ORIGINAL ARTICLE

The imprinted region on human chromosome 7q32 extends to the carboxypeptidase A gene cluster: an imprinted candidate for Silver-Russell syndrome

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Imprinted gene(s) on human chromosome 7q32-qter have been postulated to be involved in intrauterine growth restriction associated with Silver-Russell syndrome (SRS) as 7–10% of patients have mUPD(7). Three imprinted genes, *MEST*, *MEST1T1*, and *COPG2IT1* on chromosome 7q32, are unlikely to cause SRS since epigenetic and sequence mutation analyses have not shown any changes. One hundred kilobases proximal to *MEST* lies a group of four carboxypeptidase A (CPA) genes. Since most imprinted genes are found in clusters, this study focuses on analysing these CPAs for imprinting effects based on their proximity to an established imprinted domain. Firstly, a replication timing study across 7q32 showed that an extensive genomic region including the CPAs, *MEST*, *MEST1T1*, and *COPG2IT1* replicates asynchronously. Subsequently, SNP analysis by sequencing RT-PCR products of *CPA1*, *CPA2*, *CPA4*, and *CPA5* indicated preferential expression of *CPA4*. Pyrosequencing was used as a quantitative approach, which confirmed predominantly preferential expression of the maternal allele and biallelic expression in brain. *CPA5* expression levels were too low to allow reliable evaluation of allelic expression, while *CPA1* and *CPA2* both showed biallelic expression. *CPA4* was the only gene from this family in which an imprinting effect was shown despite the location of this family of genes next to an imprinted cluster. As *CPA4* has a potential role in cell proliferation and differentiation, two preferentially expressed copies in mUPD patients with SRS syndrome would result in excess expression and could alter the growth profiles of these subjects and give rise to intrauterine growth restriction.

In mammals, a subset of autosomal genes are expressed according to their parental origin. This phenomenon is known as genomic imprinting and is thought to have evolved over at least 100 million years ago.¹ Imprinted gene expression has been shown to be critical for early mammalian embryonic development, growth, and behaviour.

Dysfunctional imprinted gene(s) on human chromosome 7 have been postulated to be involved in the growth restriction associated with Silver Russell syndrome (SRS) as 7–10% of patients have maternal uniparental disomy (mUPD(7)).² SRS is a common cause of growth failure in children with an incidence of approximately 1:3000 births, similar to that observed for Turner syndrome.³ Features include intrauterine growth restriction (IUGR), persistent short stature, characteristic facial features, asymmetry, and fifth finger clinodactyly.^{4–6} Most cases of SRS are sporadic with no established Mendelian inheritance pattern.

Most imprinted genes are found in clusters.⁷ To date, there are three imprinted regions distributed along the length of human chromosome 7. These are 7p11.3–p13 including growth factor receptor protein 10 (*GRB10*),^{8–11} 7q21.3 including the paternally expressed gene 10 (*PEG10*) and epsilon-sarcoglycan (*SGCE*),¹² and an imprinted gene cluster at 7q32 including the mesoderm specific transcript (*MEST*), *MEST* intronic transcript 1 (*MEST1T1*), and non-clathrin coat protein gene intronic transcript 1 (*COPG2IT1*).^{13–15}

The human *MEST* gene is imprinted in fetal tissues and localised to chromosome 7q32.2. Two isoforms of the gene are transcribed using alternative first exons. Isoform 1 is paternally expressed in fetal tissues,¹³ while isoform 2 is biallelically expressed apart from in the placenta and possibly kidney where it is also paternally expressed.^{14–16} The non-clathrin coat protein gene (*COPG2*) is located immediately telomeric to *MEST* in a tail to tail orientation and appears to be

biallelically expressed.¹⁵ However, *COPG2IT1* is a transcript located within intron 20 of *COPG2* that is paternally expressed in all fetal tissues examined.¹⁵ An additional untranslated antisense transcript has been identified for *MEST*, namely *MEST* intronic transcript 1 (*MEST1T1*).^{14–16} All of these transcripts provide evidence that there is an extensive imprinted cluster at 7q32. Even though most imprinted genes are found in clusters in the genome, this does not exclude biallelic expression of individual genes within such a cluster, such as the testis specific protein A14 (*TSGA14*), which is located directly centromeric to *MEST* and is biallelically expressed in human fetal tissues.¹⁷

Several lines of evidence have highlighted the region around *MEST* and instigated the search for imprinted genes in this region as candidates for SRS. Not only are 10% of SRS patients mUPD(7), but a single SRS patient has been reported with segmental mUPD(7)q31–qter.¹⁸ The only known imprinted gene within this region that appears to contribute directly to growth is *MEST*. A mouse knock out of *Mest* with a deletion of exons 3 to 9 show pre- and postnatal growth restriction but no asymmetry (one of the commonly found phenotypic characteristics of SRS patients) when paternally inherited.¹⁹ Several groups provided genetic evidence against a role of *MEST* in SRS, reporting the lack of sequence and epigenetic mutations in non-mUPD SRS patients.^{20–21} This suggests that other imprinted genes flanking *MEST* at 7q32 may play a role in the pathogenesis of SRS. The connection between imprinting, human 7q, and SRS is strengthened by the fact that the human region is orthologous to mouse proximal chromosome 6. A region in proximal 6, 6A3.2 to 6B3, defined by the breakpoints of the reciprocal translocations T(4;6)77H and T(6;13)6Ad has been shown to be responsible for growth restriction when maternally duplicated.²²

