

Molecular Basis of Disease



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Wayne Lam

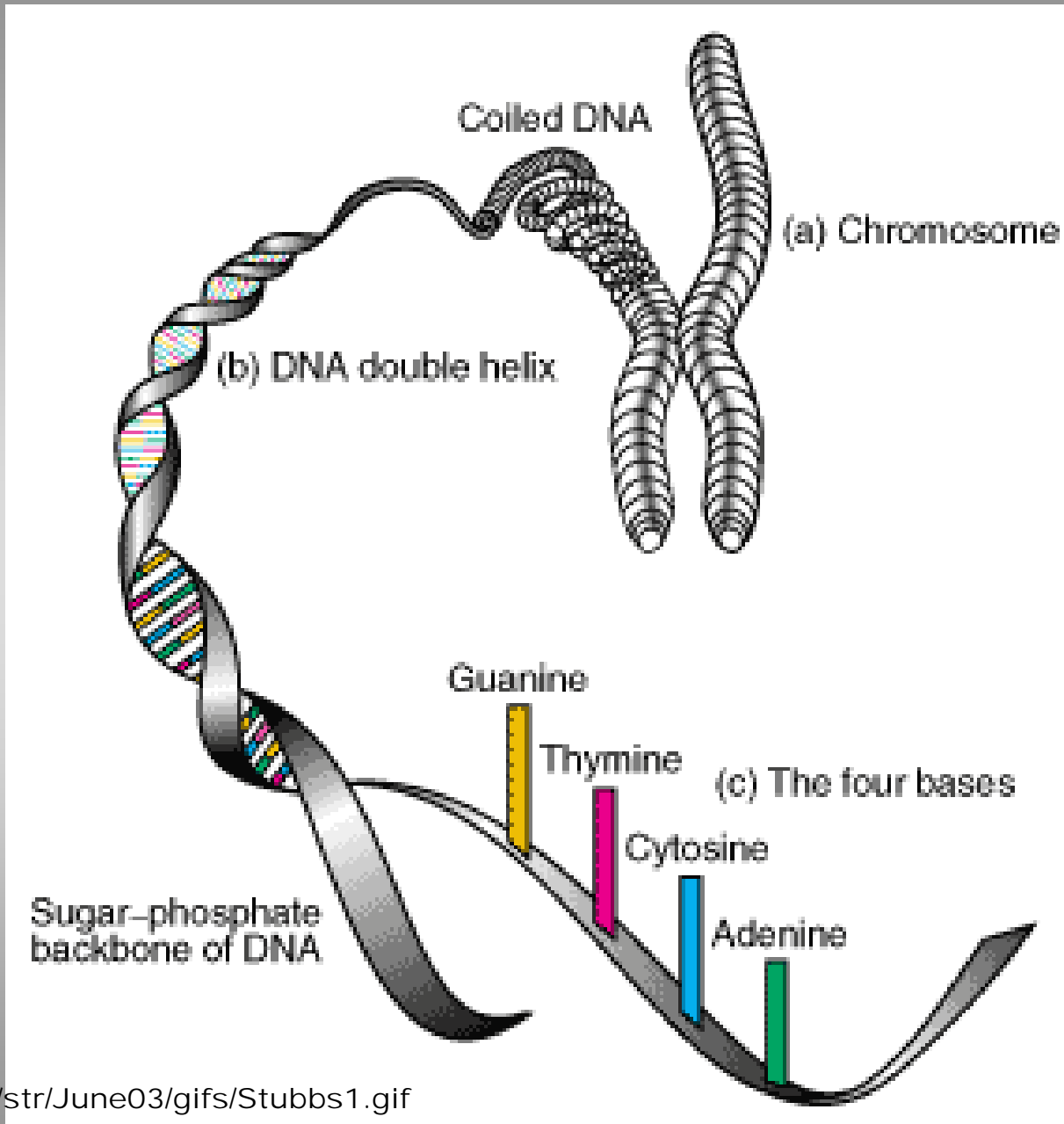
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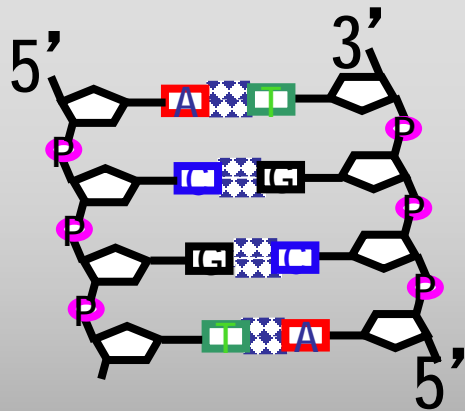


Genetics:

Some basic molecular definitions

- Central dogma of genetics

DNA \leftrightarrow RNA \leftrightarrow Protein \leftrightarrow Phenotype



?

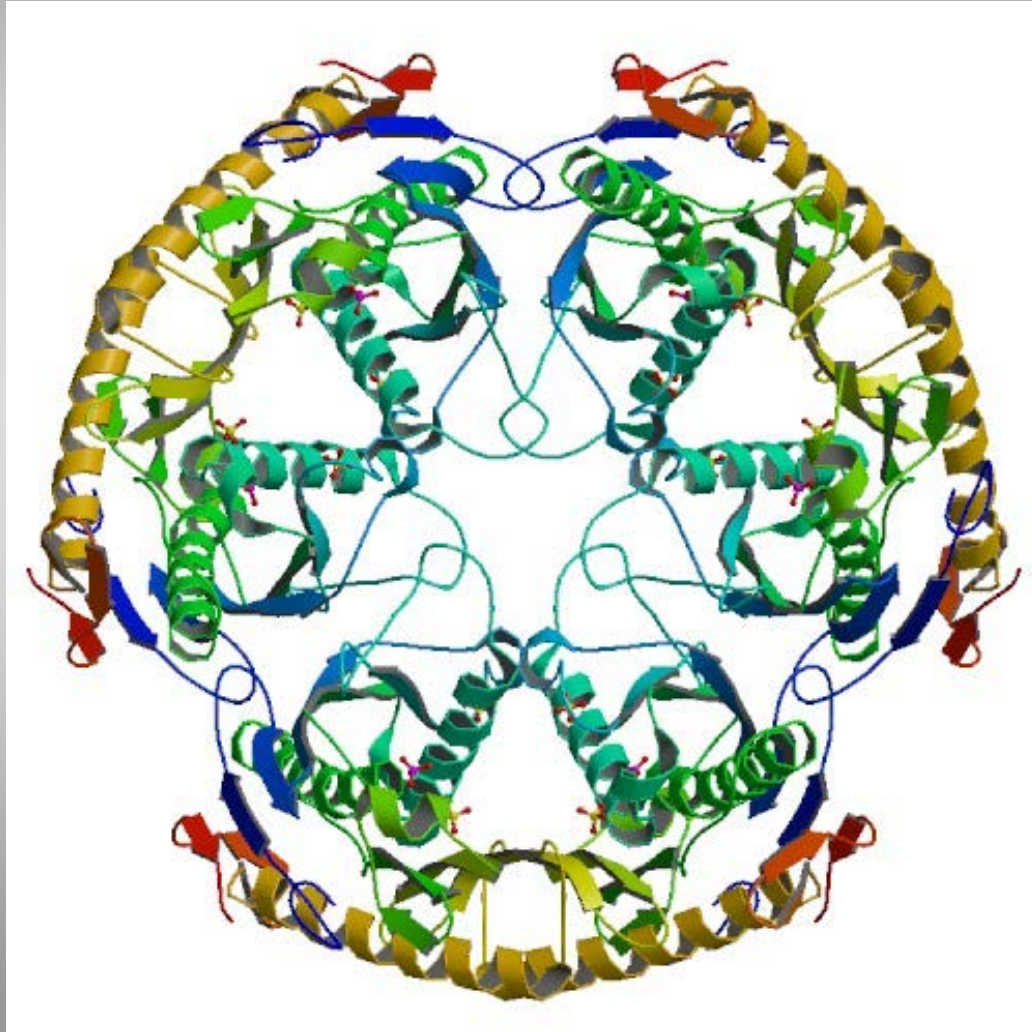


What is a pathogenic mutation?

