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Allelic and non-allelic heterogeneities in pyridoxine dependent seizures revealed by *ALDH7A1* mutational analysis

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Abstract

Pyridoxine dependent seizure (PDS) is a disorder of neonates or infants with autosomal recessive inheritance characterized by seizures, which responds to pharmacological dose of pyridoxine. Recently, mutations have been identified in the ALDH7A1 gene in Caucasian families with PDS. To elucidate further the genetic background of PDS, we screened for ALDH7A1 mutations in five PDS families (patients 1–5) that included four Orientals. Diagnosis as having PDS was confirmed by pyridoxine-withdrawal test. Exon sequencing analysis of patients 1–4 revealed eight ALDH7A1 mutations in compound heterozygous forms: five missense mutations, one nonsense mutation, one point mutation at the splicing donor site in intron 1, and a 1937-bp genomic deletion. The deletion included the entire exon 17, which was flanked by two Alu elements in introns 16 and 17. None of the mutations was found in 100 control chromosomes. In patient 5, no mutation was found by the exon sequencing analysis. Furthermore, expression level or nucleotide sequences of ALDH7A1 mRNA in lymphoblasts were normal. Plasma pipecolic acid concentration was not elevated in patient 5. These observations suggest that ALDH7A1 mutation is unlikely to be responsible for patient 5. Abnormal metabolism of GABA/glutamate in brain has long been suggested as the underlying pathophysiology of PDS. CSF glutamate concentration was elevated during the off-pyridoxine period in patient 3, but not in patient 2 or 5. These results suggest allelic and non-allelic heterogeneities of PDS, and that the CSF glutamate elevation does not directly correlate with the presence of ALDH7A1 mutations.

Keywords: Vitamin B₆; Convulsion; ALDH7A1 gene; Pipecolic acid; Genetic heterogeneity; Private mutations; A large deletion; Alu repeats; Lymphoblasts; RT-PCR analysis

Abbreviations: PDS, pyridoxine-dependent seizures; GAD, glutamate decarboxylase; GABA, γ -amino butyric acid; CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; P6C, ι - Δ^{I} -piperidine-6-carboxylate; PLP, pyridoxal phosphate; EEG, electroencephalogram; RT-PCR, reverse transcription-mediated PCR; PA, pipecolic acid.

Corresponding author. Fax: +81 22 717 8142. E-mail address: skure@mail.tains.tohoku.ac.jp (S. Kure). Pyridoxine dependent seizure (PDS) is a disorder of neonates or infants with autosomal recessive inheritance (MIM 266100) characterized by intractable seizures, which is responsive to administration of pharmacological dose of pyridoxine, but refractory to ordinary anticonvulsants [1,2]. The diagnosis as having PDS can be confirmed by

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the withdrawn test of pyridoxine. In the case of PDS, seizures resume within 7-10 days. Patients with PDS are dependent on pharmacological dose of pyridoxine for the rest of their lives to remain seizure-free. Development delay is not rare, even with early diagnosis and treatment [3]. Linkage analysis of PDS families with multiple affected members has mapped a PDS gene on chromosome 5q31 [4]. Biochemical analysis has revealed that pipecolic acid concentration was elevated in plasma and CSF in PDS patients [5]. L-Pipecolic acid (PA) is converted by PA oxidase into L-Δ¹-piperidine-6-carboxylate (P6C). Accumulated P6C can bind and inactivate pyridoxal phosphate (PLP) in vivo by Knoevenagel condensations, which is supposed to cause depletion of intracellular PLP. Based on these biochemical findings, Mills et al., hypothesized that PDS has a lesion in P6C dehydrogenase encoded by ALDH7A1 gene on chromosome 5q31 [6]. They have successfully identified causative ALDH7A mutations in PDS families. Plecko et al have subsequently reported the ALDH7A1 mutational analysis in 18 patients, and found that a missense mutation, E399Q, was most prevalent in Caucasian patients [7].

The purpose of this study is to elucidate further the genetic background of PDS by mutational analysis of PDS families, especially in Oriental patients. We screened *ALDH7A1* mutations in five PDS families, which included one family with elevated CSF glutamate level [8] and two families with normal CSF glutamate level [9,10] during pyridoxine-with-drawal period. The mutational analysis of the ALDH7A1 gene revealed complex etiological nature of PDS.

Methods

Subjects

We studied five apparently non-related patients, patients 1-5 (Table 1). All of the patients were products of parents with non-consanguineous marriage. Patient 4 had an affected younger sister while in the other families there was no history of affected siblings. Diagnosis as having PDS was confirmed by pyridoxine withdrawal test in all the patients. Profiles of patients 1-5 were summarized in Table 1, including onset of convulsive seizures, findings of electroencephalogram (EEG), status of psychomotor developments. This study was approved by Ethical Committee of Tohoku University School of Medicine.

Mutational analysis of the ALDH7A1 gene

Peripheral leukocyte DNA was obtained from patients and their parents. All of the 18 protein-coding exons in ALDH7A1 gene were amplified by PCR as described [6]. PCR products were size-separated on 2.5% agarose gel electrophoresis. Then the band with expected size was excised, purified, and subjected to direct sequencing analysis as described [11].

Reverse transcription-mediated PCR (RT-PCR)

Lymphoblast cell lines were established from blood samples from two control subjects and patients 4 and 5 by infection of Epstain-Barr virus. Total RNA was isolated from 5×10^6 cells of lymphoblast cells using RNeasy kit (Qiagen, Germany). Complementary DNA was synthesized from 10 μ g of total RNA in a 20 μ l mixture according to the manufacturer's instruction (Superscript II, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, Calif.). Subse-

quently, an entire coding region of ALDH7A1 cDNA was amplified by three sets of PCR using 1 µl of the first-strand synthesis mixtures. The most 5' part of cDNA with 504 bp in size containing exons 1-6 was amplified with forward primer (AASA-cDNA-5F), 5'-TGTAAAACGAC GGCCAGTTTGGAGCAGGCCTGCCGCCTTC-3' and reverse primer (AASA-cDNA-5R), 5'-CAGGAAACAGCTATGACCCCAACCAGGC CTACGGGATTCC-3'. The middle part of cDNA (343 bp) corresponding to exons 6-9 was amplified with forward primer (AASA-cDNA-6F), 5'-TGTAAAACGACGCCAGTTGGCCATGCACTGATTGAGCAG T-3' and reverse primer (AASA-cDNA-6R), 5'-CAGGAAACAGCTAT GACCCTCCTGCACCATCAGGCCCACC-3'. The most 3' part fragment with 974 bp in size containing exons 8-18 was amplified with forward primer (AASA-cDNA-3F), 5'-TGTAAAACGACGGCCAGT GTTCCTTGACTTGTGGTGGAGC-3' and reverse primer (AASAcDNA-4R), 5'-CAGGAAACAGCTATGACCAATGCATTTATTCAG GGAAAACTT-3'. Singly and doubly underlined sequences were universal M13 and reverse sequences, respectively, for further sequencing analysis. Long range PCR was performed with LA-PCR kit (Takara Bio Inc., Tokyo, Japan). Primers for long-range PCR were forward primer, AASA-E16F, 5'-TGTAAAACGACGCCAGTGGGGCTGAGATTG GAGGTGCC-3' and reverse primer, AASA-cDNA-4R as mentioned above. The PCR products were size-separated by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized by ethidium bromide staining.

Multiplex RT-PCR analysis

A human β-actin cDNA with 1206 bp was co-amplified with the 3' part of the ALDH7A1 cDNA (974 bp) using Multiplex PCR kit (Qiagen, Germany). Nucleotide sequences of PCR primers for β-actin cDNA were reported previously [12]. The multiplex PCR products were subjected to 2.5% agarose gel electrophoresis. Intensity ratio of the two bands was measured by NIH image software for evaluation of ALDH7A1 mRNA level.

Plasma PA concentration

Plasma samples were collected in patient 2, 4, and 5, and stored at -20 °C until analysis. Their PA concentrations were determined using gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GCMS-QP Model 2010, Shimadzu Biotech, Kyoto, Japan) as described [13,14].