The transcripts proximal to *MEST* and *TSGA14* belong to the carboxypeptidase A (CPA) cluster of genes. The functions of the protein products of the carboxypeptidase gene family range from the digestion of food to the selective biosynthesis of neuroendocrine peptides.²³ Metallo-CPAs are zinc containing exopeptidases, divided into either the N/E or A/B subfamilies based on the overall domain structure and amino acid sequence similarities. All members of the A/B subfamily contain about a 90 amino acid long N-terminal "pro" region that functions as a chaperone to assist with the folding of the active carboxypeptidase (CP) domain. Four members of the A/B subfamily, *CPA1*, *CPA2*, *CPA4*, and *CPA5*, were found to be clustered within an interval of 120 kb on human chromosome 7q32.²⁴ *CPA1* and *CPA2* (together with *CPB1* on chromosome 3q24) are referred to as pancreatic carboxypeptidases. Although *CPA1* and *CPA2* are expressed most highly in pancreas, expression of the genes in other tissues was also reported.²⁵ *CPA4* was identified as a gene upregulated in NaBu-treated PC-3 cells (an androgen independent prostate cancer cell line),²⁶ suggesting the possibility that CPA4 protein may have functions in cell proliferation and differentiation. Although the enzymatic properties of CPA4 have not been reported, the deduced amino acid sequence encoded by the *CPA4* gene shows a high degree of similarity to other CPA proteins. *CPA5* was identified as a new member of the CPA gene cluster on 7q32.²⁴ The gene has been shown to be strongly expressed in testis germ cells. The active site of CPA5 was predicted to cleave substrates with C-terminal hydrophobic residues, as do CPA1 and 2. The four CPA genes are only 100 kb proximal to the cluster of imprinted genes (*MEST*, *MEST1T1*, and *COPG2IT1*) on 7q32.¹³⁻¹⁶

As a part of systematic screening for additional imprinted genes in the vicinity of the *MEST/COPG2* locus, we have examined the imprinting status of the four CPA genes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Northern blot analysis

Multiple tissue northern blots containing adult human poly (A)⁺ RNAs (2 µg/lane) were purchased from Clontech. The cDNA fragments used as probes for *CPA4* and *CPA5* correspond to nt 1440 to 1693 of GenBank acc NM_016352, and nt 1315 to 1420 of NM_080385, respectively. Probes were labelled with [α -32P] dCTP using random priming. Hybridisation and washing were performed following the protocols described by Sambrook and Russell.²⁷

Analysis of replication timing

Replication timing was analysed in S phase cells labelled by BrdU incorporation in a normal lymphoblastoid cell line according to the methods described by Hitchins *et al.*²⁸ Methods used for probe preparation and FISH were based on those described by Harper *et al.*²⁹ and the protocols recommended by Vysis (Vysis, Richmond, UK). Minimums of 200 S phase nuclei were scored for one of three replication patterns: two singlets (single signals representing an unreplicated allele), a singlet plus a doublet (two signals less than two signal widths apart representing a replicated allele), or two doublets. The number of singlet/doublet nuclei were represented as a percentage of the total number of nuclei counted. This reflects the percentage asynchrony of a given genomic region.

Fetal tissue and maternal DNA samples for imprinting analysis

Fetal tissues were acquired following termination of pregnancy at Queen Charlotte's and Chelsea Hospital (QCCH), London. A paired maternal peripheral blood sample was obtained for DNA extraction at the same time. Informed consent was obtained for each sample set. Local ethics approval for obtaining fetal and maternal samples for the study of growth related disorders was granted by the Research Ethics

Committee of the Royal Postgraduate Medical School (96/4955). Fetal pancreas tissue was obtained from the MRC Tissue Bank at Hammersmith Hospital. All tissues were washed in sterile PBS, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -70°C. Genomic DNA was extracted from the fetal placenta and maternal blood using the standard phenol-chloroform technique.

PCR amplification and sequence analysis

PCR for genotyping and RT-PCR for expression analysis were performed according to standard protocols in 25 µl reactions supplemented with 1.5 mol/l betaine to increase specificity.²⁷ PCR and RT-PCR products were purified using microCLEAN (Microzone Ltd). The purified products were sequenced directly using Big Dye terminator kit and resolved on a 3100 Genetic Analyser (Applied Biosystems).

Imprinting analysis in human fetal tissues

Imprinting analysis was carried out by single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) analysis that requires heterozygous fetal genotypes to differentiate between expression from each of the parental genomes. A homozygous maternal genotype for the same SNP allows identification of the paternal allele since it is the only allele which could have been contributed by the mother. The other fetal allele is therefore paternal in origin. Analysis of fetal RNA by RT, RT-PCR, and DNA sequencing allows us to determine whether both or just one of these alleles is expressed.

CPA1

A C/G polymorphism in the third coding exon (nt173 of BC005279) was found by EST comparison (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/SNP/snpblastByChr.html). Fetal DNA for which matched pancreatic cDNA was available was screened for informative heterozygotes by sequencing genomic PCR products (table 1) with the forward primer used for amplification. RT-PCR products were amplified for informative sample sets. Allele expression was evaluated by sequencing products with the forward RT-PCR primer.