Most important question in molecular genetics

Is this gene change pathogenic?
i.e. is this the cause of the disorder

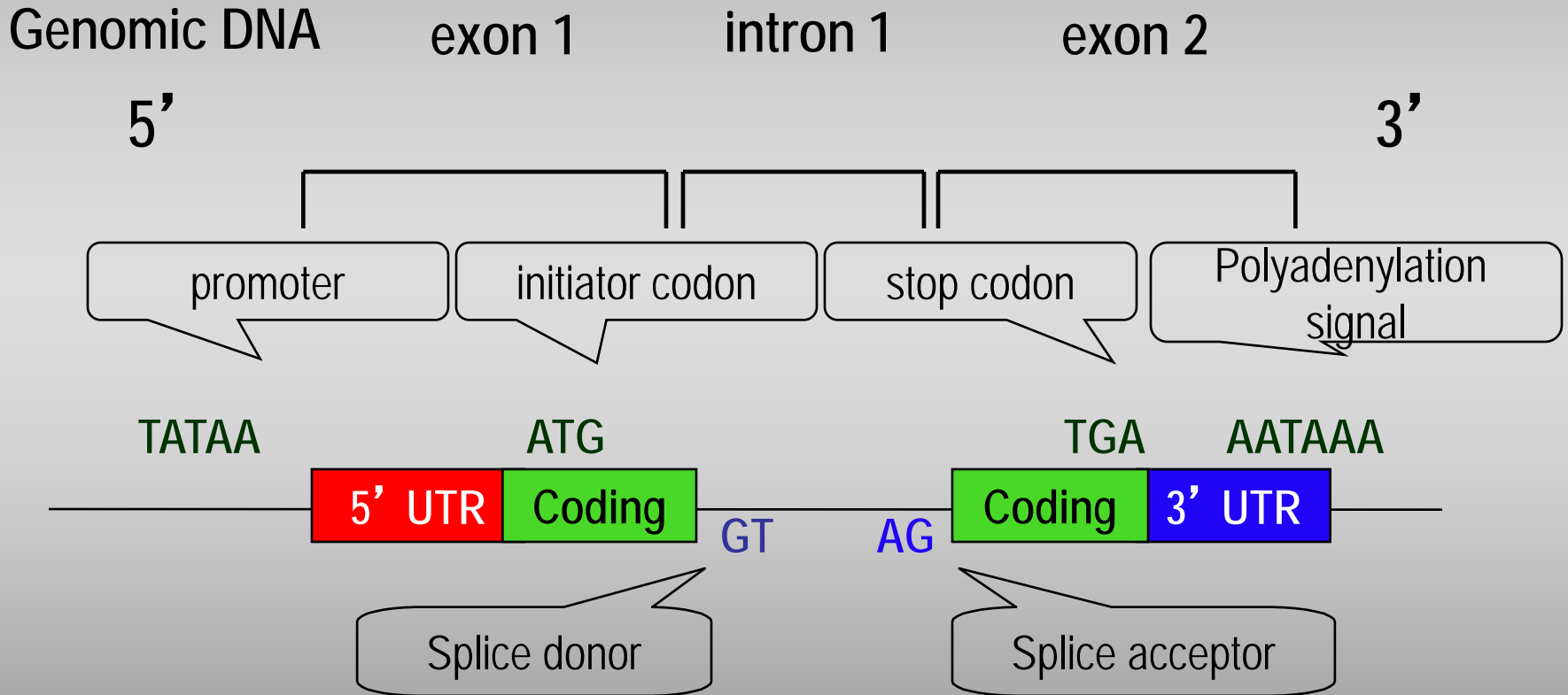
Diagram of the crystal structure of a protein



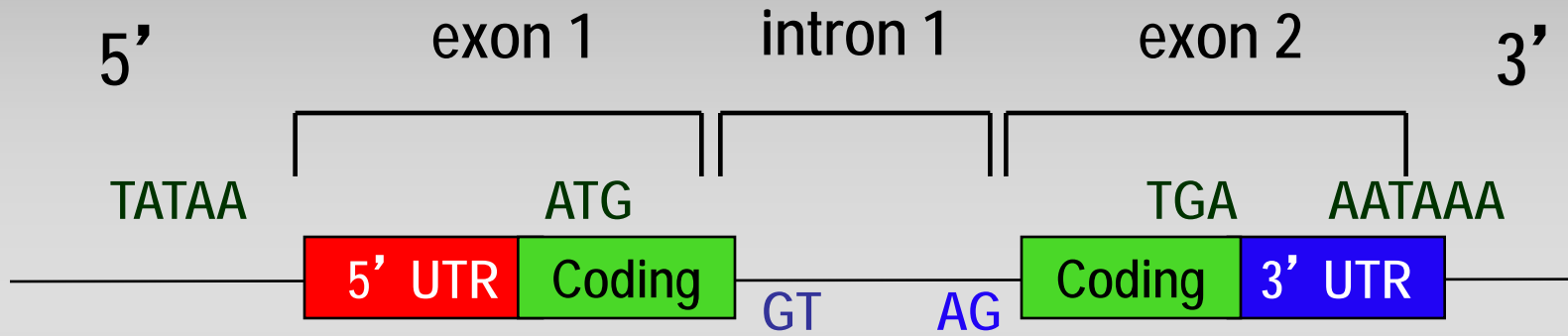
Lecture Outcomes

- Know the different classifications of mutations
- How to determine pathogenicity
- How mutations cause disease
- How mutations are investigated
- Know some unusual behaviour of DNA mutations

