

however, has not been well understood. Furthermore, molecular mechanisms responsible for clustering of the breakpoints at these CFSs and those underlying the repair processes of the breakpoints remain to be elucidated.

To explore why these particular genomic regions are prone to rearrangements in germ cells and cancer cells, it is essential to determine the precise positions of the breakpoint-clustering regions and to analyze the junction-sequence signatures in detail. Determination of junction sequences, however, has been extremely laborious by conventional methods, such as the PCR-based genome-walking method, particularly in the case of large-size rearrangements. To date, only a few breakpoints involving *PARK2* and *DMD* have been determined at the nucleotide level in either germ cell or somatic cell mutations.^{5,15–19} To accomplish an efficient determination of rearrangement breakpoints at the nucleotide level, we have applied a custom-designed high-density array comparative genomic hybridization (array CGH) system, which enabled us to determine approximately 500 breakpoints in patients with AR-JP and DMD/BMD as well as in cancer cell lines. We herein elucidated the clustering of the breakpoints and the sequence signatures at the breakpoint junctions in germ cell and somatic cell mutations in these CFSs. This gives insights into the mechanisms of chromosomal fragility within the CFSs.

Material and Methods

Materials

For the determination of rearrangement breakpoints in the germline mutations of *PARK2* or *DMD*, we enrolled 206 unrelated patients with AR-JP and 208 unrelated male patients with DMD/BMD. The patients with AR-JP were from multiple ethnicities, including 113 Japanese, 15 East Asians, 64 Europeans,^{20,21} and 14 others, with one or two rearranged *PARK2* alleles that have been identified by PCR-based gene-dosage analysis or multiplex ligation-dependent probe amplification (MLPA) analysis. All of the patients with DMD/BMD were males from the Japanese population, with hemizygous deletions or duplications in *DMD* that have been identified by multiplex PCR analysis or MLPA analysis. For the determination of rearrangement breakpoints in the somatic cell mutations of *PARK2* and *DMD*, we analyzed 125 cancer cell lines obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) and the laboratories of D.I.S. or H.A., including 41 gastrointestinal tract cancer cell lines, 26 breast cancer cell lines, 24 urogenital tract cancer cell lines, 14 respiratory tract cancer cell lines, 9 skin cancer cell lines, 7 brain cancer cell lines, and 4 hematological malignancy cell lines (the cancer cell line list is available in Table S1, available online). This study was approved by the institutional review boards of all of the participating institutions.

Array CGH Analysis

High-density microarrays that contain 35,668 probes covering the entire *PARK2* gene (chromosome 6: 161,500,000–163,500,000), with an average probe interval of 112 bp, or 40,632 probes that cover the entire *DMD* gene (chromosome X: 31,000,000–

33,500,000), with an average probe interval of 82 bp, were designed on the Agilent platform. The probes were designed by a laboratory-made program (programmed by S.T.), CGH probe version 4.1 (available on request), and were 60-mer oligonucleotides with GC contents ranging from 31% to 39%. We also avoided repetitive sequences.²² For those regions where the probes could not be designed with GC contents between 31% and 39% at appropriate probe intervals, the probes were designed with shorter lengths (45 to 60 oligonucleotides) depending on the GC content, so that their optimal hybridization temperature was close to longer oligonucleotide probes utilized. A single control sample was used for all of the subjects in CGH analysis of *PARK2*, and a male control sample was used for CGH analysis of *DMD*. Genomic DNAs were hybridized to the microarrays, followed by scan and analysis using Agilent CGH Analytics software version 4.0.76 (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA). For determining each breakpoint at the nucleotide level, a pair of oligonucleotide primers was designed to amplify each segment across the breakpoint junction. Amplified junction fragments were subjected to direct nucleotide-sequence analysis utilizing an ABI 3100 Genetic Analyzer (Life Technologies, CA, USA). The data on rearrangements of this study are accessible in the NCBI Database of Genomic Structural Variation (dbVAR); the public accession number is nstd36.

Nucleotide-Sequence Analysis

The positions of nucleotide sequences described in this study were based on the human reference sequence of NCBI build 36 version 1. The nucleotide sequences encompassing the breakpoints were subjected to many different computational analyses. The FASTN program of GENETYX version 9.0.6 software (Genetyx, Tokyo, Japan) was used to calculate the amount of sequence homology between the nucleotide sequences encompassing two breakpoints. To investigate the sequence characteristics of the junctions of rearrangements, we searched for extended homologies between the pairs of nucleotide sequences encompassing the breakpoints (100 bp upstream and 100 bp downstream). The RepeatMasker program was used to evaluate interspersed repeat-element content. Origins of inserted sequences at the junctions were determined by the BLAST program and SSEARCH program against the entire human genome. DNA Pattern Find was used for detecting sequence motifs that were abundant at deletion breakpoints.²³ High-flexibility regions were identified with the TwistFlex program, which assesses DNA flexibility by measuring the local potential variation in the DNA structure at a twist angle of DNA, and the flexibility parameter is expressed as the fluctuation of this angle.²⁴ All of these programs were used with default settings. The positions of the chromosomal R/G band²⁵ and nuclear-lamina-associated domains (LADs)²⁶ were retrieved from the UCSC Genome Browser (NCBI build 36.1). The replication-timing map of chromosome 6 was retrieved from a previous report, as determined by array CGH analyses of S phase DNA to G₁ phase DNA.²⁷ The sex-averaged recombination rate was obtained from the deCODE recombination map.²⁸

Statistical Methods

All statistical analyses were performed by means of StatsDirect statistical software version 2.6.5 (StatsDirect, UK). Means, medians, variances, skewness, and kurtosis were determined for the distributions of breakpoints at *PARK2* and *DMD* loci, in patients and in cancer cell lines. Differences between the mean breakpoint

positions in patients and in cancer cell lines were analyzed by means of the Mann-Whitney U test. Differences between the standard deviations of breakpoint positions in patients and in cancer cell lines were analyzed by means of the squared-ranks test. The null hypothesis was rejected at $p < 0.05$.

Results

Determination of Breakpoints at the Nucleotide Level on the Basis of Custom-Designed Array CGH Analyses

To characterize the breakpoints in *PARK2* and *DMD* located at CFS, we have applied a locus-specific high-density array CGH analysis system to 206 patients with AR-JP, 208 male patients with DMD/BMD, and 125 cancer cell lines. Representative cases of AR-JP with a deletion in *PARK2* (Figures 1A–1D) and a case of AR-JP with a duplication in *PARK2* (Figures 1E–1G) are shown. Array CGH analyses easily enabled detection of a deletion or a duplication, as shown in Figure 1A or 1E, respectively. For determination of the nucleotide sequences at the deletion breakpoints, a pair of PCR primers flanking the deletion was designed to obtain junction fragments by PCR (Figure 1C). When the PCR products containing the junction segment were obtained (Figure 1B), the nucleotide sequences were easily determined by direct nucleotide-sequence analysis of the PCR products (Figure 1D). For determination of the nucleotide sequences of duplication breakpoints, three pairs of PCR primers were designed, based on the head-to-tail, head-to-head, and tail-to-tail models (Figure 1F). When the PCR products were obtained for either of these configurations (Figure 1G), the nucleotide sequences were determined as described above.

We then applied these methods to determine the breakpoints of *PARK2* at the nucleotide-sequence level in patients with AR-JP. For this purpose, we selected patients with AR-JP who had previously been determined to have one or two rearranged *PARK2* alleles on the basis of PCR-based gene-dosage analysis or MLPA analysis. In array CGH analyses of *PARK2* of 206 patients with AR-JP, 268 exonic rearrangements (243 deletions and 25 duplications) and five intronic deletions were detected. Nucleotide sequences of the 252 breakpoint junctions (92.3%) were determined, including 235 deletions (94.8%) and 17 duplications (68.0%). In total, 62 had homozygous exonic rearrangements, 57 had compound-heterozygous exonic rearrangements, and 69 had a heterozygous exonic rearrangement. In contrast to the results obtained by the PCR-based gene-dosage or MLPA analysis, exonic rearrangements were not detected by the array CGH analysis in 18 patients with AR-JP, raising the possibility that the PCR-based conventional analyses may provide false positive results. For comparison of the breakpoints of *PARK2* in the germline mutations in patients with AR-JP, we then conducted similar array CGH analyses of *PARK2* in 125 cancer-derived cell lines and identified 42 rearrangements (39 deletions and three duplications) in 28 of the cancer cell lines (22.4%). The nucleotide sequences of the

41 breakpoint junctions (97.6%), including 39 deletions (100.0%) and two duplications (66.7%), were determined. Because ten deletions and two duplications were found among multiple cancer cell lines, 32 independent breakpoints (31 deletions and one duplication) were determined. Among 32 independent breakpoints, two (one deletion and one duplication) were also found in patients with AR-JP, raising the possibility that they were derived from germ cell lines or that the identical rearrangements of germ cell lines independently occurred in somatic cell lines. Intriguingly, in one cancer cell line (COLO320), six independent deletions were observed simultaneously (Figure S1).

To compare the breakpoint clustering and the signatures of the breakpoint-junction sequences of *PARK2* (FRA6E) with those at other CFSs, we further conducted array CGH analyses of *DMD*, which is embedded in another CFS, FRAXC,⁷ in 208 patients with DMD/BMD. All of the patients had hemizygous rearrangements (172 deletions and 36 duplications) involving exons, but three intronic deletions were also identified. We were able to determine nucleotide sequences of 197 breakpoint junctions (93.4%), including 167 deletions (95.4%) and 30 duplications (83.3%). None of the breakpoints determined occurred at the same exact position. We subsequently conducted similar array CGH analyses of *DMD* in the same 125 cancer cell lines. This analysis identified nine rearrangements (eight deletions and one duplication) in the seven cancer cell lines (5.6%) and determined the nucleotide sequences of six breakpoint junctions (66.7%), including six deletions (75.0%). Although most of the breakpoints demonstrated by the array CGH were identified at the nucleotide level, several breakpoints were not able to be determined. This included 13 of the 248 deletions and eight of the 25 duplications in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP, one of the two duplications in *PARK2* in cancer cell lines, eight of the 175 deletions and six of the 36 duplications in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD, and two of the eight deletions and the one duplication in *DMD* in cancer cell lines. For three deletions in patients with DMD/BMD, breakpoints located outside the region covered by the designed array were not identified. With the exception of these large deletions, the reasons of failed breakpoint identification were not certain. It could be due to the complex structures of rearrangements, such as a deletion coupled with an inversion, or the insertion of the duplicated sequence in a nontandem site, which were difficult to amplify by the strategies shown in Figures 1C and 1F.

The results of the array CGH analyses and determination of breakpoints at the nucleotide level are shown in Tables S2A–S2G and are summarized in Table 1. It should be noted that the frequencies of rearrangements in *PARK2* and *DMD* observed in cancer cell lines were quite high (42 rearrangements in 125 cancer cell lines in *PARK2* and nine rearrangements in 125 cancer cell lines in *DMD*), supporting the instability of CFS-associated loci in cancer cell lines. Nucleotide positions of the breakpoints are defined

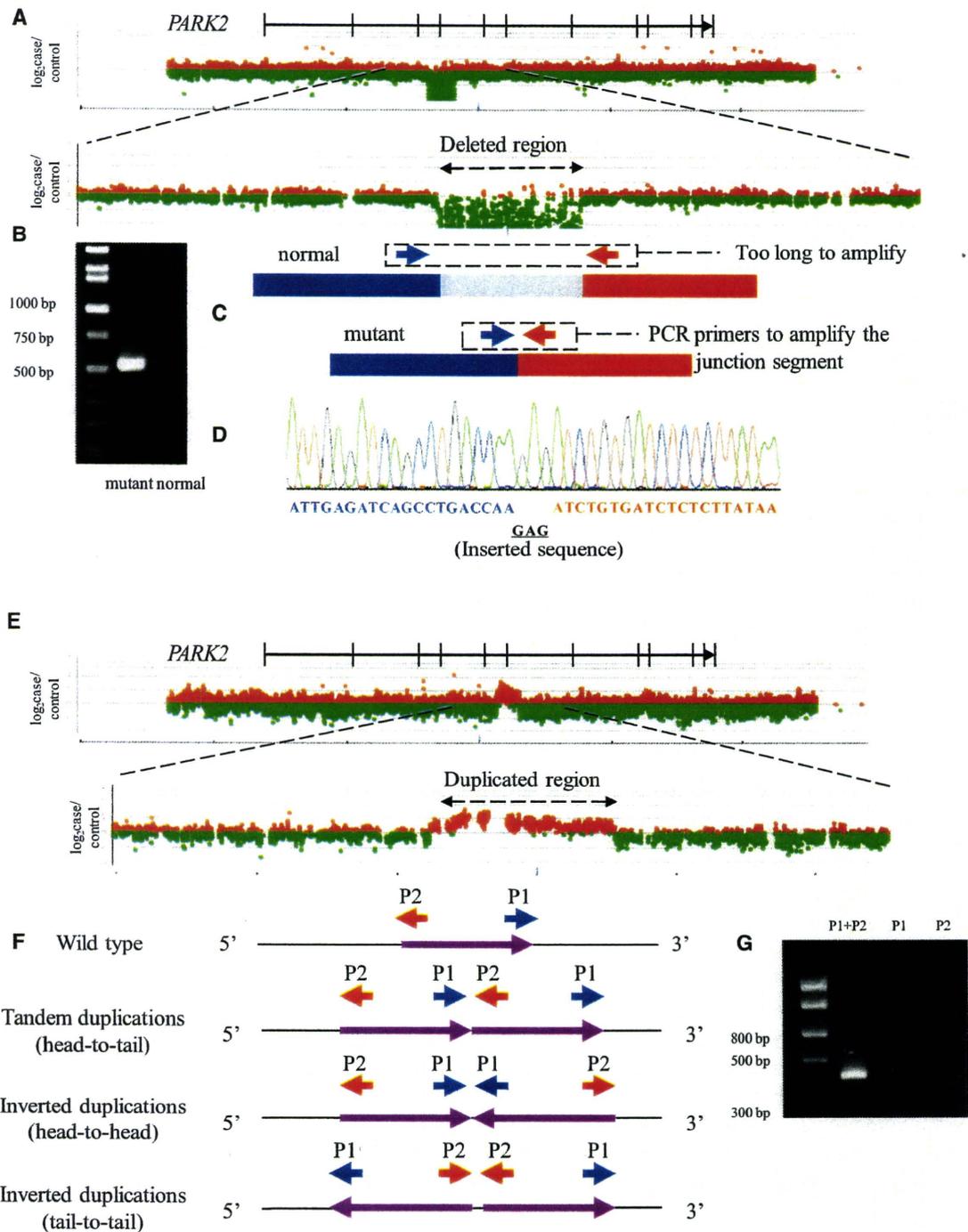


Figure 1. Determination of Breakpoint-Junction Sequences in *PARK2* by Custom-Designed High-Density Array CGH Analysis

(A) Scan data of array CGH analysis of a patient with AR-JP with 82 kb homozygous deletions (exon 4 of *PARK2*). The horizontal axis represents the nucleotide position. The vertical axis represents \log_2 (ratio of case to reference signal intensities on array CGH). Dots of \log_2 (ratio of case to reference signal intensities) larger than 0 are shown in red, and those smaller than 0 are shown in green. The physical map of *PARK2* is also shown above the scan data.