CPA2

A C/T polymorphism for SNP imprinting analysis was identified in exon 7 (nt631 of U19977) by screening the DNA sequence of exons of a set of normal DNA samples. Fetal DNA for which matched pancreatic cDNA was available was screened for heterozygote informativity by sequencing genomic PCR products (table 1) with a nested forward primer (gtgtgaggttgacatgtatc 5'-3') and reverse PCR primer. RT-PCR products were amplified for informative sample sets. Allele expression was evaluated by sequencing with nested primer caagctacggcactttggac (5'-3').

CPA4

A G/T polymorphism in exon 9 (nt 914 of AF095719) was identified using the Celera database. Fetal DNA samples, for which matched maternal DNA and a range of fetal tissues were available, were screened for heterozygote informativity by sequencing PCR products amplified from genomic DNA (table 1) using a nested forward primer (caaccttgcctccgaagtg 5'-3'). RT-PCR products were amplified for informative sample sets in as many tissue types as were available. Allele expression was evaluated by sequencing with nested forward primer gaggtgaaatcagtgttag (5'-3') and the reverse, RT-PCR primer.

CPA5

C/T and G/T SNPs were identified in exon 9 (nts1007 and 1014 of AF384667) using the Celera database and used to analyse isoform 1 of *CPA5*. Fetal DNA, for which matched maternal DNA and a range of fetal tissues were available, was screened for heterozygote informativity by sequencing genomic PCR

Table 1 Primer sequences, conditions, and expected product sizes for human genomic and cDNA PCR amplification used for SNP analysis of CP genes

CPA genes	Genomic DNA PCR:			RT-PCR:		
	Primer sequences (5'-3')	Expected size (bp)	Conditions	Primer sequences (5'-3')	Expected size (bp)	Conditions
CPA1	F:tgagaacttcggcaccac R:taccagccatgatgaagac	401	54°C for 32 cycles	F:aggtacagaaggtgaaggag R:gtccaagggtgcgagaatg	540	54°C for 35 cycles
CPA2	F:taacattgcaggagaccgg R:cacatctcttaggtctctg	320	54°C for 32 cycles	F:agtggttacacagctacg R:agaggcttcagatacttg	198	55°C for 32 cycles
CPA4	F:gagcgtcttcattctgtg R:tcctataaagctgcagagc	353	54°C for 32 cycles	F:caaccctgtccgaagtgt R:cataggtccggatctctc	359	56°C for 35 cycles
CPA5 Iso 1	F:tgctgcatatgtgaacttc R:ttctgtgaagcgggtctc	181	58°C for 32 cycles	F:gcaacagcttgaaaccag R:ccaaaatgtactcgatccc	607	60°C for 48 cycles
CPA5 Iso 3	F:tgcaagggtcctaagcctag R:cagggtgtgtccatgatgg	406	60°C for 32 cycles	F:cgggtttggagatgtggcc R:cagggtgtgtccatgatgg	185	64°C for 48 cycles

Figure 1 Gene structure of CPA genes on human chromosome 7q32, (A) Seventeen known genes/transcripts including three imprinted genes (*MEST*, *MEST11*, and *COPG2/IT1*) in the 1.5 Mb interval between D7S530 and D7S649. A common fragile site, *FRA7H*,⁴¹ is shown in a hatched box. The arrowheads show the transcriptional orientation of the genes. BAC/PAC clones for replication timing analysis are shown as horizontal bars at the bottom. The percentage asynchrony for each clone is shown in parentheses. B277J23 and B156M7 are BAC clones from the CITB library; the others are PAC clones from the RPCI-1 and -3 libraries.⁴² BAC/PAC end positions were determined by end sequences and are represented by vertical bars while those determined by PCR based mapping are shown by open circles. (B) A map for the four CPA genes (*CPA1*, *CPA2*, *CPA4*, and *CPA5*). Spidey (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/IEB/Research/Ostell/Spidey/>), an mRNA to genomic alignment program, was used to determine the exon-intron structures. The mRNA sequences used are NM_001868 (*CPA1*), NM_001869 (*CPA2*), NM_016352 (*CPA4*), and AY155230 (*CPA5*). The genomic DNA sequences used are AC024085 (for *CPA2* and *CPA4*) and AC007938 (for *CPA5* and *CPA1*). *CPA1* consists of 10 coding exons; the other genes consist of 11 coding exons. Two CpG islands (shown by grey circles) were detected by GrailEXP (<http://compbio.ornl.gov/grailxp/>): one is in intron 10 of *CPA2* (the ratio for observed/expected GC, 0.90; the percent GC, 54.83%); the other is 5' upstream of exon 1 of *CPA4* (the ratio for observed/expected GC, 0.71; the percent GC, 51.47%). (C) Exons and functional domains in the deduced amino acid sequences encoded by the four CPA genes. 5' and 3' UTRs are shown in open boxes. The coding regions are shown in light grey. The signal peptide sequences are shown in black boxes. Carboxypeptidase activation peptides and zinc carboxypeptidase domains are shown in dark grey and mid grey boxes, respectively. The repetitive sequence (AluSp) detected by RepeatMasker (<http://ftp.genome.washington.edu/cgi-bin/RepeatMasker>) in the 3' UTR of *CPA4* is shown by a bar with arrowheads (nt 1822 to 2110 of NM_016352).

products (table 1) using the nested primer agtgaacttcacacagccc (5'-3'). RT-PCR products were amplified for informative sample sets in as many tissue types as were available.

