# **Chapter Three - Gene annotation of**

## the human Xq22-q23 region

### **3.1 Introduction**

As this project began, the sequencing of chromosome 22 was nearing completion. This was the first human chromosome sequence to be completed (Dunham *et al.,* 1999). At this time, the human X chromosome sequence was in a relatively unfinished state  $\sim$  48 % finished sequence), and spanned by many sequence-ready contigs. There were regions however with large segments of contiguous finished sequence, and one of these was selected for studies utilising the genomic sequence to guide identification of genes. These efforts are described in this Chapter.

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The region chosen for study was the human Xq22-q23 region. Comprising of approximately 15 Mb of euchromatic DNA, the region begins and ends in dark-staining Giemsa bands (G-band) but is predominantly a light G-band, containing within it a "grey" G-band. From studies of the composition of the sequence within Xq21.3-q22.2 (G. R. Howell, PhD thesis, Open University), the GC content of Xq22.1 remains above 38% (consistently higher than the genome average of 41% (Lander *et al.,* 2001), with a variable LINE and SINE content.In general, Xq22.1 appeared to show a higher % GC and SINE and lower LINE content compared to Xq21.3 and Xq22.2.From these characteristics, it was expected that the region would be relatively gene-rich, and that differences in gene size and density may be observed in the dark/grey/light G-band transitions. Initially, the region was spanned by three bacterial clone contigs (see Figure 3-1), including the largest contig on the chromosome (G.R. Howell, PhD thesis, Open University). Within this study, efforts were undertaken to close the gap between contigs Xctg200 and Xctg18. An STS designed to a PAC clone (dJ19N1) in Xctg18 identified clones in a small unassigned contig (Xctg1057) following hybridisation to filters of X chromosome allocated clones (polygrids). Xctg1057 was then found to share fingerprint bands with GSCX Ctg17241, which in turn shared bands with contig Xctg200 (fpc analysis performed by Adam Whittaker, Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute). This closed the gap between contigs Xctg18 and Xctg200.

In addition to containing large regions of contiguous sequence, which are ideal for large-scale genome-based gene identification, many disease genes had been mapped to the region. The genes for several of these conditions remained un-cloned. These include DFN2 (OMIM:304500), X-linked megalocornea (OMIM:309300), EFMR (OMIM:300088), MRX53 (OMIM:300324) and an X-linked mental retardation

syndrome with seizures, hypogammaglobulinemia and progressive gait disturbance (Chudley *et al.,* 1999).

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The most comprehensive transcript map of the region to that point had identified 30 genes and 56 additional expressed sequences, from STS (derived from genes and ESTs) screening of YACs mapped to the region (Srivastava, *et al.,* 1999). A comprehensive set of annotated gene structures would thus provide useful data for disease gene mapping and mutation screening projects. An example of this is where genes were assessed as candidates for the hereditary deafness disorder, DFN2, as part of a collaboration with Dr. Jess Tyson (Institute of Child Health, London).

During the gene identification studies presented here, various loci within the region provided illustrations of elements of genomic organisation. Some examples are presented here, including an example of an insertion of an almost complete copy of the mitochondrial genome into the nuclear genome, examples of alternative polyadenylation sites, a novel, inverted repeat containing a well-studied gene (NXF2), and evidence for a gene fusion event involving this gene.

Landmark-based mapping and restriction fingerprinting had been used to generate bacterial clone contigs, which were positioned on the physical and genetic X chromosome maps (Bentley *et al.,* 2001). In Xq22-q23, these clones included cosmids, P1-Artificial Chromosomes (PACs) and Bacterial Artificial Chromosomes (BACs). A set of minimally overlapping clones (*tiling path*) had been picked for sequencing at the Sanger Institute, using the following approach: clones are sheared and shotgun-cloned into a sequencing vector; these sub-clones are sequenced, and their sequences are assembled into contigs using the alignment program PHRAP (P. Green, University of Washington); finally, remaining sequence gaps or ambiguities are resolved by directed sequencing ("finishing") of genomic templates.

Following the closure of the contig gap described above, gene identification efforts focussed on the Xq22-q23 region spanned by markers *DXS*1510 and *DXS*8088, now spanned by two sequence-ready contigs.