(B) Agarose gel electrophoresis of PCR products derived from the patient's genomic DNA obtained by employing primer pairs flanking the deletion. Amplifications did not occur in normal alleles because the segment between primers was too large (82 kb), while the band corresponding to the PCR products of 520 bp derived from the deletion allele was clearly visualized.

(C) Design of primer pairs for specific amplification of the deletion allele by PCR. A pair of oligonucleotide primers (denoted by red and blue arrows) was designed to amplify the segment across the breakpoint junction.

(D) Electropherogram of amplified segment encompassing breakpoint junctions. The nucleotide sequence corresponding to the segment upstream of the deletion is shown in blue, and the sequence corresponding to the segment downstream of the deletion is shown in red. The underlined inserted sequence not identical to either the upstream or the downstream segment is shown in black.

(E) Scan data of array CGH analysis of a patient with AR-JP with a homozygous duplication (exons 6 of *PARK2*) that turned out to be a tandem duplication. The horizontal axis represents the nucleotide position. The vertical axis represents \log_2 (ratio of case to reference

Table 1. Numbers of Rearrangements Determined by Array CGH Analyses and Those of Breakpoints Determined at Nucleotide Levels along with Numbers of Recurrently and Nonrecurrently Observed Breakpoints

Locus	Sample Sources	No. of Samples	Rearrangements Detected by Array CGH ^a			Breakpoints Determined at Nucleotide Level ^b								
						Total No. of Breakpoints Determined at Nucleotide Level			Recurrently Observed ^c			Not Recurrently Observed ^d		
			Total	Deletion	Duplication	Total	Deletion	Duplication	Total	Deletion	Duplication	Total	Deletion	Duplication
<i>PARK2</i>	Patients with AR-JP	206	273	248	25	252	235	17	22 [112]	20 [107]	2 [5]	140	128	12
	Cancer cell lines	125	42	39	3	41	39	2	4 [12]	3 [10]	1 [2]	28	28	0
<i>DMD</i>	Patients with DMD/BMD	208	211	175	36	197	167	30	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	197	167	30
	Cancer cell lines	125	9	8	1	6	6	0	0 [0]	0 [0]	0 [0]	6	6	0

^a Number of rearrangements demonstrated by array CGH.

^b Number of rearrangements determined at the nucleotide level.

^c Number of independent rearrangements observed in multiple cases. Number in bracket is the number of total recurrently observed rearrangements.

^d Number of independent rearrangements observed individually.

as shown in Figure S2. All the duplications of *PARK2* and *DMD* were tandem duplications, and inverted duplications were not found among the samples in this study. Deletions were more frequently observed than duplications. The ratios of deletions to duplications detected by the array CGH analyses were 9.9 in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP, 13.0 in *PARK2* in cancer cell lines, 4.9 in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD, and 8.0 in *DMD* in cancer cell lines.

Multiple Independent Rearrangements Had Frequently Occurred in *PARK2* and *DMD*

The results that 140 of the 252 breakpoints (55.6%) in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP were distinct (Table 1) indicated that recurrent mutations are less frequent than nonrecurrent mutations. This notion is further strengthened by the observation that all of the 192 breakpoints in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD are independent without any identical junctions. Taken altogether, this indicates that multiple independent rearrangements had frequently occurred in *PARK2* and *DMD*. Although the number of cases is limited, there were 22 recurrently observed breakpoints in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP, and the most frequently observed breakpoint (recurrently observed breakpoint no. 1) was present in 22 index patients from different ethnic populations (eight were

observed in Asians and 14 in Europeans), and the other 21 recurrently observed breakpoints were found only in a single ethnic population (Table 2). The signatures of the junction sequences are described later in detail.

Breakpoints Are Clustered in Specific Genomic Regions in Germ Cell Mutations

The histogram and cumulative-frequency distribution of the positions of breakpoints showed that the breakpoints were obviously clustered at specific genomic regions in *PARK2* and *DMD* in germ cell lines (Figures 2A and 2B). The breakpoint-clustering region in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP closely coincided with the previously reported region in FRA6E prone to DNA double-strand breaks, which has been referred as to the center of FRA6E (Figure 2D).⁵ Furthermore, the breakpoint-clustering region in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD was embedded in FRAXC (Figure 2D).⁷ These findings of breakpoint clustering in *PARK2* and *DMD* in germ cell lines were consistent with the previous studies that had identified deletion hotspots in exons 3 and 4 of *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP⁵ and in exons 45–52 of *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD (Figure 2).¹⁰ The breakpoint distributions in *PARK2* and *DMD* in cancer cell lines seemed to be more dispersed than those observed in germ cell lines. To assess differences

signal intensities on array CGH). Dots of log₂ (ratio of case to reference signal intensities) larger than 0 are shown in red, and those smaller than 0 are shown in green.

(F) Design of primer pairs for specific amplification of the duplicated allele by PCR based on head-to-tail, head-to-head, and tail-to-tail models. Oligonucleotide primers are denoted by red and blue arrows.

(G) Agarose gel electrophoresis of the PCR products derived from patient's genomic DNA obtained by employing primer pairs flanking duplicated segment. The PCR products are generated only when appropriate primers are used for amplification of rearranged genomic DNA segments.

Table 2. List of Recurrently Observed Breakpoints in *PARK2* in Patients with AR-JP

No.	No. of Index Patients	Hom.	Het.	Del. or Dup.	Origin	Upstream	Identical Sequence	Inserted Sequence	Downstream	Exon or Intron	Extended Homology
1	22	1	21	deletion	8 Asia and 14 Europe	162,506,819	GATTACAGGCA TGAGCCACC	-	162,503,759	intron 4	<i>Alu</i> (311 bp)/ <i>Alu</i> (307 bp)
2	19	9	10	deletion	Asia	162,567,759	-	GAG	162,486,065	exon 4	
3	9	2	7	deletion	Japan	162,857,698	TTC	-	162,494,729	exons 2–4	
4	8	1	7	deletion	Asia	162,660,297	-	TAAAACTG	162,658,014	intron 2	
5	7	5	2	deletion	Japan	162,333,460	A	-	162,126,458	exons 6–7	
6	6	4	2	deletion	Asia	162,612,866	-	CACAAATATC ACAAATATC	162,489,437	exons 3–4	
7	5	1	4	deletion	Japan	162,653,100	TATTT	-	162,510,558	exons 3–4	
8	3	0	3	deletion	Asia	162,189,426	TAAG	-	162,085,168	exon 7	
9	3	0	3	deletion	France	162,547,125	AGCAC	-	162,536,937	exon 4	
10	3	1	2	deletion	Asia	162,571,209	-	TATATAC	162,225,376	exons 4–6	
11	3	0	3	deletion	Japan	162,647,230	T	-	162,591,063	exon 3	
12	3	2	1	deletion	Japan	162,697,743	-	-	162,502,832	exons 3–4	
13	3	2	1	duplication	Japan	162,359,815	-	T	162,288,602	exon 6	
14	2	0	2	deletion	Vietnam	162,461,205	AAAAATA	-	162,365,391	exon 5	<i>Alu</i> (267 bp)/ <i>Alu</i> (302 bp)
15	2	0	2	deletion	Japan	162,543,628	-	T	162,519,459	exon 4	
16	2	1	1	deletion	Japan	162,561,255	CTTC	-	162,508,229	exon 4	
17	2	1	1	deletion	Europe	162,608,217	CT	-	162,548,381	exon 3	
18	2	1	1	deletion	Japan	162,615,492	AGG	-	162,555,347	exon 3	
19	2	0	2	deletion	Korea	162,623,148	-	AA	162,569,292	exon 3	
20	2	0	2	deletion	France	162,630,240	GAT	-	162,288,742	exons 3–6	
21	2	1	1	deletion	Japan	162,840,504	C	-	162,735,373	exon 2	
22	2	0	2	duplication	France	162,835,997	-	T	162,637,347	exon 2	

Abbreviations are as follows: Hom., homozygous; Het., heterozygous; Del., deletion; Dup., duplication.

and similarities of the breakpoint distributions between germ cell lines and cancer cell lines, statistical data including mean, median, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of breakpoint positions were calculated (Table 3). It was found that the differences in mean and/or median breakpoint positions between germ cell lines and cancer cell lines were relatively small (within 20–90 kb), with no significant differences detected via the Mann-Whitney U test. The differences in standard deviation of breakpoint positions in cancer cell lines were relatively larger than those in germ cell lines. The squared-ranks equality-of-variance test revealed that differences in variance across germ cell and cancer cell lines in *PARK2* was significant, whereas that in *DMD* was not significant, possibly due to the small sample size of somatic rearrangements in *DMD*. Taken together, the center of breakpoint distribution in *PARK2* and *DMD* may be similar in germ cell and cancer cell lines, but the variance of distribution may be larger in cancer cell lines than that in germ cell

lines. Possible explanations of the difference are that the sample selections for patients with AR-JP and with DMD/BMD biased the breakpoint distributions and that the cancer cell lines tended to generate larger rearrangements in these loci as a result of increased genomic instability.

The Database of Genomic Variants (accessed in March 2010)²⁹ included 48 and 6 copy-number variations (CNVs) (more than 1 kb in length) in the regions in *PARK2* (chromosome 6: 161,500,000–163,500,000) and in *DMD* (chromosome X: 31,000,000–33,500,000), respectively. The distributions of these breakpoints in *PARK2* showed similarities with those observed in patients with AR-JP (Figures 2B and 2C).

Junction-Sequence Signatures in Germ Cell and Somatic Cell Mutations

On the basis of the sequences flanking the breakpoints, the junction-sequence signatures were analyzed and then classified into three groups: (1) junctions with extended

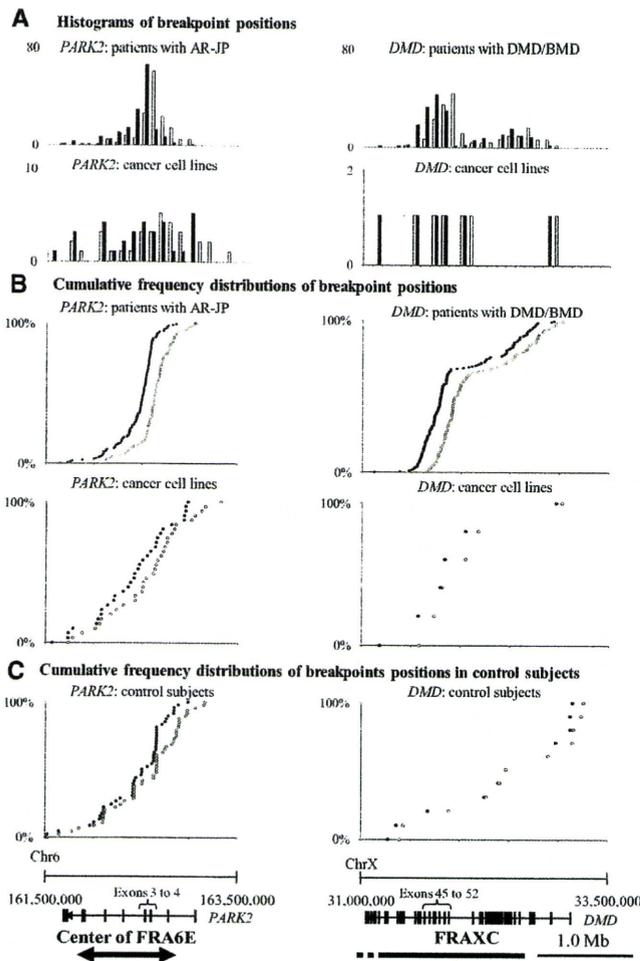


Figure 2. Histograms and Cumulative-Frequency Distributions of Breakpoint Positions

(A) Histograms of breakpoint positions in *PARK2* in AR-JP patients or cancer cell lines, and in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD or cancer cell lines. The horizontal axis represents nucleotide positions, and the vertical axis represents the number of breakpoints. The numbers of the positions of the upstream (toward the transcriptional initiation site) breakpoints are shown in white, and those of the downstream breakpoints are shown in black.

(B) Cumulative-frequency distributions of breakpoint positions in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP or cancer cell lines, and those in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD or cancer cell lines. The horizontal axis represents the nucleotide positions of breakpoints. The vertical axis represents cumulative frequencies of breakpoints. The upstream breakpoints are shown in white, and the downstream breakpoints are shown in black.

(C) Cumulative frequency distributions of breakpoint positions (*PARK2* and *DMD*) in control subjects obtained from the Database of Genomic Variants. Physical maps of *PARK2* and *DMD*, along with schematic representations of the center of FRA6E and FRAXC, are shown below.

homologies, (2) junctions with microhomologies, and (3) junctions without extended homologies or microhomologies (Table 4). An extended homology was detected via the FASTN program with an optimum score ≥ 300 by comparing the pairs of 200 bp nucleotide sequences encompassing the breakpoint junctions (100 bp upstream and 100 bp downstream). In this study, we refer to such

short stretches of identical sequences (≤ 8 bp) at breakpoint junctions as microhomologies.