Allele expression was evaluated by sequencing products with nested forward (agtgaacttcacacagccc 5'-3') and reverse (aatgtactgatccc 5'-3') primers.

Figure 2 Three splicing isoforms for *CPA5* at its 3' end. The 11 coding exons for *CPA5* (GenBank acc AF384667) are shown at the bottom. Full length cDNA sequences for IMAGE clones 5171382 (from brain, GenBank acc AY155229) and 5270617 (from testis, GenBank acc AY155230) contain additional three untranslated exons (un1 to 3) besides the 11 coding exons. The mRNA sequences containing all 11 coding exons are referred to as "isoform 1". Full length cDNA sequence for IMAGE: 2567523 (GenBank acc AY155228) skips exon 10 (referred to as isoform 2). EST AI191876 (from fetal heart) skips exons 9 and 10 (referred to as isoform 3). UTRs are shown in open boxes. Coding regions are shaded in light grey boxes. The regions corresponding to signal sequence, carboxypeptidase activation peptide (pfam02244), and zinc carboxypeptidase domain (pfam00246) are shaded in black, dark grey, and mid grey, respectively. The absence of exon 10 in isoform 2 is deduced to cause a frameshift at amino acid 347 and creates 57 amino acids of new sequence showing no similarity with zinc carboxypeptidase domain (shown in a hatched box).

For isoform 3, a SNP was analysed which lies on exon 11 at nt1132 of AF384667 or nt 78 of the reverse complement of AI191876. Fetal DNA, for which matched maternal DNA and a range of fetal tissues were available, was screened for heterozygote informativity by sequencing genomic PCR products (table 1) using nested primer aggatgcctctgtaccttgc (5'-3'). RT-PCR products were amplified for informative sample sets in as many tissues as were available. Allele expression was evaluated by sequencing these products with a nested reverse primer (cggaccatcatggagcacac 5'-3').

Expression analysis of *CPA4* using the pyrosequencing system

Pyrosequencing was used as a quick and accurate method of genotyping fetal and maternal genomic DNA samples and subsequently to quantify allelic expression in RT-PCR products amplified from cDNA generated from fetal tissues of informative subjects. Amplification of fetal and maternal genomic DNA was carried out according to standard PCR protocols using caacccttgctccgaagtgt (5'-3') and 5' biotinylated reverse primer tcctataaagctgcagagc (5'-3') to genotype subjects for the same SNP in exon 9 that was used for analysis by DNA sequencing. The forward pyrosequencing primer aacat-gggaatttcaag (5'-3') for genomic DNA was designed using SNP Primer Design from Pyrosequencing AB version 1.0.1. For RT-PCR 5' biotinylated primer caacccttgctccgaagtgt (5'-3') and reverse primer ctagtggatagacagtgt (5'-3') flanking exons 10 and 11 were used with a reverse sequencing primer caggtgat-gaagc (5'-3'). Pyrosequencing was carried out according to manufacturers standard protocols (PyroSequencing AB).

RESULTS

Localisation, genomic organisation, and expression of *CPA* genes

The four *CPA* genes, *CPA1*, *CPA2*, *CPA4*, and *CPA5*, are clustered in an interval of 120 kb on 7q32 (*CPA3* is not part of this cluster and has been localised to chromosome 3q24). The distance between the *CPA* genes and a cluster of imprinted genes (*MEST*, *MEST1L*, and *COPG2IT1*) on chromosome 7 is approximately 100 kb (fig 1A).

Grail EXP was used to highlight potential CpG islands in the human genomic reference sequence AC024083 (RP11-190G13). No CpG islands were localised; however, two small regions were shown to have a slightly higher CpG dinucleotide content than the surrounding DNA (fig 1B, shown by grey circles). The first was located within intron 10 for *CPA2* (102788-103093-PCT GC 54.83) and contained three *HpaII* (cc^mgg) and six *Hin6I* (cg^mcg) restriction sites. The second was located 650 bp upstream of the first exon *CPA4* (109418-109648-PCT GC 51.47) and contains only two *HpaII* restriction sites. Both regions were subjected to RepeatMasker analysis, showing that these regions both align to SINE/Alu elements. The sequence from within intron 10 of *CPA2* consists of two copies

of SINE/Alu elements, whereas the second region represents only a single element. Preliminary methylation sensitive PCR showed that both regions are methylated in mUPD(7) and pUPD(7) lymphoblast DNA, as is expected for SINE/Alu elements.³⁰

CPA1 has 10 coding exons and the others have 11 coding exons; exon 3 in *CPA1* (234 bp) corresponds to two exons (3 and 4) in the others (fig 1C). The introns 3 of *CPA2*, *CPA4*, and *CPA5* have progressively larger introns containing more repeat elements than one another. *CPA4* has a longer 3'UTR containing a repetitive sequence (Alu) (fig 1C). Interestingly, the 3'UTR of mouse *Cpa4* is also longer and contains repetitive elements (data not shown). Otherwise, the four genes have similar exon-intron structures. All intron-exon boundaries of the four genes conform to the splicing donor/acceptor consensus sequences (GT/AG). Intron phases are completely conserved among the four genes for all exon-intron boundaries. The putative amino acid sequences encoded by the four genes have a similar domain structure: a signal peptide at the N-terminus, carboxypeptidase activation peptide (pfam02244), and zinc carboxypeptidase domain (pfam00246) (fig 1C). *CPA5* has a longer signal peptide than other members (fig 1C³¹). The similarity of amino acid sequences of two of the four proteins ranges from 51% to 68%.