*Chapter 3* 



Figure 3-1 G-banded ideogram of the human X chromosome (Francke), illustrating the region Xq22-q23 chosen for this study. The ~15 Mb region bounded by markers *DXS*1510 (Cen) and *DXS*8088 (Tel) is shown. The three sequence-ready contigs spanning the region are shown (red bars) and a depiction of the tiling paths given at the far right (black – finished and submitted clones, red – finished clones, other colours – unfinished clones).

#### **3.2 Generation of an annotated gene map of human Xq22-q23**

Finished sequences of genomic clones from the region were analysed on a clone-by-clone basis for protein and mRNA homologies (using BLAST with repeatmasked sequence genomic sequence) to sequences in EMBL, TrEMBL and SwissProt. The sequence was also analysed for repeats (using RepeatMasker to search RepBase (Jurka, 2000)) and GC content (using unmasked sequence). Gene prediction programs (GENSCAN, FGENESH) and exon prediction programs (GRAIL) were also used to analyse the sequence (unmasked sequence). This analysis was performed by the Informatics Group, Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute. Sequences from 230 finished clones were analysed by this approach.

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All sequence analysis results were collated in an ACeDB database, Xace (Human Genetics Informatics group, Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute). The 230 finished clone sequences, comprising approximately 14.8 Mb of finished sequence, were systematically manually analysed in the Xace viewer for features indicating potential genes. These features included: overlapping gene predictions from GENSCAN and FGENESH (indicating an increased confidence in the prediction being a true positive), mRNA/EST sequences matching to the genomic sequence and indicating splicing, or protein homologies to the genomic sequence. An example of a typical sequence view is shown in Figure 3-2.

When matching mRNA sequences were found representing genes, the gene structure was annotated using annotation tools within Xace. Protein and mRNA matches were visualised using BLIXEM, a BLAST result visualisation tool within Xace. An example of this visualisation is shown in Figure 3-3. If a gene could be annotated from a single mRNA, the gene was termed a "gene" and the locus designated "GD\_mRNA" in Xace. Where homologies were found to proteins that included frameshifts or stop codons in the genomic sequence homologous region, these sequences were annotated as "pseudogenes", and termed "pseudogene" in Xace.



Figure 3-2 The image above illustrates how results of sequence analyses were collated and viewed within Xace. The yellow bar to the left of the image represents a section of the genomic clone's sequence.

When a gene was annotated through matches to EST sequences, SCCD sequence (see below) or mRNA/protein homologies, it was designated a "predicted gene" and assigned "GD\_composite" in Xace. Most of these genes have evidence of expression, and the assignment of predicted gene reflects inherent limitations of accuracies of annotation when not annotating from a single contiguous mRNA sequence.

Individual loci for all three types of gene were assigned a locus identifier following the syntax – clone name.CX.number or clone name.number. In some instances where a well known HUGO identifier was available, the locus was named as such.



Figure 3-3 Example of an mRNA match viewed using BLIXEM. The diagram illustrates BLASTN matches to mRNA accession D82345 to genomic clone AL035609. The vertical blue box represents the position of the region of alignment highlighted in the lower section in context with other matches to the highlighted mRNA (black) sequence. In this case, the intronic "ag" splice site can be seen preceeding the mRNA match in the lower section. The forward and reverse genomic sequences are highlighted in yellow.

In this manner, 74 genes, 51 predicted genes and 46 pseudogenes were annotated within the region. Some of these structures had been annotated previously by the Human Informatics group (Welcome Trust Sanger Institute) and in these cases where the gene structure did not need updating it was left as the representative annotation. A total of 26 loci could not be fully annotated or updated due to database limitations or their occurrence in recently-finished sequence – in these instances their locus type was determined from examination of the supporting evidence. An example of a gene, a predicted gene and a pseudogene are shown in Figures 3-4, 3-5 and 3-6 respectively.



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Figure 3-4 Example of a "gene" (GD\_mRNA) structure, for locus dJ77O19.CX.1. In this case, the gene was annotated from mRNA accession D82345. The diagram shows an ACeDB representation of the gene structure. Key – (a) mRNA BLASTN matches, (b) EST BLASTN matches, (c) genomic sequence BLASTN matches (d) protein BLASTX matches, (e) GC content (increasing upward thickness of bars represents increased %GC relative to adjacent sequence, downwards a decrease), (f) FGENESH gene prediction, (g) annotated gene structure. The yellow bar represents the clone sequence with scale (in bp) noted. Exons are depicted as coloured boxes, with introns represented as coloured lines connecting the exons.



