

## Association of Genetic Variation of the Transforming Growth Factor-Alpha Gene with Cleft Lip and Palate

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### Summary

Complex segregation analysis of pedigrees having nonsyndromic cleft lip with or without cleft palate (CL/P) (Chung et al. 1986; Marazita et al. 1986) has shown that a major-locus model best explains the observed recurrence of CL/P in Caucasian families. To identify this major gene, we compared the frequencies of 12 RFLPs at five loci—epidermal growth factor, transforming growth factor- $\alpha$ , epidermal growth factor receptor, glucocorticoid receptor, and estrogen receptor—in both a group of 80 subjects with nonsyndromic CL/P and 102 controls. These candidate genes were selected because studies in rodents had suggested their possible involvement in palatogenesis. A significant association was observed between two RFLPs at the transforming-growth-factor- $\alpha$  (TGFA) locus and the occurrence of clefting ( $P = .0047$  and  $P = .0052$ ). This suggests that either the TGFA gene itself or DNA sequences in an adjacent region contribute to the development of a portion of cases of CL/P in humans and provides an opportunity to begin to examine the molecular events underlying lip and palate formation.

### Introduction

Cleft lip with or without cleft palate (CL/P) is one of the most common birth defects, affecting 1/700–1/1,000 Caucasians. Since the risk of recurrence of CL/P within a family is 28–40-fold greater than that for the general population, genetic factors are thought to contribute to the development of this disorder. It has been suggested that nonsyndromic clefting in humans is most likely due to a combination of genetic and environmental factors as described by the multifactorial threshold model (Carter 1969; Fraser 1976).

Recently, Chung et al. (1986) and Marazita et al. (1986) reanalyzed published Danish pedigree data on CL/P by using new methods of complex segregation analysis. Several alternative models of clefting etiology were examined, including sporadic, multifactorial, ma-

major gene alone, and a mixed model. The pedigree data best fitted the model of action of a major gene with autosomal recessive inheritance modified by additional genetic and/or environmental factors. This major gene was predicted to have a frequency of 3.5% and to account for about one-third of the CL/P cases in the Danish population (Chung et al. 1986).

To identify this major gene, we performed an association study comparing genetic variation at candidate gene loci in a group of unrelated clefted individuals with that of a group of controls. Our hypothesis was that one specific mutational event in a candidate gene might underlie a substantial portion of clefting in Caucasians. Such a mutation could be identified through its non-random association with nearby RFLPs. The candidate genes we investigated were selected owing to their role in normal and abnormal palatogenesis in rodents (Pratt et al. 1980; Ferguson 1987). They included the glucocorticoid receptor (GRL) and estrogen receptor (ER), which share both sequence and functional homology, and epidermal growth factor (EGF) and transforming growth factor- $\alpha$  and their common receptor, the EGF receptor (EGFR).

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## Material and Methods

### Patients

Eighty unrelated Caucasian patients were recruited through the University of Iowa Cleft Palate Clinic and the Iowa Regional Genetic Counseling Service. These patients, who were born between 1956 and 1987, had isolated CL/P but no other abnormalities. The distribution of cleft type was 29% bilateral CL+P, 54% unilateral CL+P, 2% bilateral CL, and 15% unilateral CL. Family histories for CL/P, as well as blood samples, were collected from each case after signed informed consent was obtained. A control group comprised (1) 63 unrelated Caucasians, without clefting, who had been born in or around the state of Iowa between 1914 and 1987 and on whom blood samples were available and (2) 39 unrelated Caucasians, born at University of Iowa Hospital during October and November, 1987, on whom placentas were available. Seventy percent of the cases were male, and 45% of the controls were male.

### DNA Analysis

DNA was extracted from either leukocytes or placental tissue by using a modification of the procedure of Poncz et al. (1982). Five micrograms DNA was digested with the restriction endonuclease known to yield RFLP with the probes being studied, according to manufacturer's instructions (New England Biolabs or Bethesda Research Laboratories). DNA fragments were separated by electrophoresis on 0.8% or 1.2% agarose gels. DNA was transferred to Zetabind™ nylon filters (AMF-Cuno). Probes used are shown in table 1 and are described in the corresponding references. They were labeled by using

the random primer method of Feinberg and Vogelstein (1983), with [ $\alpha^{32}$ -P] dCTP. Following hybridization and washing, autoradiography was carried out by using intensifying screens at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The resulting films were scored for the presence or absence of the various polymorphic alleles (table 1 and fig. 1).