Anatomy of a Gene



Gene Structure Transcription



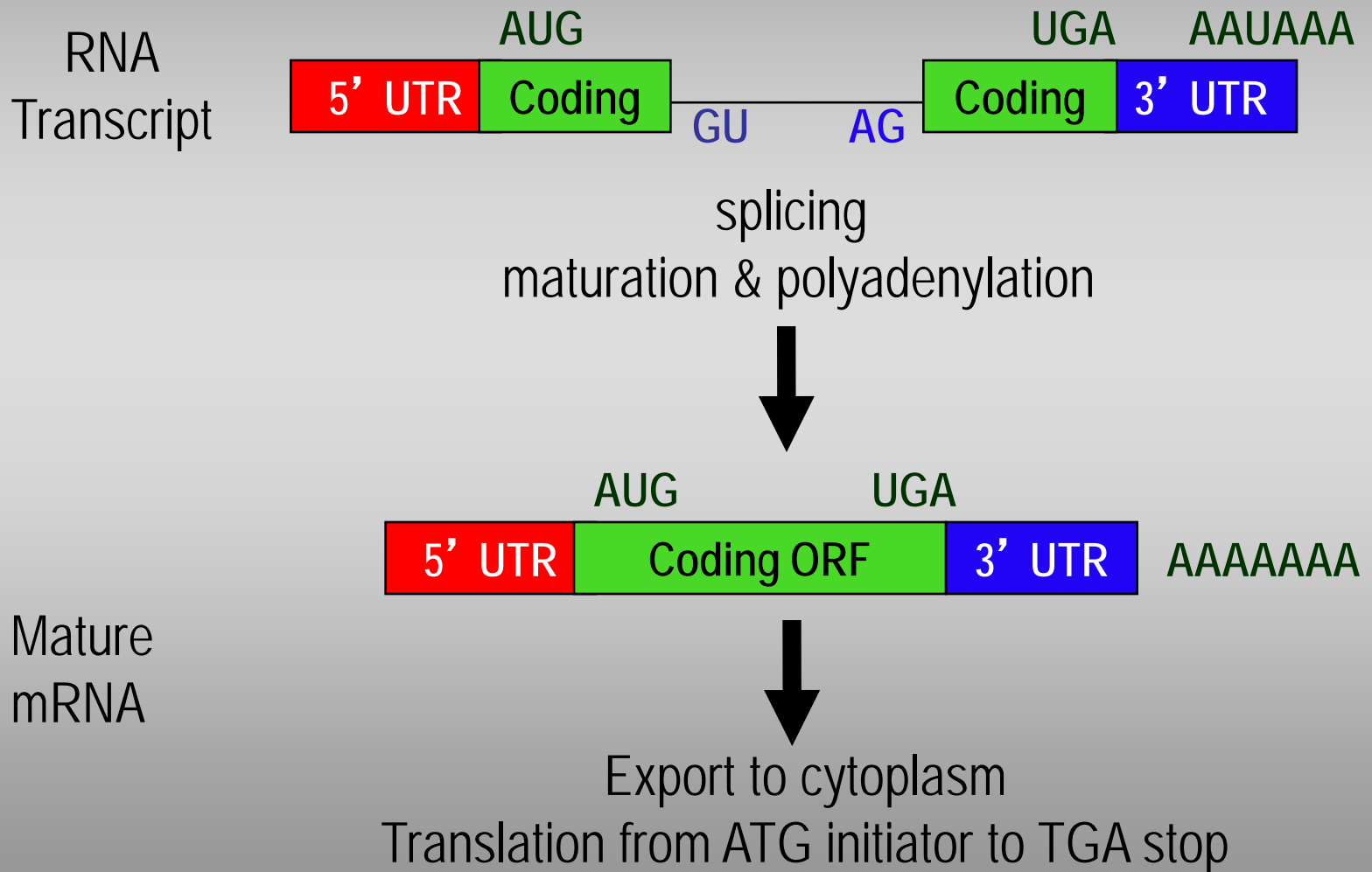
Genomic DNA

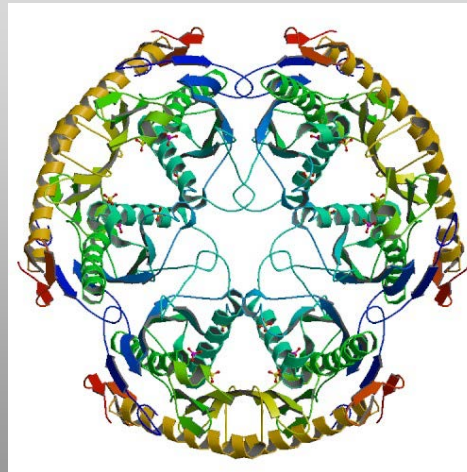
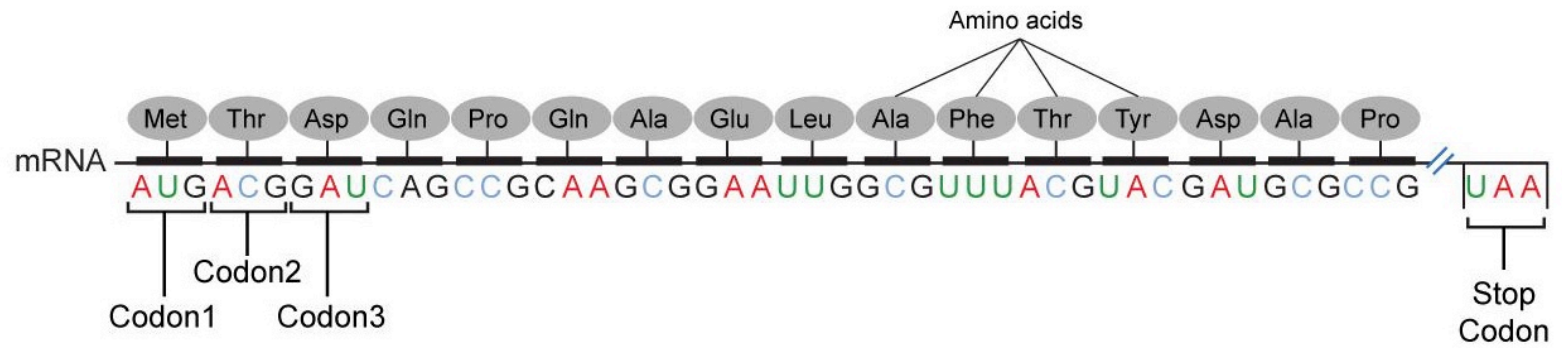
Transcription



RNA
Transcript

Post transcriptional modifications





Mutation Criteria

- Does it affect the function of the protein ?
- It is in a conserved region of the protein ?
- Does it co-segregate with the disorder in the family ?
- Is the change seen in the normal population ?

Types of mutation in DNA sequences

- **Deletions**
 - Ranges from 1bp to megabases
- **Insertions**
 - Ranges vary can be as small as 1bp up to megabases
 - Duplication and inversions
- **Single base pair substitutions (point mutations)**
- **Frameshifts**
 - Caused by deletions, insertions or splicing errors
- **Dynamic mutations**
 - Tandem repeats

Types of mutation in DNA sequences

The cat sat on the mat

Wild type

The cat **spa** to nth ema t

Insertion

The cas ato nt hem at

Deletion

Frameshifts

The cat

Stop / Nonsense

The **car** sat on the mat

Missense

Types of mutation in DNA sequences

The cat sat on the mat

Wild type

The cat **spa** to nth ema t

Insertion

The cas ato nt hem at

Deletion

Frameshifts

The cat

Stop / Nonsense

The **car** sat on the mat

Missense

The **cat cat** sat on the mat

Triplet expansion

(Dynamic mutation)

The **tas tac** on the mat

Inversion

Point mutations

- Can be classified according to their effect on the product of translation
- A *synonymous* mutation
 - changes a codon into another that specifies the same amino acid as the original codon
 - due to redundancies within genetic code
- A *nonsynonymous* mutation
 - changes a codon into another that specifies a different amino acid to that of the original codon

Point mutations

- *Nonsynonymous* mutations
 - Missense mutations
 - replace one amino acid with another
 - Nonsense mutations
 - replace an amino acid codon with a stop codon
 - Splice site mutations
 - create or destroy splicing signals

Missense mutations (within exon)

- Has it caused a change in amino acid?
 - Some redundancy in the genetic code
 - 20 amino acids and 64 possible codons

		Second Letter							
		T	C	A	G				
First Letter	T	TTT } Phe TTC } TTA } Leu TTG }	TCT } TCC } Ser TCA } TCG }	TAT } Tyr TAC } TAA } Stop TAG } Stop	TGT } Cys TGC } TGA } Stop TGG } Trp	T	C	A	G
	C	CTT } CTC } Leu CTA } CTG }	CCT } CCC } Pro CCA } CCG }	CAT } His CAC } CAA } Gln CAG }	CGT } CGC } Arg CGA } CGG }	T	C	A	G
	A	ATT } ATC } Ile ATA } ATG } Met	ACT } ACC } Thr ACA } ACG }	AAT } Asn AAC } AAA } Lys AAG }	AGT } Ser AGC } AGA } Arg AGG }	T	C	A	G
	G	GTT } GTC } Val GTA } GTG }	GCT } GCC } Ala GCA } GCG }	GAT } Asp GAC } GAA } Glu GAG }	GGT } GGC } Gly GGA } GGG }	T	C	A	G

Missense mutations

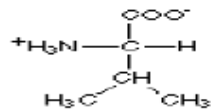
(within exon)

Where there has been a change in amino acid

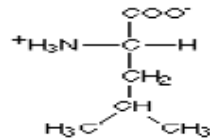
- Has it caused a conserved or non-conservative change in amino acid
 - Change in polarity
 - Change in hydrophobicity

Missense mutations

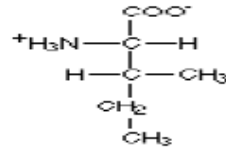
Amino acids with hydrophobic side groups



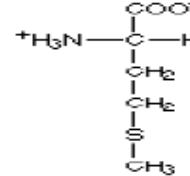
Valine
(val)



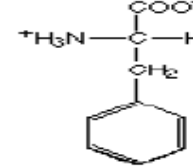
Leucine
(leu)



Isoleucine
(ile)

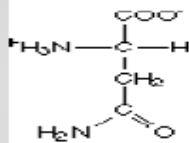


Methionine
(met)

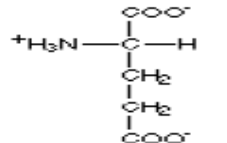


Phenylalanine
(phe)

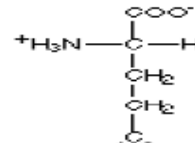
Amino acids with hydrophilic side groups



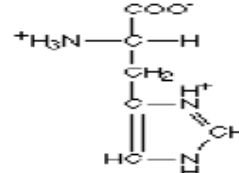
Asparagine
(asn)



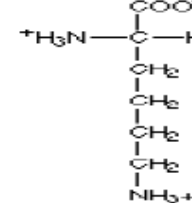
Glutamic acid
(glu)



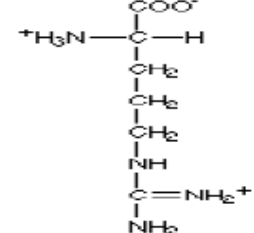
Glutamine
(gln)



Histidine
(his)

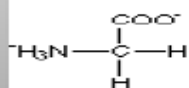


Lysine
(lys)

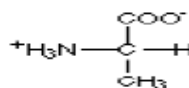


Arginine
(arg)

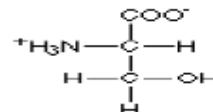
Amino acids that are in between



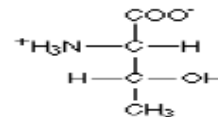
Glycine
(gly)



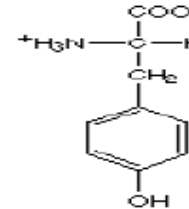
Alanine
(ala)



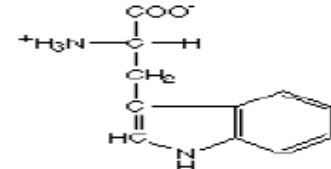
Serine
(ser)



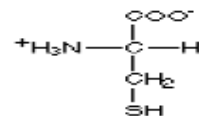
Threonine
(thr)



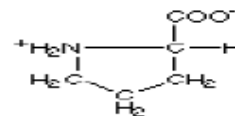
Tyrosine
(tyr)



Tryptophan
(trp)



Cysteine
(cys)



Proline
(pro)

Grantham Matrix

From: Grantham R. Amino acid difference formula to help explain protein evolution. Science 185:862-4 (1974)

Arg	Leu	Pro	Thr	Ala	Val	Gly	Ile	Phe	Tyr	Cys	His	Gln	Asn	Lys	Asp	Glu	Met	Trp	
110	145	74	58	99	124	56	142	155	144	112	89	68	46	121	65	80	135	177	Ser
	102	103	71	112	96	125	97	97	77	180	29	43	86	26	96	54	91	101	Arg
		98	92	96	32	138	5	22	36	198	99	113	153	107	172	138	15	61	Leu
			38	27	68	42	95	114	110	169	77	76	91	103	108	93	87	147	Pro
				58	69	59	89	103	92	149	47	42	65	78	85	65	81	128	Thr
					64	60	94	113	112	195	86	91	111	106	126	107	84	148	Ala
						109	29	50	55	192	84	96	133	97	152	121	21	88	Val
							135	153	147	159	98	87	80	127	94	98	127	184	Gly
								21	33	198	94	109	149	102	168	134	10	61	Ile
									22	205	100	116	158	102	177	140	28	40	Phe
										194	83	99	143	85	160	122	36	37	Tyr
											174	154	139	202	154	170	196	215	Cys
												24	68	32	81	40	87	115	His
													46	53	61	29	101	130	Gln
														94	23	42	142	174	Asn
															101	56	95	110	Lys
																45	160	181	Asp
																	126	152	Glu
																		67	Met

- Method in calculating the significance of the amino acid substitution
- The bigger the score the more likely that the missense mutation has caused a change in the resultant protein structure

Mutation Analysis

It is in a conserved region of the protein ?