Figure 3-5 Example of a "predicted gene" (GD\_composite) structure, for locus cV857G6.CX.2. This locus was annotated from overlapping EST sequences. The diagram shows an ACeDB representation of the gene structure.  $Key - (a) EST BLASTN matches, (b) mRNA BLASTN matches, (c)$ genomic sequence BLASTN matches (d) protein BLASTX matches, (e) CpG island, (f) GC content (increasing upward thickness of bars represents increased %GC relative to adjacent sequence, downwards a decrease), (g) GENSCAN and FGENESH gene predictions, (h) annotated gene structure. The yellow bar represents the clone sequence with scale (in bp) noted. Exons are depicted as coloured boxes, with introns represented as coloured lines connecting the exons.



Figure 3-6 Diagram illustrating a "pseudogene" (pseudogene structure) structure, for the pseudogene locus dJ232L22.CX.2. The diagram shows an ACeDB representation of the gene structure. Key: mRNA/protein homologies as in Figure 3-5 above, vertical lines – boundaries of open reading frames (one row for each forward strand reading frame). In this case, an intronless BLASTX match to testis-specific glycerol kinase (accession Q14410) has an in-frame stop codon.

In addition to annotating gene structures on the basis of matching mRNA or splicing EST sequences, when features indicative of potential genes were found (as described above), and no (or partial) human mRNA sequence for the locus was available, an STS was designed within a putative exon. Primers were designed to the putative exonic sequence (multiple STSs were designed in instances where a large gene structure was expected) and were used to screen pools of clones from cDNA libraries by PCR.

Primer pairs designed to putative exons were pre-screened to establish optimal reaction conditions and to confirm localisation of the STS to the human X chromosome. STS pre-screens were performed on the following templates: human genomic DNA, clone 2D (a human-hamster cell hybrid containing the human X chromosome), hamster genomic DNA and  $T_{0,1}E$ . Pre-screens were performed using three different primer annealing temperatures (55°C, 60°C and 65°C) to determine the cycling parameters that give a visible and specific DNA product.

Screening was performed first on primary pools, and STSs positive in these pools were taken forward for screening of secondary pools of lower complexity. Nested primers were then designed, and SSPCR performed on up to three, positive

secondary pools from different tissues where appropriate. The libraries screened and the protocols used are as described in Chapter 2. Sequence from resulting SSPCR products (termed sccd sequence) was then viewed in Xace following BLAST of the sequence against Xace clone sequences, and used to extend gene structures.

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A total of 161 STSs were designed, to 127 putative genes. Of these, 13 failed pre-screening (as described in Chapter 2) and a further 16 were not taken further due to updated mRNA BLASTN information rendering them redundant. Of the 132 STSs screened against the primary cDNA pools, 6 experiments failed and 77 STSs gave positive results against one or more pools. In addition, for the NRK gene, due to the large predicted structure of this gene, four additional STSs and 5' RACE primers were designed to give product from direct PCR from an additional placental cDNA RACE library (kindly supplied by Jackie Bye). Sequence of products derived from PCR using these reagents were also used in annotation of the NRK gene. Results of pre-screening and pool-screens are given in table 3-1.

A total of 142 SSPCR products were sequenced (Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute, R&D group), and resulting sequence was entered into Xace to display matches to genomic sequence and used for gene annotation. An example of an experiment illustrating steps from pre-screening of primers to generation of PCR product by SSPCR is shown in Figure 3-7. An example of sccd sequence being used to annotate a gene structure is shown in Figure 3-8.

A striking feature of this study was the redundancy of the approach described caused by release of large amounts of mRNA sequence from large-scale cDNA sequencing projects (see Chapter 1). The majority of initially novel predicted genes gained mRNA coverage from these sources. As the genomic sequence analysis was "static", this redundancy did not become apparent before many of the STSs had been screened. Nevertheless, the directed approach demonstrated that, when combined with such large-scale mRNA data, comprehensive gene identification and annotation can be achieved as not all genes gained mRNA coverage from publicly available sources.