In addition to 11 coding exons of *CPA5*, three non-coding exons at the 5' end have been reported²⁴ (un1 to 3, fig 2). By examining ESTs for the *CPA5* gene (Unigene Hs.144699), we found two ESTs indicating the existence of alternative splicing isoforms at the 3' region of the gene: AW072465 (without exon 10, referred to as isoform 2) and AI191876 (without exons 9 and 10, referred to as isoform 3) (fig 2). Skipping only exon 10 causes a frameshift, and the resulting novel protein sequence after the frameshift did not show significant sequence similarity with any known proteins. Skipping exons 9 and 10 does not shift the reading frame, resulting in a truncated form of the *CPA5* protein. By Northern analysis using a multiple human tissue blot (Clontech) with a probe from the 3'UTR, two bands (a major 2.4 kb band and a minor 3.1 kb band) were detected in testis but not other tissues, consistent with the result for mouse *Cpa5* by Wei *et al*²⁴ (data not shown). The expression of *CPA5* was detected by RT-PCR in many adult and fetal tissues at various levels (data not shown). In RT-PCR analysis using primers common for the three isoforms (a forward primer on exon 8 and a reverse primer on exon 11), isoforms 1 and 3 were detected in many fetal and adult tissues, but isoform 2 was undetectable in the tissues tested.

A probe from 3'UTR of *CPA4* (corresponding to nt 1440 to 1693 of GenBank acc NM_016352) was used to analyse a multiple tissue Northern blot for human adult tissues (Clontech, 7760-1). No signals were detected, a result consistent with that of Huang *et al*.²⁶ However, using RT-PCR the expression was detected in a wide variety of tissues including placenta, testis, uterus, heart, brain, intestine, kidney, skeletal,

Figure 3 Sequence electropherograms showing SNP analysis of CPA1, CPA2, and CPA4. (A) Sequence electropherograms across the polymorphic site (shown by arrows) in exon 7 of CPA2 shown for heterozygous fetal and maternal DNA and corresponding cDNA from various tissues as labelled. Expression of both alleles shows biallelic expression for this in all tissues analysed. (B) Sequence electropherograms across the polymorphic site in exon 3 of CPA1 shown for heterozygous fetal DNA and corresponding cDNA from pancreas tissue showing expression of both parental alleles. (C) Pyrosequencing pyrograms for CPA4 of fetal and maternal DNA and cDNA of various tissues available for F71. Pyrosequencing of genomic DNA show informativity with a heterozygous fetus and homozygous maternal sample. The G allele is therefore maternal in origin. cDNA alleles are expressed as percentages A and C alleles since a reverse primer was used for this section of the analysis. Taken that a 30% or less contribution of one allele indicates preferential expression, brain is classified as biallelically expressed while eye, heart, intestine, kidney, and lung are preferentially expressed from the maternal allele for this fetus. PCR primers and conditions are shown in table 1.

Table 2 Pyrosequencing results of *CPA4* expressed as percentage contribution of each allele to PCR products analysed. Genotyping of fetal (F) and maternal (M) DNA is expressed as percentages of G and T alleles by sequencing with a forward primer. Results showing informativity for fetal and maternal genotypes are highlighted in bold. cDNA allelic expression is shown as a percentage of C and A alleles since the pyrosequencing primer was in the reverse orientation. For the cDNA expression results show those samples where one allele represents 30% or less of the total expression are in bold

	F34	F46	F47	F50	F58	F65	F66	F67	F71
F DNA	T 56% G 44% G/T	T 58% G 42% G/T	T 52% G 48% G/T	T 57% G 43% G/T	T 58% G 42% G/T	T 56% G 44% G/T	T 55% G 45% G/T	T 54% G 46% G/T	T 54% G 46% G/T
M DNA	T 54% G 46% G/T	T 54% G 46% G/T	T 59% G 41% G/T	T 0% G 100% G	T 0% G 100% G	T 60% G 40% G/T	T 0% G 100% G	T 55% G 45% G/T	T 0% G 100% G
Brain		A 58% C 42%	A 39% C 61%					A 45% C 55%	A 40% C 60%
Eye		A 57% C 43%		A 16% C 84%	A 14% C 86%			A 86% C 14%	A 7% C 93%
Foot				A 17% C 83%					
Heart	A 68% C 32%		A 68% C 32%	A 19% C 81%		A 70% C 30%			A 20% C 80%
Intestine				A 25% C 75%		A 73% C 27%			A 14% C 86%
Kidney	A 61% C 39%				A 25% C 75%				A 18% C 82%
Lung									A 19% C 81%
Placenta		A 70% C 30%		A 4% C 96%	A 23% C 77%		A 48% C 52%	A 79% C 21%	
Skin			A 60% C 40%		A 22% C 78%		A 45% C 55%		
Spinal C	A 81% C 19%								
Tongue			A 68% C 32%			A 67% C 33%			

and muscle (data not shown). *CPA1* and *CPA2* expression was evaluated by RT-PCR in fetal tissues. *CPA1* was expressed exclusively in pancreatic tissue while *CPA2* was ubiquitously expressed.