Results

Sequencing analysis of ALDH7A1 genes

Sequencing analysis of entire coding regions of the ALDH7A1 gene in patients 1-4 revealed seven point mutations. In patient 1, two missense mutations were identified: G378R mutation in exon 14 and D449N mutation in exon 16 (Fig. 1a). In patient 2, P403L missense mutation was found in exon 14 in a heterozygous form. Additional single base substitution from A to T was observed at the splicingdonor site of intron 1, IVS1+3A>T (Fig. 1b). In patient 3, two missense mutations, G174V and V367G (Fig. 1c) were identified in exon 6 and exon 13, respectively, both of which have been reported [7]. In patient 4, a nonsense mutation (W31X) in exon 1 was found in the paternal allele, but no mutation was detected in the maternal allele by the sequencing analysis (Fig. 1d). Amino acid residues at these missense mutations, Gly¹⁷⁴, Val³⁶⁷, Gly³⁷⁸, Pro⁴⁰³, and Asp⁴⁴⁹, are highly conserved among vertebrae, higher plant, and bacteria, suggesting their evolutional importance. Any of the seven base substitutions described

Table 1 Profiles of patients with PDS

	Patient I	Patient 2	Patient 3	Patient 4 ^a	Patient 5
Ethnicity	Japanese	Japanese	German	Japanese	Japanese
Sex	Male	Male	Male	Male	Male
Consanguinity	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)	(-)
Clinical findings at birth					
Gestational age (week)	38 weeks	39 weeks		40 weeks	37 weeks
Birth weight (g)	3000 g	3340 g	_	3400 g	3270 g
Apgar score at 5 min after delivery	10	NA ^b	10	NA	9
Onset of symptoms	•				
Onset of convulsion	2 days of life	2 h of life	3 weeks of age	2 days of life	18 days of life
	Generalized	Generalized	Generalized tonic	Generalized tonic clonic,	Focal seizures,
Type of fit	tonic clonic	tonic clonic	clonic	myoclonic jerks	occasionally
	tome cionic	тоше стоше	Clome	myociome jerks	generalized
Age at first trial of pyridoxine	4 day of life	5 months of age	3 months of age	4 month of age	19 days of life
Initial maintenance daily dose	16 mg/kg/day	13.5 mg/kg/day	24 mg/kg/day	11.8 mg/kg/day	30 mg/kg/day
Withdrawal test of pyridoxine	10 mg/kg/day	13.3 mg/kg/day	24 mg/kg/day	11.6 mg/kg/uay	Jo mg/kg/day
Age at the test	6 months	7 months	5, 19, and 32 months	4 months	l month
Type of convulsion	Tonic-clonic convulsion	Tonic-clonic convulsion	Tonic-clonic convulsion	Myoclonic jerks	Tonic convulation
Delay before recurrence of seizures	3 days	6 days	10, 7, and 14 days, respectively	3 days	7 days
CSF glutamate concentration					
On the pyridoxine administration	NA	< 1.0 μM ^c	0.16 μM ^d	NA	1.16 μΜ
Off the pyridoxine administration		$< 1.0 \text{ M}^{c}$	105.4 M ^d	NA	0.07 M
EEG finding				•	
Ictal	Hypsarrhythmia	Suppression burst	Hypsarrhythmia	Hypsarrhythmia	NA
Seizure- free period	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal
MRI findings	NA	Moderate brain atrophy	No abnormal findings	NA	No abnormal findings
Development	Mild mental retardation	Mild mental retardation	Mild mental retardation	Mental retardation	Not retarded
ALDH7A1 mutational analysis	remidados	remidudon	remidation		
Mutation 1	G378R	IVS1+3A>T	G174V (exon 6)	W31X (exon 1)	Not found
Watton 1	(exon 14)	(intron 1)	GI/ // (UNUL U)	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Mutation 2	D499N	P403L (exon 14)	V367G (exon 13)	1937- bp deletion	Not found
11101011011	(exon 16)	1 (1 /)	(0.102 15)	(intron16–17)	1.00.00
Number of CA repeats in	17/20	16/23	19/19	16/18	21/23
ALDH7A1 intron 2		,	,	,	,
Plasma PA concentrations (µM)	NA	7.4	NA	7.2	4.6
Normal minimum-maximum	_	0.7-2.6	_	0.7-2.6	0.4-4.9
values at the patient's age					
References	This study	Goto et al. [10]	Baumeister et al. [8] Plecko et al. [22]	Iinuma et al. [23]	This study

^a His younger sister is also affected with PDS.

above was not found in 100 control alleles. No nucleotide change was found in patient 5.

(data not shown). Repeat numbers of CA in patients 1-5 were shown in Table 1.

A CA-repeat polymorphism in intron 2 of ALDH7A1 gene

We found that the CA repeat in most 5' part of intron 2 was highly polymorphic during sequencing analysis of exon 2. The repeat number of the CA was easily determined by sequencing analysis or polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

An ALDH7A1 deletion in family 4

Since the maternal mutation of patient 4 remained unidentified after the exon sequencing analysis, we studied *ALDH7A1* mRNA expressed in lymphoblasts of patient 4 by the RT-PCR method. Three sets of PCR were employed

^b NA, not available.

^c CSF glutamate concentrations were determined as desweribed [21].

^d CSF glutamate concentrations were determined as deswcribed [9].

e Plecko et al., [7].

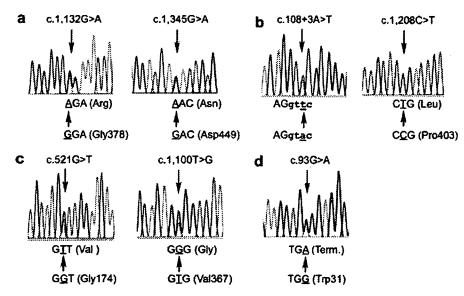


Fig. 1. Sequencing analysis of ALDH7A1 gene in patients 1-4. Sequencing chromatograms of each mutated nucleotide in patient 1 (a), patient 2 (b), patient 3 (c), and patient 4 (d) are shown. All the identified mutations were heterozygous. No mutations were found in patient 5.

for amplification of the ALDH7A1 cDNA. Sequencing analysis of the most 5' cDNA fragment (504 bp) and the middle part of the cDNA fragment (343 bp) revealed no sequence abnormality (data not shown). The most 3' part of the control cDNA fragment, which contained exons 9–18, was 974 bp while the cDNA fragment of patient 4 was found to be smaller by 76 bp (Fig. 2a). Sequencing analysis of the smaller fragment revealed that the entire

exon 17 was missing, suggesting a heterozygous deletion of exon 17. Subsequently, long-range PCR analysis was performed using primers AASA-E16F and AASA-cDNA-4R. A \sim 5 kb fragment was amplified in a control subject while an additional smaller band with \sim 3 kb was generated in patient 4, suggesting a heterozygous deletion of \sim 2 kb (Fig. 2b). Sequencing analysis of the 3-kb fragment revealed that a 1937-bp deletion that contained 3' part of

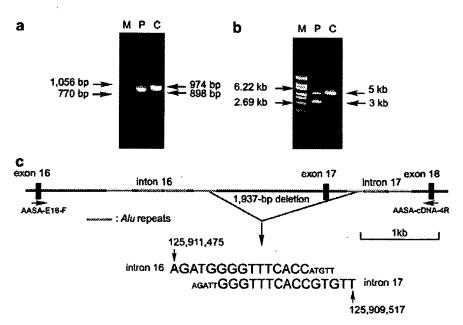


Fig. 2. An ALDH7A1 genomic deletion in patient 4 (a) RT-PCR analysis of 3' part of ALDH7A1 cDNA in lymphoblasts from control and patient 4. The size of cDNA fragment was 76-bp shorter in patient 4 (lane P) than a control cDNA (lane C). Lane M represents DNA size marker. (b) Long-range PCR analysis using genomic DNA from a control subject (lane C) and patient 4 (lane P). PCR amplification in patient 4 yielded an additional smaller band (~3 kb). Locations of the PCR primers (AASA-E16F and AASA-cDNA-4R) were shown in panel C. (c) A schematic drawing of a 1937-bp deletion identified in patient 4. Gray short lines indicate Alu elements. Note that introns 16 and 17 have four and three copies of Alu elements, respectively, and that the deleted fragment was flanked by two Alu elements.

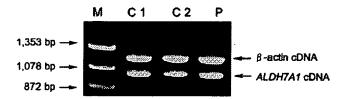


Fig. 3. Expression of ALDH mRNA in lymphoblasts from patient 5. A 1206-bp β-actin cDNA fragment and a 974-bp ALDH7A1 cDNA fragment were simultaneously amplified by the multiplex PCR. Intensity ratio of the two cDNA fragments (ALDH7A1/β-actin) were measured. Lane M, DNA size marker; lane C1 and C2, control lymphoblast cDNA; lane P, lymphoblast cDNA of patient.

intron 16 (1478 bp), entire exon 17 (76 bp), and 5' part of intron 17 (383 bp) as shown in Fig. 2c.

RT-PCR analysis of ALDH7A1 mRNA expressed in lymphoblasts of patient 5

Since the exon sequencing analysis revealed no causative alternations in patient 5, we analyzed the expression level of *ALDH7A1* mRNA by multiplex RT-PCR method. Human β-actin mRNA was used for an internal control of the mRNA level. The multiplex PCR yielded a 1206-bp fragment of β-actin cDNA and a 974-bp fragment of *ALDH7A1* cDNA (Fig. 3). Intensity ratio of the two cDNA bands (ALDH7A1/β-actin) was determined by NIH image. The ratios in control lymphoblasts 1, 2 and patient 5 were 0.86, 0.68, and 0.80, respectively, suggesting that *ALDH7A1* mRNA level in the lymphoblast of patient 5 was comparable with those in control lymphoblasts.

Plasma PA concentration

Plasma PA concentration of patients 2, 4, and 5 and the normal values at their ages [7] were shown in Table 1. The PA level was elevated to nearly threefold in patients 2 and 4 while it was within normal range in patient 5.