A complete list of genes, predicted genes and pseudogenes is given in table 3-2, with brief descriptions of their functions (derived from LocusLink, NCBI). In cases, where no information was available from LocusLink, information regarding similarity to known genes or domains found within the predicted protein (from analysis using InterPro at the EBI) is shown. A schematic representation of the genes within the Xq22-q23 region is given in Figure 3-9.

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Table 3-1 Results of STS pre-screens and pool-screens. Locus names and gene type are given where features that STSs were designed to became annotated. The stSG numbers and optimal pre-screen annealing temperatures are given. FAIL denotes an unclear pre-screen result. Positive cDNA libraries are denoted by their letter codes (see Chapter 2). Sccd numbers assigned to SSPCR products sent for sequencing are given where appropriate.



Figure 3-7 Prescreening, poolscreening and SSPCR for STS stSG84336. Prescreening results at annealing temperature of  $55^{\circ}$ C are shown. M denotes 1kb ladder.



Figure 3-8 Diagram illustrating annotation of a gene structure using SCCD sequence. The diagram shows an ACeDB representation of locus dJ233G16.CX.1. Key – (a) SCCD sequence BLASTN matches, (b) EST BLASTN matches, (c) LINE repeats, (d) GC content (increasing upward thickness of bars represents increased %GC relative to adjacent sequence, downwards a decrease), (e) annotated gene structure, (f) vertical lines depicting positions of the primers used for the initial primary poolscreen. The yellow bar represents the clone sequence with scale (in bp) noted. Exons are depicted as coloured boxes, with introns represented as coloured lines connecting the exons. In this case, the short length of the 5' exon meant BLASTN failed to locate a match to the SCCD sequence (also occurring if masked by repeats), but the splicing of the SCCD sequence could be verified on manual inspection of the sequence.















Table 3-2 Genes, predicted genes and pseudogenes annotated within Xq22-q23. Pseudogene function/predicted functions are not given, and are denoted n/a.



Figure 3-9 Genes annotated on finished sequence of the human Xq22-q23 region from clone dJ90205 (AL109750) to dJ137P21 (AL953888), annotated as described in this Chapter. The region beginning is at top left, continuing ont the centromeric end, "Tel" the telomeric end. Arrows represent annotated genes, direction indicating transcription direction. Red arrows represent "gene" loci, orange arrows "predicted gene" loci. Pseudogenes are omitted f blue bars. The order of the clones (and their accession numbers) within the sequence contigs is given in Appendix A.1. A dotted grey line extends from the L1RAPL2 gene to illustrate the length of this very large gene. Appr indicated beneath the blue bars (from Ensembl human v19.34a.1).

## **3.3 Selected features of the region**

## *3.3.1 Discovery of extensive paralogy within human Xq22 and between Xp and Xq22-q23*

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In the process of annotating genes on the sequence of human Xq22-q23, sequence similarities were noted between different loci within the region. Further investigation of these sequences revealed a large number of paralogous loci, many of which appear to be expressed genes. Fourteen sets of paralogous loci were found, with numbers of paralogues ranging from two to ten. The gene families identified were as follows: NADE-like, NB-thymosins, ALEX-like, GASP-like, pp21-like, Rablike, COL4A5/COL4A6, TEX13A/TEX13B , NXF-like, TCP11-like, PRO0082 pseudogenes, Histone H2B, cU116E7.CX.2-like and cU116E7.CX.3-like. The extent of paralogy within the corresponding region of the mouse genome is explored in Chapter 4 and a full description of these genes is given in Chapter 5.

During the annotation of genes in Xq22-q23, it was also noted that several genes had similarly named counterparts mapping to Xp, such as MID1 (Xp22.3) and MID2 (Xq22). In addition, during BLAST analyses using certain Xq22 genes as queries, genomic sequences from Xp were registered as hits. Perry *et al.* (Perry *et al.,* 1999) also noted paralogy between Xp and Xq, and suggested an intra-chromosomal duplication involving the Xq22 region. As the Xq22 transcript map developed, a systematic search was made for genes mapping to Xp with paralogues within Xq22 q23. This search involved both literature review and BLAST analyses utilising Xq22 genes from the transcript map against genomic and mRNA/protein sequences.