- More likely to affect function if changes in an region conserved across species (orthologs) or between members of a gene family (paralogs)
- Indicative of critical function

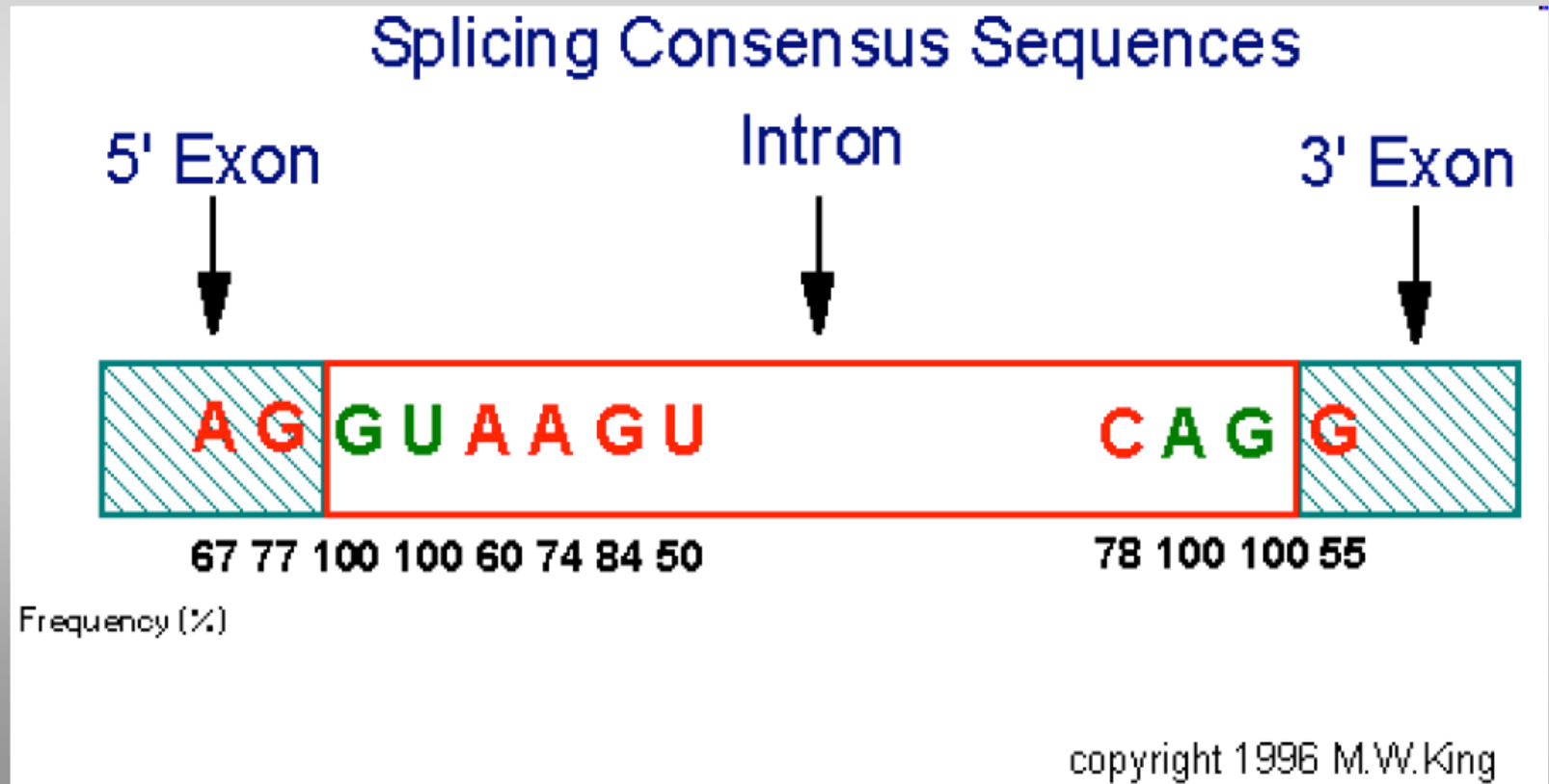
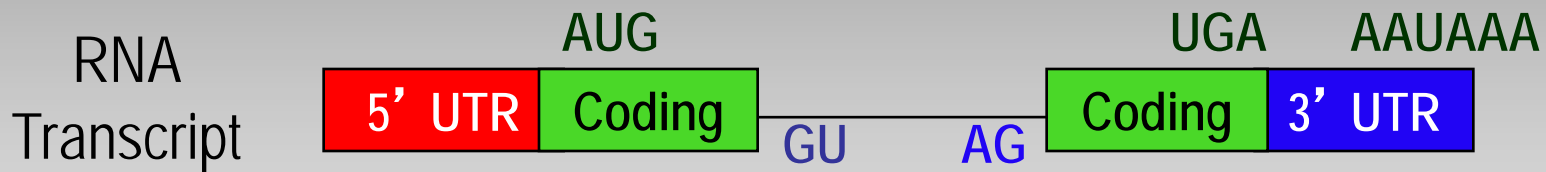
Does it co-segregate with the disorder in the family ?

- Is the gene change only found in affected members

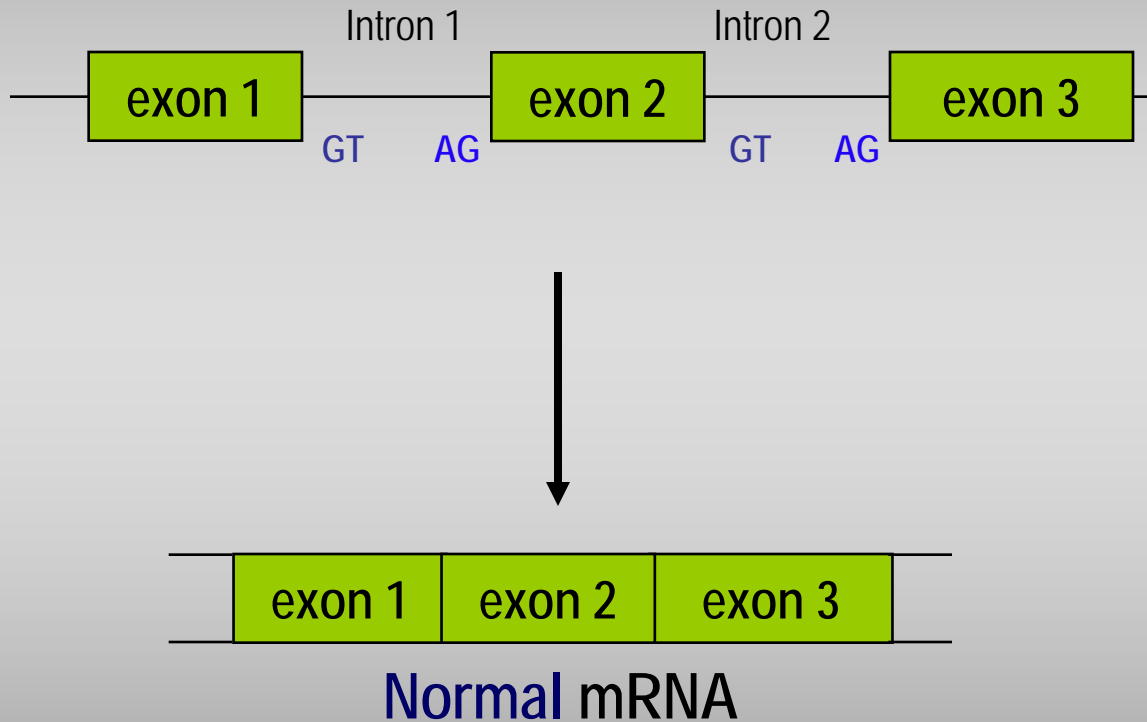
Is the change seen in the normal population ?