Imprinting analysis of *CPA* genes in human fetal tissue

Maternal and paternal alleles of imprinted genes replicate at slightly different rates.³² Generally, genes replicate on the homologous chromosomes in a synchronous manner with 10% of nuclei showing background asynchronous hybridisation patterns. In contrast, imprinted genes showed 25-40% asynchronous replication. This approach can therefore be used to assess imprinting across a large region. In a study by Bonora *et al*,³¹ asynchronous replication was shown for genomic clones containing the genes *MEST* and *COPG2*. In our study, replication timing was assessed using 11 PAC and BAC clones across a genomic region of approximately 1.5 Mb extending from *NRF1* to beyond FRA7H. A PAC containing the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (*CFTR*) gene (PAC clone RPCI-1 22F22) was used as the synchronous control where, as expected, only 10% of nuclei showed the background level of asynchronous replication patterns. Each clone analysed representing a region centromeric to and including *MEST* displayed percentage asynchronies of 25% and above (a minimum of 200 nuclei were counted per probe). The PAC clone RPCI-3 502B1, spanning the fragile site FRA7H, showed 29.7% asynchronous replication. Apart from imprinted regions, fragile sites also replicate asynchronously, but not in a parental origin dependent way as is seen in imprinted regions.³³ Replication timing of the BAC clone B277J23 and PAC clone 477N18 from RPCI-3, which lie between the imprinted asynchronous region and the fragile site, most

likely corresponds to the telomeric end of the imprinted domain including *MEST*.

Allelic expression of individual *CPA* genes were analysed in fetal tissues by single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) analysis. Fetal pancreas was the only tissue in which expression of *CPA1* could be detected by RT-PCR. Three out of nine fetal DNA samples were heterozygous for the SNP to be analysed. Sequence analysis showed expression of both parental alleles (fig 3B).

A C/T polymorphism in exon 7 was used to analyse *CPA2* for imprinted expression. Four fetal DNA sample sets which included pancreas were tested and two were found to be heterozygous for the SNP. Both of these showed pancreatic expression of both parental alleles by RT-PCR and DNA sequencing. The same SNP was used to analyse allelic expression in sample sets with a wider range of fetal tissues available. Screening for heterozygotes in these fetal DNA samples showed five informative samples out of 22. Between two and five tissues were available per fetus with a total of seven separate tissues (eye, brain, intestine, lung, placenta, tongue, stomach) between them. Analysis by RT-PCR followed by sequencing showed biallelic expression in all tissues (fig 3A).

For *CPA4* imprinting was assessed for a SNP in exon 9. Preferential expression of one or other parental allele was seen in 75% of the tissue samples analysed (data not shown). Owing to concerns of the sequencing approach not being sufficiently quantitative to measure preferential expression accurately, this analysis was repeated using pyrosequencing as a means of quantifying the molecular contribution of each parental allele to expression in a particular sample (fig 3C). For the purposes of this study preferential expression is defined as a skewed percentage contribution of one allele of 30% versus 70% of the other. Pyrosequencing information was obtained for nine

fetuses in the first trimester with between two and six tissues available per fetus (table 2). Percentage expression for the four brain samples analyses varied from 39/61% to 45/55%, all of which are classified as biallelic according to our definition of preferential expression. Tongue samples were available for F47 and F65, which showed percentage expression of the C allele of 32 and 33% respectively. These, as well as heart samples for F34 and F47, lie within 3 percentage points of the preferential expression cut off. Of the remaining data, 80% of the data may be classified as preferentially expressed according to the definition stated above. It is important to note that since the maternal genotypes were homozygous for the G allele of the SNP, the G allele is maternal in origin for fetuses 50, 58, 66, and 71 (table 2). For F34, F46, F47, F65, and F67, this is not likely to be the case since the T allele is preferentially expressed and therefore according to the pattern of the data, maternal in origin. Each of the allelic expression percentages of tissues, shown in bold, highlights what we believe to be preferential maternal expression.

For *CPA5*, 48 cycles of RT-PCR were required to detect expression in fetal tissues. For each isoform, sequence analysis showed both maternal and paternal monoallelic expression and biallelic expression including subjects where each of these patterns was found in different tissues. The data available for each of the isoforms of *CPA5* do not allow a clear pattern of inheritance to be determined. This may be related to the high number of cycles of RT-PCR required for amplification and is not likely to be of biological significance.

DISCUSSION

Four *CPA* genes are localised 100 kb proximal to a cluster of imprinted genes (*MEST*, *MEST1T1*, and *COPG2IT1*) on 7q32.^{13–15} Despite *CPA1*, *CPA2*, *CPA4*, and *CPA5* having similar domain structures and exon-intron structures, expression patterns and levels are not uniform between genes. *CPA1*, for example, is only expressed in pancreatic tissue by RT-PCR. Expression levels of *CPA1*, *CPA2*, and *CPA4* are much higher than that of *CPA5*, which requires 48 cycles of RT-PCR amplification for detection. At this level of amplification *CPA5* may not be functional in the tissue types analysed.