In this way, a total of 15 pairs of paralogues shared between Xp and Xq were discovered. These include 11 novel observations of Xp/Xq22 paralogue pairs. The remaining four gene pairs were noted by Perry *et al.;* at present PHKA1 and PHKA2 are not included in this description of the putative segmental duplication due to their relative distances from other Xp/Xq22 paralogues, although their involvement in the event cannot be discounted. For a diagram illustrating the Xp/Xq paralogue pairs, see Figure 3-10. These Xp/Xq paralogues will be described in further detail in Chapter 6.



Figure 3-10 Observations of Xp/Xq paralogues. Xp/q paralogues noted by Perry *et al.***,** (1999) are in red italic type, new observations are in bold type. Locus names assigned during annotation of Xq22 are given in parentheses.

## *3.3.2 NXF2 inverted repeat and gene fusion*

During annotation of Xq22, the NXF2 gene was found to reside in an inverted repeat of approximately 140 kb with extremely high sequence conservation (see Figure 3-11). The NXF2 family of genes have been the subject of intensive study in the last few years since the discovery of their role in mRNA export (Herold *et al.,* 2000). That there are two copies of the NXF2 gene would have escaped notice previously, as there is only a single nucleotide difference between their predicted mRNAs, encoding a silent mutation within an alanine codon towards the C-terminus of the predicted protein.



Figure 3-11 Diagram showing results of Dotter analysis of the genomic sequence flanking the two NXF2 loci (against itself). The red box highlights the inverted repeat.

Additionally, a TCP11-like gene upstream of the NXF2 locus was found to be included in the same duplication (Figure 3-12). The TCP11 gene (located on human 6p21.3-p21.2) encodes a receptor for fertilisation-promoting peptide, thought to play a role in fertility and sperm function (Ma *et al.,* 2002). Two transcripts were observed (represented by EMBL sequences AK057385 and AJ277659) that spanned the TCP11-like and NXF2 genes, linking their structures. This suggests that the two loci are a part of the same gene and potentially represent a gene-fusion event, as the other NXF genes are not linked to TCP11-like loci. Each locus appears to also give rise to separate transcripts also (represented by EMBL sequences AK005772 and AJ277526). An alternative explanation is that the mRNA transcript is an example of aberrant transcription. Without further study it is difficult to reconcile these alternate hypotheses. It is interesting to note in this regard that the NXF2 gene has been suggested to play a role in spermatogenesis (Wang *et al.,* 2001).

This provides a striking example of genomic sequence analysis revealing previously unknown complexity in gene organisation, and further studies could now be directed to elucidate roles of different TCP11-like and NXF2 transcripts. Any studies on NXF2 must now address the issue of two almost identical genes and transcripts complicating interpretation of results.

The occurrence of a conserved *Alu*Y repeat within the inverted repeat (Figure 3-12) provides evidence for the duplication having occurred subsequent to the divergence of the human and mouse lineages and approximately 15 Mya, when the *Alu*Y family is thought to have dispersed throughout the genome. An alternative explanation for the conserved *Alu*Y - that two copies integrated independently at similar positions - is highly unlikely.

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However, another possibility is that gene conversion between the two loci has resulted in the propagation of an initial *Alu* insertion, and could account for the high level of sequence similarity seen. A relatively young age of the duplication would also be consistent with the very high level of sequence similarity seen.

At the time of writing, the presence of a sequence gap near the Nxf2 locus in mouse precluded confirmation of a single locus in the mouse, which would discriminate between these two alternate hypotheses but annotation of the mouse region did provide an indication that there may only be one locus (see Chapter 4).

The presence of two highly-related NXF2 loci in humans, with complex gene structures including transcripts spanning a TCP11-like gene, means that any studies aimed at elucidating the function of NXF2 in humans using information from mouse models must be interpreted with caution.

 An RT-PCR experiment provided some information on NXF2 and autosomal TCP11 transcript tissue distribution (Figure 3-13). Primers were designed to autosomal TCP11, and to different TCP11-like and NXF2 variants shown in Figure 3- 12. Attempts were made to design primers that would discriminate between some of the TCP11-like and NXF2 variants, and the positions of these primers are indicated in Figure 3-12. PCR was performed on cDNA from twenty different tissue RNA samples as described in Chapter 2.