Search for extended homologies revealed that seven of the 162 junctions (4.3%) in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP, one of the 32 junctions (3.1%) in *PARK2* in cancer cell lines (identical to one of the seven junctions observed in patients with AR-JP), two of the 197 junctions (1.0%) in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD, and none of the six junctions (0.0%) in *DMD* in cancer cell lines had junctions with extended homologies (Table 4), all of which were embedded in the same repetitive sequences: seven *Alu/Alu* sequences in *PARK2* (two were recurrently observed), and one *Alu/Alu* sequence and one L1/L1 sequence in *DMD*. Among these nine junctions with extended homologies, seven had identical sequences of 92 bp (L1P1 and L1P1), 28 bp (*AluJb* and *AluSx*), 20 bp (*AluSq/x* and *AluSg*), 18 bp (*AluSq/x* and *AluY*), 15 bp (*AluSc* and *AluSg/x*), 8 bp (*AluY* and *AluSg/x*), and 7 bp (*AluJb* and *AluSx*) flanking the junctions, resulting in formation of completely chimeric L1/L1 or *Alu/Alu* sequences. The remaining two formed partially chimeric *Alu/Alu* with inserted sequences of 7 bp (*AluSg/x* and *AluSg/x*) and 12 bp (*AluY* and *AluSq*) at their junctions (Figure S3). Intriguingly, the majority of the junctions were frequently associated with microhomologies (1–8 bp): 97 of the 162 junctions (59.9%) in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP, 19 of the 32 junctions (59.4%) in *PARK2* in cancer cell lines, 128 of the 197 junctions (65.0%) in patients with DMD/BMD in *DMD*, and three of the six junctions (50.0%) in *DMD* in cancer cell lines had microhomologies at junctions (Table 4). Note that frequencies of microhomologies were markedly similar between *PARK2* and *DMD* and also between germ cell lines and cancer cell lines. Regarding the junctions without extended homologies or microhomologies, it was revealed that 58 of the 162 junctions (35.8%) in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP, 12 of the 32 junctions (37.5%) in *PARK2* in cancer cell lines, 67 of the 197 junctions (34.0%) in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD, and three of the six junctions (50.0%) in *DMD* in cancer cell lines were without extended homologies or identical sequences (Table 4). Among these, 51 of the 162 junctions (31.5%) in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP, eight of the 32 junctions (25.0%) in *PARK2* in cancer cell lines, 51 of the 197 junctions (25.9%) in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD, and two of the six junctions (33.3%) in *DMD* in cancer cell lines had inserted sequences. We found that four junctions in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP, two junctions in *PARK2* in cancer cell lines, and two junctions in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD had inserted sequences of more than 19 bp, whose origins were searched by the BLAST program and SSEARCH programs. It was revealed that two inserted sequences in *PARK2* deletions in cancer cell lines and one inserted sequence in *DMD* deletion in patients with DMD/BMD originated from repetitive sequences (two *Alu* and one THE1B), which correspond to “67–112 bp of *Alu*,” “10–30 bp of *Alu*,” and “83–332 bp of THE1B” (Figure S4). The origins of the other inserted sequences remained undetermined.

Table 3. Distribution of Breakpoint Positions in Germ Cell Lines and in Cancer Cell Lines

Loci	Breakpoints	Samples	Number	Mean	Median	Mann-Whitney U test	Standard Deviation	Squared-Ranks Test	Skewness	Kurtosis
<i>PARK2</i>	upstream breakpoints	patients with AR-JP	162	162,632,436	162,648,608	p = 0.36	203,951	p < 0.0001	-1.21	4.01
		cancer cell lines	32	162,549,884	162,626,524					
	downstream breakpoints	patients with AR-JP	162	162,462,592	162,515,588	p = 0.53	210,775	p < 0.0001	-1.35	3.03
		cancer cell lines	32	162,405,816	162,440,014					
<i>DMD</i>	upstream breakpoints	patients with DMD/BMD	197	32,151,340	31,967,332	p = 0.49	405,283	p = 0.99	0.73	-0.93
		cancer cell lines	6	32,063,805	31,932,249					
	downstream breakpoints	patients with DMD/BMD	197	31,969,561	31,796,456	p = 0.78	402,560	p = 0.81	0.80	-0.71
		cancer cell lines	6	31,900,988	31,816,981					

Among the 22 recurrently observed breakpoints in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP (Table 2), two junctions (9.1%) had extended homologies. One (recurrently observed breakpoint no. 1) was the most frequent and was observed in multiple ethnicities. The other breakpoint (recurrently observed breakpoint no. 14) was found in two patients from Vietnam. These two breakpoints were embedded in

the same *Alu* sequences (approximately 300 bp in length), and chimeric *Alu/Alu* sequences were formed at the junctions (Figure S5). Among the 20 junctions without extended homologies, 11 junctions (50.0%) had microhomologies (1–5 bp) and nine junctions (40.9%) were without extended homologies or microhomologies, of which eight had inserted sequences (1–19 bp). Importantly, these

Table 4. Junction-Sequence Signatures

	<i>PARK2</i> (Germ Cell Lines)		<i>PARK2</i> (Cancer Cell Lines)		<i>DMD</i> (Germ Cell Lines)		<i>DMD</i> (Cancer Cell Lines)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Junctions with Extended Homologies								
Total	7	4.3%	1	3.1%	2	1.0%	0	0.0%
Junctions with Microhomologies (Identical Sequences ≤ 8 bp)								
≥ 9 bp identical sequences	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
8 bp identical sequences	1	0.6%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
7 bp identical sequences	1	0.6%	1	3.1%	1	0.5%	0	0.0%
6 bp identical sequences	1	0.6%	0	0.0%	4	2.0%	0	0.0%
5 bp identical sequences	8	4.9%	1	3.1%	6	3.0%	1	16.7%
4 bp identical sequences	9	5.6%	5	15.6%	14	7.1%	1	16.7%
3 bp identical sequences	23	14.2%	4	12.5%	33	16.8%	0	0.0%
2 bp identical sequences	26	16.0%	3	9.4%	30	15.2%	1	16.7%
1 bp identical sequences	28	17.3%	5	15.6%	40	20.3%	0	0.0%
Total	97	59.9%	19	59.4%	128	65.0%	3	50.0%
Junctions without Extended Homologies or Microhomologies								
Insertions of repetitive sequences	0	0.0%	2	6.3%	1	0.5%	0	0.0%
Insertions of sequences of undetermined origin	51	31.5%	8	25.0%	51	25.9%	2	33.3%
No insertions	7	4.3%	2	6.3%	15	7.6%	1	16.7%
Total	58	35.8%	12	37.5%	67	34.0%	3	50.0%

junction-sequence signatures are similar to those of not recurrently observed breakpoints, as described above.

Breakpoint-Clustering Regions Are Associated with Multiple Factors Affecting Replication Timing

The breakpoint-clustering region in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP coincided with the center of FRA6E, and the breakpoint-clustering region in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD was fully embedded in FRAXC (Figure 2), strongly suggesting that the clustering of the breakpoints is closely related to the mechanisms underlying fragility within the CFSs. Although the mechanisms underlying CFS breakage are still unclear, several factors that may contribute to instability at CFSs have been suggested, including late-replicating regions,^{13,14,30,31} high-flexibility peaks,^{32,33} regions rich in nuclear-matrix-attachment regions,^{32,34,35} and regions located at the interface of G and R bands.³⁶ On the basis of these reports, breakpoint-clustering regions in *PARK2* and *DMD* were analyzed for investigation of the association of these regions with sequence motifs, replication timing, flexibility peaks, nuclear-matrix-attachment regions, and R/G bands. In addition, because there has been a recent report suggesting that a deletion hotspot in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP is associated with a meiotic recombination hotspot,¹⁶ breakpoint-clustering regions in *PARK2* and *DMD* were also compared with the deCODE recombination maps.²⁸

We performed a systematic search for 40 different sequence motifs previously associated with DNA breakage using the DNA Pattern Find program to detect sequence motifs reportedly abundant at breakpoints.²³ For this search, nucleotide sequences of 200 bp surrounding breakpoints (referred to as a breakpoint region) and 5000 sequences of 200 bp (control sequences) randomly picked from the entire *PARK2* and *DMD* regions were used. Of the 40 sequence motifs, none were overrepresented in the breakpoint regions (Table S2). On the basis of a recent study of a replication-timing map of chromosome 6,²⁷ it was found that one of the latest-replication regions (S phase DNA to G₁ phase DNA ratios of less than 1.2) was chromosome 6: 161,884,878–162,579,873, which coincided with the breakpoint-clustering region in *PARK2* (Figure 3B). Because there were no reports of replication timing of chromosome X, we were unable to investigate the association of the breakpoint-clustering region in *DMD* with replication timing. For investigation of flexibility peaks, chromosome 6: 162,370,000–162,870,000 and chromosome X: 31,500,000–32,000,000, corresponding to the breakpoint-clustering regions in *PARK2* and *DMD*, respectively, and the neighboring regions (chromosome 6: 159,870,000–165,370,000 and chromosome X: 29,000,000–34,500,000) were analyzed in terms of AT content, average twist angle, and numbers of flexibility peaks, unified peaks, and cluster of peaks (Table S3). Although there were 25 flexibility peaks in the breakpoint-clustering regions in *PARK2* and 26 flexibility peaks in the breakpoint-clustering regions in *DMD*, both of

which were not overrepresented (50 peaks/Mb and 52 peaks/Mb) as compared with their neighboring region, there were regions with high AT content (AT repeats) near the breakpoint-clustering region (Figure 3C). Furthermore, the highest-flexibility peaks with a twist angle of more than 15.5 evidently flanked the breakpoint-clustering region (Figure 3D). On the high-resolution map of the LADs,²⁶ it was revealed that *PARK2* and *DMD* were embedded in large LADs (chromosome 6:161,789,694–163,646,839 and chromosome X: 31,589,326–34,513,733) (Figure 3E). This prompted us to investigate the relationships of LADs with other CFS genes, including *FHIT*, *WWOX*, *GRID2*, *LARGE*, *CTNNA3*, *NBEA*, and *CNTNAP2*. Intriguingly, all the CFS genes were embedded in large LADs spanning several Mb (approximately 1.7–4.7 Mb). Representative CFS genes are shown in Figure S6. The intron 55 of *DMD* spans the boundary of the chromosomal R/G band: Xp21.2 (G band) to Xp21.1 (R band).²⁵ The breakpoint-clustering region in *DMD* was flanked by the boundary of the R/G band and was exclusively in the R band, whose AT content was relatively high. In contrast, there were neither obvious boundaries of the R/G band nor significant changes in AT content within *PARK2* (Figure 3F). With the use of the deCODE map, the meiotic recombination rate of the breakpoint-clustering regions in *PARK2* (D6S955 to D6S1599) was found to be high (5.0 cM/Mb), as previously reported.¹⁶ The recombination rate of the region covering the breakpoint-clustering regions in *DMD* (DXS1214 to DXS1219) was also higher (2.80 cM/Mb) than the average recombination rate along chromosome X (1.14 cM/Mb), but was similar to those of other regions in *DMD* (Figure 3G).

Discussion

We have shown that a locus-specific high-density array CGH analysis system is highly efficient for beginning to localize the exact breakpoints in genomic DNAs in germ cell lines as well as in cancer cell lines. Utilizing this system has enabled us to acquire data on approximately 500 breakpoint junctions involving *PARK2* and *DMD* and to investigate the various breakpoint-sequence features. This study is applied to identifying such a large number of rearrangements at the nucleotide level. The high frequencies of somatic rearrangements observed in cancer cell lines (42 rearrangements in 125 cancer cell lines in *PARK2* and nine rearrangements in 125 cancer cell lines in *DMD*) and the various independent rearrangements for germ cell line rearrangements (140 of the 252 rearrangements in *PARK2* and 197 of the 197 rearrangements in *DMD*) demonstrated how vulnerable these regions are for rearrangements. The difference in the frequency of somatic rearrangements between *PARK2* and *DMD* may be consistent with the relative instability within these two loci: *PARK* is within one of the most active CFSs,³⁷ whereas *DMD* is in a very low-expressing CFS.⁷

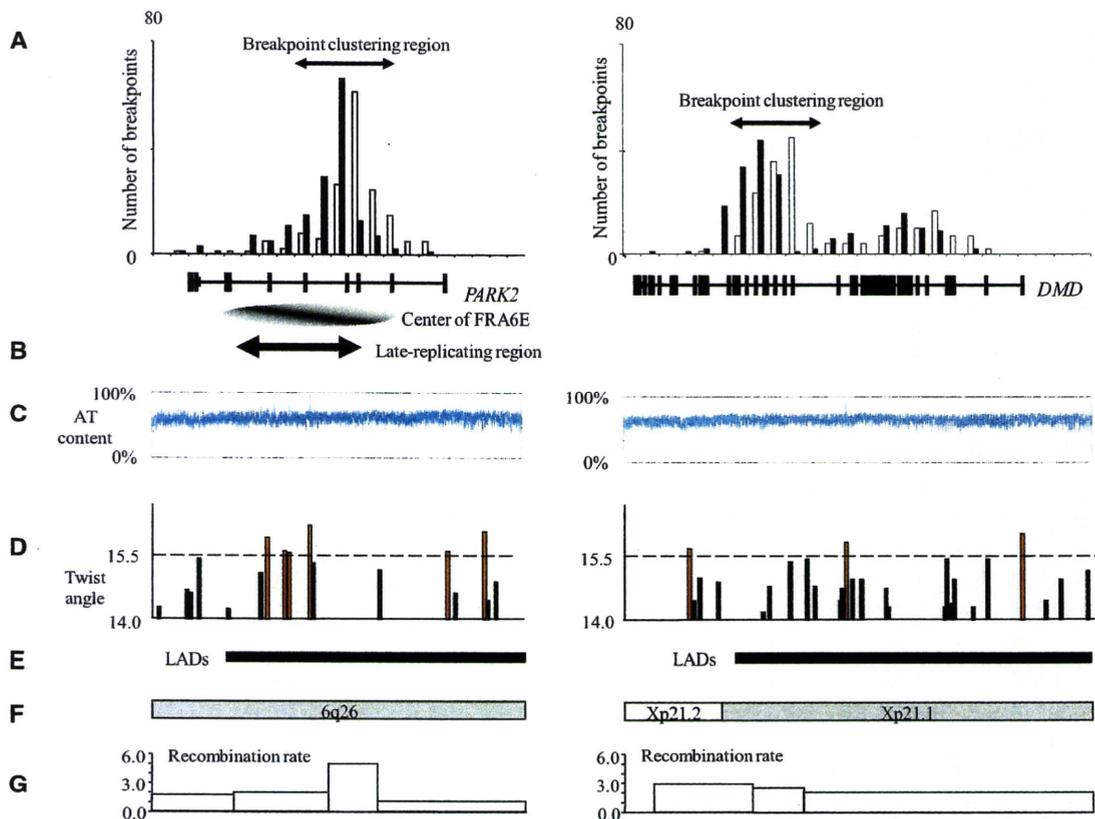


Figure 3. Association of Breakpoint-Clustering Regions in *PARK2* and *DMD* with Replication Timing, Flexibility Peak, R/G Band, and AT Content

(A) Histograms of positional distributions of breakpoints in *PARK2* and *DMD* in germ cell lines. Breakpoint-clustering regions are the regions with high frequencies (70%–78%) shown by arrows. The physical positions of *PARK2*, *DMD*, and the center of FRA6E are shown below.

