CI	CI	P		

Subject No.	Sex	Age at dx	PA	Gene	Nucleotide change Amino acid change chromosomal location (hg19)	Variant type	GnomAD Freq.	Clin Var	ACMG	AION	AM Class (Score)	SpliceAI effect (site)/ SAV heuristic (%)
					2-178879181-G-A							
44	M	adolescent	PR L	TSC2	c.5413G>C p.Glu1805Gln 16-2138600-G-C	missense	0	US	VUS	LP	A (0.506)	

476

477 **Table 2. Germline variants of interest in cancer-related genes identified during WES analysis in 48 young subjects with previously genetically**
 478 **negative pituitary adenomas.** Age ranges: childhood (0-12 years); adolescent (13-18 years); young adult (19-30 years). AION: AION Predictor; AM: Alpha
 479 Missense; CI: conflicting interpretations; LB: likely benign; LP: likely pathogenic; P: pathogenic; PA: pituitary adenoma; SAV: Splicing affecting variant;
 480 US: uncertain significance; VUS: variant of unknown significance.

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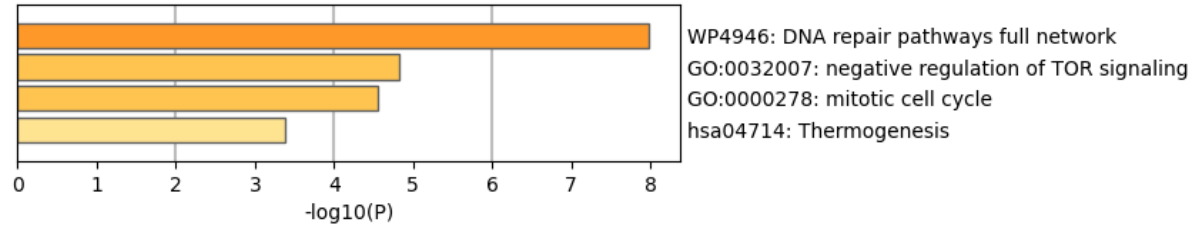
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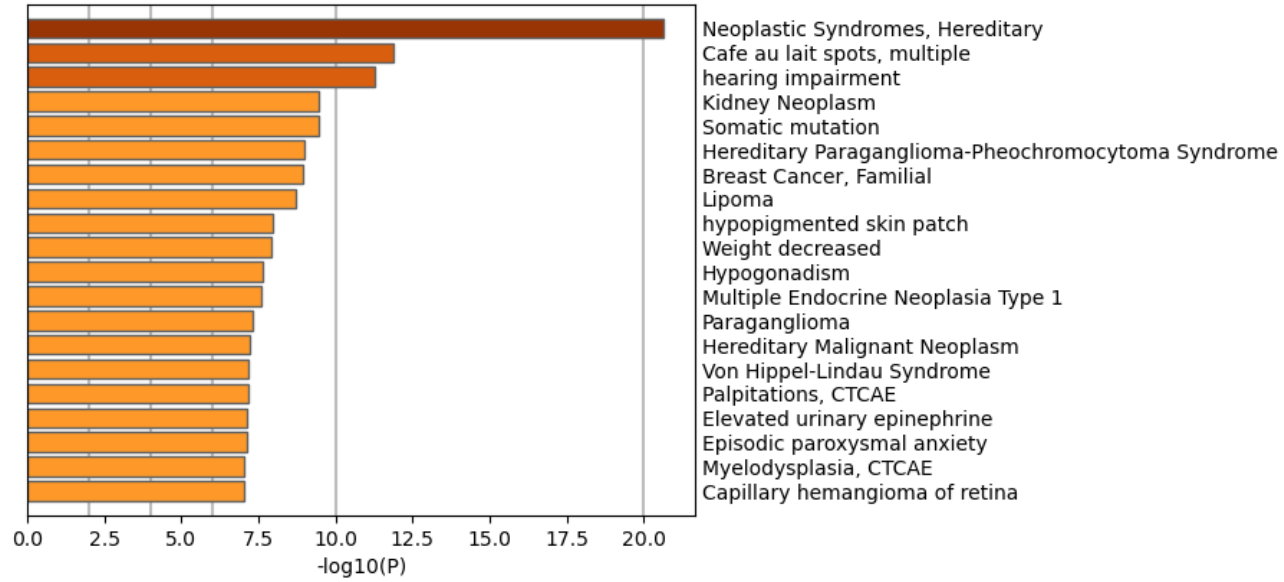
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