A striking feature was the strong expression seen in testis for most of the NXF2/TCP11-like locus transcript variants and for autosomal TCP11, in accordance with what has been noted in the literature. Further detailed experiments would be required to investigate the patterns of different variant and TCP11-like/NXF2 fusion transcripts comprehensively.



Figure 3-12 (a) A schematic representation of the inverted repeat containing the TCP11-like and NXF2 loci, and an adjacent TCP11-like pseudogene. The repeat boundaries are denoted by red boxes, and the location and transcriptional directions of relevant genes denoted by arrows. The blue circles represent an *Alu*Y repeat. Genomic clones forming the tiling path of the region are depicted as open boxes. (b) a schematic representation of the TCP11-like and NXF2 genes, and mRNAs linking the genes. Transcripts v1 and v4 represent the separate loci transcripts, and v2 and v3 the transcripts linking the loci. Boxes denote exons, connected by black lines representing introns. The angled arrows and upright lines represent putative start and stop codons respectively for predicted protein products. Asterisks denote positions of primers used for expression profiling, as shown in Figure 3-13. A single asterisk for a transcript denotes closely paired primers, two asterisks the individual primers.





	Gene	ರ ã ಹ $ensoverline{a}$ 七	⋧ marro one ≏	(cerebellum) Brain	(whole) <b>Brain</b>	brain Fetal	liver Fetal	Heart	Kidney	ď Ę ー	aun ▬	Placenta	Prostae	$_{\rm gland}$ vary 'ਜ਼ੋ $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$	de mus Skeletal	Spleen	Testis	Thymus	and ದ Thyroid	Trachea	s teru ⋍
stSG453287	TCP11Lv1																				
stSG453288	NXF2/TCP11Lv2																				
stSG453289	NXF2/TCP11Lv4																				
stSG453370	TCP11																				
stSG453302	NXF <sub>2</sub>																				

Figure 3-13 (a) Images of Vistra Green stained 2.5% agarose gels containing RT-PCR products for primers designed to NXF2 and TCP11-like (TCP11L) variants and TCP11. The expected products are arrowed and their expected sizes shown. The red box in the gel images is the negative control lane, which whilst showing a faint product in some cases, is not the same size as that for specific product. The lane with a blue asterisk is the genomic DNA positive control. STS names in red denote primer pairs which span an intron. (b) a summary of the RT-PCR results, with tissues tabulated according to the images shown in (a). Black filled cells denote medium to strong PCR product bands detected, grey cells denote weaker bands and white cells denote no PCR product detected. Hatched cells denote uninformative tissues, where a RT-PCR reaction was omitted or product is difficult to discern prohibiting conclusions regarding expression in that tissue. The NXF2 variant used to design the primers is indicated, and relates to figure 3-12. STS stSG453302 was designed to the 3' exon of NXF2.

## *3.3.3 Alternative 3'-UTR usage*

From annotation of gene structures within Xq22-q23, several instances were noted where 3' ESTs were found to cluster at several positions in the 3' UTR of a gene. These appeared to represent evidence of different polyadenylation (polyA) site usage. Three such genes, ALEX3, TBG and CSTF2, were chosen for RT-PCR studies to assess expression of the different 3' UTR variants in different tissues.

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BLAST matches of ESTs to the genes were studied, and primers were designed to regions of the 3' UTR just upstream of the different polyadenylation sites (indicated by common start sites of 3' EST matches). These primers were then used to screen twenty human cDNA samples from tissue total RNAs by PCR (see Chapter 2).



Figure 3-14 a schematic representation of the primer positions within the 3' UTRs of (a) ALEX3, (b) CSTF2 and (c) TBG.



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Figure 3-15 Images of 2.5% agarose gels containing RT-PCR products for primers designed to 3'-UTR variants, for (a) ALEX3, (b) CSTF2 and (c) TBG. Expected product band sizes are shown with an arrow. The red box in the gel images is the negative control lane, which whilst showing a faint product in some cases, is not the same size as that for specific product. The lane denoted with a blue asterisk is the genomic DNA positive control lane.

For CSTF2 and TBG, the most 5' STS would detect both UTR transcripts, with the more 3' STSs detecting the longer transcript. For ALEX3, the most 5' STS would detect all three transcripts, with the next most 3' STS detecting two longer transcripts and the furthest 3' STS detecting the longest transcript.