It had previously been reported that *MEST* replicates asynchronously.¹¹ In this study, replication timing was used to assess potential imprinting effects across a large genomic region around 7q32 with a series of 11 PAC and BAC clones mapped across the region. In this way it has been possible to define the telomeric boundary of asynchronous replication to between *COPG2IT1* and *TSGA13*. Definition of synchrony versus asynchrony at this boundary is not as clear as expected since it is influenced by asynchronous replication of the fragile site. The entire region as far as the nuclear respiratory factor 1 (*NRF1*) gene, in a centromeric direction relative to *MEST*, replicates asynchronously. Since imprinted genes tend to be found in clusters, the prime candidates for investigation for imprinting effects are the *CPA* genes at 7q32 owing to their proximity to *MEST*.

SNP analysis in human fetal tissues showed biallelic expression of *CPA1* and *CPA2*. *CPA4* showed predominantly preferential expression of the maternally derived allele in a wide range of human fetal tissues except the brain where biallelic expression was found.

Polymorphic imprinting independent of gestational age has been previously reported. For the Wilms' tumour suppressor gene (*WT1*), polymorphic imprinting including biallelic and maternal expression has been seen in placenta while lymphocytes and fibroblasts have displayed polymorphic biallelic and paternal expression.^{34–36} Similarly, polymorphic imprinting has been shown for insulin-like growth factor II (*IGF2*) in blood cells³⁷ as well as for the insulin-like growth factor II receptor (*IGF2R*)³⁸ and the serotonin-2A (5-HT_{2A}) receptor gene (*HTR2A*).³⁹ Throughout these reported studies of

unusual imprinting patterns, only isolated samples have been described where one allele is partially repressed resulting in preferential expression. In this study, however, *CPA4* SNP analysis has shown a novel pattern of imprinting where the maternally inherited allele is consistently preferentially expressed. Since *CPA4* has been suggested to have a role to play in controlling cell proliferation and differentiation, it may be that a finely controlled balance of expression is required for normal growth. If *CPA4* were to act in limiting growth, then over-expression in a subject with mUPD(7) could have a growth restriction phenotype such as that seen in SRS. This is in agreement with the conflict theory where maternally expressed genes have a growth restricting function and paternally expressed ones act as growth stimulants.⁴⁰

For SNP analysis of *CPA5*, 48 cycles of RT-PCR was required to detect expression of the two transcripts (isoforms 1 and 3) expressed in fetal tissues. This number of cycles of exponential amplification would theoretically result in 1.4×10^{14} amplicons per original copy of template cDNA. According to Sambrook and Russell,²⁷ 48 PCR cycles can amplify one target molecule to 10 ng of DNA (based on a 200 ng PCR product) when the amplification efficiency is 65–100%. Since in practice more than 10 ng of product would be required, the primer efficiency would have to be somewhat greater than 65%. It is therefore possible that these erratic imprinting results are the result of amplification of a single copy of gene specific cDNA simply because only a single copy was present in the template used for amplification and not as a result of allele specific expression. These results for *CPA5* are therefore not likely to be a true reflection of imprinting expression and are simply an artefact of the limitations of the techniques used.

It is clear that the *CPA* gene family is differentially imprinted and the gene products have different biological functions. It is interesting, despite biallelic expression for *CPA1* and *CPA2*, that *CPA4* is maternally preferentially expressed in a broad spectrum of fetal tissues but not the brain. It is interesting to speculate that a double dose of a gene that is maternally expressed and important in growth and proliferation might cause growth restriction and may be in part accountable for the SRS phenotype. Mutation screening of *CPA4*'s 11 exons is being carried out on DNA from a large cohort of SRS patients.

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The first two authors contributed equally to this work.

Data access. Sequence data from this article have been deposited with the GenBank Data Library under Accession No AY155229 for full length *CPA5* cDNA sequence from IMAGE clones 5171382 (brain), AY155230 containing all 11 exons as well as three untranslated exons (isoform 1 from testis, IMAGE: 5270617), and AY155228, a full length cDNA sequence for IMAGE clone 2567523 which skips exon 10 (isoform 2).

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PostScript

BOOK REVIEWS

Corneal dystrophies and degenerations: a molecular genetics approach

Edited by M X Wang. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003, £67.50. ISBN 0-19-516881-X (paperback).

The corneal dystrophies represent a large and varied group of inherited conditions, and the underlying molecular basis of many has been elucidated over the past decade or so. This exciting progress has been rapid and now allows a re-evaluation of our clinical and morphological classifications. This monograph has been produced in association with the American Academy of Ophthalmology, and is published by Oxford University Press. The major body of the text comprises six chapters and a total of 123 pages. In addition, there is a short self-study examination directed towards US CME accreditation. As would be expected from such a collaboration, the production qualities are high. Dr Wang, the editor, is a clinical academic in Nashville with major interests in the cornea, external eye disease, and refractive surgery. He lists the book's educational objectives: to bridge the gap between the new molecular information and the knowledge base for today's ophthalmologists; to discuss current understanding of the molecular pathogenesis of these conditions; to outline the use of excimer laser for the treatment of corneal diseases; and to review the most recent literature on corneal dystrophies and degenerations. This monograph, and its two first objectives in particular, are therefore timely in their conception.