### Statistical Analysis

Allele-frequency differences between cases and controls were evaluated by  $\chi^2$  analysis. Haplotypes were constructed for multiple RFLPs detected at the same locus where one or more of the individual RFLPs showed significant association. Haplotypes were derived by inspection of fully homozygous individuals or individuals heterozygous at a single site and were reanalyzed using logistic regression and log-linear models. A frequency bias in the haplotypes is created by not being able to identify haplotypes for all cases and controls, but we have no reason to expect such a bias is different for CL/P cases and controls.

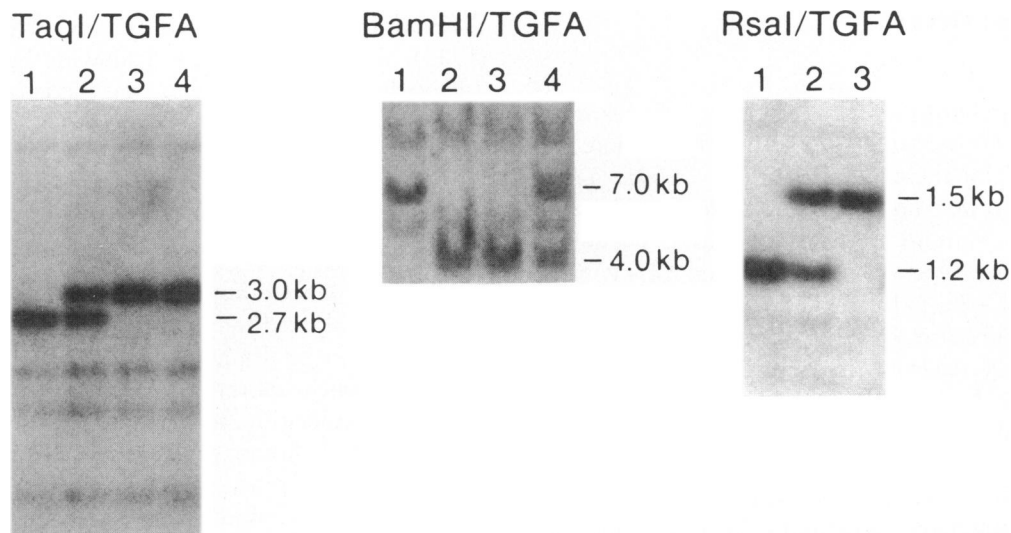
## Results

Table 2 gives the RFLP distribution in cases and controls. Rare alleles found for *EGFR/HindIII*, *EGFR/PstI*, *EGFR/MboI*, *EGF/HincII*, and *TGFA/BamHI* were excluded from analysis but account for the odd numbers of chromosomes shown in some case and control samples. Comparisons of the RFLP common allele frequencies at the GRL, ER, EGF, and EGFR loci each revealed no significant differences between cases and controls ( $P > .05$ ).