(B) Late-replicating regions,²⁷ defined as S to G₁ DNA ratios of 1.1–1.2.

(C) Distributions of AT content (calculated with an average span of 500 bp and an average step of 100 bp).

(D) Distributions of flexibility peaks of more than 13.7° in twist angle and more than 100 bp in length. Red bars are the highest peaks whose twist angles exceed 15.5.

(E) Physical positions of LADs in *PARK2* and *DMD*.²⁶

(F) Chromosomal R and G bands are indicated by open and shaded boxes, respectively.

(G) Recombination rates based on the deCODE map.²⁸

Microhomologies Are Predominantly Involved in Rearrangement Processes at CFSs in Germ Cell and Somatic Cell Mutations

The present study demonstrated that microhomologies were notably frequent (59.9% in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP, 59.4% in *PARK2* in cancer cell lines, 65.0% in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD, and 50.0% in *DMD* in cancer cell lines) at the junctions, strongly raising the possibility that the rearrangements are predominantly generated by mechanisms mediated by microhomologies (Table 4, Figures 4Aa and 4Ab). Note that there are similarly high frequencies of microhomologies in *PARK2* rearrangements in germ cell and cancer cell lines, which further supports the notion that a common mechanism underlies the generations of rearrangements in germ cell and cancer cell lines. Consistent with our findings, microhomologies at junctions have recently been observed in the rearrangements of human culture cells experimentally induced by aphidicolin, a model of CFS.³⁸ Taken together, the present

findings strongly support the concept that the mechanisms mediated by microhomologies play a major role in rearrangement processes within CFSs (Figure 4A). In contrast, rearrangements that can be explained by the homology-dependent nonallelic homologous recombination (NAHR) are relatively rare, because there is only a limited number of rearrangements (4.3% in *PARK2* in patients with AR-JP, 3.1% in *PARK2* in cancer cell lines, 1.0% in *DMD* in patients with DMD/BMD, 0.0% in *DMD* in cancer cell lines) whose junctions show extended homologies (repetitive sequences) (Table 4, Figures 4Aa and 4Ac). Considering the observation that multiple independent rearrangements had frequently occurred in *PARK2* and *DMD*, it is in a striking contrast to other common genomic disorders, such as Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease type 1A³⁹ or Smith-Magenis syndrome,⁴⁰ whose recurrent mutations are characterized by homologous recombination and unequal crossing over between the flanking repeat elements.

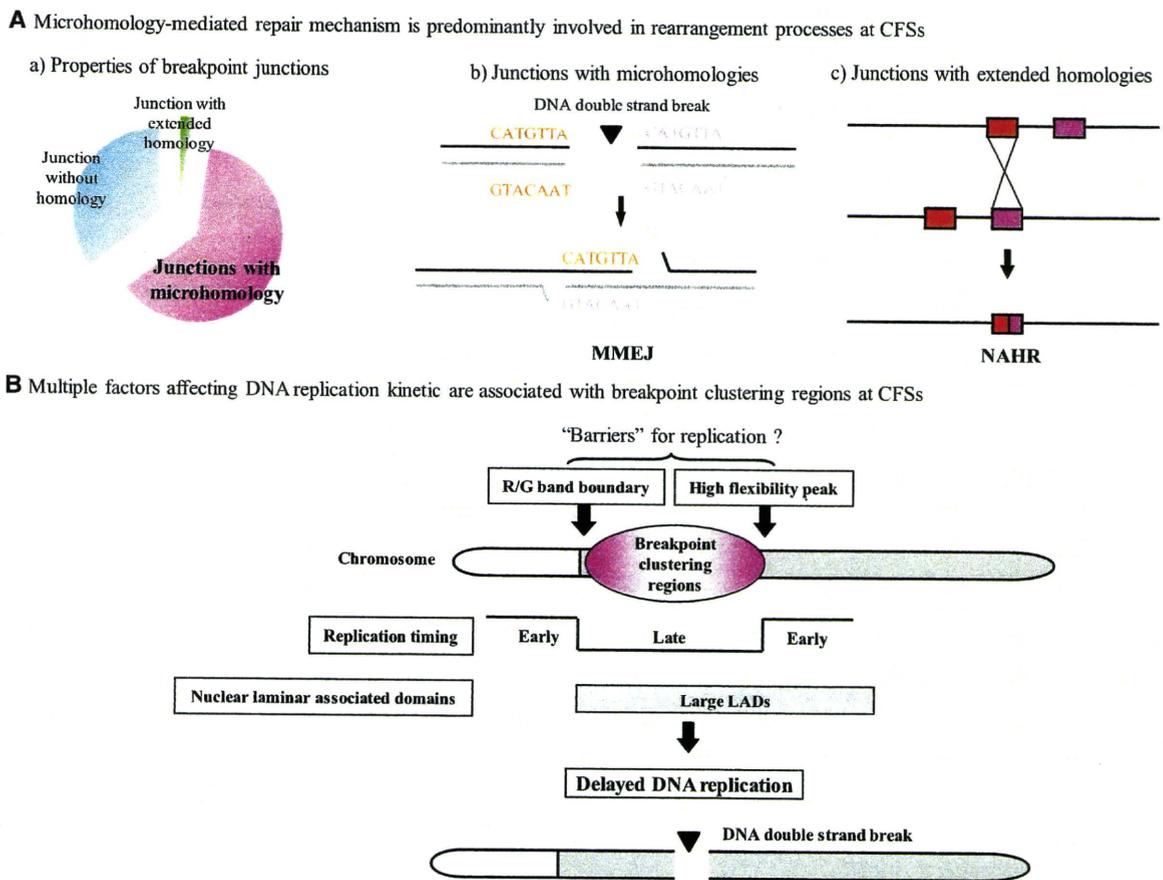


Figure 4. Schematic Representations of Mechanisms Underlying CFSs

(A) The microhomology-mediated mechanism is predominantly involved in rearrangement processes at CFSs. (a) Detailed analysis of the nucleotide-sequence content flanking the breakpoints demonstrated that junctions with microhomologies (pink) are predominantly observed, compared with junctions without any homology (sky blue). Junctions with extended homologies (green) underlying NAHR are infrequent. (b) Schematic representation of MMEJ. (c) Schematic representation of NAHR.

(B) Multiple factors affecting DNA-replication kinetics collectively contribute to fragility as a common molecular basis. The breakpoint-clustering region at CFSs is flanked by the high-flexibility peaks and the R/G band boundaries. The breakpoint-clustering region coincides with the late-replicating region and is embedded in large LADs.

Various mechanisms of rearrangement processes that can result in microhomologies at junctions have been proposed, which include nonhomologous end joining (NHEJ), microhomology-mediated end joining (MMEJ), microhomology-mediated break-induced replication (MMBIR), and/or fork stalling and template switching (FoSTeS). In eukaryotes, NHEJ is the major repair pathway of DNA double-strand breaks, which functions by ligating the two ends together.⁴¹ It has the potential to ligate any type of double-strand break end without the requirement for an extended homology. Even when starting with two identical DNA ends, NHEJ is a highly flexible process accounting for the diverse breakpoint junctions, with some ends showing short microhomologies (usually 1–4 bp) and some ends showing inserted sequences without microhomologies.⁴¹ In addition, it was shown that replication stress leads to the focus formation of key components of the NHEJ pathway (Rad51 and DNA-PKcs) colocalized with markers of DNA double-strand breaks (MDC1 and gamma H2AX), and the downregulation of the component of the NHEJ pathway (Rad 51,

DNA-PKcs, or DNA ligase 4) leads to a significant increase in gaps and breaks at CFSs.⁴²

MMEJ is another distinctive pathway of end-joining repair, which requires microhomologies of terminal ends, in contrast to NHEJ. High frequencies of microhomologies at junctions (60%–65%) observed in this study would favor the involvement of MMEJ at CFSs. Recently, the MMBIR and/or FoSTeS model with emphasis on replication fork collapse and/or stalling has also been proposed to explain the origin of rearrangements on the basis of the findings of complex rearrangements and junction sequences showing microhomologies of 2–5 bp.⁴³ Because delayed replication at CFSs has been implicated to underlie the rearrangements involving CFSs, MMBIR/FoSTeS deserves serious consideration as a possible mechanism underlying the rearrangements at CFSs. Actually, we observed a case of complex rearrangements in *DMD* comprising short tandem multiplications followed by large deletions (Figure 5), which strongly supports the involvement of multiple MMBIR/FoSTeS events, at least in this case. For other cases, however, it is difficult to deduce, on

Complex rearrangement in *DMD* considered to be generated by MMBIR/FoSteS

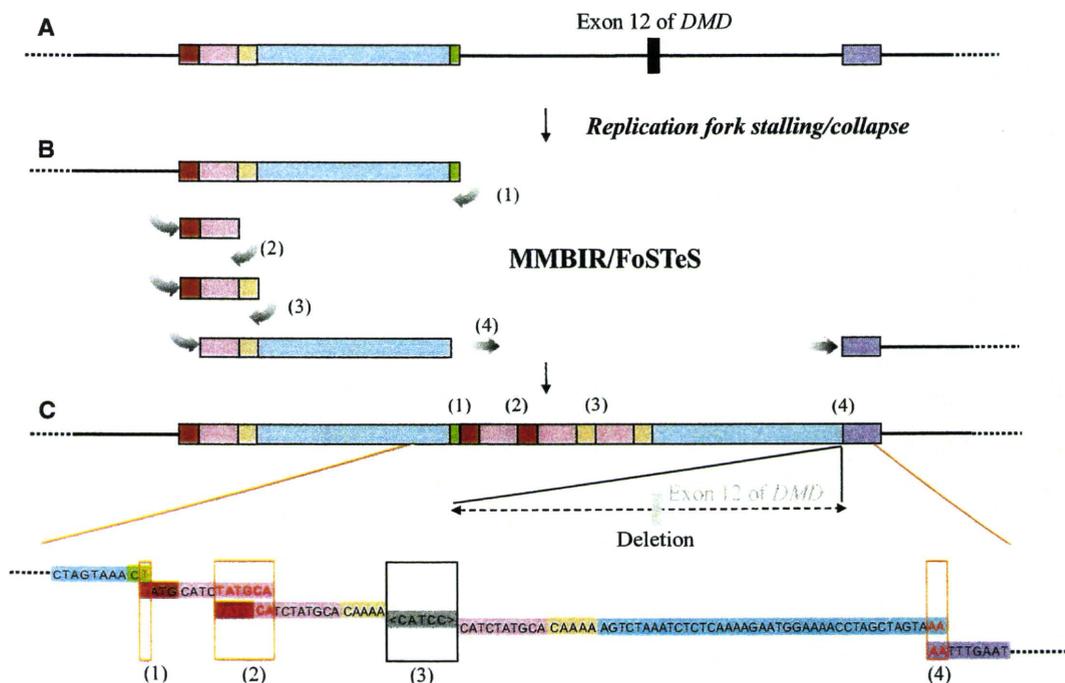


Figure 5. Complex Rearrangements in *DMD* Considered to be Generated by MMBIR/FoSteS Observed in One Patient with *DMD* An example of complex rearrangements in *DMD* with microhomology junctions leading to the deletion of approximately 5.7 kb, including exon 12 of *DMD*, is shown.

(A) A map of a part of *DMD*. The colored boxes represent blocks of sequences.

(B) A hypothetical series of four template switches leading to rearrangements, indicated by gray curved arrows and numbers; a gray curved arrow indicates resumption of replication on the original template. Numbers corresponding to the sequences are shown in (C). (C) Rearranged chromosomal region, in which tandem multiplications connect the green sequence to the brown sequence (1), the pink sequence to the brown sequence (2), and the tan sequence to the pink sequence (3), followed by gross deletion between the sky blue sequence and the purple sequence (4). The nucleotide sequences of the colored segments correspond to the colored boxes in (A), (B), and (C). The red boxes indicate the sequences of microhomologies. The gray box represents the inserted sequence of a junction. (1) The junction between the green and the brown sequences shows a 1 bp microhomology. (2) The junction between the pink and the brown sequences shows a 6 bp microhomology. (3) The junction between the tan and the pink sequences shows a 5 bp inserted sequence without microhomology. (4) The junction between the sky blue and the purple sequences shows a 2 bp microhomology. The sizes of the brown, pink, tan, sky blue, and green fragments are 4, 10, 5, 41, and 2 bp, respectively, including the microhomology sequences at both ends.

the basis of breakpoint sequences, whether a replication-based repair mechanism (MMBIR/FoSteS) is commonly involved in the generation of rearrangements.

Associations of Breakpoint-Clustering Regions in CFSs with DNA Replication Kinetics

In this study, we found that regions where breakpoints clustered within CFSs coincided with latest-replicating regions and demonstrated that the highest-flexibility peaks and R/G band boundary flanked a breakpoint-clustering region (Figure 3). The highest-flexibility peaks⁴⁴ and R/G band boundary⁴⁵ are considered to affect replication timing. Interestingly, we observed that *PARK2* and *DMD* are embedded in large LADs and furthermore found the colocalizations of other CFS genes, including *FHIT*, *WWOX*, *GRID2*, *LARGE*, *CTNNA3*, *NBEA*, and *CNTNAP2*, with large LADs (Figure 3E and Figure S6). It was reported that 1344 LADs are aligned on the human genome, comprising approximately 40% of the entire human genome.²⁶ In

higher eukaryotic cells, DNA is organized into loops attached to the nuclear matrix. Each loop represents one individual replicon, with the ends of the replicon attached to the nuclear matrix at the bases of the loop. Upon completion of replication of any replicon, the resulting entangled loops of the newly synthesized DNA are resolved by topoisomerase II present in the nuclear matrix, which generate double-strand breaks with the potential risk leading to vulnerability for rearrangements.⁴⁶ Because LADs comprise approximately 40% of the human genome, as described above, association of CFSs with large LADs does not directly explain the rearrangement clustering of CFSs. Further cytogenetic investigations should be conducted to explore whether LADs are associated with intrinsic replication difficulties in CFSs. It has been shown that recombination rates are relatively high in the regions covering the breakpoint-clustering regions, which may indicate a possibility that genomic instabilities also contribute to meiotic recombination (Figure 3G). In summary, our findings

suggest that multiple factors affecting DNA-replication timing collectively contribute to the vulnerability for rearrangements, which include high-flexibility peaks, R/G band boundary, and large LADs (Figure 4B). These factors cause substantial difficulties in replication machineries, and CFSs represent unreplicated regions of the genome that have escaped the replication checkpoints and are visible as gaps and breaks on metaphase chromosomes.