The editor is co-author of five of the six chapters. The first chapter, written in collaboration with Dr Francis Munier, discusses the inheritance patterns of the corneal dystrophies, and in particular covers the range of epithelial and stromal dystrophies caused by defects in *TGFBI/BIGH3*, including a detailed and well constructed examination of their molecular pathology. The following three chapters describe, respectively, the epithelial, stromal, and endothelial dystrophies. In general the clinical, histopathological, and ultrastructural features of the disorders are clearly described, illustrated, and referenced. Here, the molecular focus is generally on gene identification and, whereas for certain disorders—for example, Meesmann epithelial dystrophy—there is a clear description of the underlying molecular mechanisms, this is disappointingly covered for many conditions. The final two chapters, concerning corneal and conjunctival degenerations and excimer laser therapies for corneal dystrophies, are likely to be of limited interest to the geneticist and carry little molecular information.

The key difficulty, when producing a monograph such as this, is ensuring that what is produced is as recent as possible and is not simply a replication of information that is available in other ophthalmological texts. In the first regard, the book unfortunately

appears to have taken a disappointingly long time from completion to publication. However, the degree of illustration—all figures are included on the excellent CD ROM that accompanies the book—when allied to the molecular details ensures that the phenotypic descriptions of the dystrophies are covered in a manner that will be both familiar and useful for ophthalmic clinicians and trainees alike.

Conflicts of interest: none declared

G C M Black

Nucleotide and protein expansions and human disease

Edited by J Gecz, G R Sutherland. Basel: Karger publishers, Reprint of Cytogenetic and Genome Research Vol 100 Nos 1–4, 2003, £67.50, pp 298. ISBN 3-8055-7621-8 (hardback)

Since 1991, when the CAG repeat expansion causing spinobulbar muscular dystrophy and the CCG repeat expansion in fragile X syndrome were discovered, there has been great progress in understanding the biology of triplet repeat instability and the diseases associated with these types of mutation. The number of diseases and classes of mutations has grown such that there are currently nine CAG repeat diseases where the repeats are translated into polyglutamine tracts, a recessive triplet mutation (Friedreich's ataxia), more than a handful of different diseases caused by expanded polyalanine tracts (for example, oculopharyngeal muscular dystrophy), diseases associated with untranslated triplet repeats (for example, myotonic dystrophy), and diseases caused by expansion of other micro or minisatellites (for example, progressive myoclonus epilepsy).

Soon after the first group of triplet repeat mutations was discovered, the biological mechanism was revealed behind the previously baffling (and controversial) phenomenon of anticipation, where the disease tends to increase in severity or present at an earlier age in successive generations in families. In many cases there has been rapid progress in developing cell and animal models of disease, and in some cases we have a much better understanding of pathogenesis. Yet many mysteries and controversies remain, even for diseases where the mutation was identified a decade or so ago (for example, myotonic dystrophy and Huntington's disease) and cures and treatments for the human diseases are still elusive.

This book addresses certain aspects of the field with a collection of freestanding articles covering aspects ranging from trinucleotide repeat instability, through epidemiology of spinocerebellar ataxias, to pathogenetic mechanisms. The nature of the book means that there are sometimes issues that are duplicated between chapters. This is not a problem, as the book is probably not designed to be read from cover to cover, but rather as a reference source. The topic coverage is not complete and gaps include discussions of the pathogenesis of Friedreich's ataxia and spinocerebellar ataxia type 1 (both where considerable progress has been made). However,

in contrast to many other books where there are collections of chapters, for instance focused on neurological diseases, this book deals with some of the more esoteric areas very well. There are fine chapters on repeat instability (by Lenzmeier and Freudenreich; and by Cleary and Pearson), oculopharyngeal muscular dystrophy (Brajs) and on transgenic models of myotonic dystrophy (Wansink and Wieringa), spinobulbar muscular dystrophy (Sobue and colleagues), Huntington's disease (Hickey and Chesselet) and Fragile X syndrome (Bakker and Oostra). It was good to see a chapter devoted to the interesting and possibly under recognised cerebellar ataxia syndrome associated with FRAXA premutation carriers (Hagerman et al) and the excellent chapter on SCA3 by Kobayashi and Kakizuka (a group that have made a number of key contributions to the polyglutamine disease field). In general, the chapters are written by authorities in their fields (including Brice, Ashizawa, Margolis, La Spada, Nelson, Usdin, and Ranum).

In conclusion, this book includes many chapters that add to and complement existing texts dealing with these diseases. The articles are generally of a high standard and are concisely written. This book would be of particular value to human geneticists, genetic counsellors, and researchers working on this class of diseases.

D C Rubinsztein

CORRECTIONS

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The acknowledgements for the original article by Bentley et al (*J Med Genet* 2003;40:249–56) were omitted and should read:

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We apologise for this error.

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Ressiniotis T, Griffiths P G, Birch M, et al. Primary open angle glaucoma is strongly associated with a specific *p53* gene haplotype (*J Med Genet* 2004;41:296–8). An erratum has been detected in the second paragraph of the Key points box. In the penultimate sentence "arginine residue" and "proline residue" should have been transposed. The authors apologise for this error.