**Table 1**

### RFLPs Studied

Gene	Probe	Location	Enzyme	Polymorphism Size (1) Allele/(2) Allele	Reference
<i>GRL</i> . . . . .	OB7	5q11-q13	<i>BclI</i>	4.5 kbp/2.3 kbp	Murray et al. 1987
<i>ER</i> . . . . .	OR8	6q24-q27	<i>PvuII</i>	1.5 kbp/0.7 kbp	Castagnoli et al. 1987
<i>EGF</i> . . . . .	phEGF121	4q25-q27	<i>HincII</i>	8.0 kbp/4.5 kbp	Murray et al. 1986b
<i>EGFR</i> . . . . .	HER-A64	7p13-p12	<i>SacI</i>	12.0 kbp/11.0 kbp	Murray et al. 1986b
			<i>HaeIII</i>	2.6 kbp/1.7 kbp	Smith et al. 1987
			<i>HindIII</i>	12.5 kbp/10 kbp	Smith et al. 1987
			<i>MboI</i>	2.6 kbp/2.3 kbp	Smith et al. 1987
			<i>PstI</i>	10.0 kbp/8.0 kbp	Smith et al. 1987
			<i>StuI</i>	20.0 kbp/13.0 kbp	Smith et al. 1987
<i>TGFA</i> . . . . .	phTGF1-10-3350 phTGF1-10-925	2p13	<i>TaqI</i>	3.0 kbp/2.7 kbp	Hayward et al. 1987
			<i>BamHI</i>	7.0 kbp/4.0 kbp	Murray et al. 1986a
			<i>RsaI</i>	1.5 kbp/1.2 kbp	Murray et al. 1986a



**Figure 1** TGFA RFLPs used in the present study. Restriction enzymes used and polymorphic band sizes are indicated. Alleles designated as "1" in the text are the larger band in each pair of two polymorphic bands.

Highly significant associations were observed, however, for two of three RFLPs detected by the TGFA probes and the presence of clefting (tables 2 and 3). The TGFA *TaqI* 2.7-kbp allele (C2) and the TGFA

*BamHI* 4.0-kbp allele (A2) showed significant association when standard criteria were used with *P* values of .0047 and .0052, respectively. They approached significance when the rejection criteria were adjusted for

**Table 2**

**RFLP Distribution and Analysis**

Gene Probe	Enzyme	Allele <sup>a</sup>	No. of CL/P Chromosomes	No. of Control Chromosomes	$\chi^2$	<i>P</i> Value
<i>GRL</i> .....	<i>BclI</i>	A1	61	50	.506	NS
		A2	97	94		
<i>ER</i> .....	<i>PvuII</i>	A1	69	58	.113	NS
		A2	81	74		
<i>EGF</i> .....	<i>HincII</i>	A1	67	52	1.013	NS
		A2	89	88		
	<i>SacI</i>	B1	142	123		
<i>EGFR</i> .....	<i>HaellI</i>	B2	14	9	.936	NS
		A1	9	5		
	<i>HindIII</i>	A2	147	137		
		C1	144	124		
	<i>MboI</i>	C2	16	15		
		E1	7	4		
<i>TGFA</i> .....	<i>PstI</i>	E2	116	55	7.497	.0047
		B1	142	127		
	<i>StuI</i>	B2	16	16		
		D1	44	31		
<i>TGFA</i> .....	<i>TaqI</i>	D2	114	111	7.483	.0052
		C1	135	186		
	<i>BamHI</i>	C2	21	10		
		A1	7	25		
	<i>RsaI</i>	A2	150	170		
		B1	44	54		
	B2	116	148			

<sup>a</sup> Designations are as found in Human Gene Mapping 9 (1987).

**Table 3**  
**TGFA Allele and Genotype Frequencies**

Subjects Category (N)	Allele <sup>a</sup> Frequency		Genotype Frequency		
	C1	C2	C1C1	C1C2	C2C2
CL/P (78) . . . . .	.865	.135	59 (76%)	17 (22%)	2 (2%)
Control (98) . . . . .	.95	.05	89 (91%)	8 (8%)	1 (1%)
	A1	A2	A1A1	A1A2	A2A2
CL/P (77) . . . . .	.05	.95	0 (0)	7 (9%)	70 (91%)
Control (96) . . . . .	.13	.87	1 (1%)	23 (24%)	72 (75%)
	B1	B2	B1B1	B1B2	B2B2
CL/P (80) . . . . .	.275	.725	6 (7.5%)	32 (40%)	42 (52.5%)
Control (101) . . . . .	.27	.73	11 (11%)	32 (32%)	58 (57%)

<sup>a</sup> TGFA/TaqI: C1—3.0 kbp, C2—2.7 kbp; TGFA/BamHI: A1—7.0 kbp, A2—4.0 kbp; TGFA/RsaI: B1—1.5 kbp, B2—1.2 kbp.

the 12 test comparisons made ( $\alpha = .05/12 = .0042$ ). No significant difference was observed in frequency of the TGFA RsaI RFLP alleles ( $\chi^2 = 0.03, P = 0.4815$ ) between cases and controls.