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Figure 3-16 A tabulated summary of the RT-PCR results, with tissues tabulated according to the images shown in Figure 3-15, for (a) ALEX3, (b) CSTF2 and (c) TBG. Black filled cells denote medium to strong PCR product bands detected, grey cells denote weaker product bands detected and white cells denote no PCR product band detected. Hatched cells denote uninformative tissues, where a RT-PCR reaction was omitted or product is obscured, prohibiting conclusions regarding expression in that tissue.

(c)

stSG158926

The results of these experiments are shown in Figure 3-15 and Figure 3-16. For ALEX3, some differences in expression were seen for different 3'-UTR variants.

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indicating that in these tissues the first and second polyadenylation sites are preferentially utilised.

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For CSTF2, the longer UTR variant was not detected in heart, indicating that in this tissue the first polyadenylation site is preferred. No distinct differences in transcript detection were noted for TBG.

 For other tissues, in some cases longer UTR variants were detected in tissues where a more 5' STS (which should detect both shorter and longer variants) had failed to detect product. This illustrates limitations of the RT-PCR approach. The results noted above for ALEX3 and CSTF2 are more clear however, and whilst further work would be needed to confirm this preliminary data, some differences in expression patterns of different 3' UTR variants have been suggested.

### *3.3.4 Mitochondrial insertion into the nuclear genome at Xq22*

Annotation of Xq22 revealed a sequence (bA522L3; accession AL590407) with BLASTX matches to all the proteins encoded by mitochondrial genome. The matches lie within an intron of the gene dJ769N13.CX.3, as depicted in Figure 3-17.

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Figure 3-17 Xace representation of mitochondrial genome-encoded protein matches within clone bA522L3. Vertical magenta boxes represent exons of dJ769N13.CX.3, connected by horizontal lines representing introns. The positions of the mitochondrial protein homologies are shown. Genomic clones are depicted and their accession numbers shown at the base of the figure.

Nuclear genome sequences related to mitochondrial sequences have been observed before, but rarely to this extent (Tourmen *et al.,* 2002). Further investigation of these homologies revealed well conserved order and orientation of the homologies with respect to the mitochondrial genome, and a BLASTN comparison of the Xq22 sequence against the mitochondrial genome (performed by Dr. Julian Parkhill) confirmed that the matches appeared to represent an almost complete insertion of the ~16.6 kb mitochondrial genome into the nuclear genome at Xq22 (see Figure 3-18). BLAST matches from in order from the 12S RNA gene to the CYTB gene indicate insertion of approximately bases 650-15882 of the 16.571 kb

mitochondrial genome, (approximately 92%). This is an approximation as some segments do not show high BLAST matches.

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Figure 3-18 Diagram illustrating BLASTN matches between human Xq22 sequence (from clone bA522L3) and the mitochondrial genome. The matches were visualised using ACT (thanks to Dr. Julian Parkhill, Microbial Sequencing Unit, Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute). The red lines represent BLASTN matches. The upper section represents bA522L3 sequence (masked for repeats), and the lower section the mitochondrial genome. The green and yellow bars underline approximate positions of the 12S and 16S rRNA genes respectively. The blue annotations of the mitochondrial genome depict positions of protein-coding genes.

Furthermore, the pattern of BLAST matches seen in Figure 3-18 suggests a mechanism for the insertion event. Between the 12S and 16S rRNA genes, a break in the order of the BLASTN matches is seen, whereby the 12S matches are seen distal to the Cytochrome b gene in the nuclear genome. This suggests that a breakage occurred in the mitochondrial genome sequence between the 12S and 16S rRNA genes, and that the linearised mitochondrial genome then integrated into the nuclear genome via a DNA-mediated mechanism. The integration could also have occurred via recombination between the two genomes, with the recombination site located between the 12S and 16S genes (Figure 3-19). The other alternative, that the integration occurred via an mRNA transcript, is much less likely: the mitochondrial promoter lies upstream of the 12S rRNA gene, and insertion via the transcript should result in completely co-linear homologies between the two genomes.

