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2 **Fig. 7. Comparison of the ages of death (in months) in the two populations. A**

3 commonality between the Japanese patients and the patients described by Sarzi et al.⁴ was

4 observed. No significant difference in disease severity was identified between the

5 populations.

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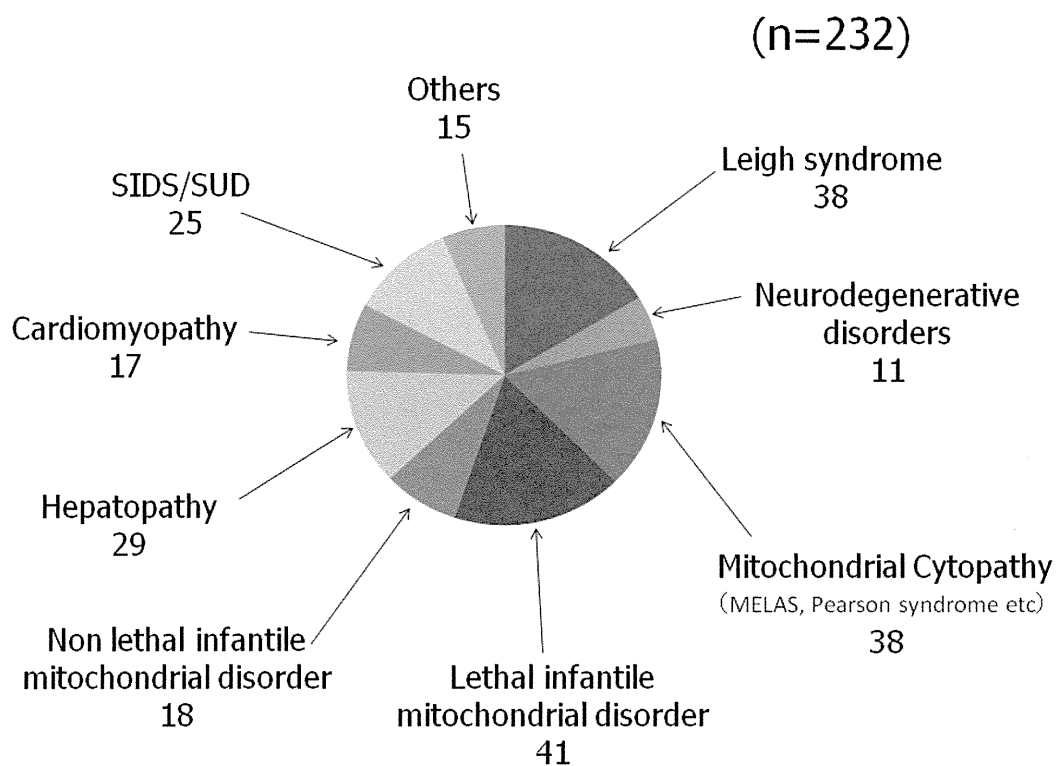
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Table 1. Clinical and molecular characteristics for Japanese hepatocerebral MTDPS patients.

Pt	Sex	Initial symptoms (age)	Outcome (age)	Clinical diagnosis	Complication	Liver transplantation	Blood lactate / pyruvate (mM)	%mtDNA in liver	Identified mutations	Ref
1	F	Failure to thrive (3mo)	Dead (1yr)	Hereditary tyrosinemia	Developmental delay	Done	Not available	3%	<i>DGUOK</i> (g.11692_12026del335 (p.A48fsX90) homozygote)	
2	F	Tachypnea (2 days)	Dead (9mo)	Mitochondrial hepatopathy	Hypoglycemia	Not done	20.9 / 0.27	6%	<i>DGUOK</i> (g.11692_12026del335 (p.A48fsX90) homozygote)	
3	F	Feeding difficulty (8 days)	Dead (1yr)	Mitochondrial hepatopathy	Developmental delay, Failure to thrive	Done	2.9 / 0.14	2%	<i>DGUOK</i> (g.11692_12026del335 (p.A48fsX90) / c.743T>C (p.L248P))	
4	M	Failure to thrive, Acholic stool (3mo)	Dead (1yr)	Hepatic failure	Developmental delay	Done	Not available	8%	<i>MPV17</i> (c.451insC (p.L151fsX189) / c.509C>T (p.S170F))	7