Involvement of CFSs with Rearrangements in Germlines Leading to Human Diseases

To date, several lines of evidence have demonstrated that somatic rearrangements that occur within CFSs are associated with cancer development,^{47,48} but CFSs have rarely drawn attention as genomic structures associated with germline rearrangements. This study provides evidence that chromosomal instability associated with CFSs plays an important role in gross deletions and duplications in germ cell lines leading to human diseases. Recently, numerous CNVs in the human genome have been identified in control subjects via various platforms, including array CGH, SNP genotyping, and next-generation sequencing.^{49–52} Because sample-selection bias inevitably affects the distributions of germline rearrangements, unbiased knowledge about CNVs distributions will also be needed to explore whether the common mechanism can underlie CFSs. Such investigations will certainly be essential for better understanding the molecular basis of CFSs and human diseases associated with instabilities in the human genome.

Supplemental Data

Supplemental data include six figures and ten tables and can be found with this article online at <http://www.cell.com/AJHG>.

Acknowledgments

We thank the French Parkinson's Disease Genetics Study Group (PDG) and the DNA and cell bank of the CRicm for sample collection and preparation. This work was supported in part by KAKENHI (Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research) on Priority Areas, Applied Genomics, the 21st Century COE Program, Integrated Database Project, Center for Integrated Brain Medical Science, and Scientific Research (A) from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan.

Received: March 23, 2010

Revised: May 5, 2010

Accepted: June 13, 2010

Published online: July 1, 2010

Web Resources

The URLs for data presented herein are as follows:

BLAST program, <http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>

Database of Genomic Variants, <http://projects.tcag.ca/variation>

DNA Pattern Find, <http://www.bioinformatics.org/SMS/index.html>

Leiden Muscular Dystrophy, <http://www.dmd.nl>

NCBI Database of Genomic Structural Variation (dbVAR), <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/dbvar>

Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM), <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Omim/>

Parkinson disease mutation database, <https://reseq.lifesciencedb.jp/resequence/SearchDisease.do?targetId=2>

RepeatMasker program, <http://www.repeatmasker.org/>

SSEARCH program, <http://www-btlns.jst.go.jp/cgi-bin/Tools/SSEARCH/index.cgi>

TwistFlex program, <http://margalit.huji.ac.il/TwistFlex/>

University of California Santa Cruz (UCSC) Genome Browser, <http://www.genome.ucsc.edu/>

Accession Numbers

The NCBI Database of Genomic Structural Variation (dbVAR) accession number for the breakpoint positions reported in this paper is nstd36.

References

1. Durkin, S.G., Ragland, R.L., Arlt, M.F., Mulle, J.G., Warren, S.T., and Glover, T.W. (2008). Replication stress induces tumor-like microdeletions in FHIT/FRA3B. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* *105*, 246–251.
2. Smith, D.I., McAvoy, S., Zhu, Y., and Perez, D.S. (2007). Large common fragile site genes and cancer. *Semin. Cancer Biol.* *17*, 31–41.
3. Kitada, T., Asakawa, S., Hattori, N., Matsumine, H., Yamamura, Y., Minoshima, S., Yokochi, M., Mizuno, Y., and Shimizu, N. (1998). Mutations in the parkin gene cause autosomal recessive juvenile parkinsonism. *Nature* *392*, 605–608.
4. Periquet, M., Lücking, C., Vaughan, J., Bonifati, V., Dürr, A., De Michele, G., Horstink, M., Farrer, M., Illarionov, S.N., Pollak, P., et al; French Parkinson's Disease Genetics Study Group. The European Consortium on Genetic Susceptibility in Parkinson's Disease. (2001). Origin of the mutations in the parkin gene in Europe: exon rearrangements are independent recurrent events, whereas point mutations may result from Founder effects. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* *68*, 617–626.
5. Hedrich, K., Eskelson, C., Wilmot, B., Marder, K., Harris, J., Garrels, J., Meija-Santana, H., Vieregge, P., Jacobs, H., Bressman, S.B., et al. (2004). Distribution, type, and origin of Parkin mutations: review and case studies. *Mov. Disord.* *19*, 1146–1157.
6. Veeriah, S., Taylor, B.S., Meng, S., Fang, F., Yilmaz, E., Vivanco, I., Janakiraman, M., Schultz, N., Hanrahan, A.J., Pao, W., et al. (2009). Somatic mutations of the Parkinson's disease-associated gene PARK2 in glioblastoma and other human malignancies. *Nat. Genet.* *42*, 77–82.
7. McAvoy, S., Ganapathiraju, S., Perez, D.S., James, C.D., and Smith, D.I. (2007). DMD and IL1RAPL1: two large adjacent genes localized within a common fragile site (FRAXC) have reduced expression in cultured brain tumors. *Cytogenet. Genome Res.* *119*, 196–203.
8. Koenig, M., Monaco, A.P., and Kunkel, L.M. (1988). The complete sequence of dystrophin predicts a rod-shaped cytoskeletal protein. *Cell* *53*, 219–228.

9. Nancarrow, D.J., Handoko, H.Y., Smithers, B.M., Gotley, D.C., Drew, P.A., Watson, D.I., Clouston, A.D., Hayward, N.K., and Whiteman, D.C. (2008). Genome-wide copy number analysis in esophageal adenocarcinoma using high-density single-nucleotide polymorphism arrays. *Cancer Res.* **68**, 4163–4172.
10. White, S.J., and den Dunnen, J.T. (2006). Copy number variation in the genome; the human DMD gene as an example. *Cytogenet. Genome Res.* **115**, 240–246.
11. Casper, A.M., Nghiem, P., Arlt, M.F., and Glover, T.W. (2002). ATR regulates fragile site stability. *Cell* **111**, 779–789.
12. Wang, L., Darling, J., Zhang, J.S., Huang, H., Liu, W., and Smith, D.I. (1999). Allele-specific late replication and fragility of the most active common fragile site, FRA3B. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **8**, 431–437.
13. Le Beau, M.M., Rassool, F.V., Neilly, M.E., Espinosa, R., 3rd, Glover, T.W., Smith, D.I., and McKeithan, T.W. (1998). Replication of a common fragile site, FRA3B, occurs late in S phase and is delayed further upon induction: implications for the mechanism of fragile site induction. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **7**, 755–761.
14. Hellman, A., Rahat, A., Scherer, S.W., Darvasi, A., Tsui, L.C., and Kerem, B. (2000). Replication delay along FRA7H, a common fragile site on human chromosome 7, leads to chromosomal instability. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **20**, 4420–4427.
15. Clarimon, J., Johnson, J., Dogu, O., Horta, W., Khan, N., Lees, A.J., Hardy, J., and Singleton, A. (2005). Defining the ends of Parkin exon 4 deletions in two different families with Parkinson's disease. *Am. J. Med. Genet. B. Neuropsychiatr. Genet.* **133B**, 120–123.
16. Asakawa, S., Hattori, N., Shimizu, A., Shimizu, Y., Minoshima, S., Mizuno, Y., and Shimizu, N. (2009). Analysis of eighteen deletion breakpoints in the parkin gene. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* **389**, 181–186.
17. Sironi, M., Pozzoli, U., Cagliani, R., Giorda, R., Comi, G.P., Bardoni, A., Menozzi, G., and Bresolin, N. (2003). Relevance of sequence and structure elements for deletion events in the dystrophin gene major hot-spot. *Hum. Genet.* **112**, 272–288.
18. Nobile, C., Toffolatti, L., Rizzi, F., Simionati, B., Nigro, V., Cardazzo, B., Patarnello, T., Valle, G., and Danieli, G.A. (2002). Analysis of 22 deletion breakpoints in dystrophin intron 49. *Hum. Genet.* **110**, 418–421.
19. Toffolatti, L., Cardazzo, B., Nobile, C., Danieli, G.A., Gualandi, F., Muntoni, F., Abbs, S., Zanetti, P., Angelini, C., Ferlini, A., et al. (2002). Investigating the mechanism of chromosomal deletion: characterization of 39 deletion breakpoints in introns 47 and 48 of the human dystrophin gene. *Genomics* **80**, 523–530.
20. Rawal, N., Periquet, M., Lohmann, E., Lücking, C.B., Teive, H.A., Ambrosio, G., Raskin, S., Lincoln, S., Hattori, N., Guimaraes, J., et al; French Parkinson's Disease Genetics Study Group; European Consortium on Genetic Susceptibility in Parkinson's Disease. (2003). New parkin mutations and atypical phenotypes in families with autosomal recessive parkinsonism. *Neurology* **60**, 1378–1381.
21. Lohmann, E., Thobois, S., Lesage, S., Broussolle, E., du Montcel, S.T., Ribeiro, M.J., Remy, P., Pelissolo, A., Dubois, B., Mallet, L., et al; French Parkinson's Disease Genetics Study Group. (2009). A multidisciplinary study of patients with early-onset PD with and without parkin mutations. *Neurology* **72**, 110–116.
22. Barrett, M.T., Scheffer, A., Ben-Dor, A., Sampas, N., Lipson, D., Kincaid, R., Tsang, P., Curry, B., Baird, K., Meltzer, P.S., et al. (2004). Comparative genomic hybridization using oligonucleotide microarrays and total genomic DNA. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **101**, 17765–17770.
23. Abeyesinghe, S.S., Chuzhanova, N., Krawczak, M., Ball, E.V., and Cooper, D.N. (2003). Translocation and gross deletion breakpoints in human inherited disease and cancer I: Nucleotide composition and recombination-associated motifs. *Hum. Mutat.* **22**, 229–244.
24. Sarai, A., Mazur, J., Nussinov, R., and Jernigan, R.L. (1989). Sequence dependence of DNA conformational flexibility. *Biochemistry* **28**, 7842–7849.
25. Furey, T.S., and Haussler, D. (2003). Integration of the cytogenetic map with the draft human genome sequence. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **12**, 1037–1044.
26. Guelen, L., Pagie, L., Brasset, E., Meuleman, W., Faza, M.B., Talhout, W., Eussen, B.H., de Klein, A., Wessels, L., de Laat, W., and van Steensel, B. (2008). Domain organization of human chromosomes revealed by mapping of nuclear lamina interactions. *Nature* **453**, 948–951.
27. Woodfine, K., Beare, D.M., Ichimura, K., Debernardi, S., Mungall, A.J., Fiegler, H., Collins, V.P., Carter, N.P., and Dunham, I. (2005). Replication timing of human chromosome 6. *Cell Cycle* **4**, 172–176.
28. Kong, A., Gudbjartsson, D.F., Sainz, J., Jonsson, G.M., Gudjonsson, S.A., Richardsson, B., Sigurdardottir, S., Barnard, J., Hallbeck, B., Masson, G., et al. (2002). A high-resolution recombination map of the human genome. *Nat. Genet.* **31**, 241–247.
29. Iafrate, A.J., Feuk, L., Rivera, M.N., Listewnik, M.L., Donahoe, P.K., Qi, Y., Scherer, S.W., and Lee, C. (2004). Detection of large-scale variation in the human genome. *Nat. Genet.* **36**, 949–951.
30. Hansen, R.S., Canfield, T.K., Fjeld, A.D., Mumm, S., Laird, C.D., and Gartler, S.M. (1997). A variable domain of delayed replication in FRAXA fragile X chromosomes: X inactivation-like spread of late replication. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **94**, 4587–4592.
31. Handt, O., Baker, E., Dayan, S., Gartler, S.M., Woollatt, E., Richards, R.I., and Hansen, R.S. (2000). Analysis of replication timing at the FRA10B and FRA16B fragile site loci. *Chromosome Res.* **8**, 677–688.
32. Mishmar, D., Rahat, A., Scherer, S.W., Nyakatura, G., Hinzmann, B., Kohwi, Y., Mandel-Gutfroind, Y., Lee, J.R., Drescher, B., Sas, D.E., et al. (1998). Molecular characterization of a common fragile site (FRA7H) on human chromosome 7 by the cloning of a simian virus 40 integration site. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **95**, 8141–8146.
33. Zlotorynski, E., Rahat, A., Skaug, J., Ben-Porat, N., Ozeri, E., Hershberg, R., Levi, A., Scherer, S.W., Margalit, H., and Kerem, B. (2003). Molecular basis for expression of common and rare fragile sites. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **23**, 7143–7151.
34. Wang, L., Paradee, W., Mullins, C., Shridhar, R., Rosati, R., Wilke, C.M., Glover, T.W., and Smith, D.I. (1997). Aphidicolin-induced FRA3B breakpoints cluster in two distinct regions. *Genomics* **41**, 485–488.
35. Morelli, C., Karayianni, E., Magnanini, C., Mungall, A.J., Thorland, E., Negri, M., Smith, D.I., and Barbanti-Brodano, G. (2002). Cloning and characterization of the common fragile site FRA6F harboring a replicative senescence gene and frequently deleted in human tumors. *Oncogene* **21**, 7266–7276.

36. El Achkar, E., Gerbault-Seureau, M., Muleris, M., Dutrillaux, B., and Debatisse, M. (2005). Premature condensation induces breaks at the interface of early and late replicating chromosome bands bearing common fragile sites. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* *102*, 18069–18074.
37. Denison, S.R., Callahan, G., Becker, N.A., Phillips, L.A., and Smith, D.I. (2003). Characterization of FRA6E and its potential role in autosomal recessive juvenile parkinsonism and ovarian cancer. *Genes Chromosomes Cancer* *38*, 40–52.
38. Arlt, M.F., Mulle, J.G., Schaibley, V.M., Ragland, R.L., Durkin, S.G., Warren, S.T., and Glover, T.W. (2009). Replication stress induces genome-wide copy number changes in human cells that resemble polymorphic and pathogenic variants. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* *84*, 339–350.
39. Lupski, J.R. (1998). Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease: lessons in genetic mechanisms. *Mol. Med.* *4*, 3–11.
40. Chen, K.S., Manian, P., Koeth, T., Potocki, L., Zhao, Q., Chinault, A.C., Lee, C.C., and Lupski, J.R. (1997). Homologous recombination of a flanking repeat gene cluster is a mechanism for a common contiguous gene deletion syndrome. *Nat. Genet.* *17*, 154–163.
41. Lieber, M.R. (2008). The mechanism of human nonhomologous DNA end joining. *J. Biol. Chem.* *283*, 1–5.
42. Schwartz, M., Zlotorynski, E., Goldberg, M., Ozeri, E., Rahat, A., le Sage, C., Chen, B.P., Chen, D.J., Agami, R., and Kerem, B. (2005). Homologous recombination and nonhomologous end-joining repair pathways regulate fragile site stability. *Genes Dev.* *19*, 2715–2726.
43. Zhang, F., Khajavi, M., Connolly, A.M., Towne, C.F., Batish, S.D., and Lupski, J.R. (2009). The DNA replication FoSTeS/MMBIR mechanism can generate genomic, genic and exonic complex rearrangements in humans. *Nat. Genet.* *41*, 849–853.
44. Lukusa, T., and Fryns, J.P. (2008). Human chromosome fragility. *Biochim Biophys Acta.* *1779*, 3–16.
45. Takebayashi, S., Sugimura, K., Saito, T., Sato, C., Fukushima, Y., Taguchi, H., and Okumura, K. (2005). Regulation of replication at the R/G chromosomal band boundary and pericentromeric heterochromatin of mammalian cells. *Exp. Cell Res.* *304*, 162–174.
46. Anachkova, B., Djeliova, V., and Russev, G. (2005). Nuclear matrix support of DNA replication. *J. Cell. Biochem.* *96*, 951–961.
47. Sutherland, G.R., and Baker, E. (2000). The clinical significance of fragile sites on human chromosomes. *Clin. Genet.* *58*, 157–161.
48. Smith, D.I., Huang, H., and Wang, L. (1998). Common fragile sites and cancer (review). *Int. J. Oncol.* *12*, 187–196.
49. Redon, R., Ishikawa, S., Fitch, K.R., Feuk, L., Perry, G.H., Andrews, T.D., Fiegler, H., Shapero, M.H., Carson, A.R., Chen, W., et al. (2006). Global variation in copy number in the human genome. *Nature* *444*, 444–454.
50. Korbelt, J.O., Urban, A.E., Affourtit, J.P., Godwin, B., Grubert, F., Simons, J.F., Kim, P.M., Palejev, D., Carriero, N.J., Du, L., et al. (2007). Paired-end mapping reveals extensive structural variation in the human genome. *Science* *318*, 420–426.
51. Perry, G.H., Ben-Dor, A., Tsalenko, A., Sampas, N., Rodriguez-Revena, L., Tran, C.W., Scheffer, A., Steinfeld, I., Tsang, P., Yamada, N.A., et al. (2008). The fine-scale and complex architecture of human copy-number variation. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* *82*, 685–695.
52. Kidd, J.M., Cooper, G.M., Donahue, W.F., Hayden, H.S., Sampas, N., Graves, T., Hansen, N., Teague, B., Alkan, C., Antonacci, F., et al. (2008). Mapping and sequencing of structural variation from eight human genomes. *Nature* *453*, 56–64.

Specific phosphorylation of Ser458 of A-type lamins in *LMNA*-associated myopathy patients

Hiroaki Mitsuhashi¹, Yukiko K. Hayashi^{1,*}, Chie Matsuda², Satoru Noguchi¹, Shuji Wakatsuki³, Toshiyuki Araki³ and Ichizo Nishino¹

¹Department of Neuromuscular Research, National Institute of Neuroscience, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, 4-1-1 Ogawa-higashi, Kodaira, Tokyo 187-8502, Japan

²Neuroscience Research Institute, AIST, Central 6, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8566, Japan

³Department of Peripheral Nervous System Research, National Institute of Neuroscience, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, Kodaira, Tokyo 187-8502, Japan

*Author for correspondence (hayasi_y@ncnp.go.jp)

Accepted 9 August 2010

Journal of Cell Science 123, 3893-3900

© 2010. Published by The Company of Biologists Ltd

doi:10.1242/jcs.072157

Summary

Mutations in *LMNA*, which encodes A-type nuclear lamins, cause various human diseases, including myopathy, cardiomyopathy, lipodystrophy and progeria syndrome. To date, little is known about how mutations in a single gene cause a wide variety of diseases. Here, by characterizing an antibody that specifically recognizes the phosphorylation of Ser458 of A-type lamins, we uncover findings that might contribute to our understanding of laminopathies. This antibody only reacts with nuclei in muscle biopsies from myopathy patients with mutations in the Ig-fold motif of A-type lamins. Ser458 phosphorylation is not seen in muscles from control patients or patients with any other neuromuscular diseases. In vitro analysis confirmed that only lamin A mutants associated with myopathy induce phosphorylation of Ser458, whereas lipodystrophy- or progeria-associated mutants do not. We also found that Akt1 directly phosphorylates Ser458 of lamin A with myopathy-related mutations in vitro. These results suggest that Ser458 phosphorylation of A-type lamins correlates with striated muscle laminopathies; this might be useful for the early diagnosis of *LMNA*-associated myopathies. We propose that disease-specific phosphorylation of A-type lamins by Akt1 contributes to myopathy caused by *LMNA* mutations.

Key words: Laminopathy, A-type lamins, EDMD, LGMD1B, Akt

Introduction

Mutations in *LMNA* cause at least 13 human hereditary diseases, collectively termed 'laminopathies'. These include striated muscle diseases, such as autosomal dominant and recessive forms of Emery-Dreifuss muscular dystrophy (AD/AR-EDMD) (Bonne et al., 1999; Raffaele Di Barletta et al., 2000), limb-girdle muscular dystrophy type 1B (LGMD1B) (Muchir et al., 2000), *LMNA*-related congenital muscular dystrophy (L-CMD) (Quijano-Roy et al., 2008) and dilated cardiomyopathy (Fatkin et al., 1999), and other conditions including Hutchinson-Gilford progeria syndrome (HGPS) (De Sandre-Giovannoli et al., 2003; Eriksson et al., 2003), atypical Werner syndrome (Chen et al., 2003), mandibuloacral dysplasia (MAD) (Novelli et al., 2002) and Dunnigan-type familial partial lipodystrophy (FPLD) (Shackleton et al., 2000). It is still not clear how mutations in *LMNA* cause such a wide variety of tissue-specific degenerative diseases, although A-type lamins are ubiquitously expressed.

A-type lamins, of which lamin A and lamin C are the predominant somatic cell isoforms, are type V intermediate filament proteins that form the nuclear lamina, a meshwork on the nucleoplasmic side of the inner nuclear membrane (Burke and Stewart, 2002; Capell and Collins, 2006). Like all intermediate filament proteins, lamins have a tripartite structure consisting of an N-terminal head, a central coiled-coil rod domain and a large globular C-terminal tail. The C-terminal tail domain has an immunoglobulin-like fold (Ig-fold) motif (residues 436–544); these motifs are known to be involved in protein-protein interactions (Dechat et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2001; Sakaki et al., 2001; Zastrow et al., 2006; Zastrow et al., 2004). In addition to their primary role

in providing mechanical support for nuclear membranes to maintain nuclear shape and size (Goldman et al., 2004), lamin filaments are believed to play important roles in mitosis (Tsai et al., 2006), chromatin organization (Glass et al., 1993; Park et al., 2009; Taniura et al., 1995), transcription (Spann et al., 2002) and DNA replication (Moir et al., 2000; Spann et al., 1997).

According to the PhosphoSite database (<http://www.phosphosite.org/>), more than 30 phosphorylation sites in human A-type lamins have been reported. Phosphorylation of Thr19, Ser22 and Ser392 leads to depolymerization of lamin filaments during nuclear envelope breakdown in mitosis and meiosis (Haas and Jost, 1993; Heald and McKeon, 1990; Peter et al., 1990; Ward and Kirschner, 1990), but the physiological importance of the phosphorylation of other sites in A-type lamins is largely unknown. Previously, Cenni et al. reported that N-terminal phosphorylation of lamin A was specifically decreased in the muscles of four AD-EDMD or LGMD1B patients (Cenni et al., 2005), implicating unidentified lamin A phosphorylation sites in the pathomechanism of AD-EDMD and LGMD1B.

Here, we produced site- and phosphorylation-state-specific antibodies against human A-type lamins, and found that the antibody against phosphorylated Ser458 specifically detects myopathy patients who have mutations within the Ig-fold motif of the C-terminal tail domain of A-type lamins. In vitro expression analysis revealed that Ser458 phosphorylation was specific to myopathy-causing *LMNA* mutations, because it was not detected in cells with mutations related to FPLD or progeria. These results imply that Ser458 phosphorylation might have particular roles in the pathomechanism of *LMNA*-associated myopathy.

Results

Ser458 phosphorylation of A-type lamins in the muscles of *LMNA*-associated myopathy patients

To examine the phosphorylation state of A-type lamins, we raised rabbit polyclonal antibodies against three phosphorylated A-type lamin peptides – Ser5-*P*, Thr416-*P* and Ser458-*P* (Fig. 1A); these serine and threonine residues are well conserved between species. We performed immunohistochemistry of muscle specimens from 17 genetically confirmed *LMNA*-associated myopathy patients, including AD-EDMD, LGMD1B and L-CMD patients.

Using the purified anti-phospho-Ser458 antibody (anti-Ser458-*P* Ab), we found clear nuclear staining in muscles from patients with *LMNA*-associated myopathies, but not in control muscles (Fig. 1Ba–d). Notably, strong immunoreaction to anti-Ser458-*P* Ab was observed in all eight patients carrying a mutation within the Ig-fold motif, whereas the remaining nine patients with mutations outside of the Ig-fold domain showed barely detectable nuclear staining (Table 1). Ser458 is an evolutionarily highly conserved residue within the Ig-fold motif (amino acids 436–544) of A-type lamins (supplementary material Fig. S1A). Anti-Ser458-*P* Ab staining was independent of patient age and sex, and independent of the nature or severity of myopathy, because positive staining for Ser458-*P* was seen in AD-EDMD, LGMD1B, L-CMD and infantile inflammatory myopathy (IIM) cases.

Positive staining with the anti-Ser458-*P* antibody was detected in myonuclei [both peripheral and centrally located (Fig.

1Bb,d,e,g)], vascular endothelial and smooth muscle cell nuclei (Fig. 1Bi), and the nuclei of unidentified cells outside the basal lamina (Fig. 1Bf,h). Double staining with anti-Ser458-*P* and anti-Pax7 antibodies also revealed positive staining in nuclei of satellite cells in patient muscles (Fig. 1Bj–l). Double staining with antibodies for Ser458-*P* and pan-A-type lamins showed that $69.0 \pm 7.3\%$ of nuclei were immunostained in patient muscles with mutations in the Ig-fold domain. These results suggest that the Ser458 phosphorylation might be common in *LMNA*-associated myopathy patients with mutations in the Ig-fold domain of A-type lamins.

Consistent with the immunohistochemistry results, the anti-Ser458-*P* Ab detected two main bands at 70 kDa and 65 kDa, corresponding to lamins A and C, respectively, in muscle from laminopathy patients, but not in unaffected control muscle (Fig. 2).

No Ser458 phosphorylation of A-type lamins in patients with other neuromuscular disorders

To determine whether Ser458 phosphorylation is specific to *LMNA*-associated myopathy, we immunostained muscle specimens from patients with other neuromuscular diseases, including X-linked EDMD (X-EDMD (Fig. 3c,d), Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD) (Fig. 3e,f), Becker muscular dystrophy (BMD) (Fig. 3g,h), LGMD2A (Fig. 3i,j), LGMD2B (Fig. 3k,l), sporadic inclusion body myositis (sIBM) (Fig. 3m,n), idiopathic polymyositis (PM) (Fig. 3o,p) and myotonic dystrophy type 1 (MyD1) (Fig. 3q,r). As shown in Fig. 3, Ser458 phosphorylation was only observed in

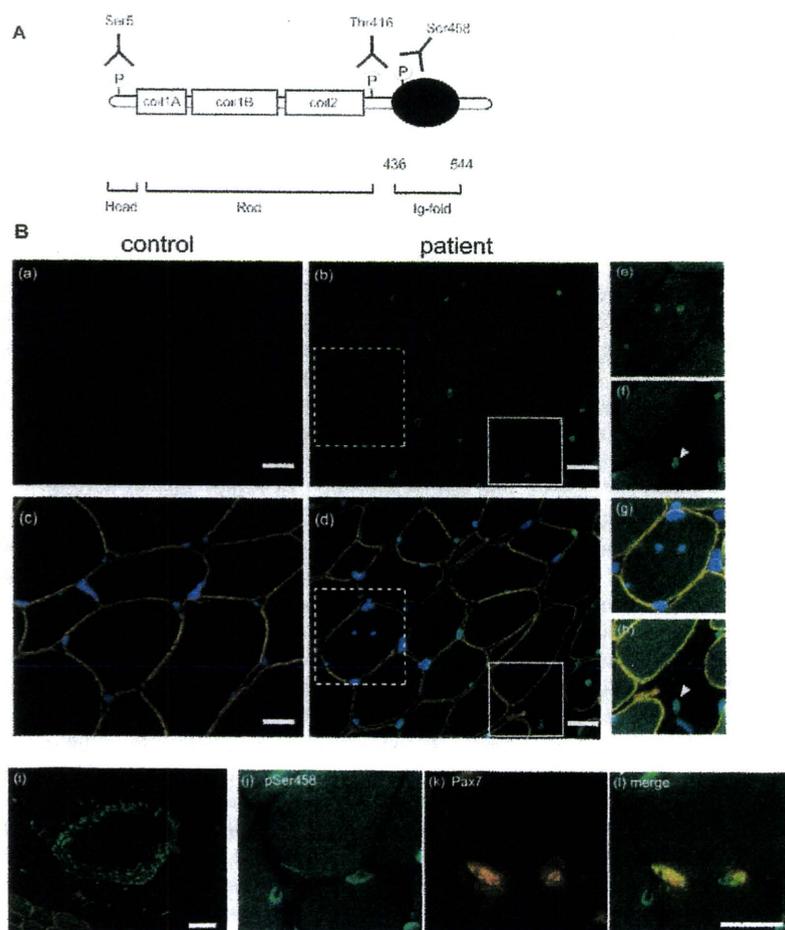


Fig. 1. Ser458 of A-type lamins is specifically phosphorylated in muscles from *LMNA*-associated myopathy patients. (A) Schematic model of three antibodies against phosphorylated A-type lamins (Ser5-*P* Ab, Thr416-*P* Ab and Ser458-*P* Ab). Amino acid residues 436–544 form an Ig-fold structure in the C-terminal globular tail domain. (B) Immunohistochemistry of human muscles with anti-Ser458-*P* antibody. Nuclei in patient muscle (P11) show positive staining for anti-Ser458-*P* antibody (b,d), whereas no positive nuclear staining is seen in control muscle (a,c). Anti-Ser458-*P* Ab is green and anti-merosin antibody is red. (c,d) Merged images. Blue is DAPI staining. (e,f) Magnified images of boxes in b. (g,h) Magnified images of boxes in d. Note that centrally placed nuclei and nuclei in non-muscle cells outside of the basal lamina (arrowheads) are immunostained with anti-Ser458-*P* Ab. (i) Nuclei in blood vessels in the patient muscle (P14) are also immunostained with anti-Ser458-*P* Ab. (j–l) Double staining of *LMNA*-associated myopathy patient muscle (P12) with anti-Ser458-*P* Ab (j) and anti-pax7 (k) reveals colocalization (l), indicating the occurrence of Ser458 phosphorylation in the patient satellite cells. Scale bars: 20 μ m.