- Has a sample of the normal population been screen

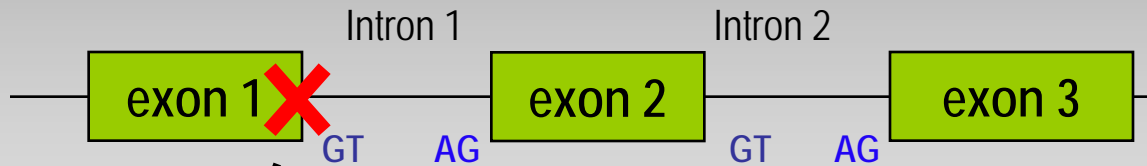
Splice site



Introns are spliced out when mRNA is made

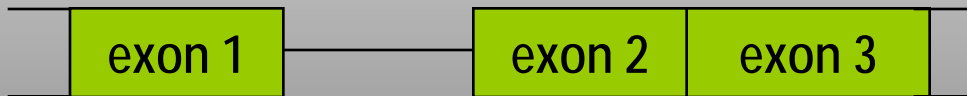


Splice site mutations

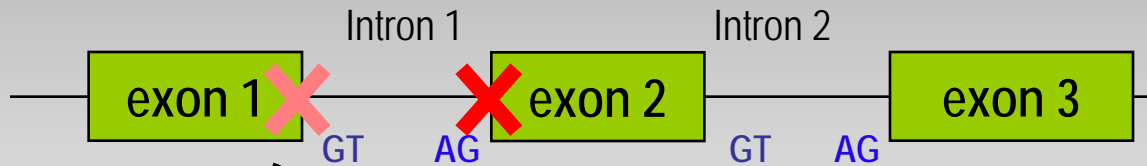


Mutations at splice
Donor site can lead
to inclusion of intron

Intron 1+ mRNA



Splice site mutations



Mutations at splice
Donor site can lead
to inclusion of intron

Mutations at splice
Acceptor site can lead
to exon skipping

Intron 1+ mRNA



Exon 2- mRNA



A Mutation Can Cause Disease by:

- Loss of function (Abolition)
- Modification of gene product

A Mutation Can Cause Disease by:

1. Loss of function (Abolition)

- Due to non-functioning or truncated protein
 - Usually due to intragenic mutations
 - Marfan syndrome, Duchennes muscular dystrophy
- Haploinsufficiency
 - Usually refer to submicroscopic chromosomal deletions
 - William syndrome
- Dominant negative
 - Deafness syndromes, Collagen disorders

Disease Manifestation

Level of gene product



Dominant negative

- Special class of loss of function
 - The mutation produces a none functioning protein
 - The none functioning protein interferes with the protein of the normal functioning homologous gene
 - Resulting in no effective gene product

A Mutation Can Cause Disease by:

2. Modification

- Creating a poorly functioning protein
 - Beckers muscular dystrophy
- Abnormal activation of protein (overexpression)
 - Cancer genes
- Gain of function of protein (novel function)
 - Huntington disease, cancer genes (philadelphia chromosome-fusion protein)

Types of DNA testing

Direct testing:

The DNA from a consultand is tested to see whether or not it contains a given pathogenic mutation.

Indirect testing (gene tracking):

Linked markers are used in family studies to discover if the consultand inherited the disease carrying chromosome/allele from a parent.

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

DNA Amplification:

- Very efficient at amplification of template DNA to yield products for analysis.
- DNA can be extracted from various sources blood specimens, mouthwash or tissue specimens.
- Only requires small amounts of patient genomic DNA.
- Best at amplifying small specific segments of DNA

PCR movie

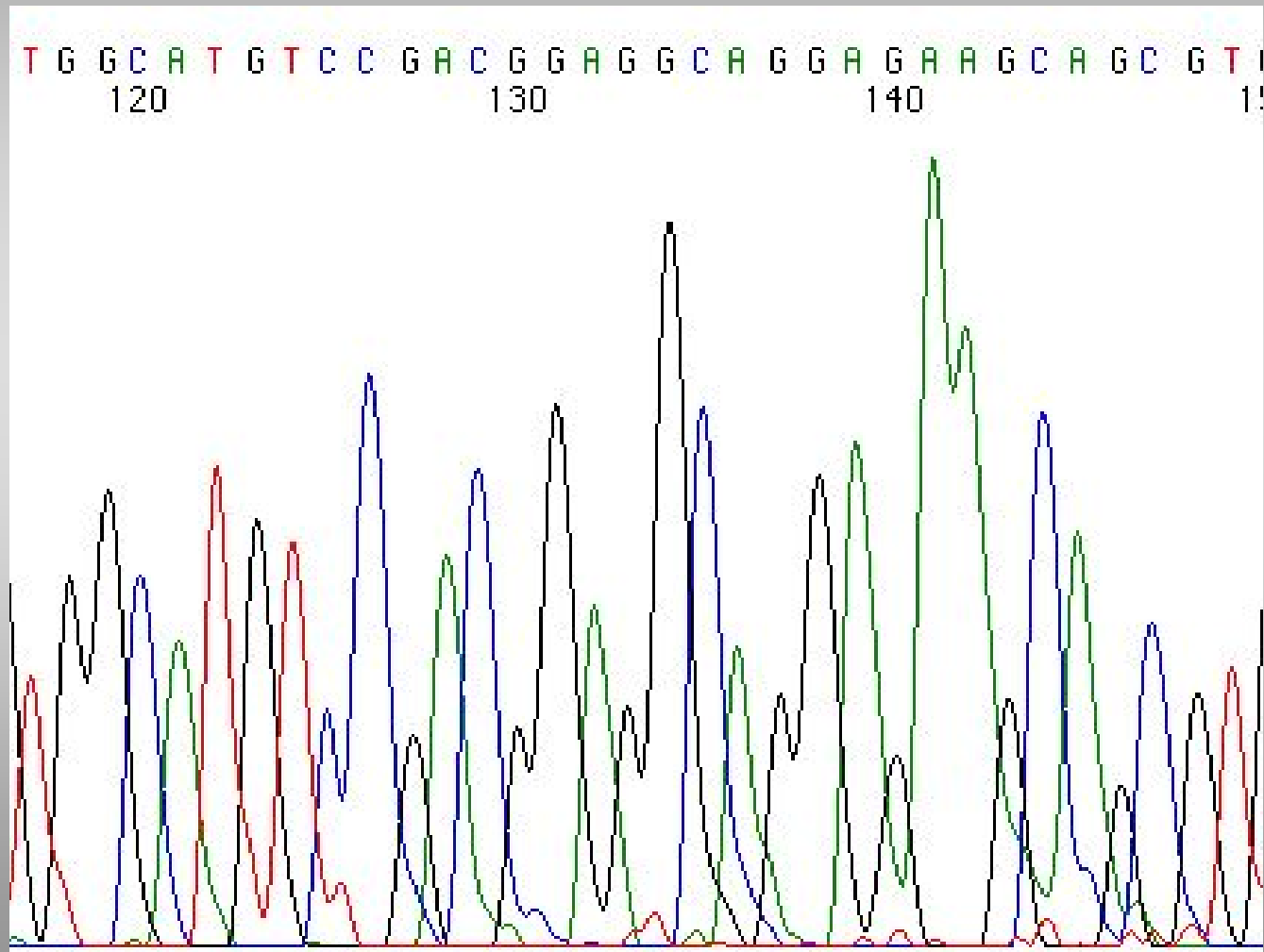
DNA amplification by PCR

- Requires knowledge of targeted sequence
 - To be able to design primers
- Specificity is dictated by two short (~25 bases) synthetic single stranded DNA molecules or oligonucleotides (primers)
- Mis-priming
- Preferential amplification of normal allele (PCR drop out)

Mutation Detection Techniques

- Sanger Sequencing
- Next Generation Sequencing (massive parallel sequencing)
- Gel electrophoresis

Sanger Sequencing

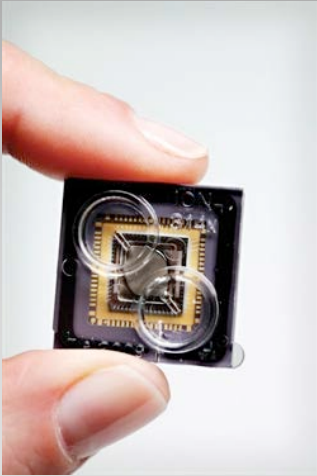


Sanger Sequencing



- Gold standard
 - Well established (~20years)
 - Robust
-
- one reaction = 1 sequencing reaction
 - optimal sequencing length (500bp-900bp)
 - sequencing 1 gene will require multiple reactions
 - labour intensive and time consuming