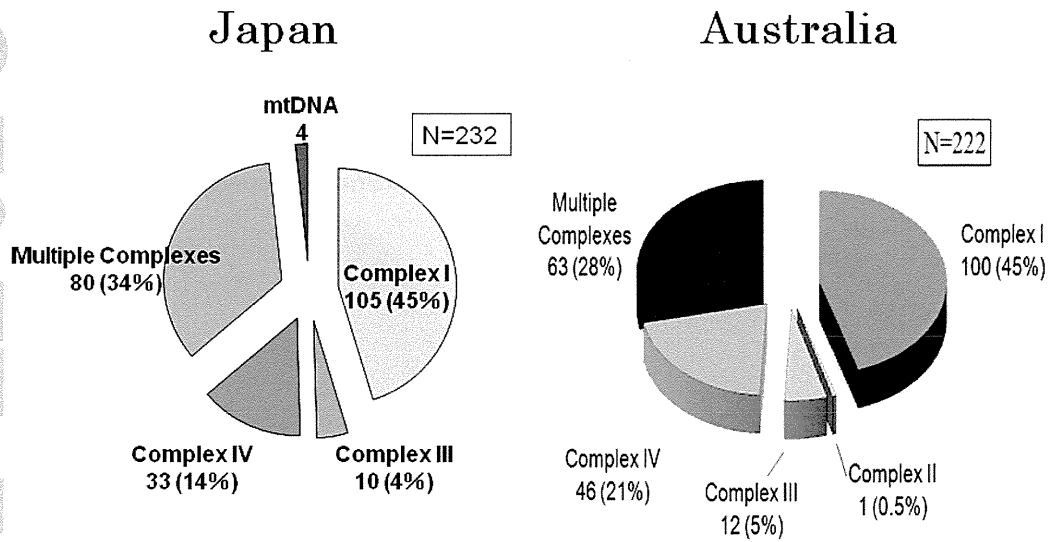
5	M	Failure to thrive, Vomiting (8mo)	Dead (6yr)	Hepatic failure	Developmental delay, Gastroesophageal reflux, Respiratory failure	<u>Done (at 6 yr)</u>	Normal	7%	<i>MPV17</i> (c.451insC (p.L151fsX189) / c.509C>T (p.S170F))	7
6	F	Failure to thrive (4mo)	Dead (7mo)	Hepatic failure	Hypotonia	Not done	1.76 / 0.1	3%	<i>POLG</i> (c.2869G>C (p.A957V) / c.3354T>C (p.I1185T))	

Fig. 1



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Fig. 2



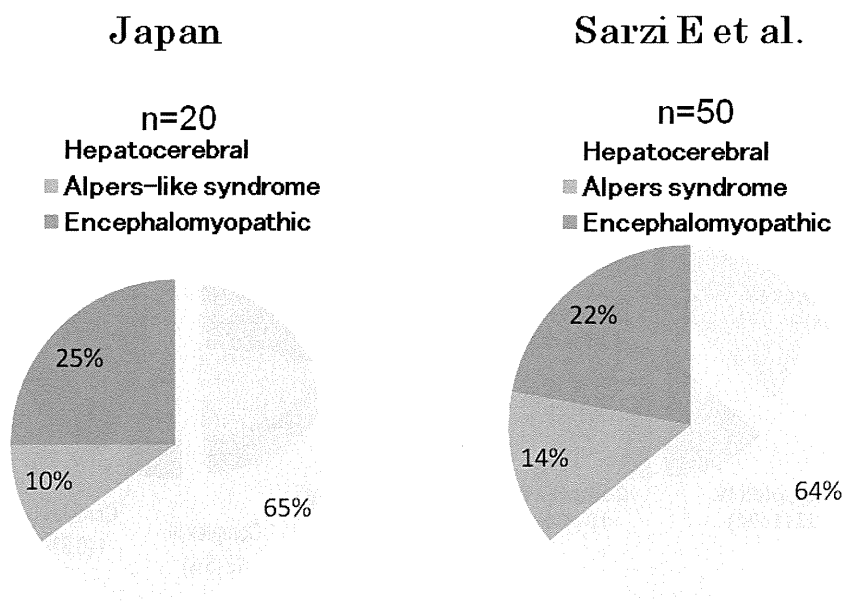
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Fig. 3



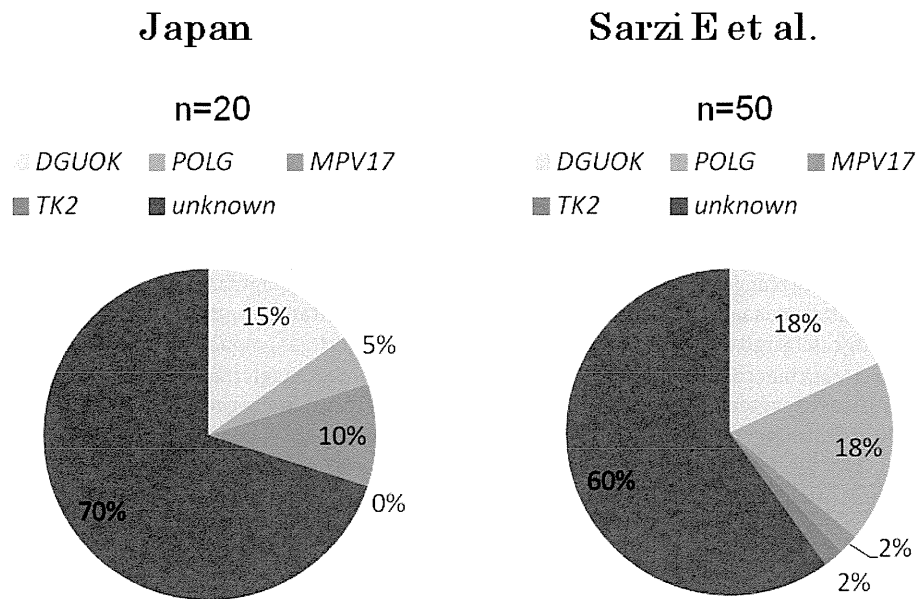
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Fig. 4



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Fig. 5A

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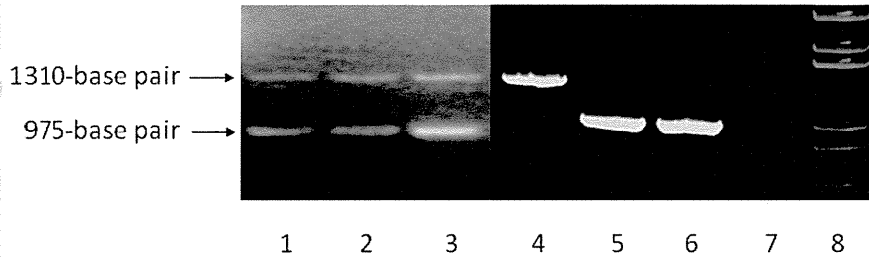
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Fig. 5B



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Fig. 6

Human	241	-----ALMNIPVLVLDV--NDDFSEEVTKQEDLMREVNTFVKNL-----	277
Pan Trog	241	-----ALMNIPVLVLDV--NDDFSEEVTKQEDLMREVNTFVKNL-----	277
Canis	241	-----ALLNIPVLVLDV--NDDFSEEVTKQEELMKVNI FVKNL-----	277
Bos	241	-----ALLNIPVLVLDV--NDDFSEEVTIQEELMRRVNTFVKNL-----	277
Mus	241	-----ALQHVPLVLDV--TEDFSENAARQEELMGQVNTFMRNL-----	277
Rat	241	-----ALRHVPVLVLDV--SEDFSENAAKQEELMGQVNTFMRNL-----	277
Danio	233	-----QLMKVPVLVLDV--EVAFEQNPEVQDCLLSKVRDFLSQL-----	269
Arabidopsis	483	NMHSSI QKVPALVLDCEPNI DFSRDI EAKTQYARQVAEFFEFVKKKQET	532
Oryza	408	DHMHSSI QKVPALVLDCEHDI DFNKDI EAKRQ-----	439

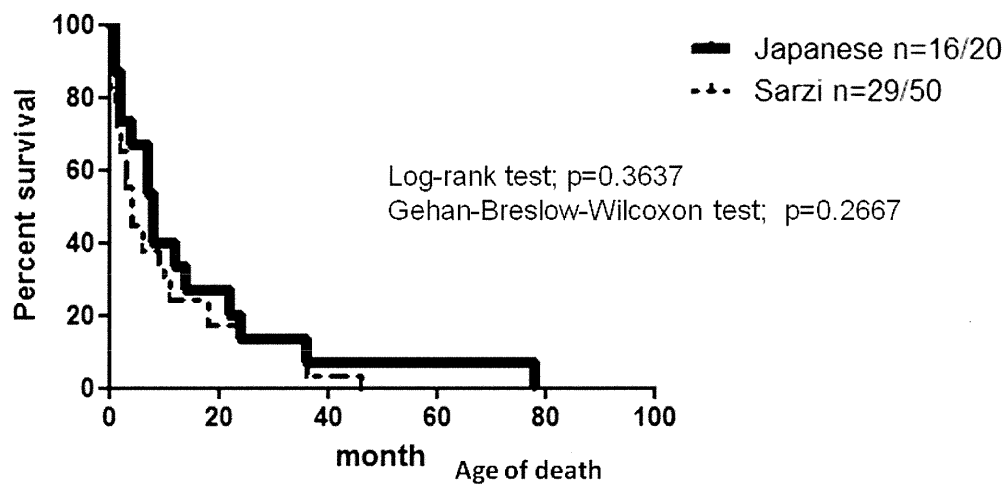
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Fig. 7

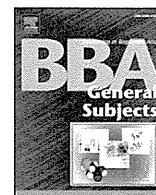


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Diagnosis and molecular basis of mitochondrial respiratory chain disorders: Exome sequencing for disease gene identification ☆☆☆

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ABSTRACT

Mitochondrial disorders have the highest incidence among congenital metabolic diseases, and are thought to occur at a rate of 1 in 5000 births. About 25% of the diseases diagnosed as mitochondrial disorders in the field of pediatrics have mitochondrial DNA abnormalities, while the rest occur due to defects in genes encoded in the nucleus. The most important function of the mitochondria is biosynthesis of ATP. Mitochondrial disorders are nearly synonymous with mitochondrial respiratory chain disorder, as respiratory chain complexes serve a central role in ATP biosynthesis. By next-generation sequencing of the exome, we analyzed 104 patients with mitochondrial respiratory chain disorders. The results of analysis to date were 18 patients with novel variants in genes previously reported to be disease-causing, and 27 patients with mutations in genes suggested to be associated in some way with mitochondria, and it is likely that they are new disease-causing genes in mitochondrial disorders. This article is part of a Special Issue entitled Frontiers of Mitochondrial Research.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Mitochondrial disorders

Mitochondrial disorders have the highest incidence among congenital metabolic disorders, and are thought to occur at a rate of 1 in 5000 births [1]. The common view of mitochondrial disorders is that they include mitochondrial encephalopathy and myopathy, with onset due to mitochondrial DNA defects inherited through the maternal line. In fact, however, only about 25% of the diseases diagnosed as mitochondrial disorders in the field of pediatrics have mitochondrial DNA abnormalities [2,3], while the rest occur due to defects in genes encoded in the nucleus. Most cases are sporadic (do not have a clear genetic association), and a majority of cases resulting from nuclear gene abnormalities

are autosomal recessive. Mitochondrial DNA has a circular structure with a length of 16.6 kbp, and encodes only 13 proteins [4]. These 13 proteins are part of the structural composition of complex I (7 proteins), complex III (1 protein), complex IV (3 proteins) and complex V (2 proteins) in the respiratory chain. They do not include any complex II structural proteins. The remaining genes encoded in mitochondrial DNA are 22 tRNAs and two ribosomal RNAs, and mitochondrial disorders due to defects in these RNAs have also been reported. Meanwhile, a certain amount of the gene products encoded in the nucleus exists in the mitochondria, and roughly 1500 are thought to serve important roles in mitochondrial function [5]. In this analysis, we focused on mitochondrial disorders thought to occur due to defects in genes encoded in the nucleus. Mitochondria have many functions, one of the most important being biosynthesis of energy (ATP), and we assume for the following discussion that mitochondrial disorders are nearly synonymous with mitochondrial respiratory chain disorders (MRCD), as respiratory chain complexes [6] serve a central role in ATP biosynthesis.

1.2. Mitochondrial disorders of nuclear origin

As stated above, of the approximately 1500 genes encoded in the nucleus that are thought to be involved in biosynthesis and mitochondrial function, more than 100 have been reported to be causes of mitochondrial disorders [7–9] (Table 1). Among these, about 90% of genes have an autosomal recessive inheritance pattern, and only a small portion

Abbreviations: MRCD, mitochondrial respiratory chain disorder; BN-PAGE, blue native polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; iPS, induced pluripotent stem cells; LIMD, lethal infantile mitochondrial disease; LCSH, Long Contiguous Stretch of Homozygosity

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Table 1

The genetic basis of MRCD.

mtDNA mutations: 35/37 genes	
tRNAs, subunits, rRNAs, and deletions & duplications	
Nuclear mutations: 117 genes	
Nuclear-encoded subunits: 27/–80 genes	
Complex I: <i>NDUFV1</i> , 2, <i>NDUFB3</i> , 9 <i>NDUFA1</i> , 2, 9, 10, 11, 12, <i>NDUFS1</i> , 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8	mtDNA replication: 5 genes <i>POLG</i> , <i>POLG2</i> , <i>C10orf2</i> , <i>MPV17</i> , <i>AGK</i>
Complex II: <i>SDHA</i> , <i>SDHB</i> , <i>SDHC</i> , <i>SDHD</i>	mtDNA expression: 24 genes <i>LRPPRC</i> , <i>TACO1</i> , <i>MTPAP</i> , <i>MRPS16</i> , <i>MRPS22</i> , <i>MRPL3</i> , <i>GFM1</i> , <i>TSFM</i> , <i>TUFM</i> , <i>TRMU</i> , <i>C12orf65</i> , <i>MTFMT</i> , <i>DARS2</i> , <i>RARS2</i> , <i>YARS2</i> , <i>SARS2</i> , <i>AARS2</i> , <i>HARS2</i> , <i>MARS2</i> , <i>EARS2</i> , <i>RMND1</i> , <i>MTO1</i> , <i>FARS2</i> , <i>GFM2</i>
Complex III: <i>UQCRB</i> , <i>UQCRCQ</i>	Nucleotide transport, synthesis: 9 genes <i>SLC25A4</i> , <i>SLC25A3</i> , <i>TYMP</i> , <i>DGUOK</i> , <i>TK2</i> , <i>PUS1</i> , <i>SUCLA2</i> , <i>SUCLG1</i> , <i>RRM2B</i>
Complex IV: <i>COX6B1</i> , <i>COX4I2</i> , <i>COX7B</i>	Membrane composition: 14 genes <i>COQ2</i> , <i>COQ6</i> , <i>COQ9</i> , <i>PDSS1</i> , <i>PDSS2</i> , <i>CABC1</i> , <i>SERAC1</i> , <i>MPC1</i> , <i>NMT</i> , <i>TAZ</i> , <i>CYCS</i> , <i>OPA1</i> , <i>MFN2</i> , <i>DNM1L</i>
Complex V: <i>ATP5E</i>	
Import, processing, assembly: 38 genes	
Complex I: <i>C8orf38</i> , <i>C20orf7</i> , <i>NDUFAF1</i> , <i>F2</i> , <i>F3</i> , <i>F4</i> , <i>FOXRED1</i> , <i>NUBPL</i> , <i>ACAD9</i> , <i>AIFM1</i>	
Complex II: <i>SDHAF1</i> , <i>SDHAF2</i>	
Complex III: <i>BCS1L</i> , <i>HCCS</i> , <i>TTC19</i>	
Complex IV: <i>SURF1</i> , <i>SCO2</i> , <i>SCO1</i> , <i>COX10</i> , <i>COX15</i> , <i>ETHE1</i> , <i>FASTKD2</i> , <i>C2orf64</i> , <i>C12orf62</i>	
Complex V: <i>ATPAF2</i> , <i>TMEM70</i>	
Multiple: <i>TIMM8A</i> , <i>SPG7</i> , <i>HSPD1</i> , <i>AFG3L2</i> , <i>DNAJC19</i> , <i>GFER</i>	
Iron/FeS: <i>FXN</i> , <i>ISCU</i> , <i>GLRX5</i> , <i>ABCB7</i> , <i>NFU1</i> , <i>BOLA3</i>	
117 nuclear gene defects	Categories are based on D.R Thorburn's paper ⁷⁾

95: autosomal recessive.
10: autosomal dominant.
5: recessive or dominant.
7: X-linked.

have a dominant inheritance pattern [10]. There have also been seven reported cases of mitochondrial disorders from defects in genes encoded by the X chromosome. By function, these include genes involved in the structural composition of the complexes and mitochondrial biosynthesis, genes involved in membrane composition, genes involved in the synthesis and transport of nucleic acids, genes involved in regulating the expression of mitochondrial DNA, and genes involved in mitochondrial DNA replication.

We have actively analyzed the exomes of patients with MRCD in order to identify the cause. Here, we briefly describe our project and discuss the results of exome analyses performed to date, touching on some of the problems that have been encountered.

2. Outline of exome analysis project for MRCD patients

Fig. 1 outlines our current project. It is supported by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology's Research Program of Innovative Cell Biology by Innovative Technology (Cell Innovation) (http://www.cell-innovation.org/english/html/program/theme_010_okazaki.html). First, analyses of enzyme activity [11], quantity and size were performed using fibroblasts from patient skin or biopsy specimens from diseased organs of patients suspected of having MRCD in clinical practice [12]. Quantity and size were analyzed using blue native polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (BN-PAGE) [13]. Next, among patients in whom decreased enzyme activity or complex formation abnormalities were seen biochemically, whole exome analysis was performed in those with no known mitochondrial DNA abnormalities, and the obtained candidate causal genes were confirmed at the cellular level by rescue experiment or other methods, such as siRNA experiment. Many patients with mitochondrial disorders have primary symptoms in the central nervous system, but brain biopsy in these patients is untenable. Therefore, induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells were created using fibroblasts from the skin of patients from whom informed consent was obtained. These iPS cells were then differentiated into neurons and glia cells to reproduce the pathology of mitochondrial dysfunction that occurs specifically in the nervous system, based on the notion that this may lead to treatment at the cellular level and ultimately to treatment in humans.

3. Clinical diagnosis of MRCD

Mitochondria exist in all tissues, and symptoms are presented in various organs and/or pathological entities. In pediatric MRCD, symptoms are broadly divided into: (1) encephalomyopathy symptoms; (2) gastrointestinal/hepatic symptoms; and (3) myocardial symptoms [14]. So-called "mitochondrial encephalomyopathy," which has traditionally been considered the main form of mitochondrial disease, belongs among the relatively mild mitochondrial diseases and occurs mostly in older people. Fig. 2 shows a breakdown of clinical diagnoses of mitochondrial disorders in our institute as of January 2013 [15]. Patients with the traditionally described nerve and muscle symptoms numbered 111 in total, including 50 with Leigh syndrome, 11 with neurodegenerative disorders for which no clear cause could be identified, and 50 with so-called "mitochondrial encephalomyopathy." These 111 patients accounted for 40% of the total of 275 patients. Conversely, other forms accounted for two-thirds of cases, among which were 49 cases of lethal infantile mitochondrial disease (LIMD). Together with non-lethal infantile mitochondrial disease (NLIMD), which follows the same course but in which patients survive beyond 1 year of age, the number reached 71, and was by far the most common clinical diagnosis. LIMD encompasses hyperlactacidemia occurring in the neonatal period together with multiple organ failure. Most cases have poor outcomes, and it is thought that most of these patients died with the cause remaining unknown and no diagnosis established. Next were mitochondrial disorders showing single organ dysfunction only, such as mitochondrial hepatopathy (12%) and cardiomyopathy (7%).

4. Exome analysis of MRCD patients

As most mitochondrial diseases occur sporadically with only a few cases discovered in one family line, linkage analysis using a large pedigree cannot be applied, thus suggesting that we cannot use information on chromosomal localization for causal gene identification. When identifying disease-causing genes using bioinformatics analysis for exome data, knowledge of the inheritance patterns is very important [16]. As approximately 90% of MRCD-causing genes show a recessive mode of

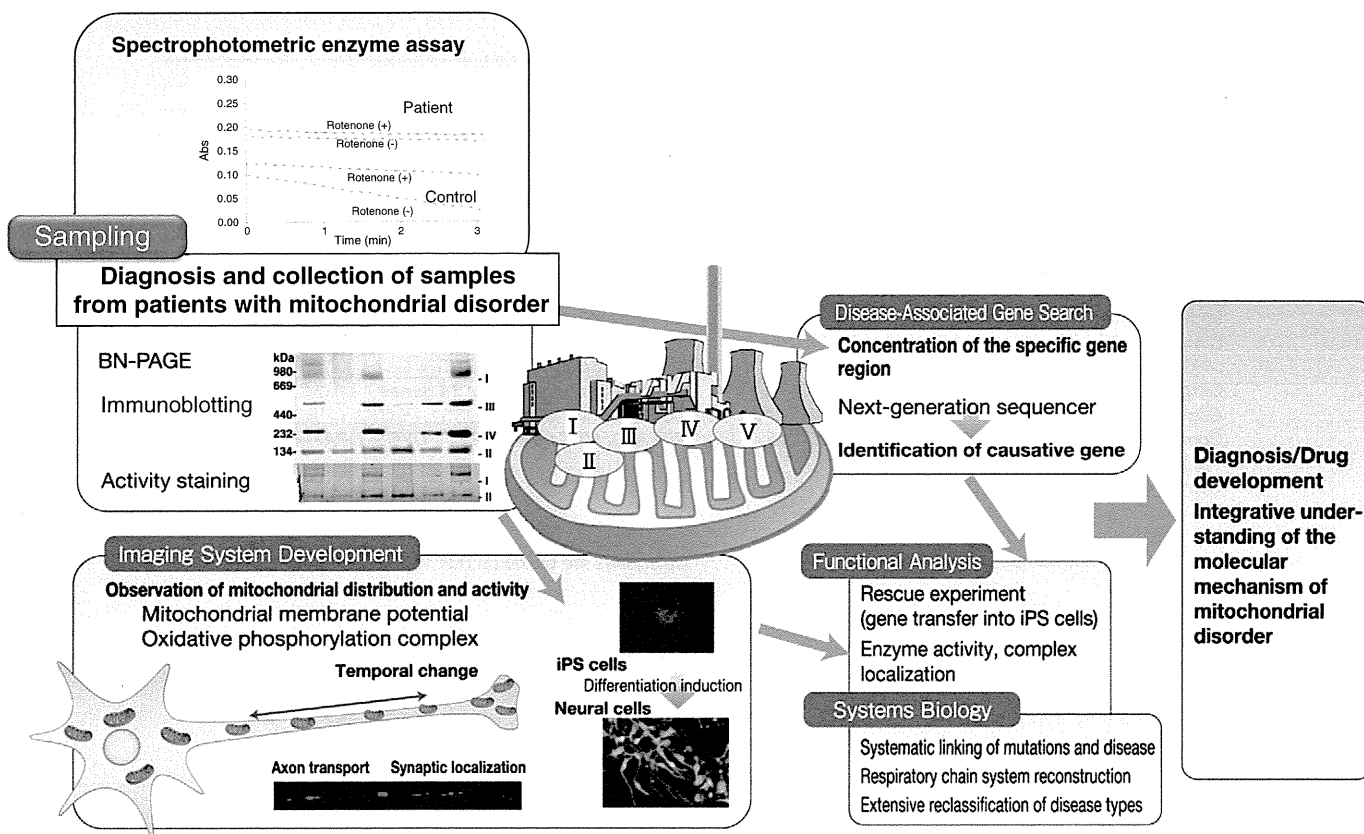


Fig. 1. Outline of exome analysis project for MRCD patients. The first step is 'Sampling', which refers to diagnosis and collection of samples from patients with mitochondrial disorders using both spectrophotometric enzyme assay [11] and BN-PAGE [13]. The next step is 'Disease-Associated Gene Search' using exome analysis. In 'Functional Analysis' and 'System Biology', candidate causal genes are confirmed at the cellular level by rescue experiment or other means. In 'Imaging System Development', induced pluripotent stem cells are created using fibroblasts and differentiated into neurons and glia cells to reproduce the pathology of mitochondrial dysfunction. The final purpose of our project is integrative understanding of the molecular mechanisms of mitochondrial disorders.

inheritance (as shown in Table 1), we prioritized such genes as harboring rare variants in a homozygous or compound heterozygous fashion. Low priority is given to the analysis of genes showing mutation in only one allele because patients and healthy control individuals

harbored a comparable number of rare heterozygous alleles; we were unable to prioritize dominant-acting genes.

Our current bioinformatics analysis pipeline is as follows: read alignment was performed with a Burrows–Wheeler Aligner (BWA, version 0.7.0) [17] using the 1000 Genomes project phase II reference genome (hs37d5.fa). PCR duplicate reads were removed using Picard (version 1.89) (<http://picard.sourceforge.net>) and non-mappable reads were removed using SAMtools (version 0.1.19) [18]. After filtering out these reads, the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK) version 2.4-9-nightly-2013-04-12-g3fc5478 [19] was used to realign insertions and deletions, and for quality recalibration and variant calling (UnifiedGenotyper). Detected variants were annotated using ANNOVAR (version 2013Feb21) [20] and custom ruby scripts. The effect of the mutations on protein function was assessed by SIFT and GERP using dbNSFP [21]. The positions of mutations were based on RefSeq transcript sequences. Variants were assessed by comparing allele frequencies in the dbSNP135, Exome Sequencing Project (ESP5400) data set, and 1000 Genomes Projects (based on phase 1 release v3 called from 20101123 alignments). As mitochondrial disorders are rare, we excluded variants present in dbSNP with a frequency > 0.1%. After filtering out these variants, the VAAST program [22] was used to create a candidate gene list in each patient showing recessive characteristics.

As stated above, because mitochondrial disease patients have very high heterogeneity, the number of patients sharing the same gene mutation is quite low. Hence, attention should be directed towards removing these mutations from the disease candidates when the same amino acid substitutions are shared among multiple patients in our study, because these variants are highly likely to be SNPs unique to the Japanese population. Using these criteria, we are able to narrow down the number of variants to a mean of several genes for each patient. After listing

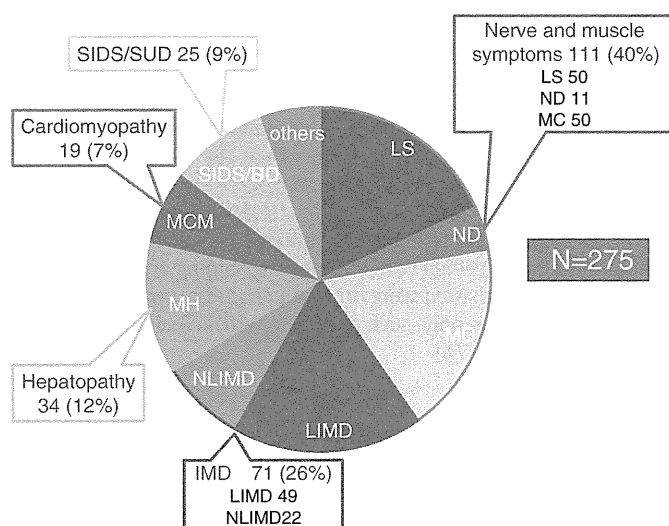


Fig. 2. Breakdown of clinical diagnoses of mitochondrial disorders in our institute as of January 2013. LS, Leigh syndrome; ND, neurodegenerative disorder; MC, mitochondrial cytopathy; IMD, infantile mitochondrial disease (lethal and non-lethal); MH, mitochondrial hepatopathy; MCM, mitochondrial cardiomyopathy; SIDS, sudden infant death syndrome; SUD, sudden unexpected death.

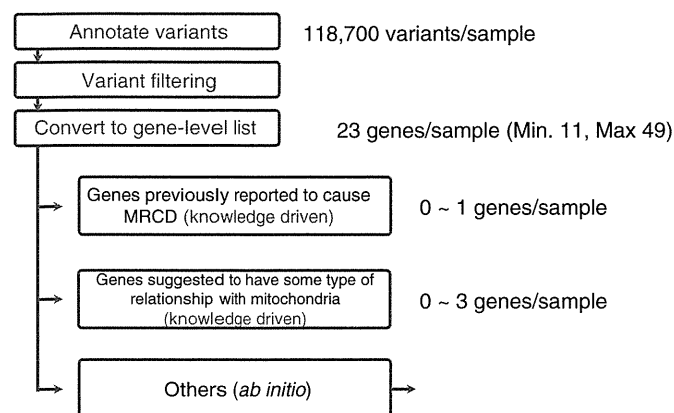


Fig. 3. Narrowing down of gene mutations discovered by exome analysis. After filtering out variants with the methods described in the 'Exome analysis of MRCD patients' section, genes were divided into three categories: (1) those that have previously been reported to cause MRCD; (2) those for which some relationship with mitochondria has been suggested; and (3) others (*ab initio*).

these candidate variants, we further investigated whether these variants are located within genes related to mitochondrial function. When genes overlapped with those reported to be related to mitochondrial function, we found that they were likely to be causative genes and were further subjected to experimental analysis such as haplotype phasing or functional assay including rescue experiments. To prepare a list of genes reported to be related to mitochondria, we included genes annotated as somehow related to mitochondria in the UniProt (<http://www.uniprot.org/>) [23] database, as well as the MitoCarta database (<http://www.broadinstitute.org/pubs/MitoCarta/index.html>) [24], which includes approximately 1000 gene products listed with the use of shotgun proteomics and mitochondrial localization analysis.