Discussion

We screened the ALDH7A1 mutations in five non-consanguineous PDS patients, and found that patients 1-4 were compound heterozygotes of ALDH7A1 mutations. Eight ALDH7A1 mutations including six novel mutations were identified in this screening: five missense mutations, one nonsense mutation, one point mutation at the splicing donor site, and a 1937-bp genomic deletion. No founder mutations were identified in this study, which was in line with the highly heterogeneous result of the CA repeat polymorphism in intron 2 (Table 1). Since the repeat number is highly polymorphic it can be used for the allele transmission analysis. A missense mutation, E399Q, has been reported to be prevalent in Caucasian patients, accounting for 33% of the PDS mutant alleles [7]. In contrast, all the

mutations identified in the current study were "private", found only in a single family, suggesting that ALDH7A1 mutations in PDS are highly heterogeneous in the Oriental patients.

In patient 5, no mutation was identified in the coding regions of ALDH7A1 gene. Since the ALDH7A1 mRNA expression level was not reduced in his lymphoblasts, compared with control subjects it is unlikely that an unidentified mutation resides in the promoter or enhancer regions of the ALDH7A1 gene. Sequencing analysis of the ALDH7A1 cDNA revealed no structural abnormality, leaving little possibility of intronic mutations that cause aberrant splicing. Normal level of plasma PA in patient 5 also suggests that function of the ALDH7A1 gene is not impaired. It, therefore, appears unlikely that mutations in ALDH7A1 caused PDS in patient 5. The diagnosis of patient 5 as having PDS was confirmed by pyridoxine withdrawal test at age of 26 days (Table 1). Bennett et al. previously reported one North American pedigree with PDS, in which the linkage with 5q13 was excluded by the linkage analysis [15]. Our study, together with the previous report, suggests the presence of another disease-causing gene for PDS other than ALDH7A1.

A 1937-bp ALDH7A1 deletion was found in patient 4, which was suggested by a smaller cDNA fragment in the RT-PCR analysis. The RT-PCR generated no cDNA fragment with normal size (974 bp) despite the heterozygosity of the large deletion. It may be explained by non-sense mediated mRNA decay of the other allele with a nonsense mutation, W31X [16]. The deleted genomic fragment was flanked by two Alu elements in introns 16 and 18 (Fig. 2c), suggesting that the deletion was caused by Alumediated homologous recombination. In human genome, Alu repeats are distributed every \sim 4 kb in average [17]. Introns 16 and 17 of ALDH7A1 gene are rich in Alu elements: four copies in intron 16 with 3.5 kb and three copies in intron 17 with 1.3 kb. Heterozygous genomic deletions as seen in patient 4 cannot be detected by standard exonsequencing analysis of ALDH7A1 gene. No mutation was identified by exon sequencing analysis in 2 of 36 PDS alleles in the previous study [7]. A large genomic deletion may remain unidentified in these mutant alleles. One should, therefore, consider an ALDH7A1 genomic deletion, especially in the Alu-rich region like introns 15-17, when only one heterozygous mutation was identified by the exon-sequencing analysis.

It remains unknown how seizures develop by depletion of intracellular PLP in PDS. P6C is probably accumulated in by ALDH7A1mutations, which inactivates intracellular PLP in vivo [6]. It had long been proposed that PDS is caused by mutations in the genes that encodes glutamate decarboxylase (GAD), which generates an inhibitory neurotransmitter, γ-amino butyric acid (GABA) from an excitatory neurotransmitter, glutamate [18]. Dysfunction of GAD is supposed to result in accumulation of extracellular glutamate and/or depletion of extracellular GABA, which likely results in development of seizures. Genetic

involvement of either GAD1 or GAD2 was excluded by mutational analysis [19] and polymorphic marker analysis [20] of PDS families. Although genetic defects of GAD in PDS had been excluded it is still possible that enzymatic GAD activity is impaired by depletion of intracellular PLP. In our patients, CSF glutamate concentrations without pyridoxine administration were measured in patients 2, 3, and 5 (Table 1). CSF glutamate level was elevated in patient 3 [8] but not in patient 2 [10] or patient 5. Therefore, elevation of CSF glutamate level during off-pyridoxine period dose not directly correlated with the presence of ALDH7A1 mutations. Other unknown factor(s) may participate in etiology of elevation of CSF glutamate. Further study is necessary for elucidation of the mechanism for seizure development by depletion of intracellular PLP.

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Leukemia in Cardio-facio-cutaneous (CFC) Syndrome: A Patient With a Germline Mutation in BRAF Proto-oncogene

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Summary: Cardio-facio-cutaneous (CFC) syndrome is a multiple congenital anomaly/mental retardation syndrome characterized by a distinctive facial appearance, ectodermal abnormalities, and heart defects. Clinically, it overlaps with both Noonan syndrome and Costello syndrome, which are caused by mutations in 2 genes that encode molecules of the RAS/MAPK (mitogen activated protein kinase) pathway (PTPN11 and HRAS, respectively). Recently, mutations in KRAS, BRAF, and MEK1/2 have been identified in patients with CFC syndrome. Somatic mutations in KRAS and BRAF have been identified in various tumors. In contrast, the association with malignancy has not been noticed in CFC syndrome. Here we report a 9-year-old boy diagnosed with CFC syndrome and acute lymphoblastic leukemia. Sequencing analysis of the entire coding region of KRAS and BRAF showed a de novo germline BRAF E501G (1502A \rightarrow G) mutation. Molecular diagnosis and careful observations should be considered in children with CFC syndrome because they have germline mutations in proto-oncogenes and might develop malignancy.

Key Words: cardio-facio-cutaneous syndrome, KRAS, BRAF, RAS/MAPK, leukemia

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'ardio-facio-cutaneous (CFC) syndrome is a multiple congenital anomaly/mental retardation syndrome characterized by heart defects, facial dysmorphism, ectodermal abnormalities, and mental retardation. 1,2 CFC syndrome has many clinical features in common with those with Noonan syndrome and Costello syndrome, which are caused by mutations of proto-oncogenes *PTPN11* and *HRAS*, respectively. Both genes encode molecules in the RAS/mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling pathway.3,4 It has been reported that patients with Noonan syndrome develop juvenile myelomonocytic leukemia, neuroblastoma, and rhabdomtosarcoma.⁵ Predisposition to tumors, including neuroblastoma, rhabdomyosarcoma, and bladder carcinoma, has been reported in patients with Costello syndrome.⁶ Tumor screening protocols have been proposed for these 2 syndromes.⁶ In contrast, little attention has been paid for the development of tumors in patients with CFC syndrome.

Recently, we and others have identified germline mutations in KRAS, BRAF, and MEK1/2 in individuals with CFC syndrome.^{2,7} These genes encode molecules in the RAS-RAF-ERK pathway. Somatic mutations in KRAS and BRAF were identified in various tumors. KRAS mutations occurred frequently in lung, colon, and pancreatic cancer⁸ and BRAF mutations have been frequently identified in malignant melanoma, colon cancer, and thyroid cancer.9

We herewith report a 9-year-old Japanese patient with CFC syndrome associated with acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) in whom a BRAF mutation was identified. Our observations, together with literature reviews of previous cases, suggest the importance of careful observation for malignancy in CFC syndrome.

CASE REPORT

The propositus was a 9-year-old Japanese boy. He was the first son of unrelated healthy parents. At birth paternal age was 33 years and maternal age was 22 years. Delivery at 36 weeks was uncomplicated and birth weight of the patient was 3240 g (+1.8 SD), length 48.7 cm (+0.8 SD), and occipitofrontal head circumference 39.2 cm (+3.9 SD). At the age of 3 months, the following anomalies were noted (Fig. 1): sparse curly hair, macrocephaly, bitemporal constriction, hyperterolism,

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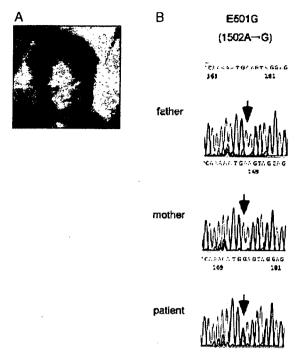


FIGURE 1. A, Facial appearance of the patient. B, The *BRAF* mutation in the patient, but not in his parents. The position of the nucleotide substitution is indicated by arrows.

downslanting palpebral fissures, low nasal bridge, low set and posterior rotated ears, bilateral cryptorchidism, generalized cutaneous pigmentation, and patchy hyperkeratosis, especially on extensor surfaces of limbs. Cardiac features included patent ductus arteriosus (naturally closed). At the age of 1 year and 3 months, asymmetrical hypertrophy of the interventricular septum directed toward the apex was noted. On the basis of the observed facial dysmorphisms, cardiac anomalies and skin abnormalities, he was diagnosed as having CFC syndrome.

He was diagnosed as having ALL at 1 year and 9 months of age, when his weight was 13.0 kg (+1.5 SD), his height was 88.0 cm (+1.3 SD) and his head circumference was 53 cm (+3.3 SD). He showed hepatosplenomegaly and right testicular swelling. Testicular involvement was confirmed by testicular biopsy. Lymphoblasts were seen in the peripheral blood (100% of 8.3 × 10¹⁰/L leukocytes). Bone marrow aspirate showed 98% lymphoblasts positive for TdT, HLA-DR, CD19, CD10, CD22, and CD79a and negative for cytoplasmic IgM and membranous IgM, CD33, CD34, CD15, CD65, myeloperoxidase, and T-cell markers. Cytogenetic analysis of bone marrow aspiration was 46, XY (20 cells counts). The examination of cerebrospinal fluid showed no lymphoblasts.

Induction therapy, which consisted of vincristine, predonisolone, doxorubicin, and Escherichia coli asparaginase, was performed. Remission was achieved in 7 weeks. High-dose methotrexate and intrathecal therapy were performed for central nervous system prophylaxis. After induction treatment, right orchidodectomy was also performed. During maintenance therapy using vincristine, dexamethasone, 6-mercaptopurine, and methotrexate, a central nervous system relapse was observed at the age of 3 years and 9 months. Systemic investigation, including bone marrow aspiration, showed isolated central nervous system relapse. He received central nervous system irradiation (whole brain 24 Gy and whole spine 15 Gy, respectively). The maintenance therapy was finished at the age of 5 years and 9 months. Now, at the age of 9 years and 3 months, he is healthy except for severe mental retardation.

Mutation Analysis

Genomic DNA from blood leukocytes from the patient and the parents was isolated by a standard protocol. Five coding exons in KRAS and 18 coding exons in BRAF with flanked introns were amplified by polymerase chain reaction.^{2,10} The polymerase chain reaction products were gel-purified and sequenced on an ABI PRISM 310 automated DNA sequencer (Applied Biosystems). This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Tohoku University School of Medicine. We obtained informed consent for samples and specific consent for a photograph. Sequencing analysis of BRAF showed an $A \rightarrow G$ change at nucleotide 1502, resulting in an E501G mutation, in the heterozygous form.¹⁰ (Fig. 1B). The E501G mutation was not identified in DNA samples from his parents, suggesting that this mutation occurred de novo. No mutations were found in KRAS.

DISCUSSION

Germline mutations in BRAF have been found to account for 52% of patients with CFC syndrome.^{2,7} A previous report has shown that a patient with CFC syndrome developed ALL at 5 years of age. 11 Later, a BRAF G469E mutation was identified in that patient (Table 1).2 The type of leukemia was ALL of common phenotype. Chromosomal findings including TEL/AML1 fusion indicate a favorable ultimate outcome. 11 In the current study, we identified a de novo E501G mutation of BRAF in a CFC patient who developed ALL at 1 year and 9 months of age. Chromosomal abnormality of leukemia cells was not observed in the patient. Despite a central nervous system relapse and invasion of the testis by leukemia cells, induction and maintenance therapies were successful. BRAF is a proto-oncogene and somatic mutations in BRAF have been identified in 7% of cancer. 9 BRAF has been mutated in approximately 27% to 70% in malignant melanoma, 5% to 22% of the cases in colon cancer, and 36% to 53% of thyroid cancer.9 The V600E mutation was frequently identified in these cancers. Somatic BRAF mutations have been also reported in 13 hematopoietic or lymphopoietic malignancies (The Sanger Institute Catalogue of Somatic Mutations in Cancer website). Careful observation and molecular analysis of patients can help clarify the predisposition to malignancy in CFC syndrome.

CFC syndrome shares clinical manifestations with Noonan syndrome and Costello syndrome. The clinical data of 19 mutation-positive CFC individuals showed a high frequency of growth failure (78.9%), mental retardation (100%), relative macrocephaly (78.9%), characteristic facial appearance including bitemporal constriction (84.2%) and downslanting palpebral fissures (94.7%), curly sparse hair (100%), heart defects (84.2%), and skin abnormalities (68.4%).² In contrast, Noonan syndrome has lower frequencies of mental retardation (24% to 35%), heart defects (50% to 67%), and skin

TABLE 1.	Clinical	Findings i	in CFC	Patients	Who	Developed A	ALL
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	Case 1 ¹¹	Case 2 (Present Case)
Gene	BRAF	BRAF
Amino acid change CFC	G469E	E501G
Facial appearance	Typical	Typical
Heart defects	Mild PS, ASD, and asymmetrical hypertrophy of the interventricular septum	Patent ductus arteriosus and asymmetrical hypertrophy of the interventricular septum
Skin	Keratosis pilaris (3 y) cafe-au-lait spots	Generalized pigmentation and patchy hyperkeratosis
Other		Bilateral cryptorchidism
ALL		
Age at diagnosis	5 y	1 y 9 mo
Lymphoblasts in the peripheral blood	8% of $1.4 \times 10^9/L$ leukocytes	100% of $8.3 \times 10^{10}/L$ leukocytes
Lymphoblasts in bone marrow	98% lymphoblasts positive for TdT, HLA-DR, CD34, CD13, CD33, CD19, CD10, CD22, and CD79	98% lymphoblasts positive for TdT, HLA-DR, CD19, CD10, CD22, and CD79
Chromosomal abnormalities	45-46, XX, add(3)(p14), del(9) (p21p22), +10,t(12;21)(p13;22), +del(12)(p11;p12), del(15)(q13q24), der(16;19)(q10;p10), del(22)(q11q13)[27] and 46,XX[13] FISH studies were negative for BCR/ABL fusion and positive for TEL/AML1 fusion	46, XY. No visible structural anomaly was observed
Induction therapy	Vincristine, dexamethasone and E. coli asparginase	Vincristine, predonisolone, E. coli asparginase and doxorubicin
Central nervous system prophylaxis	Methotrexate	Methotrexate
Maintenance therapy	Vincristine, dexamethasone, 6-MP, and methotrexate	Vincristine, dexamethasone, 6-MP, and methotrexate
Central nervous system relapse	Absent	Present (during maintenance therapy)
Outcome	Unknown	Healthy as of age 9 y 3 mo
Other		Testicular involvement

abnormalities (2% to 27%). 12 Redundant skin (especially in the neck, hands, and feet), hypermobility of the small joints (especially in the fingers), and tightness of the Achilles tendons might be important clinical features to

ASD indicates atrial septal defect; PS, pulmonary stenosis.

diagnose Costello syndrome.4

The risk of malignancy and types of tumors developed are different between these syndromes (Table 2). Past studies have shown that patients with Noonan syndrome develop leukemia, including juvenile

TABLE 2. Noonan, Costello, and CFC Syndromes and Associated Tumors

Disease	Cancer	References
Noonan syndrome	Rhabdomyosarcoma	13, 14
	Subcutaneus granular-cell tumors	15
	Neuroblastoma	16-18
	Juvenile myelomonocytic leukemia	19–24
	Myeloproliferative disorder	24–27
	ALL	28
Costello syndrome	Rhabdomyosarcoma	4, 6, 29-31
	Neuroblastoma	4, 32
	Bladder carcinoma	33, 34
CFC syndrome	ALL	11, this study
-	Rhabdomyosarcoma	35

myelomonocytic leukemia, neuroblastoma, or rhabdomyosarcoma. Patients with Costello syndrome have been reported to develop various tumors, including rhabdomyosarcoma or neuroblastoma in the early infantile period and bladder carcinoma after 10 years of age. Tumor frequency in Costello syndrome has been estimated to be as high as 17% and tumor screening protocol has been proposed. The association with ALL was reported in 2 CFC patients with BRAF mutations including this report. Molecular diagnosis will lead to correct diagnosis of patients who are suspected of having Noonan-related syndromes and will be useful to determine the screening plan for malignancy in patients.

URL. The Sanger Institute Catalogue of Somatic Mutations in Cancer website is at http://www.sanger.ac.uk/cosmic.

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ELECTRONIC LETTER

Genomic deletion within *GLDC* is a major cause of non-ketotic hyperglycinaemia

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Background: Non-ketotic hyperglycinaemia (NKH) is an inborn error of metabolism characterised by accumulation of glycine in body fluids and various neurological symptoms. NKH is caused by deliciency of the glycine cleavage multienzyme system with three specific components encoded by GIDC, AMT and GCSH. Most patients are deficient of the enzymatic activity of glycine decarboxylase, which is encoded by GIDC. Our recent study has suggested that there are a considerable number of GIDC mutations which are not identified by the standard exon-sequencing method.

Methods: A screening system for GLDC deletions by multiplex ligation-dependent probe amplification (MLPA) has been developed. Two distinct cohorts of patients with typical NKH were screened by this method: the first cohort consisted of 45 families with no identified AMT or GCSH mutations, and the second cohort was comprised of 20 patients from the UK who were not prescreened for AMT mutations:

Results: CLDC deletions were identified in 16 of 90 alleles (18%) in the first cohort and in 9 of 40 alleles (22.5%) in the second cohort. 14 different types of deletions of various lengths were identified, including one allele where all 25 exons were missing. Flanking sequences of interstitial deletions in five patients were determined, and Alu-mediated recombination was identified in three of five patients.

Conclusions: GLDC deletions are a significant cause of NKH, and the MLPA analysis is a valuable first-line screening for NKH genetic testing.

on-ketotic hyperglycinaemia (NKH), also called glycine encephalopathy, is an inborn error of glycine metabolism caused by deficiency of the glycine cleavage system (GCS).1-1 Classically, NKH presents in the first few days of life with progressive lethargy, hypotonia, myoclonic jerks, hiccups and apnoea, usually leading to coma and death unless the patient is treated adequately. Patients with atypical glycine encephalopathy often lack neonatal symptoms, but manifest aggressive behaviour, cognitive impairment, and impaired work or school performance.5 6 Atypical patients manifest only nonspecific clinical symptoms with most patients remaining undiagnosed and thus without the benefit of early diagnosis and treatment.7 The fundamental defect of NKH lies in the mitochondrial GCS (EC2.1.2.10)8 that consists of four individual proteins:9 glycine decarboxylase encoded (also called Pprotein) by GLDC; aminomethyltransferase (T-protein) encoded by AMT; hydrogen carrier protein (H-protein) encoded by GCSH; and dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase encoded by GCSL. Dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase is a housekeeping enzyme that serves as an E3 component of other enzyme complexes

such as pyruvate dehydrogenase. The three GCS-specific genes are mapped on different chromosomes: *GLDC* on chromosome 9p24,10 AMT on 3p21.1-21.211 and *GCSH* on 16q24.12 Enzymatic analysis has shown that approximately 80% of patients with NKH are deficient of glycine decarboxylase activity.13

In Finnish patients we reported a common missense mutation, \$564I, that accounts for 70% of mutant alleles. Toone et al15 reported a missense mutation, R515S, in 5% of Caucasian mutant alleles. Most of the reported mutations are, however, private, found in only a single family, 16-20 thus making DNA analysis difficult. Recently, we have undertaken a comprehensive mutation screening of the three genes, GLDC, AMT and GCSH, in patients with neonatal, infantile and lateonset types of NHK.21 Various GLDC and AMT mutations were identified in patients with neonatal and infantile types of NHK, but not in those with the late onset type. Among 56 patients with the neonatal type, GLDC mutations were found in 36 patients, whereas AMT mutations were identified in 11 patients. In 14 of 36 patients, GLDC mutations were identified in only one allele, suggesting that some mutations are not detected by the exon-sequencing method. We have reported several patients with deletion of GLDC exon 1,22 and Sellner et al20 have reported a patient with deletion of the GLDC exons 2-15. These studies suggest that a considerable number of deletions may remain unidentified in GLDC.

The purpose of the present study was to establish a method of screening for deletions within GLDC and determine their frequency in patients with NKH. A multiplex ligation-dependent probe amplification (MLPA) method? was used to screen 65 patients with NKH. Using this method, 14 different types of exonic deletions were found in 25 of 130 alleles (19%) in patients with NKH. Our results suggest that deletions in the GLDC gene are a common cause of NKH, and that MLPA analysis is a useful first-line screening in NKH genetic testing.

METHODS

Patients with NKH

DNA samples were obtained from two cohorts of patients with typical NKH with a neonatal onset. Our original cohort of 56 patients with neonatal-type NKH²¹ was found to contain 11 patients with AMT mutations. We excluded those 11 patients and defined a new cohort of the remaining 45 patients with NKH (the AMT-mutation negative cohort). The second cohort contained 20 patients (14 Caucasian and 6 from the Indian subcontinent) with neonatal-type NKH, who were referred to the Birmingham Children's Hospital, Birmingham, UK, for enzymatic and genetic confirmation of the clinical diagnosis of NKH. In the second cohort, screening for only the R515S and

Abbreviations: GCS, glycine cleavage system; MLPA, multiplex ligation-dependent probe amplification; NKH, non-ketotic hyperglycinaemia; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; SNP, single-nucleotide polymorphism

Target		Upstream probe			Downstream probe	•			Control values (n = 18)		
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	Eco 18	M-GIDC-E18U-2	Infron 17	3	M-GIDC-E180-2	Exon 18	3	23	20771 (1002)	9.02 (0.31)	r
	Exon 19	M-GIDC-E19U	Exon 19	3	MeGLDC:E190	Intron 19	88	136	33266 (1049)	1445 (0.28)	~
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	Exon 23	M-GIDC-E23U	Exen 23	88	M-GLDC-E23D	Intran 23	8	168	20375 (1428)	8,84 (0.38)	7
	Econ 24	M-GLDC-E24U-2	Intron 24	8	M-GLDC-E24D-2	5con 24	88	176	20051 (409)	8.72 (0.31)	7
	Eco 25	M-GIDC-E2SU	Exon 25	20	M-GLDC-E250	Intron 25	8	184	29957 (1235)	13.10 (0.25)	2
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	Exan 9	M-AMT-E9U-2	latron 8	7	M-AMI-E9D-2	C vox		3	50490 (2102)	1	

Target	D_L	Niudaotida sequences (5' to 3')
gene	Probe name	•
GLDC	M-GLDC-E1U M-GLDC-E1D	CGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAGAGAGAGATGCTGCAGACCTTGGGGCTGGCG *CTAAGGACCTCCACCCGGCCTCCGCGTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E2U	GGGTICCCTAAGGGTIGGATTIGAAAAG <mark>ACCCTIGAAAATGGAAGACCCT</mark> GTTI
	M-GLDC-E2D	*GTAAGTOSCCGGGAGGCCCCCTTGGACTTATCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E3U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAACAGACGATTTTGCGGAACTTACTGGAGAACTCAGGATG
	M-GLDC-E3D	GIAATGIAIHCICAGHCAGGAACAGGATGACTGICTAGATTGGATGHISCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E4U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGCAATGAGGGGACTGCAGCCGCAGAGGCACTGCAGCTGTGCTACAG
	M-GLDC-E4D	NG GAGAGGCCICTCAAAGTGCTGGAATTCCAGTTGTGGGGTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E5U-2 M-GLDC-E5D-2	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGACTATITATITAATGTTCACGTTGGAATGTGCTTTTTCTTTTC
	M-GLDC-E&U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAGGGAAGGTGGAAGACTTTACGGAACTCGTGGAGAGAGCTCATCAGAGTGGG
	M-GLDC-E6D	GIAGGIAIACLITICTIGTGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGCGTATCCCAACTTCTAGATTGGATCTIGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E7U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGGCTGTCCGAGAAGGCTTGGTGAGAATGATGCCTGGAAGAATGGTGGGGGGGTAACAAG
	M-GLDC-E7D	GIAAAGGGGCICAIGHICICIACHITAITGIGATTAIGATTICCCIGATTCIAGATTGGATCGCIGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E8U-2	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGACCATTTTCTCAGTGGGAACTAAGGGCGGGC
	M-GLDC-E8D-2	CIGAGCATICATATTIGCCCCCGTCTAGGTAGACCTGTCCTCTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E9U M-GLDC-E9D	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAATGTTCCCATGGGCTGGAGCATATTGCTACGAGGGTACATAATGCCACTTGATTTTGTCAGAT GTGAGTTGGTAATCTGTCTAAAACATTTGGGCATAATAAAATTTGATAAAATTTGAGTATCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAG
	M-GLDC-E10U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAGCTGCTAGTGAAGGAGGTCTTGGGGCAGGGCCGCTCAGCCGGCAGATCAATITTCGGCTTTTT
	m obcerso	GAGGATGGCACA
	M-GLDC-E100	*GTAAGTCAAATTTCAGTATTTTACCAGTTTTTCAAATTTTCACATTGTTTCTCAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E11U	GGGTICCCTAAGGGTIGGACTIGGTATHICTCTIGATGAGACAGTCAATGAAAAAGAICTGGACGATHIGTIGTGGATCTFIGG
		HIGHSAGICAICIGCA
	M-GLDC-E11D	*GTAAGTAAAATAAAAACATGCGTTCCTCAKCATAACTATTGGAGGTGGTAGCAAAAGTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGCCAC GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAGCTGAAAGCATGGGAGAGGAGTGCAGAGGTATTCCAGGGTCTGTGTTCAAGAGGACC
	M-GLDC-E12U	AGCCCGHCCICACCCATCAAGIGHICAACAG
	M-GLDC-E12D	*GITTGTGTGTCTTGTGTGACTTCTGCGTTTTGTGCTTTGGTAATCAGCTAGGGAGTTTCTAGATTGGATCTTOCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E13U-2	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGATGTTCACAGCTACCACTCTGAAACAAAC
		CATHCCCHIGHCACAGCATGANCCACT
	M-GLDC-E13D	*GGTAGTTATTIGTGGCCCTTTTTCCCATTICCCAAGCTACCCCCAATCCCCACGTCTCTTTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCCAC
	M-GLDC-E15U	GGGTTCCTAAGGGTTGGAAGGTTATGACCACGTCTGTTTCCAGCCAAACAG
	M-GLDC-E15D	*GTAAGGGCATTICTTATTGTTCATCTAGATTGGATCTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E16U M-GLDC-E16D	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAAGCCTACTTAAACCAGAAAGGAGGGGGCACAGAACG "GTGAGTATGGCAGGAGGTGGCGCTTGCTCACCATCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC E17U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAATAAATATGGGAATATCGATGCAGTTCACCTCAAGGCCATG
	M-GLDC-E17D	TGTACTTGTCTTCTCCTTAGCAGATGGGAGAGGCCGGGATCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E18U-2	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGACCATTTTCTCAGTGGGAACTAAGGGCGGGC
	M-GLDC-E18D-2	*CIGAGCATICATATTIGCCCCGICTAGGTAGACCTGTCCTCTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E19U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGATCTGCATTCCCCACGGAGGAGGTGGTCCTGGCATGGGGCCCCATCGGAGT
	M-GLDC-E19D	GTAAGTICTGGGCTGCTGGGTTTCAGGATGGCTTTGGAGACAGAATTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E20U M-GLDC-E20D	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGACGGCCCCATGGGGCTCCAGTTCCATCTTGCCCATTTCCTGGGCTTATATCAAG "GTGAGGCCTGGGAGTATGTGCAGGTGGGAGGTGGGGGGGG
	M-GLDC-E21U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAACTACATGGCCAAGCGATTAGAAACACACTACAGAATTCTTTTCAGGGGTGCAAGAG
	M-GLDC-E21D	*GCAAGTATCAACTTTAATCTATCATTACTTGGTTTTTTCTTGGCCAAACTAATCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E22U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGACCCTTCAAAAAGTCTGCAAATATTGAGGCTGTGGATGTGGCCAAGAGACTCCAGGATTATG
	M-GLDC-E22D	*GIAAGIGGCIIIIGACAHCATGCCGCCCCCCATGCTGGCTGTGGACCACTTCCTAA <u>ICTAGAITGGATCTIGCTGGCAC</u>
	M-GLDC-E23U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAATCAGCATTCGGCAGGAAATTGCTGACATTGAGGAGGGCCGCATCGACCCCAGGGTCAAT
	MICIDO ESSE	CCGCTGAAG *GTGCGTAGGCCCTGGAACATTGCTTGAAATGTTCCTTAAACTAGAAAATGATGTCTGTC
	M-GLDC-E23D M-GLDC-E24U-2	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAGCTAAGAGCGTACACCCGTCAGGATAGGAGCTGGCCCATGCCTTCCCAGCTGGCACATTC
	MOLDC LLAU L	AGATICAGAGAACTIAC
	M-GLDC-E24D-2	*GAGTGGGAATGCTGCCACCTCTCTGGAATAAGGCCGGTCCCAGTGGGAAGATGTAACTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-GLDC-E25U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGGTGGGGCTAGCATTGCCACCTCCTTTGCCCTAAGAGAAACCTCCCAGAACATCTCACAGCA
		HICCAICHHGICCHIGCAG
	M-GLDC-E25D	*CCCTTCGTGAAACCAGAGAACAAATTCTGGCCAACGATTGCCCGGATTGATGACATATCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
GLDCP	M-GLDCP-1D	*AGCATTGATGAATTGATCGAGAAGTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
JUC:	motod-15	ACCUIDAD CONTRACTOR CO
EXT2	M-EXT2-E13U	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGACAGCCATAGATGGGCTTTCACT
	M-EXT2-E13D	*AGACCAAACACATGGTGGATCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
AMT	M-AMT-E1U	GOGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAGATGCAGAGGGCTGTAAGTGTGGTG
	M-AMT-EID	*GCCCGTCTGGGCTTTCGCCTGTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
	M-AMT-E4U M-AMT-E4D	GGGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGAAGGGCCACCTGTATGTGGTGTCCAAC "GCTGGCTGCTGGAGAAAGATTTTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCACC
	M-AMT-E9U-2	GCGTTCCCTAAGGGTTGGATGATGCGTCGCTTATCCTTCCT
	M-AMT-E9D-2	*GTACIGIGACTAGTGGCTGCCCCTTCTAGATTGGATCTTGCTGGCAC
geography (Ax	ĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸĸ	

A389V mutations in the GLDC gene was conducted. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Tohoku University School of Medicine, Sendai, Japan, and all patients or their legal representatives gave informed consent for DNA analysis.

Synthetic MLPA probes
In all, 29 pairs of MLPA probes were designed for analysis
(table 1). As there is a processed pseudogene (GLDCP) which is
98% homologous with GLDC exons, probes for the GLDC gene

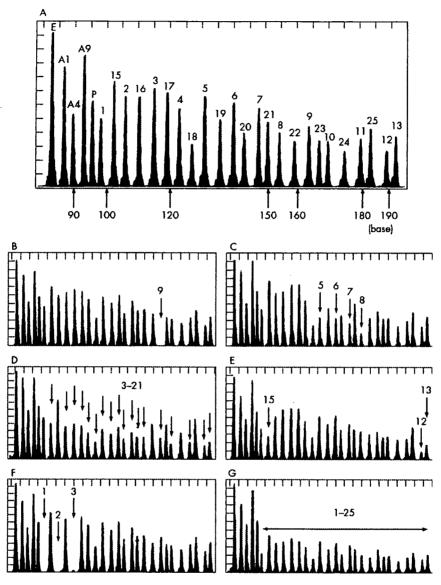


Figure 1 Multiplex ligation-dependent probe amplification (MLPA) analysis of a control subject and patients with non-ketotic hyperglycinaemia (NKH) with neonatal onset. A representative MLPA chromatogram of a control participant (A). The five control peaks include EXT2 exon 13 (E), AMT exons 1, 4 and 9 (A1, A4, A9), and GLDCP (P). The number on each peak indicates the exon number of the GLDC gene. MLPA probe for GLDC exon 14 was not used in this assay. MLPA analysis of patients with NKH: homozygotic deletion of exons 9 (B), heterozygotic deletion of exons 5–8 (C), heterozygotic deletion of exons 12–15 (E), homozygotic deletion of exons 1–3 (F) and heterozygotic deletion of all 25 GLDC exons (G).

were placed at the 5' or 3' junction of each exon. No probe for exon 14 was used, as it lies only 175 bp from exon 13. Probes for AMT exons 1, 4 and 9, EXT2 exon 13, and GLDCP were used as gene dose controls for estimation of GLDC copy number. The length of the synthetic MLPA probes ranged from 41 to 112 bp in size. Table 2 shows their nucleotide sequences. The probe for EXT2 exon 13 was synthesised as reported previously. We first tested the 3' end of each exon as the target site. However, this did not work for GLDC exon 5, 18, 24 and AMT exon 9, so probes were designed at these 5' regions of the exons. All downstream MLPA probes were 5' phosphorylated for ligation with the upstream probes. The MLPA probe mixture was prepared by mixing 2 nmol/l of each MLPA probe, and used as described below.

MLPA procedures

An MLPA PO FAM detection kit (MRC Holland, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) was used in this study. This kit contains all the necessary reagents except the MLPA probe mixture. MLPA was performed essentially according to the manufacturer's instructions (www.mrc-holland.com). Briefly, 50–250 ng of genomic DNA was used as the starting material, and after hybridisation, ligation and amplification, the PCR products were size-separated by an ABI 310 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA). For normalisation, relative peak areas were calculated by dividing each measured peak area by the sum of the five control peak areas (table 1). Mean and SD were obtained by testing 18 control DNA samples.

eletion	Missing exons	Number of alleles	Family	Ethnicity	Other allele	Comment
rst cohort L	MT-mutation negative,	45 families)				
1/////	Exons 1-2	2	P14	Caucasian	£2714T→G (p.V905G)	
			P36	Caucasian	Deletion (exans 1-17)	
2	Exons 1-3	3	P5	Oriental	Deletion (exons 1-3)	Homzygote,
						consanguinity ()
			P70	Oriental	Unidentified	
3	Exons 1-17	2	P36	Caucosion	Deletion (exons 1-2)	
			P40	Coucasian	Unidentified	
4	5cons 1-25	1	P32	Caucasian	c.1786C→T (p.R596X)	
5	Exons 3-4	1	P69	Oriental	c2311G.A (p.G771R)	
6	Exons 3-8	1	P120	Oriental	c.2574T→G (p.Y858X)	
7	Exans 3-9	1	P47	Oriental	c.2519T→A [p.M840K]	
8	Exons 3-22	1	P48	Caucasian	c.2665+1G→C	
9	Exons 12-15	4	P7	Oriental	c_2266_2268del TTC	
			P8	Oriental	c.2080G→C (p.A694P)	
			P22	Oriental	Unidentified	
			P74	Oriental	c2311G→A (p.G771R)	
econd cohor	t Inot prescreened for A	MI mutation, 20 families	1			
1	Exon 1		B3	Coucosian	Unidentified	
2	Exons 1-2	2	88	Caucasian	c.1545G-+C (p.R515S)	
			B13	Coucosian	£1545G-→C (p.R515S)	
3	Exans 1-16	2	B10	Pakistoni	Deletion (exons 1-16)	Homozygole,
						consanguinity (+)
4	Exons 3-21	1	86	Coucasian	Unidentified	7
5	Ехол 9	2	87	Coucosian	Deletion (exon 9)	Homozygałe,
						consumptinity (+)
6	Exons 5-8	1	B18	Caucasian	c.1545G→C (p.R515S)	

Long-range PCR

To clarify the boundary sequences of the deleted fragments, we used nested and long-range PCR with the LA PCR kit (TaKaRa Co Ltd, Tokyo, Japan) for PCR across the breakpoints. PCR fragments containing the boundary sequences of the deletions were size-separated on 1% agarose gel and bands with the expected sizes were cut out for purification by the QIAquick Gel Extraction kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Purified PCR fragments were subjected to the dye-terminator-sequencing analysis with the BigDye Terminator Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems).

RESULTS

MPLA analysis in control DNA

Eighteen control DNA samples were tested to estimate the deviation of each peak area. Figure 1A shows a representative chromatogram with all 29 peaks. Intervals between the peaks correspond to a difference of three or four bases in size of DNA fragments. Each peak area was measured and the mean (SD) was calculated (table 1). The sum of the five control peak areas (EXT2 exon 13, AMT exons 1, 4 and 9, and GLDCP) was used to normalise the relative peak area of each GLDC exon. As a result, the mean (SD) ranged from 2% to 6%. We therefore set a screening threshold for deletion as <80%, <-3 SD from the mean value.

MPLA analysis in patients with NKH

Two independent cohorts of patients with neonatal-onset NKH were screened by our MLPA system. Nine different types of GLDC deletions were detected in the first AMT-mutation negative cohort of patients, whereas six different types of deletions were found in the second cohort of patients, in which no prescreening of AMT mutation had been performed (table 3). Figure 1 shows six representative results of GLDC deletions homozygotic deletion of exon 9 (fig 1B), heterozygotic deletion of exons 5–8 (fig 1C), heterozygotic deletion of exons 3–21 (fig 1D), heterozygotic deletion of exons 12–15 (fig 1E), homozygotic deletion of exons 1–3 (fig 1F) and heterozygotic

deletion involving all 25 GLDC exons (fig 1G). In the first cohort, a total of 16 deletion alleles were identified in 90 mutant alleles (18%). In the second cohort, 9 of 40 (22.5%) alleles were positive for deletion screening. No deletions of AMT exons 1, 4 and 9 were detected in this study. MLPA analysis of family P41 suggested that the patient was homozygotic for a deletion of exon 7 (data not shown). Subsequent sequencing analysis of the probe binding sites disclosed a one-bp deletion, c.1054delA, in the M-GLDC-E7U binding site. Similarly, in the MLPA analysis of family B5, both parents appeared to be heterozygotic for a deletion of exon 5 (data not shown). Sequencing of the probe binding sites showed that this was due to a single base substitution in the M-GLDC-E5U-2 binding site on one allele. Unfortunately, no DNA was available from the index case, but the patient from family B5 was presumed to be homozygotic for this c.636-1G→C mutation, which was deduced to abolish the conserved consensus AG at the splicing acceptor sites.

Identification of boundary sequences of the deletions

To confirm the deletions identified by the MPLA study and elucidate the mechanisms of the deletions, we examined the boundary sequences of four interstitial deletions within GLDC. We examined the patient homozygotic for a deletion of exon 9 (family B7 in the second cohort), the patient with heterozygotic deletion of exons 5-8 (family B18 in the second cohort), the patient with heterozygotic deletion of exons 3-21 (family B6 in the second cohort) and the patients with heterozygotic deletions of exons 12-15 (families P74 and P8 in the first cohort; fig 2). Nested long-range PCR was employed in this analysis, which was followed by direct sequencing analysis. In the patient of family B7, a 7906-bp deletion was identified, extending from the 3' end of intron 8 (~6 kb) to the 5' end of intron 9 (~2 kb) as shown in fig 2A. In the patient in family B18, we found a 10 422-bp deletion beginning at the 3' end of intron 4 (~3 kb) and including exons 5-8, up to the 5' end of intron 8 with ~3 kb (fig 2B). The patient in family B6 had the longest deletion, 99 395 bp, among the four patients. Both 5'

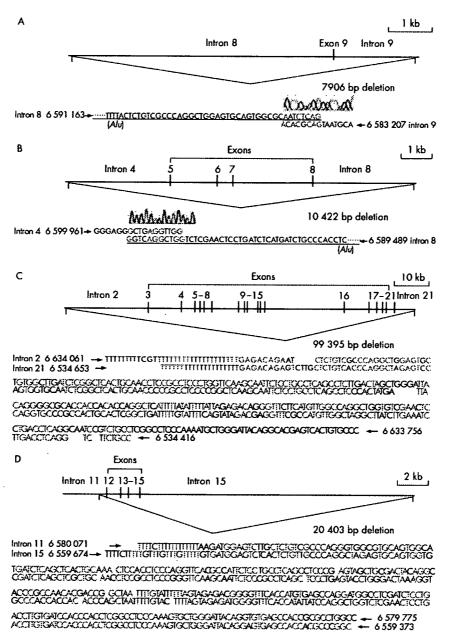


Figure 2 Boundary sequences of the deleted fragments. The boundary sequences of four different types of GLDC deletions were identified: the deletion of exon 9 in family B7 (A), the deletion of exons 5–8 in family B18 (B), the deletion of exons 3–21 in family B6 (C) and the deletion of exons 12–15 in family P74 (D). The boundary sequence found in family P74 was the same as that in family P8. Nucleotide sequences in red indicate the identical bases in the 5' and 3' flanks of the deletions.

and 3' fragments shared near identical sequences as shown in fig 2C. In a Japanese patient (P74) with heterozygotic deletion of exons 12–15, a 20 403-bp deletion was identified (fig 2D). The deleted fragment consisted of a short 3' end of intron 11 (~0.6 kb), exons 12–15 and the 5' end of intron 15 (~18 kb). The identical breakpoint was also found in the patient from family P8 (data not shown). Thus far, the deleted fragments flanked with Alu motifs in B6, P74, and P8 patients, but not in patients from families B7 or B18. Four Caucasian patients (from P14, P36, B13 and B8) had a deletion of exons 1 and 2. However, as the two patients, B13 and B8, from the UK had

different haplotypes (data not shown), this deletion has occurred more than once. This observation agrees with our previous finding that the deletions of the *GLDC* exon 1 had multiple origins.²¹

Distribution of deletions in the GLDC gene

Figure 3 shows the distribution of the missing exons by GLDC deletions. The lengths of the GLDC deletions were heterogeneous, ranging from a single exon to all 25. Of the 50 breakpoints of the deletions, 26 (52%) were found 5' upstream of the GLDC gene or in introns 1-3, suggesting that deletions

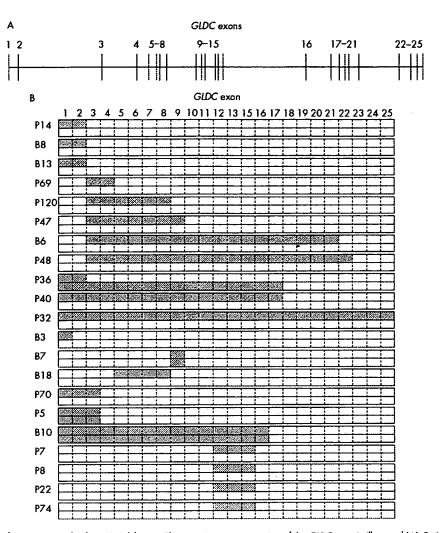


Figure 3 Distribution of missing exons by the GLDC deletions. The exon-intron organisation of the GLDC gene is illustrated (A). Patients with non-ketotic hyperglycinaemia with GLDC deletions were classified by their missing exons (B). Hatched boxes indicate GLDC exons involved in the deletions. Note the clustering of the deletion breakpoints in the 5' end of GLDC.

tend to occur in the 5' part of the GLDC gene, a region relatively rich in Alu repeats.

DISCUSSION

We established a detection system for GLDC deletions by using the MLPA method, and showed that deletions within this gene are a common cause of NKH. Fourteen different types of GLDC deletions were identified in screening 65 patients with neonatal-onset NKH. GLDC deletions were identified in 21 of 65 patients with NKH (32.3%), and in 25 of 130 NKH alleles (19.2%) by MLPA analysis. The MLPA method provides a good first-line screen in a condition where there are no common mutations and full sequencing of 25 exons of the GLDC gene is a lengthy process. The deletion detection rates by MLPA analysis were 18% and 22.5% in the first and second cohorts, respectively. In our previous study, the exon-sequencing analysis has shown GLDC mutations in 41 of 90 alleles (45%).21 Thus, this MLPA test improved the sensitivity of mutation detection from 45% to 63%. Mutations for NKH are highly heterogeneous: the prevalent mutations previously reported are Finnish S564I mutation (70%)14 and Caucasian R515S mutation (5%),¹⁵ hampering the genetic testing in diagnosis of NKH. In contrast, *GLDC* deletions seem to be prevalent in different ethnic groups. In a previous study, we analysed the relative allele number of the *GLDC* exon 1 by using *GLDCP* as a copy number control.²² As MLPA analysis covers the whole gene in one simple assay, it is highly recommended for the first screening in the genetic testing of NKH.

Point mutations in MLPA-probe binding sites may cause false positives in MLPA analysis, notably where a single exon is deleted. A mismatching in the binding site of the MLPA probes is known to reduce the ligation efficiency. In our study, we encountered four single-exon deletions in the analysis of families P41, B3, B5 and B7. Subsequent sequencing analysis of the probe binding sites showed that the patient in family P41 had a 1-bp deletion and that the patient from B5 carried a 1-base substitution at the splicing accepter site of intron 4. Both mutations are predicted to be disease causing. No base change was found in the patient from B3. In the patient from B7, exon 9 of the patient failed to be amplified by PCR and a single-exon deletion was confirmed by subsequent sequencing across the breakpoint (fig 2A). As the MLPA probes for GLDC were

Key points

- A screening system for genomic deletions within GLDC has been developed by the multiplex-ligation-dependent probe amplification (MLPA) method.
- GLDC deletions were identified in approximately 20% of nan-ketotic hyperglycinaemia (NKH) mutant alleles.
- The MLPA analysis is useful for first-line screening in the genetic testing of NKH.

designed to bind an exon-intron boundary to avoid detection of the pseudogene of GLDC, GLDCP, the MLPA method can also detect some mutations that cause aberrant splicing. Sequencing the probe-binding regions of the GLDC gene where MLPA analysis suggests a single-exon deletion is therefore necessary before making a diagnosis of GLDC deletion.

In a previous study, we diagnosed the patient of family P32 as a homozygote of a nonsense mutation, c.1786C→T (p.R596X), although there was no history of consanguinity.21 A familial study was not possible because no parental DNA was available. The present study showed that he was heterozygotic for a deletion containing all 25 GLDC exons (table 3, fig 1G), indicating that he was a compound heterozygote of the nonsense mutation c.1786C-T and the deletion of exons 1-25. As this deletion was the biggest one so far identified, we looked to see whether it involved any adjacent genes. We performed a microarray analysis to determine the genotypes of many single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) by using the GeneChip Human Mapping 100 k Set (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, California, USA). GLDC is located between base positions 6635650 and 6522467 bp in chromosome 9 (GenBank, NT_008413). The JMJD2C gene (6748083-7165647 bp) is located 5' upstream of GLDC whereas the UHRF2 gene (6403151-6497051 bp) lies 3' downstream of GLDC. The SNP at the base position 6606648 bp, which is located within the GLDC gene, was indeed homozygotic in this patient (data not shown). In contrast, two SNPs at the base positions of 6513056 and 6759229 bp were heterozygotic, suggesting that the deletion is <246 kb, and thus that the two adjacent genes are unlikely to be involved in the deletion.

We determined flanking sequences of interstitial deletions in five patients, and Alu-mediated recombination was identified in three of five patients. The Alu elements, approximately 300 bp in length, compose about 10% of the whole human genome.25 There are several inherited disorders in which Alu-mediated recombination/deletion is a common cause: hereditary angioedema, C1-INH;26 α-thalassemia, α-globin gene;27 and Ehlers-Danlos syndrome, PLOD.28 Recently, Alu-mediated genomic recombination has also been reported in non-inherited human cancer, hepatoma. A total of 120 copies of Alu repeats are present in the GLDC gene, which has a length of 113 kb, resulting in one Alu of 1.1 kb on average. This is much higher than the average density of one Alu every 3-4 kb over the whole human genome.10 The GLDC deletions tend to be located in the 5' end of the GLDC gene, which may be explained by the fact that the region contains a high number of Alu repeats.

The diagnosis of NKH is difficult to establish on clinical and biochemical grounds alone, and typically requires a liver biopsy for enzyme analysis or DNA studies to confirm a diagnosis. However, the complex nature of the genetics of NKH (three genes and no common mutations) makes DNA analysis a lengthy and difficult process. Our finding that deletions within the GLDC gene are one of the most common causes of NKH and

the development of a simple assay for such mutations will make genetic analysis for this disorder much more straightforward. Such analysis will reduce the need for a liver biopsy in a sick child, make diagnosis easier, and improve the ease and reliability of antenatal diagnosis.

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Competing interests: None declared.

Electronic databases: NKH (GCE)-OMIM, 605899. GLDC-OMIM: 238300, GenBank: NT_008413.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Cardio-facio-cutaneous and Noonan syndromes due to mutations in the RAS/MAPK signalling pathway: genotypephenotype relationships and overlap with Costello syndrome

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Cardio-facio-cutaneous (CFC) syndrome, Noonan syndrome (NS), and Costello syndrome (CS) are clinically related developmental disorders that have been recently linked to mutations in the RAS/MEK/ERK signalling pathway. This study was a mutation analysis of the KRAS, BRAF, MEK1 and MEK2 genes in a total of 130 patients (40 patients with a dinical diagnosis of CFC, 20 patients without HRAS mutations from the French Costello family support group, and 70 patients with NS without PTPN11 or SOS1 mutations). BRAF mutations were found in 14/40 (35%) patients with CFC and 8/20 (40%) HRAS-negative patients with CS. KRAS mutations were found in 1/40 (2.5%) patients with CFC, 2/20 (10%) HRAS-negative patients with CS and 4/ 70 patients with NS (5.7%). MEK1 mutations were found in 4/40 patients with CFC (10%), 4/20 (20%) HRAS-negative patients with CS and 3/70 (4.3%) patients with NS, and MEK2 mutations in 4/40 (10%) patients with CFC. Analysis of the major phenotypic features suggests significant clinical overlap between CS and CFC. The phenotype associated with MEK mutations seems less severe, and is compatible with normal mental development. Features considered distinctive for CS were also found to be associated with BRAF or MEK mutations. Because of its particular cancer risk, the term "Costello syndrome" should only be used for patients with proven HRAS mutation. These results confirm that KRAS is a minor contributor to NS and show that MEK is involved in some cases of NS, demonstrating a phenotypic continuum between the dinical entities. Although some associated features appear to be characteristic of a specific gene, no simple rule exists to distinguish NS from CFC easily.

ince its original description by Reynolds et al, cardio-faciocutaneous (CFC) syndrome has been reported in about 60 patients, allowing precise elucidation of its phenotype.2-5 The developmental anomalies in CFC include congenital heart defects (CHD), ectodermal anomalies, and short stature. The degree of mental retardation is variable, usually moderate to severe. Affected individuals also present a characteristic facial appearance with a high forehead, bi-temporal constriction, down-slanting palpebral fissures, short nose with depressed nasal bridge, and relative macrocephaly. The CFC phenotype is reminiscent of Noonan syndrome (NS) and Costello syndrome (CS) and differential diagnosis can be difficult, particularly in infancy. Diagnostic indexes have been proposed by Grebe and Clericuzio⁶ and Kavamura et al.⁷ Some clinical signs are useful to differentiate the three entities clinically. Sparse hair and eyebrows, follicular hyperkeratosis and palmoplantar hyperkeratosis characterise CFC, whereas cutis laxa, diffuse skin hyperpigmentation, papillomata, ulnar deviation of the hands and nail dystrophy are hallmarks of CS. Qualitatively, facial dysmorphology is similar in NS, CS and CFC, but compared with patients with NS, the face of patients with CFC is wider. The mouth of patients with CS is also wider with thick lips, and coarsening of face is typical in both CS and CFC. CHD in CFC are remarkably similar to those noted in NS and CS. The incidence of CHD and hypertrophic cardiomyopathy are comparable in CFC and CS. Severe cardiac arrhythmias occur in a third of patients with CS, whereas they are rare in NS and CFC. In infancy, feeding problems and failure to thrive are more frequent and severe in CFC and CS than in NS. CS and CFC are

associated with more severe developmental delay than NS. CS is associated with a greatly increased risk of malignancy, notably rhabdomyosarcoma. The incidence of CFC is unknown. All cases reported to date have been sporadic.

In 2001, Tartaglia et al discovered that activating mutations of PTPN11 cause 40-50% of cases of NS.8 As PTPN11 encodes SHP2, a non-receptor tyrosine phosphatase involved in RAS pathway activation, genes encoding RAS/MAPK components have systematically been screened. Activating mutations of HRAS were found in roughly 85% of patients with a clinical diagnosis of CS. 2-12 Patients with CFC harbour activating missense mutations in KRAS," BRAF," 4 MEKI and MEK2.14 KRAS was also shown to cause a small subset of NS cases.15 16 About 10% of patients with NS carry activating mutations in SOS1, a RAS-activating molecule of the guanosine exchange factor (GEF) family.17 18 These proteins are part of the RAS/ MAPK signalling pathway, which is involved in many biological processes and plays crucial roles during embryonic development.19 Somatic mutation and/or increased transcription of the genes encoding these proteins are a common feature in tumour progression.

The aim of this study was to screen the genes causing CFC syndrome in three cohorts of patients referred with (1) a clinical diagnosis of CFC, (2) a clinical diagnosis of CS but no

Abbreviations: CFC, cardio-facio-cutaneous; CHD, congenital heart defects; CS, Costello syndrome; GEF, guanosine exchange factor; JMML, juvenile myelomonocytic leukaemia; NF1, neurofibromatosis type 1; NS, Noonan syndrome