Next Generation Sequencing

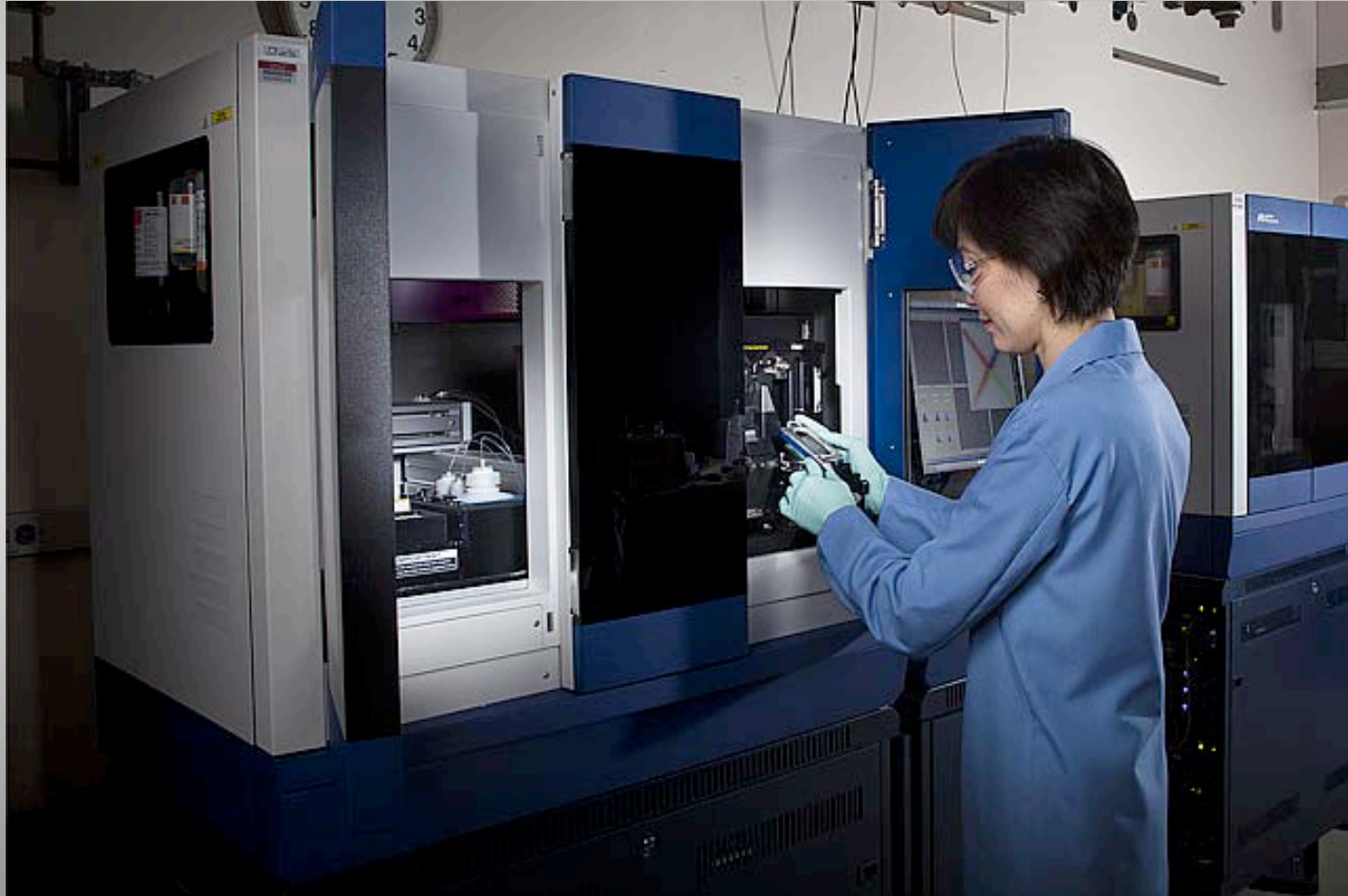


=> 1 million



- Very expensive (getting cheaper)
- High volume of data
- High number of genetic variants of unknown significance
- Require sophisticated bio-informatics
- Good for multi-gene analysis (exome or whole genome)

Next Generation Sequencer

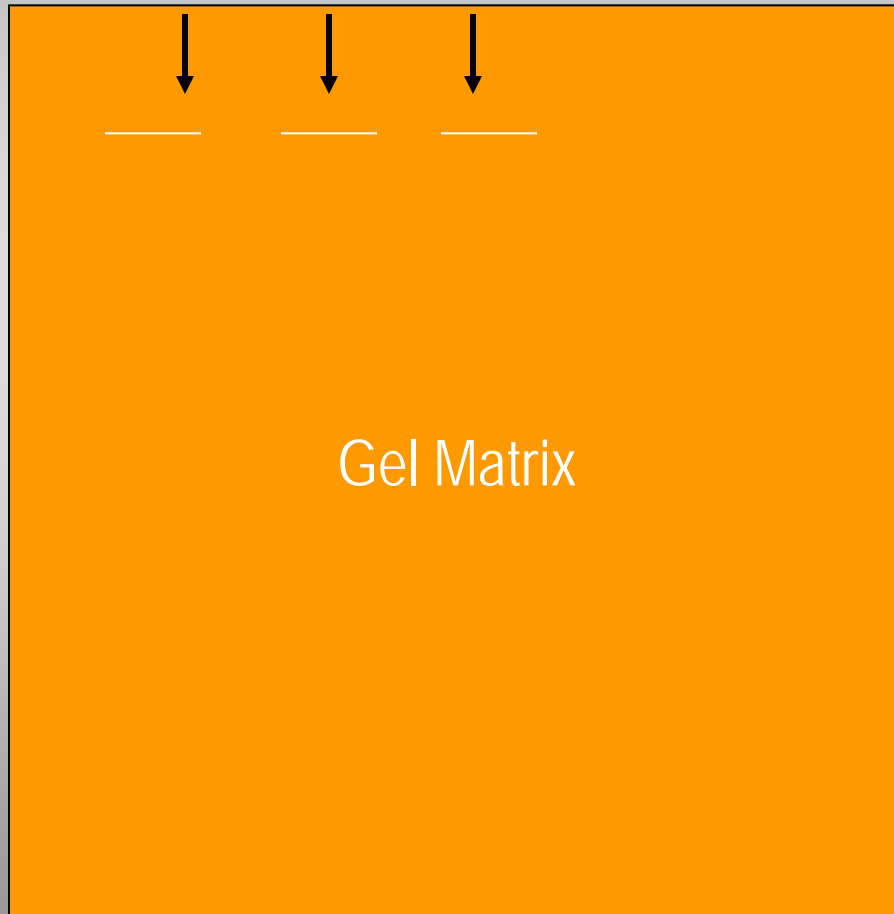


Third Generation Sequencing (on the horizon)



Gel Electrophoresis

Add DNA (PCR product) here



-ve



Rate of DNA migration is determined by size of DNA molecule

+ve

Triplet Repeat Analysis

Huntington's Disease

- Autosomal dominant disorder
- Incidence of 1 in 10,000
- Neurodegenerative disorder
- Triplet repeat expansion
- Onset in the third decade
- Progressive deterioration of cognitive function leading to dementia
- Associated with abnormal movement

Huntington's disease CAG PCR



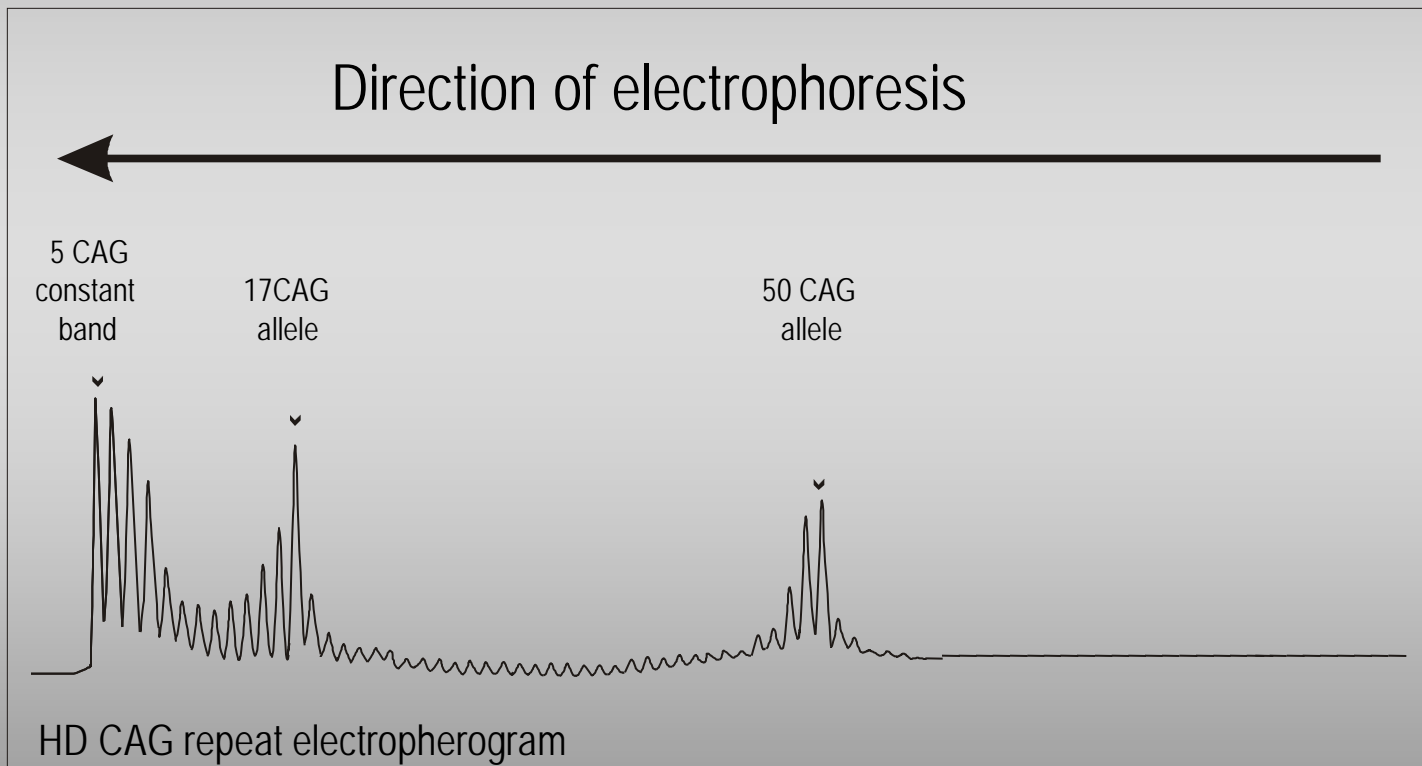
Fluorescent primer P1

PCR amplification of CAG repeat within the
Huntington gene on chromosome 4

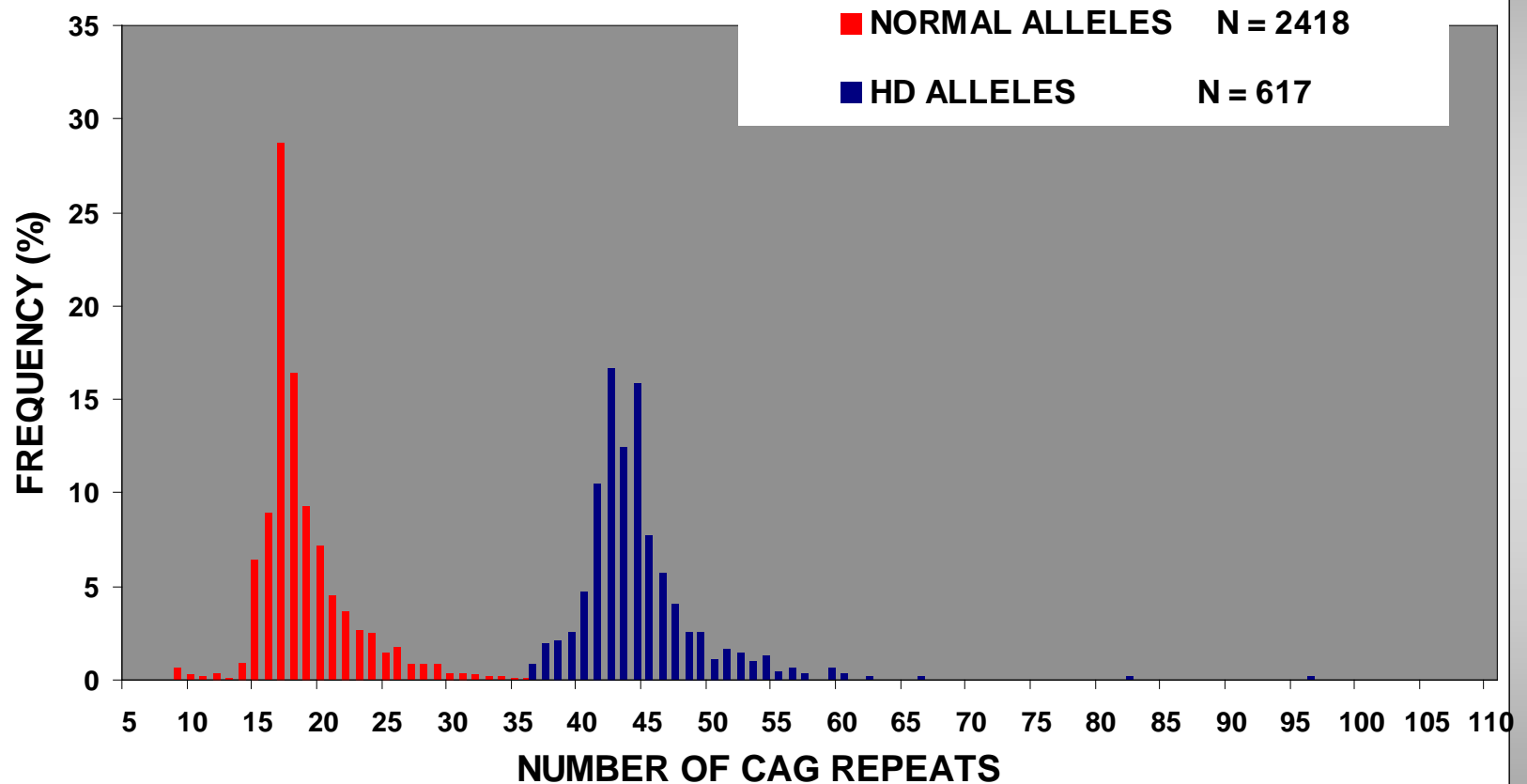
Huntington's disease CAG PCR

- Amplification of variable repeat gives a range of sizes or alleles.
- PCR products resolved on high resolution polyacrylamide gel on automatic laser fluorescent sequencer for exact sizing.
- Distinct size ranges are seen for affected HD population and normal population.

Scoring of HD electropherogram



FREQUENCY OF CAG REPEAT ALLELES IN THE SCOTTISH NORMAL AND HUNTINGTON'S DISEASE POPULATIONS

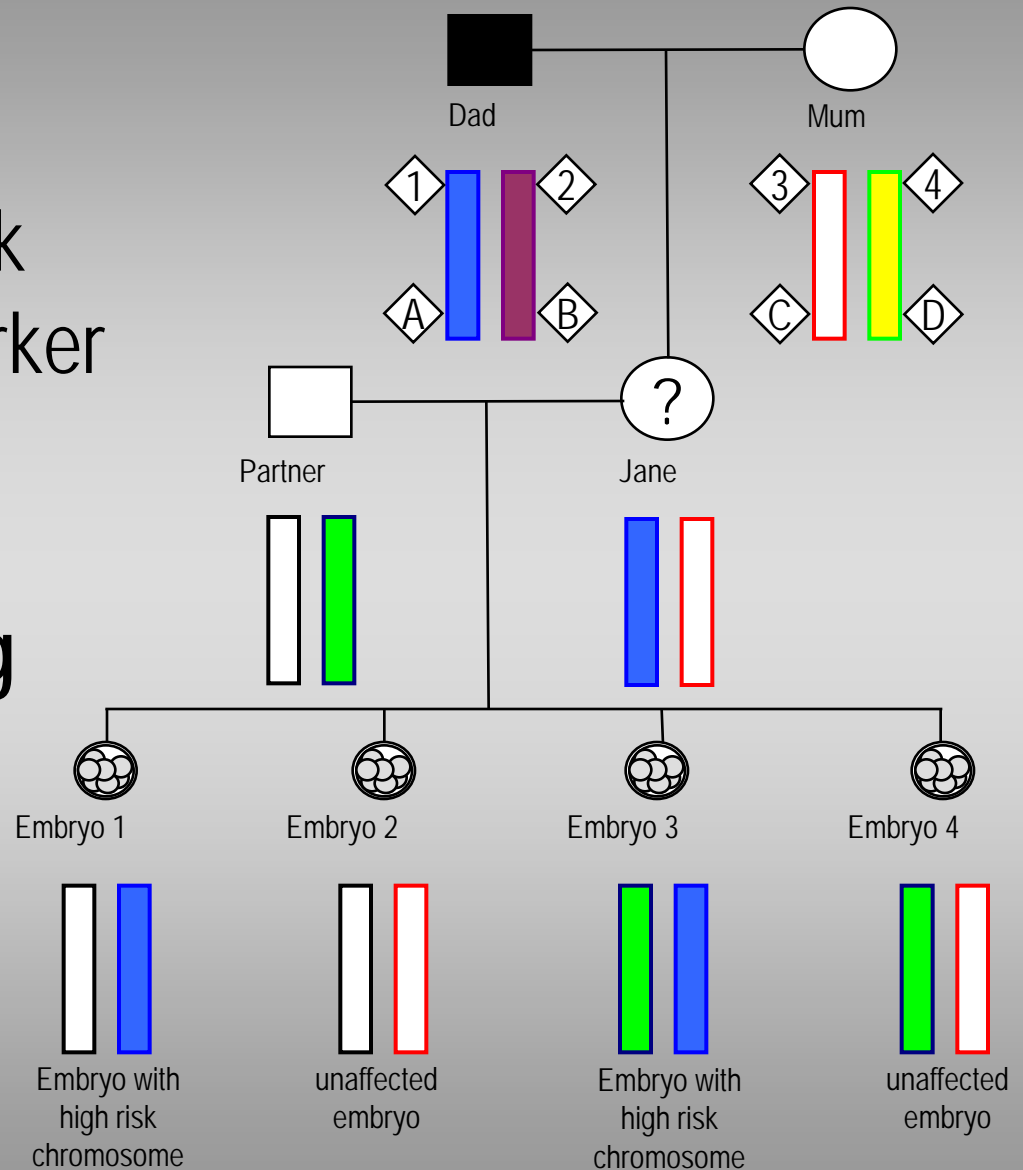


HD PCR size ranges

- Normal individuals in our population have alleles in the 8 to 35 CAG repeat range.
- A repeat size of 36 repeats or greater is diagnostic of HD.
- Alleles between 36 and 39 repeats are frequently associated with later onset of symptoms.
- Alleles between 27 and 35 repeats are potentially unstable and rare expansions into the affected range have been seen.

Identifying high risk haplotype by link marker analysis

Exclusion testing



Which technique for what type of test

- Direct DNA sequencing:
 - PCR fragments of 150-850 bp for mutation scanning
 - For confirmation of mutation
- Next Gen sequencing: Multi-gene analysis
- PCR then Gel electrophoresis
 - fluorescent sizing of products:
 - trinucleotide repeats
 - microsatellite repeats (up to 400bp)
- Southern blotting of digested DNA: methylation sensitivity and larger size range. 500bp to 20kb.

Case 1: Craniosynostosis

Definition: Premature closure of the fibrous joints between the bones of the skull

- Prevalence: 343 per million
- Saggittal synostosis most common account for 57% (M>F)
- Coronal synostosis accounts for 18%-29% (F>M)

Isolated craniosynostosis accounts for the majority of cases

- Most cases are sporadic
- Familial isolated craniosynostosis
 - 2% of sagittal synostosis
 - 8% of coronal synostosis
- Autosomal dominant mode of inheritance
 - Syndromic craniosynostosis
 - >90 syndromes characterised

Fibroblast Growth Factor Receptor 2 2 FGFR2

Chromosomal location: 10q26

Point mutations in the third immunoglobulin loop and transmembrane domain are associated with 5 cranio-synostotic syndromes.

These mutations lead to constitutive activation of the receptor.



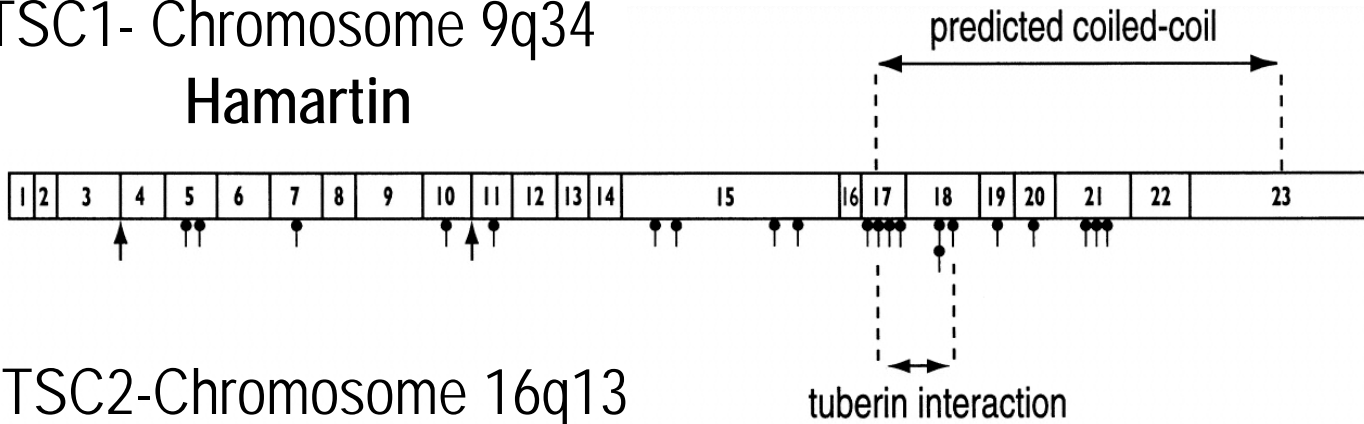
<u>Mutations</u>	<u>Syndrome</u>
●	Crouzon
●	Jackson-Weiss
●	Pfeiffer
●	Apert
●	Beare-Stevenson

Clinical heterogeneity

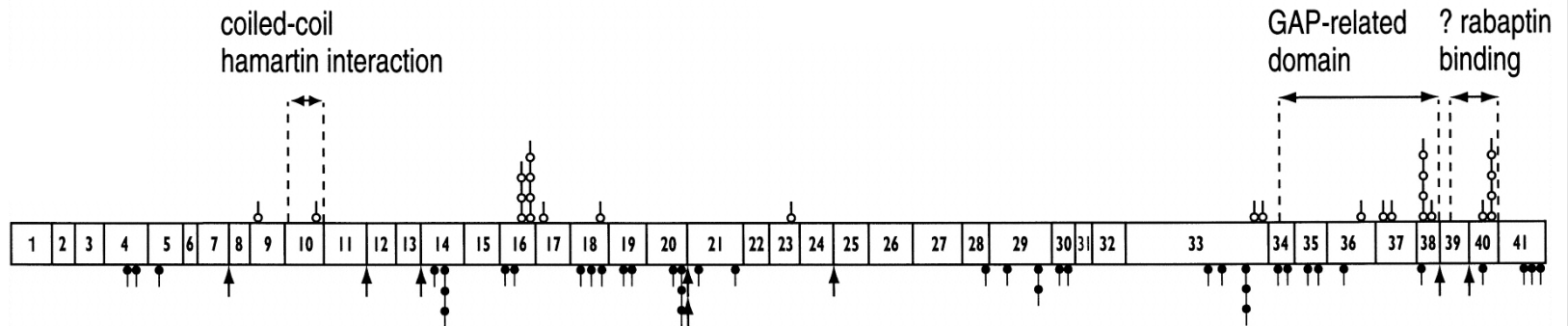
Case 2: Tuberous Sclerosis

- Autosomal dominant condition
- Characterized by hamartomatous lesions
- Multisystem involvement
- Prevalence of 1 in 6,000
- 2/3 sporadic (new mutations)
- 1/3 familial

TSC1- Chromosome 9q34
Hamartin

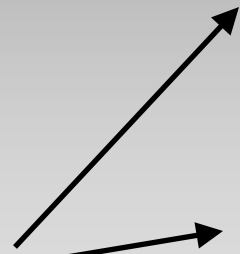
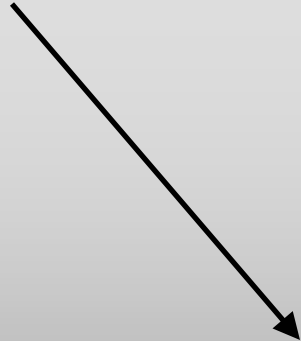
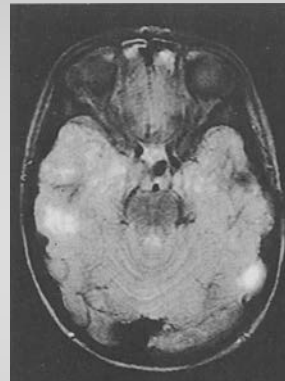
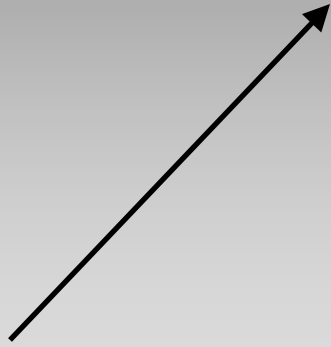


TSC2-Chromosome 16q13
Tuberin



Gene	% of Familial cases	% of Sporadic cases
TSC1	50%	~10%
TSC2	50%	~60% - 70%

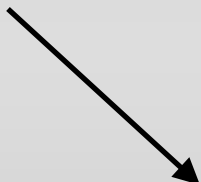
TSC1
TSC2



Epilepsy



Developmental delay



Behavioural problems

Locus heterogeneity

Summary 1

Types of mutation in DNA sequences

The cat sat on the mat	Wild type
The cat	Stop / Nonsense
The car sat on the mat	Missense
The cat spa to nth ema t	Insertion
The cas ato nt hem at	Deletion
The cat cat sat on the mat	Triplet expansion (Dynamic mutation)
The tas tac on the mat	Inversion

Summary 2

Mutation Criteria

- Does it affect the function of the protein ?
- It is in a conserved region of the protein ?
- Does it co-segregate with the disorder in the family ?
- Is the change seen in the normal population ?

Summary 3

A Mutation Can Cause Disease by:

Abolition (Loss of function)

- Due to non-functioning or truncated protein
- Haploinsufficiency
- Dominant negative

Modification

- Creating a poorly functioning protein
- Abnormal activation of protein (over-expression)
- Gain of function of protein (novel function)