We also investigated whether there is Long Contiguous Stretch of Homozygosity (LCSH) using Affymetrix SNP arrays in a majority of patients. Although no cases of consanguineous marriage were reported in the interviews with the primary physician, about 5% of cases harbor LCSH proven by SNP arrays. When homozygous mutations are localized in these LCSH regions, the mutations are highly likely to be causative of disease.

5. Results of exome analysis for MRCD patients

The variants (mutations) found in the process of narrowing down the gene mutations discovered to date are shown in Fig. 3. These genes were narrowed down to the final candidate genes and divided into three categories: (1) those that have previously been reported to cause MRCD; (2) those for which some relationship with mitochondria has been suggested; and (3) others (*ab initio*). The results of analysis of 104 patients to date (as of January 2013) are shown in Fig. 4. Eighteen patients (17%) had variants previously reported to be disease-causing. Among these 18 patients, one had a homozygote of a previously reported mutation and two had a compound heterozygote of a reported and a novel mutation (data not shown). All other mutations found in this study were new. Twenty-seven patients (26%) had mutations in genes suggested to be associated somehow with mitochondria, and it is likely that they are novel disease-causing genes in mitochondrial disorders. Table 2 lists the functions of the genes in these 27 cases. For the remaining 59 cases, each patient has about 20 gene variants that are unique to each patient, and it is necessary to confirm whether any of these mutations can actually cause the disease. These 59 patients are highly likely to contain completely novel disease-causing mutations for which no clues have been obtained to date. The biggest issue we currently face is how to confirm the disease-causing gene from these 20 gene variants for each patient.

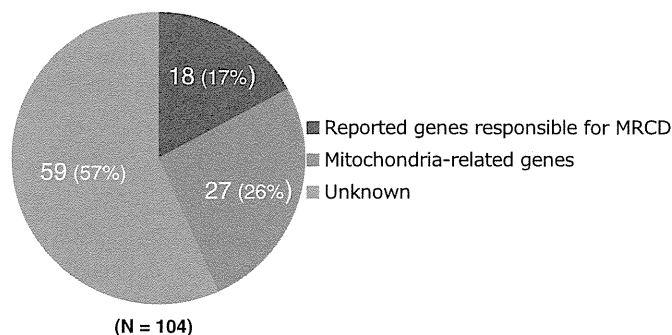


Fig. 4. Candidate genes with exome analysis for MRCD patients. Results of analysis for 104 patients to date (as of January 2013) are shown. Eighteen patients (17%) had variants previously reported to be disease-causing. Twenty-seven patients (26%) had mutations in genes suggested to be associated somehow with mitochondria. The remaining 59 patients (57%) are highly likely to contain completely novel disease-causing mutations for which no data have been obtained to date.

6. Conclusion and future prospects

The above describes the progress we have made in exome analysis of neonatal or infantile MRCD patients. While we have identified many candidate genes, the causes of MRCD are extremely diverse and heterogeneous. Thus, in many cases, it is difficult to demonstrate conclusively that a mutation in a candidate gene is the true cause. We have performed analyses focusing on cases in which a biochemical diagnosis was established at the cellular level in addition to clinical symptoms such as enzyme activity and complex formation abnormalities. Nonetheless, confirmation of the causal genes with rescue experiments or other means is difficult. In the future, it will be necessary to increase the case number or search for patients with similar symptoms and similar gene mutations in collaboration with researchers throughout the world. We are currently conducting analyses of pediatric patients with a focus on MRCD, and gene mutations (amino acid substitutions) harbored by patients of the childhood onset type are probably variants conferring major damage on enzyme activity or protein function. Onset is also thought to occur in adulthood rather than in childhood in some cases of milder (hypomorphic: partial loss of function) variants with the same gene defect. As these are thought to include nerve diseases,

Table 2

Functions of new disease-causing candidate genes for MRCD.

MtoX#1	Non-receptor tyrosine kinase
MtoX#2	Acyl-CoA thioesterase
MtoX#3	Fatty acid β oxidation
MtoX#4	tRNA synthetase
MtoX#5	ABC transporter superfamily
MtoX#6	ATR-dependent AMP-binding enzyme family
MtoX#7	Heme biosynthesis
MtoX#8	AAA ATPase family
MtoX#9	Pre-mRNA splicing factor
MtoX#10	Creatine kinase
MtoX#11	Synaptic transmission
MtoX#12	Synthesis of Coenzyme Q
MtoX#13	Heme biosynthetic process
MtoX#14	Citrate synthase family.
MtoX#15	Cholesterol metabolism
MtoX#16	Mitochondrial fission
MtoX#17	Muscle organ development
MtoX#18	Cholesterol biosynthetic process
MtoX#19	Ribosomal protein
MtoX#20	Tumor suppressor
MtoX#21	A component of complex I
MtoX#22	A protease, located in inner membrane
MtoX#23	Regulation of PDH
MtoX#24	Mitochondrial translation
MtoX#25	Queuosine biosynthetic process
MtoX#26	Mitochondrial carrier family
MtoX#27	Methyltransferase superfamily