Table 1. Summary of anti-Ser458-P antibody staining of A-type lamins from 17 LMNA-associated myopathy patients

Patient	Age	Sex	Clinical diagnosis	LMNA mutation	Domain	Anti-Ser458-P Ab
P1	3y 11m	F	LGMD1B	p.R28Q	Head	-
P2	2y 1m	F	IIM	p.K32 deletion	Head	-
P3	1y	M	IIM	p.R41S	Rod	-
P4	1y 6m	F	L-CMD	p.R41C	Rod	-
P5	2y 8m	F	LGMD1B	p.R249Q	Rod	-
P6	5y 3m	F	LGMD1B	p.S303P	Rod	-
P7	47y	M	LGMD1B	p.K311R	Rod	-
P8	2y 5m	M	IIM	p.E358K	Rod	-
P9	1y 9m	F	L-CMD	p.E444_D446 duplication	Tail (Ig fold)	+
P10	11y 1m	F	EDMD	p.R453W	Tail (Ig fold)	+
P11	4y 5m	F	LGMD1B	p.R453W	Tail (Ig fold)	+
P12	4y	F	LGMD1B	p.R453W	Tail (Ig fold)	+
P13	5y	F	IIM	p.N456H	Tail (Ig fold)	+
P14	7y 2m	M	LGMD1B	p.W514R	Tail (Ig fold)	+
P15	25y	F	LGMD1B	p.R527P	Tail (Ig fold)	+
P16	2y 11m	M	LGMD1B	p.T528K	Tail (Ig fold)	+
P17	52y	F	LGMD1B	p.V547X	Tail	-

patients with *LMNA*-associated myopathy (Fig. 3a,b), but not with other muscle diseases such as X-EDMD (Fig. 3c,d), which is clinically indistinguishable from AD-EDMD. This result suggests that Ser458 phosphorylation is likely to be specific to *LMNA* mutations.

In contrast to the anti-Ser458-P antibody, the anti-Ser5-P antibody strongly recognized nuclei in all human muscles examined, with no disease or mutation specificity. The anti-Thr416-P antibody showed very weak staining in nuclei, with no difference between control and patients (supplementary material Fig. S1B,C).

Ser458 phosphorylation of A-type lamins in AD-EDMD patient fibroblasts

Because Ser458 phosphorylation of A-type lamins was also observed in the nuclei of non-muscle tissues (Fig. 1B), we performed immunocytochemistry using cultured skin fibroblasts from one unaffected person and two AD-EDMD patients with either a Leu102Pro mutation in the rod domain or a Arg453Trp mutation in the Ig-fold domain. Anti-Ser458-P Ab staining was observed only in the fibroblasts with the Arg453Trp mutation, but not in control and Leu102Pro mutant fibroblasts (Fig. 4). All nuclei in the Arg453Trp fibroblasts were immunopositive, implying that Ser458 phosphorylation might be independent of the cell cycle. These results suggested that Ser458 phosphorylation requires mutations in the Ig-fold motif of A-type lamins and can occur in non-muscle cells.

Ser458 phosphorylation of A-type lamins in transfected cells

Next, we analyzed the specificity of anti-Ser458-P Ab to phosphorylation by examining ectopically expressed FLAG-tagged lamin A and FLAG-tagged Arg453Trp mutant lamin A, which is the most common mutation in *LMNA*-associated myopathy. Anti-Ser458-P Ab strongly detected the ectopic FLAG-Arg453Trp mutant in a western blot analysis and slightly detected even wild-type lamin A when overexpressed in COS-7 cells (Fig. 5A). Importantly, alkaline phosphatase treatment reduced the immunoreactivity of anti-Ser458-P Ab to background levels (Fig. 5A, IP), strongly suggesting that anti-Ser458-P Ab specifically recognizes the phosphorylation of Ser458 of mutant A-type lamins.

To further verify the specificity of anti-Ser458-P Ab, we transfected C2 myoblasts to express FLAG-tagged wild-type lamin A or FLAG-tagged lamin A bearing either the Ser458Ala or

Arg453Trp mutation, or both mutations (FLAG-Arg453Trp/Ser458Ala) (Fig. 5B). Anti-Ser458-P Ab immunostained only the nuclei that expressed FLAG-Arg453Trp, whereas the nuclei that expressed FLAG-Arg453Trp/Ser458Ala were barely detectable with anti-Ser458-P Ab. These results confirmed the specificity of anti-Ser458-P Ab to Ser458 phosphorylation.

Ser458 phosphorylation is not detected in other laminopathies

As several mutations associated with FPLD, MAD and HGPS are known to be located within the Ig-fold motif of A-type lamins, we wanted to find out whether Ser458 phosphorylation also occurs in such mutants. We therefore transfected lamin A mutants associated with AD-EDMD (Leu140Pro, Arg453Trp, Arg527Pro, Leu530Pro) (Bonne et al., 1999; Boriani et al., 2003), LGMD1B (Tyr481His) (Kitaguchi et al., 2001), FPLD (Gly465Asp, Arg482Trp, Lys486Asn) (Shackleton et al., 2000; Speckman et al., 2000), MAD (Arg471Cys and Arg527His) (Cao and Hegele, 2003; Novelli et al., 2002) and HGPS (Met540Thr) (Verstraeten et al., 2006) into C2 myoblasts, and checked immunoreactivity with anti-Ser458-P Ab. As expected, Ig-fold mutants Arg453Trp, Arg527Pro, Leu530Pro and Tyr481His were detected by anti-Ser458-P antibody (Fig. 6). By contrast, rod domain mutant Leu140Pro formed intranuclear foci that were not detected by anti-Ser458-P Ab. Interestingly, lamin A mutations associated with FPLD (Gly465Asp, Arg482Trp, Lys486Asn), MAD (Arg471Cys, Arg527His) and

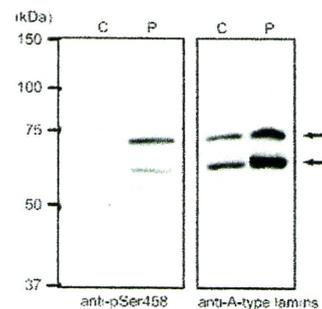


Fig. 2. Western blot analysis of patient muscle with anti-Ser458-P Ab. Anti-Ser458-P Ab specifically recognizes proteins of ~70 kDa and 65 kDa, corresponding to lamin A and lamin C, respectively. Representative data from patient 13 (P13) are shown. C: control, P: patient.

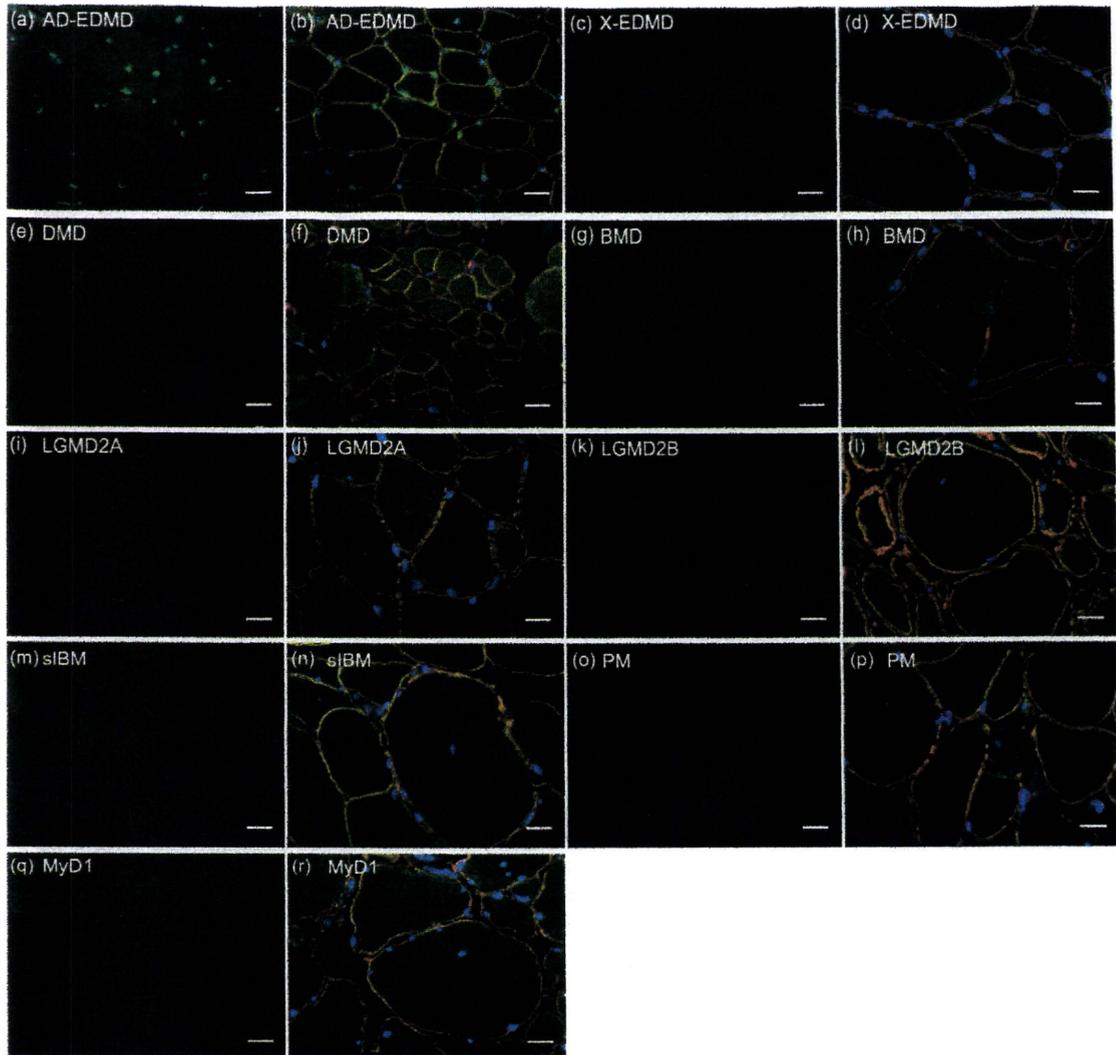


Fig. 3. Immunohistochemical analysis of other neuromuscular diseases. Muscles from myopathic patients were immunostained with anti-Ser458-*P* Ab (green) and anti-merosin (red). (a,b) AD-EDMD with Arg453Trp mutation in *LMNA* (P11), (c,d) X-EDMD, (e,f) DMD, (g,h) BMD, (i,j) LGMD2A, (k,l) LGMD2B, (m,n) sIBM, (o,p) PM, (q,r) MyD1. (b,d,f,h,j,l,n,p,r) Merged images. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue). Scale bars: 20 μ m.

HGPS (Met540Thr), which are all located in the Ig-fold motif, were negative for anti-Ser458-*P* Ab. These results suggested that Ser458 in A-type lamins might be specifically phosphorylated in laminopathies related to myopathy, but not in other laminopathies even with mutations in the Ig-fold domain.

Akt1 directly phosphorylates Ser458 of lamin A

The sequence around Ser458 contains the Akt consensus sequence RxRxxS. To test whether Akt phosphorylates Ser458 of lamin A, COS-7 cells were co-transfected with wild-type Akt (wtAkt-HA) or myristoylated Akt (myrAkt-HA), which is regarded as a constitutively active form (Andjelkovic et al., 1997; Manning and Cantley, 2007), and FLAG-tagged lamin A constructs. The cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with FLAG M2 agarose and detected with anti-Ser458-*P* Ab. Coexpression of wtAkt-HA enhanced Ser458 phosphorylation of the Arg453Trp mutant; this signal became even stronger in cells co-transfected with myrAkt-

HA (Fig. 7A). By contrast, only background levels of Ser458 phosphorylation were detected for wild-type lamin A and the double (Arg453Trp/Ser458Ala) mutant (Fig. 7A). The same results were obtained by co-transfection in C2 myotubes (supplementary material Fig. S2). To determine whether Ser458 phosphorylation is sensitive to the specific amino acid present at position Arg527, we co-transfected COS-7 cells with wtAkt-HA plus either the myopathy-causing Arg527Pro mutation or the MAD-causing Arg527His mutation of FLAG-tagged lamin A (Fig. 7B). Only background levels of Ser458 phosphorylation were detected with wild-type and His-substituted lamin A, suggesting specific recognition of myopathic Arg527Pro-mutated lamin A by Akt1.

To determine whether Akt1 directly phosphorylates Ser458 of lamin A, we performed an *in vitro* kinase assay using the purified C-terminal tail domain of lamin A (LA-T, amino acids 411–553) and a recombinant, constitutively active form of Akt1 (rAkt).