Haplotypes at the TGFA locus, consisting of the TaqI, BamHI, and RsaI RFLPs, were derived and compared between cases and controls (table 4). Detailed examination of the haplotype distributions showed that a significant portion of the difference between cases and controls was due to the overrepresentation of the C2A2B2 haplotype in cases. Forty-eight percent ( $\chi^2 = 5.62$ ) of the total Pearson  $\chi^2$  (11.64) was contributed by the C2A2B2 haplotype. A likelihood-ratio test indicated that the C2A2B2 haplotype was significantly overrepresented in cases as compared with controls (likelihood ratio  $\chi^2 = 5.737, P = 0.017$ ). No other

haplotype showed a significant individual difference between cases and controls. However, the C1A2B1 haplotype was also overrepresented in cases, but it contributed only 12% of the total Pearson  $\chi^2$ . Similar results were observed when TGFA genotypes composed of the five observed haplotypes were compared (table 5). Of the 67 genotypes that could be derived for the cases, 16% were heterozygous and 3% were homozygous for the C2A2B2 haplotype. In the 80 control genotypes, 5% were C2A2B2 heterozygotes and 1% were homozygotes. The C2A2B2 genotypes accounted for 38% of the difference between cases and controls.

Subdividing the data by sex showed no significant difference in haplotype distribution between male and female cases ( $\chi^2 = 2.11, P = 0.349$ ) or controls ( $\chi^2 = 1.30, P = 0.519$ ). No significant difference was ob-

**Table 4**  
**TGFA Haplotype Data**

HAPLOTYPE <sup>a</sup>	No. of CL/P Chromosomes, By Family History			No. of Control Chromosomes
	Positive <sup>b</sup>	Negative	Total	
C2A2B2 . . . . .	10	5	15	6
C1A2B2 . . . . .	32	55	87	117
C1A2B1 . . . . .	14	15	29	25
C1A1B2 . . . . .	0	0	0	2
C1A1B1 . . . . .	2	2	4	11
Total . . . . .	58	77	135	161

<sup>a</sup> Derived for each of an individual's two chromosomes, from alleles present from TaqI, BamHI, and RsaI digests.

<sup>b</sup> Refers to any relative identified as having CL/P.

**Table 5****TGFA Genotype Data**

Genotype <sup>a</sup>	No. of CL/P Cases	No. of Controls
C2A2B2/C2A2B2 . . . .	2	1
C1A2B2/C1A2B2 . . . .	27	47
C1A2B1/C1A2B1 . . . .	2	1
C1A1B1/C1A1B1 . . . .	0	2
C1A2B2/C1A2B1 . . . .	21	16
C1A2B1/C1A1B1 . . . .	4	7
C2A2B2/C1A2B2 . . . .	11	4
C1A2B2/C1A1B2 . . . .	0	2
Total . . . . .	67	80

<sup>a</sup> Derived by combining an individual's *TGFA* haplotypes (see table 3).

served in haplotype distribution ( $\chi^2 = 4.50$ ,  $P = 0.343$ ) when bilateral CL/P was compared with unilateral CL/P or with unilateral CL alone. However, a significant difference in haplotype distribution was observed with respect to family history of clefting ( $\chi^2 = 6.42$ ,  $P = 0.04$ ). Fifty-eight percent of the Pearson  $\chi^2$  resulted from the overrepresentation of the C2A2B2 haplotype in cases reporting any family history of CL/P. The haplotype distributions in cases with and without family histories were then independently compared with the control haplotype distributions. No significant difference in haplotype distribution was observed between cases without a family history and controls ( $\chi^2 = 2.84$ ,  $P = 0.417$ ). A highly significant difference was observed, however, between cases with a positive family history and controls ( $\chi^2 = 13.71$ ,  $P = 0.003$ ). As before, the difference in the C2A2B2 haplotype frequency contributed the largest component to the Pearson  $\chi^2$  (66%).

### Discussion

To identify the major gene proposed by Chung et al. and Marazita et al. to be involved in a portion of CL/P cases in Caucasians, we considered two possible approaches. Linkage studies require a number of multigenerational families or multiple affected sib pairs, are most successful when the disorder under study is homogeneous, and do not imply causality between the marker allele being studied and the disease. Because of difficulties in obtaining large numbers of families with nonsyndromic CL/P, we used an association study to look for the prevalence, across a well-defined population, of a given disorder (CL/P) among individuals with

different genetic markers. Such studies look for the disorder and a particular marker to be found together with a greater frequency than expected by chance alone, implying a causal relationship between the marker and the disorder in question. The classic paradigm for this are the studies that have shown the association of particular HLA antigens with a higher risk of developing diabetes mellitus.

Our study demonstrates a significant association between (1) the 2.7-kbp *TaqI* and the 4.0-kbp *BamHI* fragments of the *TGFA* probe and (2) nonsyndromic CL/P. This association suggests that an abnormality in this gene may underlie a predisposition for clefting in some individuals or that an as yet unidentified clefting gene may be tightly linked to the *TGFA* locus.

The development of the secondary palate, or roof of the mouth, involves proliferation and differentiation of palatal epithelial cells as well as programmed cell death (Pratt et al. 1980). The occurrence of cell death within the medial epithelial lamina between the fusing palatal processes assists in the removal of the medial palatal epithelium. EGF/TGF- $\alpha$  and glucocorticoids are believed to regulate the proliferation and differentiation of palatal epithelial cells both in vitro and in vivo. Moreover, the continued presence of EGF inhibits the fusion process; TGF- $\alpha$  likely has similar effects. These latter biological studies suggest that mutations in the *TGFA* gene might contribute to the development of CL/P, especially for those mutations that affect the timing of the tissue-specific expression of this gene.

While currently no single *TGFA* allele, haplotype, or genotype is completely consistent with the Chung et al. (1986) model predictions, it is interesting to note that the frequency for the C2A2B2 haplotype in controls is .037, which is similar to the .035 predicted by the Chung et al. model. The homozygote frequency for this haplotype in cases, however, is significantly less than predicted by the autosomal recessive major-locus model of Chung et al. The Iowa population may have a higher proportion of cases not attributable to the major locus. Segregation analysis of pedigree data from our Iowa CL/P cases may determine the contribution that a major locus makes to clefting in this population.

It is also possible that more than one mutation that can cause CL/P has occurred at the *TGFA* locus. Examination of the haplotype distributions show that, in addition to the overrepresentation of the C2A2B2 haplotype, the C1A2B1 haplotype is also found in excess in cases. If one speculates that familial aggregation of CL/P is caused by homozygosity for either of these two individual haplotypes or by heterozygosity (C2A2B2/

ClA2B1), the proportion of affecteds attributable to *TGFA* variation is much more consistent with the predictions of the Chung et al. model.

As noted previously, segregation analysis suggested that only one-third of nonsyndromic CL/P cases would be explained by a single major gene. Other cases may be due to different gene(s), to environmental agents, or to the interaction between them. These cases would be expected to be distributed randomly with respect to the *TGFA* haplotypes.

The association reported here identifies a population of individuals genetically at-risk for CL/P. It should be noted that more accurate estimates of haplotype frequencies will require both adjustment for bias (resulting as a consequence of derivation by homozygosity) and larger sample sizes. The overall contribution of the *TGFA* locus to clefting in our population remains to be determined, and confirmation in other groups is important. Demonstration of linkage of the *TGFA* gene to the CL/P phenotype by using affected sib pairs would substantiate this association, as well as indicate that this locus is indeed a major genetic risk factor for this disorder.

The identification of additional RFLPs within the *TGFA* locus—and their analysis in the study population that we have described here—would facilitate the identification of susceptibility alleles, which could then be isolated. The characterization of mutations contributing to CL/P would provide important insight into the regulation of craniofacial development.

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