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Figure 3-19 Schematic diagram of a model for integration of the mitochondrial genome in sequence accession AL590407 (bA522L3). Grey bars represent the nuclear genome, black bars the mitochondrial genome. The yellow boxes represents the 16S rRNA gene, the green boxes the 12S rRNA gene. The left section represents a linearization-based model, the right section represents a recombination-based model.

### **3.4 Discussion**

The studies presented in this chapter have demonstrated the utility of genomic sequence information, when combined with the availability of large-scale mRNA sequence data, in the identification and description of genes. When this study began, 30 genes were noted within the region; when the study was completed 74 genes, 51 predicted genes and 46 pseudogenes had been manually annotated within the region. A feature of note was the annotation of a GK pseudogene, which probably accounts for the mis-assignment of the GK gene to Xq22 (Grutzner *et al.*, 2002), illustrating the benefit of manual annotation.

 Initially, many novel genes were identified, often as partial structures. A more complete description of these structures required targeted screening of cDNA resources. However, as the study progressed, the release of large amounts of mRNA sequence information superseded these efforts, and illustrated the utility of that resource in gene identification.

During construction of the transcript map, the manual analysis and annotation of 15 Mb of human genomic sequence revealed several unusual aspects of gene organisation. The NXF2 locus provided a good example of how genomic sequence information combined with annotation can reveal subtleties in gene structures that are unlikely to be identified from mRNA-based approaches alone - in this case the presence of an almost identical copy of the gene, which could potentially be under different transcriptional regulation. It also highlighted a previously unobserved fusion of the NXF2 gene structure with that of a TCP11-like gene, an intriguing observation given that NXF2 and TCP11 have been implicated in male fertility.

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The observation of alternative polyadenylation site usage by several genes within the region, a small sample compared to the genome as a whole, highlights that alternate polyadenylation site usage is a widespread occurrence. Some differences in expression patterns were seen for different 3' UTR variants for ALEX3 and CSTF2, but these studies were limited in scope and did not address any temporal aspects of differences between variants. Alternate polyadenylation site usage could be used to control the incorporation of elements conferring different mRNA stability or localisation properties. The presence of functional sequences within the 3' UTR of genes suggests that further studies of alternative polyadenylation of genes will aid in the understanding of their transcriptional and translation control, and will need to be taken into account in completing annotation of the genome.

The discovery of an almost complete (approximately 92%) insertion of the mitochondrial genome into the nuclear genome not only demonstrated utility of the genomic sequence in uncovering events in genome evolution, but also provided information which allowed a DNA-mediated mechanism of insertion to be inferred. The presence of various nuclear mitochondrial insertions ("numts") has been noted, and the example presented here is unusual in its completeness. Early BLAST analysis of the draft human genome sequence identified 1105 sequences homologous to mitochondrial DNA, representing 286 pseudogenes (Tourmen *et al.*, 2002). From this study, only seven numts greater than 10 kb in length were found. Insertion of the mitochondrial genome or fragments thereof into the nuclear genome, presumably occurring over a period of time, highlights the dynamic nature of the genome and the potential for interaction of cellular material normally segregated within the cell.

The generation of a transcript map of the Xq22-q23 region will prove valuable in studies aimed at screening genes for mutations in hereditary disorders, and was utilised in one such approach attempting to identify the DFN2 gene (collaboration with Dr. Jess Tyson, Institute of Child Health, London).

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 Most importantly, the gene annotation map provided evidence of an unusually high number of duplicated genes within the region, as well as a set of paralogues that appear part of a larger segmental duplication resulting in paralogy between Xp and Xq22. Sequence repeats within Xq22 had been noted previously (G.R. Howell, personal communication) and the studies presented in this chapter revealed the striking degree of gene duplication present.

These observations provided the impetus for the studies presented in Chapter 4 where the region equivalent to Xq22 was investigated in order to ascertain the level of duplication within the mouse region. The gene duplications within Xq22 and the larger segmental duplication are described in detail in Chapter 5 and 6 respectively.

During this study, genomic sequencing and automated annotation of the genome (Ensembl, UCSC genome browser and NCBI map viewer) progressed rapidly. Whilst invaluable in genomic studies and interpreting the genome, automated approaches alone may miss subtleties of gene structure and genomic organisation, and should be combined with careful manual annotation. This is indeed now being adopted, by the HAVANA group (Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute) and VEGA initiative (Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute).