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X-linked hydrocephalus genes: their proximity to telomeres and high A+T content compared to Parkinson's disease

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Abstract

Proximity to telomeres (i) and high adenine and thymine (A+T) content (ii) are two factors associated with high mutation rates in human chromosomes. We have previously shown that more than 100 human genes when mutated to cause congenital hydrocephalus (CH) meet either factor (i) or (ii) at 91% matching, while two factors are poorly satisfied in human genes associated with familial Parkinson's disease (fPD) at 59%. Using the sets of mouse, rat, and human chromosomes, we found that 7 genes associated with CH were located on the X chromosome of mice, rats, and humans. However, genes associated with fPD were in different autosomes depending on species. While the contribution of proximity to telomeres in the autosome was comparable in CH and fPD, high A+T content played a pivotal contribution in X-linked CH (43% in all three species) than in fPD (6% in rodents or 13% in humans). Low A+T content found in fPD cases suggests that PARK family genes harbor roughly 3 times higher chances of methylations in CpG sites or epigenetic changes than X-linked genes.

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JWS conducted the literature survey, genomic data analysis, verified all data in the manuscript for accuracy, secured the funding, and finalized the manuscript.

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Keywords

X-linked hydrocephalus; mutations; proximity to telomeres; A+T content; CpG sites; Parkinson's disease

1. Introduction

Hydrocephalus is one of the most frequently encountered brain diseases, characterized by excessive accumulation of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) in the intra- and extra-ventricular spaces (Rekate, 2009; Zeineddine et al., 2020). As published in 2018, the prevalence of hydrocephalus was approximately 85 of 100,000 individuals globally and varied by age (Isaacs et al., 2018). When birth defect such as spina bifida was included, the prevalence of hydrocephalus increased to 88 per 100,000 children, and the highest prevalence was found in the elderly at 175 out of 100,000 (Isaacs et al., 2018). The pooled incidence of congenital hydrocephalus (CH) was varied by geographic regions where it was highest in Latin America (316 per 100,000 births) and lowest in North America (68 per 100,000 births) (Dewan et al., 2018).

Depending on the timing of detection, hydrocephalus is classified into acquired, congenital (Dewan et al., 2018), and normal pressure hydrocephalus (NPH). Typical symptoms used as criteria in determining the diagnosis include ventricular volume and intracranial pressure (ICP) (Limbrick and Park, 2006). Acquired hydrocephalus, which develops at the time of birth or later, arises from meningitis, a tumor, injury, or disease that blocks the absorption of CSF in the brain. CH is diagnosed when it is present at birth due to genetic mutations associated with neural tube defects and mother's infection during pregnancy (Gillman et al., 1948). Although NPH has been reported in children and adults (Williams et al., 2022), more cases of seniors at age >65 years are found as secondary and/or idiopathic NPH (Mechelli et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2021).

Most deleterious mutations (101 of 108) associated with CH (McKnight et al., 2021) are detected in the autosome (chromosome; chr 1 through 22) except those (7 of 108) on the X chromosome (McKnight et al., 2021). Neuronal cell adhesion molecule (CAM), L1CAM, on the X chromosome, is a well-known causative gene associated with CH or L1 syndrome (Fransen et al., 1995; Gao et al., 2022; Jouet et al., 1995; Jouet et al., 1994; Kanemura et al., 2006; Yamasaki et al., 2011; Zhao and Siu, 1996). The L1CAM gene mutations that cause CH leads to an L1 protein that cannot facilitate various neuronal functions. In fact, genes that affect brain function and genes that control fertility are preferentially located on the human X chromosome (Vicoso and Charlesworth, 2006). Consistent with X-linked human diseases, which usually affects only males (Christodoulou et al., 2019; Dennis et al., 2019; Franco and Ballabio, 2006; Fukae et al., 2017; Gill et al., 2013; Sabo et al., 2019), X linked hydrocephalus is also more likely to be found in males (Edwards, 1961; Edwards et al., 1961) because they are hemizygous for X chromosome alleles (Libert et al., 2010).

Along with L1CAM, we previously investigated other X-linked genes associated with CH on the human chromosome (McKnight et al., 2021). AP1S2 gene, for instance, which encodes AP-1 complex subunit sigma-2 protein, is highlighted with L1CAM as

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causative genes on the X chromosome (Shaheen et al., 2017), evoking CH (Ballarati et al., 2012; Borck et al., 2008; Cacciagli et al., 2014; Cappuccio et al., 2019; Huo et al., 2019; Luan et al., 2019; Saillour et al., 2007; Tarpey et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2022; Zhu et al., 2021). ALG13, which heterodimerizes with asparagine-linked glycosylation 14 homolog, is associated with CH as well in addition to Lennox-Gastaut syndrome and epileptic encephalopathy (Epi et al., 2013). A syndromic gene similar to the one found in Wistar polycystic kidney rats (Shim et al., 2019) whose mutations cause CH, is orofacioidigital syndrome type I (OFD1) gene, which is also associated with Joubert syndrome and polycystic kidney phenotype (Field et al., 2012). Zic Family Member 3 (ZIC3), a transcription factor that regulates early stages of the left-right axis formation, is also on the X chromosome and, when mutated, causes Dandy-Walker malformation, neural tube defects, and CH (Grinberg and Millen, 2005). Filamin A, alpha (FLNA), if mutated, is also known to result in periventricular heterotopia and CH (Sheen et al., 2004). Coffin-Lowry syndrome gene, ribosomal protein S6 kinase alpha-3 (RPS6KA3), which is on the X chromosome, is included as one of those genes susceptible to CH as well (Kousi and Katsanis, 2016). Whether these X-linked genes continue to evoke CH consistent with the prior reports (Epi et al., 2013; Field et al., 2012; Gao et al., 2022; Grinberg and Millen, 2005; Kousi and Katsanis, 2016; Sheen et al., 2004; Zhu et al., 2022) in the future, however, is a different story. We conjectured that the significance of these genes as a causal factor of CH (Epi et al., 2013; Field et al., 2012; Gao et al., 2022; Grinberg and Millen, 2005; Kousi and Katsanis, 2016; Sheen et al., 2004; Zhu et al., 2022) might depend on where X-linked genes are located with respect to their telomeres or nucleotide compositions (Lucas et al., 2021; McKnight et al., 2021; Raines et al., 2022; White et al., 2022) in human chromosomes (Nusbaum et al., 2006).

While the main cue of inherited X-linked hydrocephalus is genetics (Guo et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2019; Izumi et al., 2022; Kong et al., 2020; Tripolszki et al., 2021), the significance of epigenetics has been recently demonstrated in mice where the control of accelerating aging and reversing these aging effects are achieved (Yang et al., 2023). The reversibility of aging in their mouse model supports the claim that epigenetic instruction drives the process of aging, not mutations in DNA sequences (Yang et al., 2023). Given all this reversibility of aging in mice shown in one generation, earlier research has highlighted three factors associated with high mutation rates (Nusbaum et al., 2006) over generations from parents (F1) to the next (F2 offspring) (Terekhanova et al., 2017). This at the same time opens new hypotheses stating whether the reversibility of aging can be comparably effective in humans as shown in the mouse study (Yang et al., 2023), and if the molecular techniques reversing the process of aging are therapeutically applicable to age-related conditions such as sporadic Parkinson's disease (sPD) (Baertsch et al., 2022; Behbahanipour et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2021; Choi et al., 2020a; Choi et al., 2020b; Chowdhury et al., 2023; Derya et al., 2019; Drouin-Ouellet et al., 2022; Ekimova et al., 2020; Grzybowski and Kanclerz, 2020; Howard et al., 2022; Juarez-Flores et al., 2020; Kouli and Williams-Gray, 2022; Lason et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2021; Rani et al., 2022; Russo and Riessland, 2022; Shindo et al., 2021; Tamano et al., 2019; Wolfrum et al., 2022).

Proximity to telomeres (i) and high adenine and thymine (A+T) content (ii) are two factors associated with high mutation rate in human chromosomes (McKnight et al., 2021;

Nusbaum et al., 2006; White et al., 2022). We have previously shown that 108 human genes when mutated to cause CH meet either factor (i) or (ii) at 91% match, while two factors show a lower matching rate at 59% in human genes associated with familial Parkinson's disease (fPD) (McKnight et al., 2021). However, if genomic characteristics found in human chromosomes are consistent across species ensuring minimization of any discrepancy due to species differences often questioned surrounding the clinical trials (Hollenberg, 2000; Langston, 2017; Toutain et al., 2010), of which outcomes differed from a preclinical prediction (Yiannopoulou et al., 2019) and how many genes on the sex chromosome mediate the pathophysiology of hydrocephalus are not well-understood. Using 100 genes from the same list that we reported previously (McKnight et al., 2021), we identified the genetic loci associated with CH and fPD on the X chromosome and autosome, respectively, in three species of mice, rats, and humans. Then, we assessed whether any X chromosome genes associated with CH would show consistent chromosomal characteristics across three species, satisfying either factor (i) or (ii) in mice, rats, and humans. Given the prior reports (Chang et al., 1994; Miyata et al., 1987; Vicoso and Charlesworth, 2006) that if spermatogenesis is more mutagenic than oogenesis, the X chromosome is subjected to a lower mutation rate than the autosome, we investigated the genomic characteristics of X-linked CH genes focusing on their relative mutability by two factors. To this end, we examined whether multiple X chromosome genes associated with CH, if druggable as a pharmacological target, harbor a consistent mutability in mouse, rat, and/or human genome.

2. Methods

2.1. Quantifying the Proximity to a Telomere

To quantitatively determine the approximate proximities to a telomere in million bases (Mb), we obtained human, mouse, and rat genomic information using the NCBI Genome Data Viewer (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/gdv/>). In each sample obtained, we observed the following: coordinates (or locus) of each gene and its telomere, which chromosome number the genetic locus was found, the distance between each gene and its telomere, and the corresponding GenBank accession number that begins with "NM_ _ _ _" in a separate spreadsheet as an electronic file. This allowed us to view the full exon sequences of the chosen gene at the open nucleotide database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nucleotide/>).

2.2. Calculating A+T content

After obtaining the complete sequences from the nucleotide database, we used two independent GC content calculators as mutually complementary backup tools when one server is down. These are available online at <https://www.sciencebuddies.org> and <https://www.biologicscorp.com/tools/GCContent/#.XvctCi-z2uV> to derive the A+T content percentage of the nucleotides in each desired gene. From this data, the appropriate structures of adenine (A) and thymine (T) were determined along with the complete base-pair sizes of the nucleotide (Lucas et al., 2021; McKnight et al., 2021; Raines et al., 2022).

2.3. Theoretical Basis of Approximating the Proximity to a Telomere

The suggestions by Nusbaum and colleagues (Nusbaum et al., 2006) were used where high mutation rates were displayed in human chromosomes. In the study presented, the previous

method was employed as the proximity to a telomere in a gene data was collected (Lucas et al., 2021; McKnight et al., 2021; Raines et al., 2022). The A+T content of all genes listed was also calculated (McKnight et al., 2021) by comparing each species' (mouse, rat, and human) chromosome. The location of the gene and the locus of its telomere per each species was described by using the following conditions:

- a. If the recombination frequency is less than or equal to 50 centimorgan (cM), then the genes are linked.
- b. If the recombination frequency is greater than 50 cM, then the genes are not linked.

For the data stated above, 1 cM is equal to 1 Mb (Hastbacka et al., 1992).

2.4. Statistical analysis

Statistical methods and plots applicable from Prism (version 9.3.0, GraphPad Software Inc.) were used, which enabled us to organize heatmap plots and bar graphs of the quantitative data obtained with the genome data viewer and GC content calculator. The non-parametric test was applied with the understanding that this approach allowed a more conservative conclusion than the parametric tests in which random assignment of treatments to samples and Gaussian distribution were expected. As a result, a Mann-Whitney test and Kruskal-Wallis test were adopted for two group and three group comparisons, respectively. The difference between the data sets was considered significant at $P < 0.05$; P values are noted in the figures and legends as * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, and *** $P < 0.005$.

3. Results

X-linked hydrocephalus genes vs. sixteen fPD genes in rodents and humans

To compare X-linked hydrocephalus genes with genes associated with fPD, we investigated sex chromosome genes previously known to cause CH (McKnight et al., 2021) by two factors, F(i) and F(ii) (McKnight et al., 2021; Nusbaum et al., 2006). Of 108 genes associated with CH (McKnight et al., 2021), we found that seven genes on human sex (X) chromosome pertain to X-linked hydrocephalus (Emmert et al., 2019; Ferese et al., 2016; Guo et al., 2020; Kong et al., 2020; Marx et al., 2012; Ochando et al., 2016; Serikawa et al., 2014; Tuysuz et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2022). When these seven X-linked genes were checked at mouse and rat chromosomes, there is no exception that X-linked genes remained in the same sex chromosomes of rodents (Fig. 1a). When sixteen human genes previously surveyed in fPD were identified in rodent chromosomes, however, their chromosomal locations were not necessarily identical in the autosomes of mouse and rat genome (Fig. 1b). The full-length (FL) sizes of nucleotide (gene transcripts) for X-linked genes (Fig. 1c) as well as genes associated with fPD (Fig. 1d) were not always identical over three species of mouse, rat, and human chromosomes (Fig. 1c-d). When the first factor, F(i), were taken into consideration, we found that seven X-linked genes associated with CH demonstrated a higher matching rate at 57 % (mouse), 100 % (rat), and 100 % (human) than sixteen fPD genes at 50 % (mouse), 56 % (rat), and 56 % (human) over three species (Fig. 2a-b). As the second factor, F(ii), were assessed, seven X-linked genes associated with CH

displayed an even higher matching rate at 43 % (all three species) than sixteen fPD genes at 6 % (mouse and rat) and 13 % (human) over three species (Fig. 2c-d) (Fig. S1-S2; Table S1).

X-linked hydrocephalus genes vs. genes associated with CH on the autosome

We next investigated seven X-linked hydrocephalus genes along with the remainder of >90 genes associated with CH located in the autosomes of three species. In the first set (#1-10), chromosomal locations of each gene were not always consistent across three species except those on the X chromosomes. For example, *TBX1* gene was located on chr 16 in mice but it is no longer on chr 16 but elsewhere in the autosome of rats and humans. *L1CAM* in rodent and human genome was found on the X chromosome, while nine other genes were elsewhere in the autosome (Fig. 3a). The full-length (FL) size of transcript in this set (#1-10) was different except for three genes: *L1CAM*, *TMEM116*, and *TRPV4* over mouse, rat, and human genome (Fig. 3b). The relative mutability of *L1CAM* was low as compared to 9 other genes in mice as it is >50 Mb distant from its telomere, while *L1CAM* satisfied F(i) in rats and humans (Fig. 3c top). On the other hand, less than a half of ten genes satisfied high A+T content or *F(ii)* in three species in which *L1CAM* failed to meet F(ii) in three species (Fig. 3c bottom). Overall, the relative mutability of *L1CAM* is consistent in rats, compared to humans, but not necessarily in mice (Fig. 3c).

In another set (#21-30) among the remainder of the list (Fig. S3-S8; Table S2-S4), chromosomal locations of each gene were somewhat similar across the species and that *AP1S2* gene was on sex chromosome of all three species. Consistent with *L1CAM*, *AP1S2* in rodent and human genome was found on the X chromosome, while nine other genes were distributed on the autosomes (Fig. 3d). By color-coding, it became evident that the nucleotide size of genes in this set (#21-30) differed except for four genes: *EN1*, *MSX1*, *SOCS1*, and *CCDC88C* over three species (Fig. 3e). The relative mutability of *AP1S2* as measured by proximity to telomeres was consistent across mouse, rat, and human genome (Fig. 3f top). Further, *AP1S2* met *F(ii)* in all three species as well (Fig. 3f bottom). By two factors, the relative mutability of *AP1S2* on the X chromosome is consistent in mouse, rat, and human genome (Fig. 3f).

Next, chromosomal locations of the ten genes were comparable across the species (Table S5-S7). Here, *ALG13* gene was detected on sex chromosome. Consistent with *L1CAM* and *AP1S2*, *ALG13* in rodent and human genome was located on the X chromosome, while nine other genes were found on other chromosomes (Fig. 4a). The FL size of transcript in this set (#41-50) was not always consistent as shown in *KIAA0586* over mouse, rat, and human genome (Fig. 3b). In the subsequent list of genes (#51-60), *OFD1* and *ZIC3* were located on the X chromosome of all three species, while nine other genes were on the autosomes (Fig. 4c). The nucleotide size of transcript in this set (#51-60) was different except for four genes: *MKS1*, *TMEM216*, *HYLS1*, and *KIF7* over mouse, rat, and human genome (Fig. 4d). Combining these two sets (#41-60), the relative mutability of *OFD1* was consistent across all three species satisfying F(i), while *ZIC3* met F(i) in rats and humans (Fig. 4e top). On the other hand, *OFD1* and *ZIC3* on the X chromosome did not satisfy F(ii) in all three species (Fig. 4e bottom). By two factors, the relative mutability of *OFD1* and *ZIC3* is either moderately (*ZIC3*) or fully (*OFD1*) consistent in mouse, rat, and human genome (Fig. 3c).

In the following set (#71-80) among the remainder of the list (Fig. S9-S10; Table S8-S11), chromosomal locations of ten genes were somewhat inconsistent across the species. We found that *FLNA* and *RPS6KA3* are sex chromosome genes. Consistent with *L1CAM*, *FLNA* and *RPS6KA3* were on the X chromosome, while eight other genes were on the autosome (Fig. 5a). The FL size of transcript in this set (#71-80) was inconsistent, while *FLNA* showed a consistent nucleotide size (Fig. 5b). Altogether (#61-80), the relative mutability of *RPS6KA3* was consistent across all three species meeting F(i), while *FLNA* satisfied F(i) in rats and humans (Fig. 5c top). In contrast, *FLNA* failed to meet F(ii) but *RPS6KA3* satisfied F(ii) in all three species (Fig. 5c bottom). Overall, the relative mutability of *RPS6KA3* and *FLNA* is either thoroughly (*RPS6KA3*) or moderately (*FLNA*) consistent in all three species (Fig. 5c).

Discussion

Given the identities of the human genes associated with CH (McKnight et al., 2021), one would wonder if these X-linked genes are similarly located on the sex chromosomes of rodents such as mice and rats, which are preferred laboratory animals (White et al., 2022). If so, would they maintain the same genomic characteristics, which may be pivotal in developing phenotypes of CH without exceptions across species? Here, we have demonstrated that genes associated with CH on the X chromosome harbor a consistent mutability across three species.

The result shown in this study provides a novel way of delineating genes associated with CH per mouse, rat, and human genome. Recently, it has been reported that there is telomere transfer in T cells (Bird, 2022; Lanna et al., 2022) and that the intercellular transfer of telomeres rescues T cells from senescence and promotes long-term immunological memory (Lanna et al., 2022). Thus, if genetic characteristics of 1) chromosomal location/number and the FL size, 2) proximity to telomeres, and 3) A+T content are consistent across 3 species as shown in seven X chromosome genes, consequences of telomere change or transfer (Bird, 2022; Lanna et al., 2022) over the lifespan of species are much more feasibly predicted than genes with different chromosomal characteristics such as those located on the autosomes.

The present study also echoes the idea that it is worth focusing on genes located on the X chromosome as a drug target (Raines et al., 2022). If not, would it be more helpful to target a downstream effector gene signaling associated with the causative genes for X-linked CH? CH in males vs. CH in females may have a different approach when it comes to X-linked CH. Our data further generate new hypothesis: If the seven genes on the X chromosome can be the biomarkers of CH or acquired hydrocephalus, would it be consistent across species as compared to 101 other causative genes associated with CH (McKnight et al. 2021)? If consistent, what additional studies can help better understand the pathogenic mechanisms of hydrocephalus (Shim and Madsen, 2018; Shim et al., 2019; White et al., 2022)?

One of the unique features observed in the sex chromosome is a different mutation rate. Most mutational changes in DNA are found to occur through replication errors during meiosis (Maekawa et al., 1998) and/or mitosis (Murata et al., 2000; Peng et al., 1996). As such, the mutation rate per generation is anticipated to increase as cells divide in egg

and sperm cells, provided that only mutations in the sex cells are transmitted to the next generation (Arcila et al., 2020; Fu, 2001; Hanlon et al., 2019; Honma et al., 2014; Kang and Marjoram, 2011; Meyer et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2022). In gonochoric species, males and females have different ways of making a mature haploid germ cell, which leads to a different cell division. For instance, in mammals, generation of sperms requires more cell divisions than that of oocytes, so that the mutation rate in the male gametes is likely to be higher than the female (Hurst and Ellegren, 1998). This effect is determined in part by the average ages of males and females at reproduction, as the mutation rate per sex is the total counts of mutations arising from individuals at all reproductively active ages (Segurel et al., 2014).

Hydrocephalus of primarily adults or NPH is a condition with close to normal intracranial pressure (ICP), which is rarely found in neonatal and pediatric patients (Barnett et al., 1987; Engel et al., 1979; Hill and Volpe, 1981; Stein et al., 1972; Torkelson et al., 1985). Most cases of NPH are found in the elderly patients (Ahn et al., 2020; Ates Bulut et al., 2019; Ates Bulut et al., 2021; Borzage et al., 2021; Buyukgok et al., 2021; Diniz et al., 2012; He et al., 2021; He et al., 2020; Ishikawa et al., 1994; Isik et al., 2019; Isik and Soysal, 2015; Kang et al., 2016; Kang et al., 2018; Kaya et al., 2022; Khan et al., 2017; Kita et al., 2019; Koo et al., 2021; Marumoto et al., 2012; Mechelli et al., 2022; Oike et al., 2021; Onder, 2020; Onder and Arslan, 2020), although not much is known about genetic contributions to the pathophysiology of NPH. A few previous reports have raised the possibility that genetic mutations alone on the autosome and/or interactions with an environmental risk contribute to the development of NPH (Cusimano et al., 2011; Morimoto et al., 2019; Sato et al., 2016). Furthermore, there are prior reports demonstrating the cases with X-linked NPH (Katsuragi et al., 2000; Koch et al., 2009). Hence, seven human genes on the X chromosome assessed in this study may contribute to the development of NPH in a multifactorial way (McAllister, 2012).

Unlike seven X-linked genes associated with CH (100%), sixteen fPD genes shown in this study demonstrated substantially lower matches by proximity to telomeres (56%) and/or high A+T content (13%) in humans. This poor match was attributable to the polygenic nature involving genetic and epigenetic contribution to the disease (McKnight et al., 2021). As high A+T content is associated with genetic contribution as in high mutation rates, the remainder nucleotide of cytosine and guanine (CG), may have a different role. Regions of DNA called 'CG' or CpG sites contain a cytosine nucleotide followed by a guanine nucleotide along the 5' to 3' direction (Jabbari and Bernardi, 2004). CpG sites occur often in genomic regions defined as CpG islands. In addition, cytosines in CpG dinucleotides can be methylated to form 5-methylcytosines. In mammals, roughly 80% of CpG cytosines are methylated (Guo et al., 2014; Jabbari and Bernardi, 2004; Lee et al., 2020; Nishioka et al., 2016). DNA methylation GrimAge is shown to predict lifespan and healthspan (Lu et al., 2019). Taken together, the poor match of two factors with Parkinson's disease might be better explained if the other side of a coin or 'CpG' is inspected. Recent studies addressing DNA methylation on the CpG sites suggest that epigenetic contribution including methylation of cytosines or CpG sites with increasing age should be taken into consideration.

Conclusion

- We found that X-linked hydrocephalus genes screened by two factors, namely, i) proximity to telomeres and ii) high A+T content show the complete match at 100% in rat and human chromosome.
- X-linked hydrocephalus genes are better matched by two factors than PARK family proteins and two other genes known to be associated with fPD. The data presented in this study suggest that at least all seven X chromosome genes associated with CH (Fig. 1-5; Table S1-S11), if druggable as a pharmacological target, harbor a consistent mutability in mouse, rat, and/or human chromosome.
- Unlike mammalian genes located in the autosomes, genetic loci vulnerable to deleterious mutations leading to CH and/or other type(s) of pleiotropic conditions located in the X chromosomes are relatively more consistent in terms of their nucleotide size, proximity to telomeres, and A + T content as assessed in mouse, rat, and/or human chromosome.
- The poor match of two factors with Parkinson's disease suggests that high A+T content associated with high mutation rates is no longer a key determinant in this type of disease. Instead, low A+T or 'CG', particularly, methylations in this region (CG or CpG) might be critical, providing a clue to how genetic and epigenetic instruction might contribute to age-related diseases.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Highlight

- High mutation rate is associated with (i) proximity to telomeres and (ii) A+T content.
- X-linked hydrocephalus genes met two factors with a relatively high A+T content.
- Genes associated with Parkinson's disease (PD) poorly met two factors with low A+T.
- Low A+T content suggests that PD genes are vulnerable to CpG sites methylation.

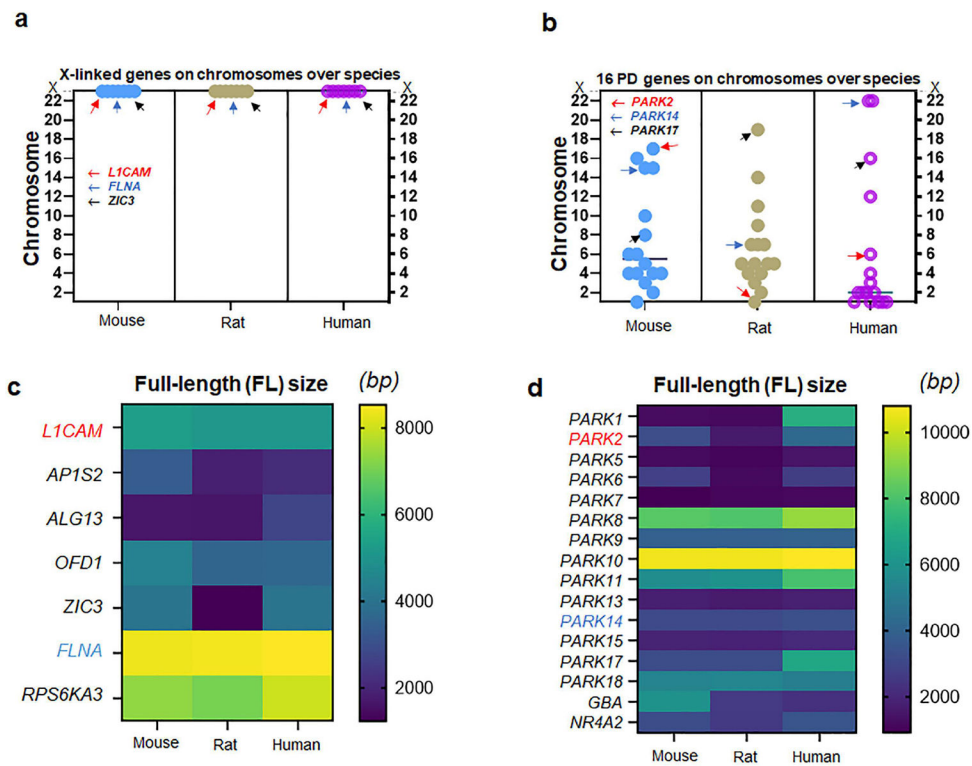


Figure 1. Genes associated with X-linked CH vs. those with fPD

(a) Locations of seven genes associated with X-linked CH over three species of mice, rats, and humans. Note that all seven genes including *L1CAM*, *FLNA*, and *ZIC3* are located on the X chromosomes of all three species (b) Locations of sixteen genes associated with familial PD (fPD) over three species of mice, rats, and humans. Note that all sixteen genes including *PARK2*, *PARK14*, and *PARK17* are located somewhat differently on the autosomes over three species of mice, rats, and humans (c) The full-length (FL) size of seven genes (transcripts) associated with X-linked CH over three species. Note that *L1CAM* and *FLNA* show consistent molecular sizes in three species while other genes differ in humans as compared to rodents (d) The FL size of sixteen gene transcripts associated with fPD over three species. Note that *PARK2* shows a different length depending on the species, while *PARK14* consistent with *PARK5*, *PARK7*, *PARK9*, *PARK10*, *PARK13*, and *PARK15* demonstrates a consistent FL size over three species.

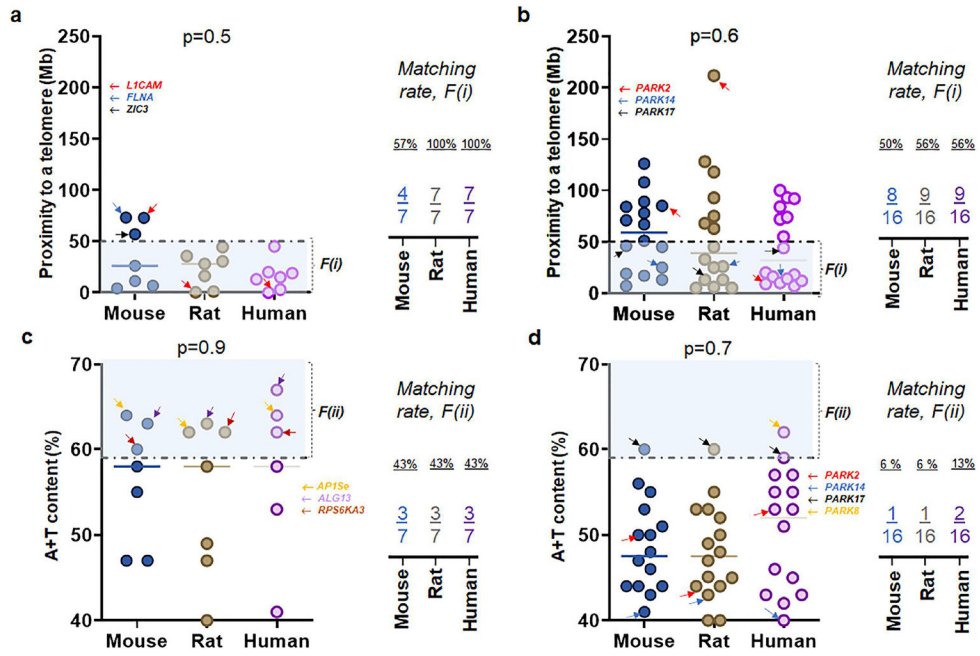


Figure 2. Uniqueness of X-linked hydrocephalus genes by two factors of i) proximity to telomeres and ii) high A+T content

(a) Proximity to telomeres of seven X-linked genes associated with CH over three species. Note that seven human genes have evolved in a way meeting proximity to telomeres or the first factor, F(i), associated with high mutation rate as 7 of 7 human genes have proximity to telomeres at less than 50 Mb as compared to those of mice. Interestingly, seven genes on rat X chromosomes show a similar feature to humans unlike mouse genes. (b) Proximity to telomeres of sixteen fPD genes over three species. (c) A + T content of seven X-linked genes associated with CH over three species show a consistent matching rate between each gene and the second factor, F(ii), associated with high mutation rates in human chromosome. Arrows in yellow, purple, and brown indicate API5e, ALG13, and RPS6KA3, respectively. (d) A + T content of sixteen genes associated with fPD over three species show a different matching rate between each gene and the second factor, F(ii) due primarily to PARK8 in humans. Arrows in red, blue, black, and yellow indicate PARK2, PARK14, PARK17, and PARK8, respectively.

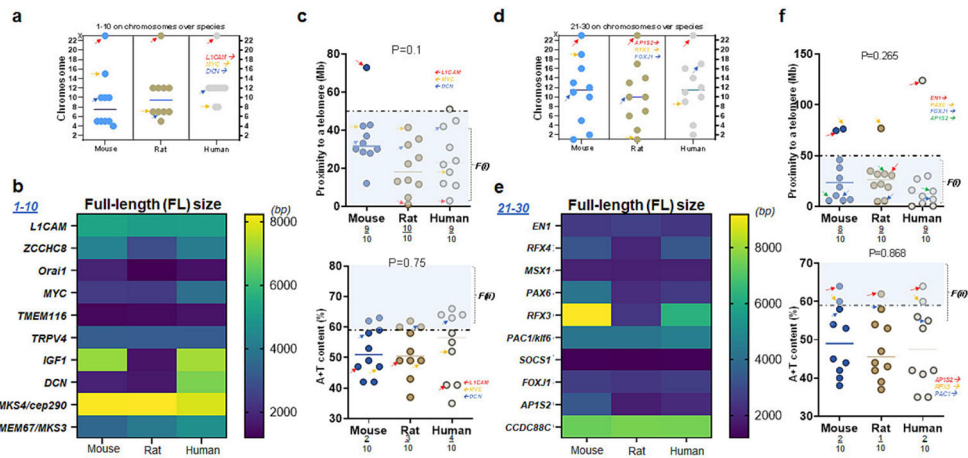


Figure 3. L1CAM and AP1S2: their proximity to telomeres and A+T content

(a) Locations of ten genes associated with CH over three species of mice, rats, and humans. Note that L1CAM is located on the X chromosomes of all three species (b) The full-length (FL) size of ten genes (transcripts) over three species. Note that L1CAM, TMEM116, and TRPV4 show consistent molecular sizes in three species while other genes differ in humans as compared to rodents (c) Proximity to telomeres of ten genes over three species. Note that ten human genes investigated in this list (1-10) have evolved in a way meeting proximity to telomeres or the first factor, F(i), associated with high mutation rate as 9 of 10 human genes have proximity to telomeres at less than 50 Mb as compared to those of mice and rats (upper plot). A + T content of ten genes over three species demonstrate 2-4 of 10 genes meeting the second factor, F(ii), associated with high mutation rate (lower plot). Arrows in red, orange, and blue indicate L1CAM, MYC, and DCN, respectively (scatter plots in c). (d) Locations of the next ten genes associated with CH over three species of mice, rats, and humans. Note also that AP1S2 is located on the X chromosome of all three species (e) The FL size of ten genes over three species. Note that EN1, MSX1, PAC1, SOCS1, FOXJ1, and CCDC88CL1CAM show consistent molecular sizes in three species while four other genes differ in humans as compared to rodents (f) Proximity to telomeres of another ten genes over three species. Note that the majority of ten human genes investigated in this list (21-30) have evolved in a way meeting proximity to telomeres or the first factor, F(i), associated with high mutation rate as 8-9 of 10 human genes have proximity to telomeres at <50 Mb as compared to those of mice and rats (upper plot). A + T content of ten genes over three species demonstrate 1-2 of 10 genes meeting F(ii) associated with high mutation rate (lower plot). Arrows in red, orange, blue, and green indicate EN1, PAX6, FOXJ1, and AP1S2, respectively (Upper plot in c); arrows in red, orange, and blue indicate AP1S2, RFX3, and PAC1, respectively (Lower plot in c).

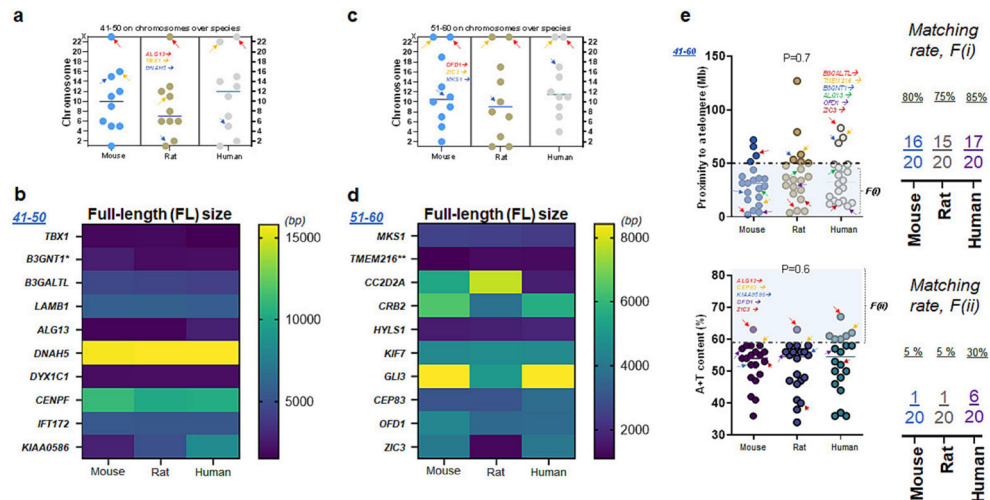


Figure 4. ALG13, OFD1, and ZIC1: their proximity to telomeres and A+T content

(a) Chromosome number of ten (#41-50) genes associated with CH over three species of mice, rats, and humans. Note that ALG13 is located on the X chromosome of all three species (b) The FL size of ten genes (#41-50) over three species. Note that TBX1, LAMB1, DNAH5, DYX1C1, and IFT172 show consistent molecular sizes in three species while other genes differ in humans as compared to rodents (c) Locations of the fourth tier (#51-60) genes associated with CH over three species of mice, rats, and humans. Note that OFD1 and ZIC1 are located on the X chromosome of all three species (d) The FL size of ten genes (transcripts) over three species. Note that MKS1, TMTM216, HYLS1, and KIF7 show consistent molecular sizes in three species while other genes differ in humans as compared to rodents (e) Proximity to telomeres of the next twenty genes over three species. Note that more than a half of twenty human genes investigated in this list (41-60) have evolved in a way meeting proximity to telomeres or $F(i)$ associated with high mutation rate as 17 of 20 human genes have proximity to telomeres at <50 Mb as compared to those of mice and rats (upper plot). A + T content of twenty genes (#41-60) over three species demonstrate 1 (rodents) or 6 (human) of 10 genes meeting the second factor, $F(ii)$, associated with high mutation rate (lower plot). Arrows in red, orange, and blue indicate L1CAM, MYC, and DCN, respectively (scatter plots in c).

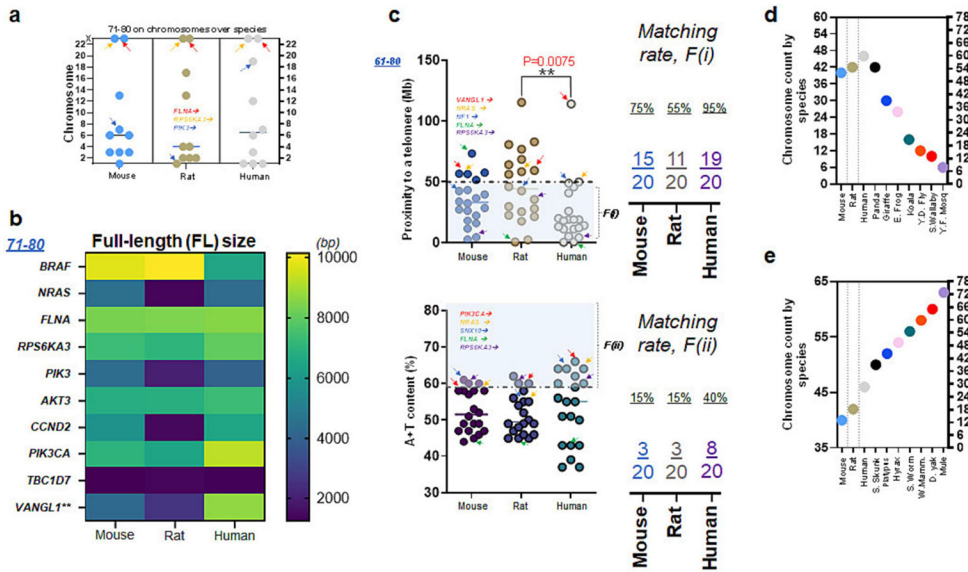


Figure 5. FLNA and RPS6KA3: their proximity to telomeres and A+T content

(a) Chromosome number of ten (#71-80) genes associated with CH in mice, rats, and humans. Note that FLNA and RPS6KA3 are located on the X chromosome of all three species (b) The FL size of ten genes (#71-80) in mice, rats, and humans. Note that FLNA and TBC1D7 show consistent molecular sizes in three species while other genes differ in humans as compared to rodents (c) Proximity to telomeres in twenty genes (#61-80) including two X chromosome genes over three species. Note that more than a half of twenty human genes in this list (#61-80) have evolved in a way meeting proximity to telomeres or F(i) as 18 of 20 human genes have proximity to telomeres at <50 Mb as compared to those of mice and rats. Arrows in red, orange, blue, green, and purple indicate VANGL1, NRAS, NF1, FLNA, and RPS6KA3, respectively (upper plot). A + T content of twenty genes (#61-80) over three species demonstrate a limited number of 20 genes meeting the second factor, F(ii). Arrows in red, orange, blue, green, and purple indicate PIK3CA, NRAS, SNX10, FLNA, and RPS6KA3, respectively (lower plot). (d) Chromosome counts of frequently used laboratory animals (mice & rats) and humans as compared to other species such as Panda to yellow fever mosquito (Y.F. mosq). Including Panda (42), other species shown here have fewer number of chromosomes than humans at 46 chromosomes (23 pairs). (e) Chromosome counts of frequently used laboratory animals and humans as compared to other species such as Skunk to mule. Except mouse and rat, other species such as mule (72) shown here have more chromosomes than humans.