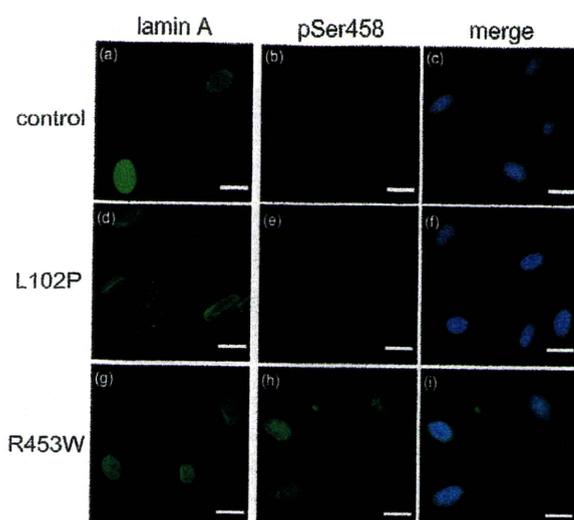


Fig. 4. Immunocytochemistry of human fibroblasts. Only fibroblasts from an AD-EDMD patient with an Arg453Trp mutation in the Ig-fold domain are detected with anti-Ser458-P Ab (h), whereas nuclear staining of cells from a control and an AD-EDMD patient with a Leu102Pro mutation is barely detectable (b,e). (a,d,g) Staining with anti-lamin A antibody, (b,e,h) staining with anti-Ser458-P Ab, (c,f,i) merged images of anti-Ser458-P Ab and DAPI. Scale bars: 20 μ m.

Consistently, LA-T with the Arg453Trp mutation was phosphorylated by rAkt in vitro (Fig. 7C). rAkt failed to phosphorylate LA-T with Arg453Trp/Ser458Ala double mutations, indicating that Ser458 is a genuine Akt phosphorylation site. We conclude that Ser458 in lamin A is specifically phosphorylated by Akt1, even in non-muscle cells, when the Ig-fold domain bears mutations that cause myopathy; Ser458 is not phosphorylated when lamin A bears mutations, even in the Ig-fold, that cause disease in other tissues.

Discussion

For the first time, we have identified a disease-related phosphorylation site of A-type lamins using the antibody that specifically recognizes the phosphorylation of Ser458 of A-type lamins. Cenni et al. previously reported a monoclonal antibody, named SW2-30, that recognizes the phosphorylation of the N-terminal region of A-type lamins in normal muscles, but immunoreactions were barely detectable in myonuclei from AD-EDMD and LGMD1B patients (Cenni et al., 2005). The precise phosphorylation site was not determined, but the change in phosphorylation state between control and patients was the reverse of that seen with Ser458. In contrast to previously reported cell-cycle-specific phosphorylation (Heald and McKeon, 1990; Peter et al., 1990; Ward and Kirschner, 1990), Ser458 phosphorylation is independent of cell cycle, because the all nuclei in replicating fibroblasts from patients with the Arg453Trp mutation were immunopositive.

The early diagnosis of *LMNA*-associated myopathy is particularly important because the patients eventually develop severe cardiac problems with conduction defects, with high mortality (Bonne et al., 2003; Taylor et al., 2003). Because patients show a wide variety of clinicopathological features and recent research has revealed the spectrum of *LMNA*-associated myopathy to be broader than

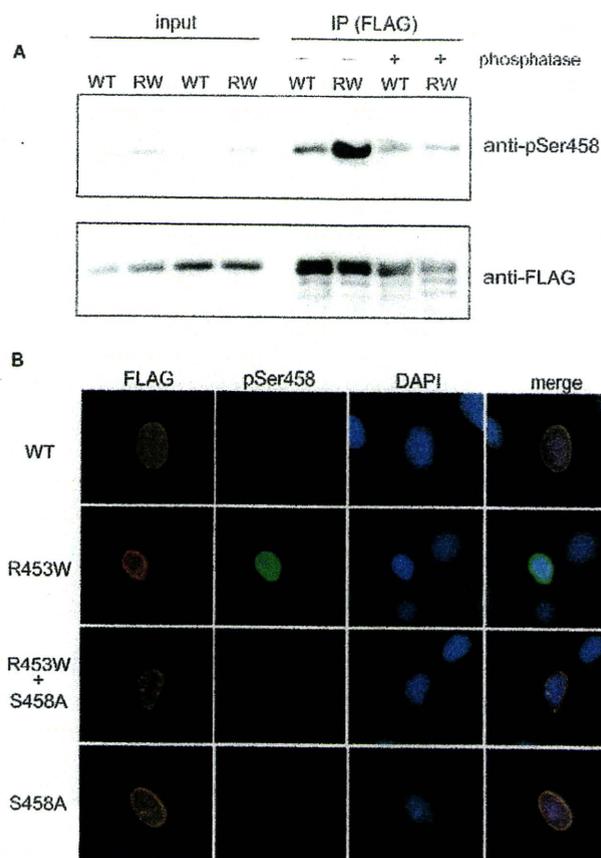


Fig. 5. Anti-Ser458-P Ab specifically recognizes the phosphorylation of Ser458 of lamin A. (A) Western blot analysis of transfected cells. FLAG-tagged lamin A constructs were overexpressed in COS-7 cells. The cell lysates were subjected to immunoprecipitation with anti-FLAG M2 antibody. The immunoprecipitates were incubated with (+) or without (-) calf intestine alkaline phosphatase, and then resolved by SDS-PAGE. WT: wild type, RW: Arg453Trp mutant. (B) Substitution of Ser458 to Ala diminishes the immunoreactivity of anti-Ser458-P against Arg453Trp mutant lamin A. Wild-type or mutant lamin A were overexpressed in C2 myoblasts, and then transfected cells were double immunostained with anti-FLAG Ab (red) and anti-Ser458-P Ab (green). Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue).

previously understood (Quijano-Roy et al., 2008), simple screening using disease-specific phospho-A-type lamin antibodies should be quite useful. Interestingly, the position of the mutation in *LMNA* is important for positive staining by anti-Ser458-P Ab (Table 1). About 30% of AD-EDMD and LGMD1B patients previously reported have the mutation within the Ig-fold motif (Leiden Muscular Dystrophy Pages; <http://www.dmd.nl/>). The Arg453Trp mutation, which is the most common mutation in AD-EDMD, is also located within this motif. Anti-Ser458-P antibody also detected the nuclei in skin fibroblasts and the vascular endothelial cells of patients, suggesting that skin biopsy, which is less invasive for the patient, might be used for the diagnosis.

We have revealed that Akt1 phosphorylates Ser458 of myopathy-related mutant lamin A. A recent study also reported that Ser404 of lamin A is phosphorylated by Akt (Cenni et al., 2008). Interestingly, Ser458 of wild-type lamin A was not phosphorylated by Akt1 even in vitro (Fig. 7C), suggesting that

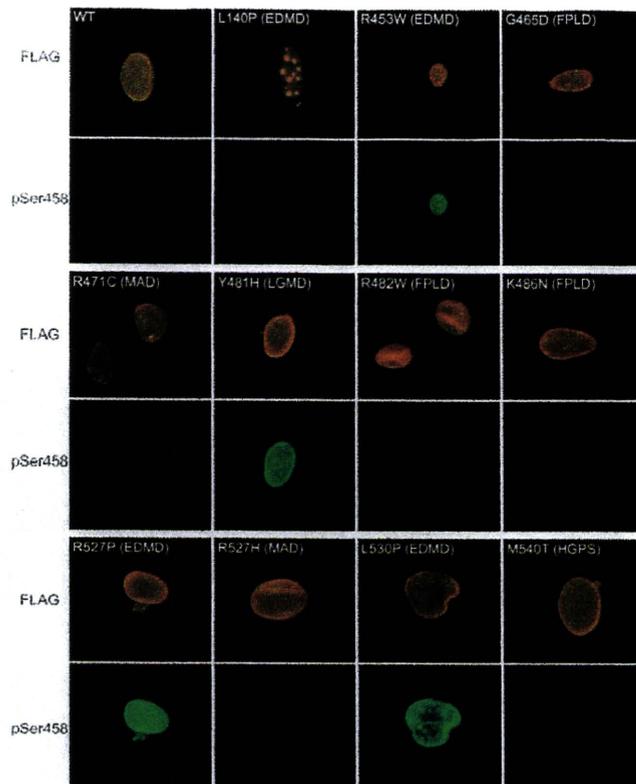


Fig. 6. Myopathy-specific phosphorylation of Ser458 of lamin A. Lamin A mutants that cause AD-EDMD, LGMD1B, FPLD, HGPS or MAD were overexpressed in C2 myoblasts. Transfected cells were double immunostained with anti-FLAG Ab (upper panel, red) and anti-Ser458-P Ab (lower panel, green).

Ser458 is buried in wild-type lamin A. Ser458 was found to be partly buried and structural studies have showed that the Arg453Trp mutation destabilizes the three-dimensional structure of the Ig-fold motif, whereas the mutations observed in FPLD (Arg482Trp and Arg482Gln) do not (Krimm et al., 2002). We propose that *LMNA* mutations that make Ser458 easily accessible to Akt1 phosphorylation predispose patients to muscle pathology.

It is nonetheless perplexing that EDMD and LGMD1B patients with mutations outside the Ig-fold domain have no detectable Ser458 phosphorylation. We speculate that mutations outside the Ig-fold motif might cause myopathy by different mechanisms, for example, by disrupting protein-protein interactions or lamin filament formation, because rod domain mutations such as Leu140Pro can disrupt polymerization and mislocalize lamins. Although further studies are needed to understand these mechanisms, antibodies that recognize Ser458-phosphorylated lamin A will be immediately useful for the differential diagnosis of a large fraction of *LMNA*-associated myopathies.

Materials and Methods

Clinical materials

All clinical materials used in this study were obtained for diagnostic purposes with informed consent. The studies were approved by the Ethical Committee of the National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry.

Mutation analysis

Genomic DNA was isolated from peripheral lymphocytes or muscle specimens using standard techniques. All *LMNA* exons and their flanking intronic regions were

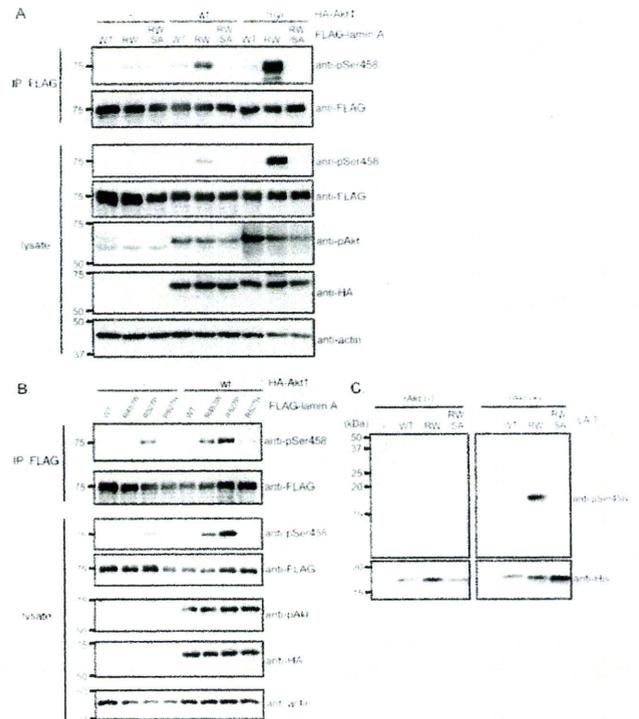


Fig. 7. Akt1 directly phosphorylates Ser458 of lamin A with myopathy-related mutations. (A) COS-7 cells were transfected with Akt-HA constructs (wtAkt-HA or myrAkt-HA) and FLAG-lamin A constructs (WT: wild type, RW: Arg453Trp mutant, RW/SA: Arg453Trp/Ser458Ala mutant) for 30 hours. FLAG-lamin A was immunoprecipitated (IP), then probed with anti-Ser458-P and anti-FLAG M2 antibodies. Whole-cell lysates were also probed with anti-phospho-Akt Ser473 (anti-pAkt), and anti-HA and anti-actin antibodies to confirm equivalent levels of expression. (B) COS-7 cells were transfected with FLAG-lamin A constructs alone or co-transfected with wtAkt-HA for 30 hours. FLAG-lamin A was immunoprecipitated, then immunoblotted as described above. (C) Purified His-tagged C-terminal tail domain of lamin A (LA-T) was phosphorylated *in vitro* in the presence (+) or absence (-) of recombinant active Akt (rAkt). The membranes were probed with anti-Ser458-P and anti-His tag antibodies.

sequenced directly for all 17 patients using an ABI PRISM 3100 automated sequencer (PE Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Primer sequences are shown in supplementary material Table S1.

Antibody production and purification

The following peptides for immunization were synthesized by MBL (Ina, Nagano, Japan). For phospho-A-type lamins: Ser5-P (Met-Glu-Thr-Pro-phosphoSer-Gln-Arg-Arg-Ala-Thr-Cys); Thr416-P (AcetylVal-phosphoThr-Lys-Lys-Arg-Lys-Leu-Glu-Cys); Ser458-P (Cys-Leu-Arg-Asn-Lys-phosphoSer-Asn-Glu-Asp-Gln-Ser). For non-phospho-A-type lamins: Ser5 (Met-Glu-Thr-Pro-Ser-Gln-Arg-Arg-Ala-Thr-Cys); Thr416 (AcetylVal-Thr-Lys-Lys-Arg-Lys-Leu-Glu-Cys); Ser458 (Cys-Leu-Arg-Asn-Lys-Ser-Asn-Glu-Asp-Gln-Ser).

To obtain the specific antibody for phospho-A-type lamins, rabbits were immunized with the phospho-peptides conjugated to keyhole limpet hemocyanin (KLH). Antisera were purified by affinity chromatography at 4°C. First, antisera were passed through HiTrap NHS-activated HP columns (GE Healthcare UK, Buckinghamshire, UK) coupled with non-phospho-A-type lamin peptides. Then, the flow-through fractions were collected. Next, the flow-through fractions were passed through the columns coupled with phospho-A-type lamin peptides. Antibodies were eluted with 0.15 M glycine-HCl (pH 2.7), concentrated by Amicon ultra-4 (Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA) and dialyzed with PBS at 4°C overnight. Approximately 0.2 µg/µl of antibody was obtained.

Immunohistochemistry

Biopsied muscle specimens were frozen in isopentane cooled in liquid nitrogen. Serial frozen sections of 6 µm thickness were fixed in cold acetone for 5 minutes at