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# **GSTM1 and GSTM5 Genetic Polymorphisms and Expression in Age-related Macular Degeneration**

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# **Abstract**

**Purpose—**Previously, two cytosolic antioxidant enzymes, Glutathione S-transferase Mu 1 (GSTM1) and Mu 5 (GSTM5), were reduced in retinas with Age-related Macular Degeneration (AMD). This study compared genomic copy number variations (gCNV) of these two antioxidant enzymes in AMD vs. controls.

**Methods—**Genomic copy number (gCN) assays were performed using Taqman Gene Copy Number Assays (Applied Biosystems) in technical quadruplicate for both *GSTM1* and *GSTM5*. Peripheral leukocyte RNA levels were compared to controls in technical triplicates. Statistical comparisons were performed in SAS v9.2 (SAS Institute Inc. Cary, NC).

**Results—**A large percentage of patients in both AMD and age-matched control groups had no copies of *GSTM1* (0/0). The mean gCN of *GSTM1* was 1.40 (range  $0-4$ ) and 1.61 (range  $0-5$ ) for AMD and control, respectively ( $p = 0.29$ ). A greater percentage of control patients had  $> 3$ gCNs of *GSTM1* compared to AMD, respectively (15.3% vs. 3.0%,  $p = 0.004$ ). The gCN of GSTM5 was 2 in all samples except one control sample. The relative quantification of GSTM1 and GSTM5 mRNA from peripheral blood leukocytes in patients showed significant differences in relative expression in AMD vs. control ( $p < 0.05$ ). Peripheral blood leukocyte mRNA and gCN were not significantly correlated ( $p = 0.27$ ).

**Conclusion—Since high copy numbers of** *GSTM1* are found more frequently in controls than in AMD, it is possible that high copy number leads to increased retinal antioxidant defense. Genomic polymorphisms of GSTM1 and GSTM5 do not significantly affect the peripheral blood leukocyte mRNA levels.

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#### **Keywords**

Age-related macular degeneration (AMD); oxidative stress; glutathione S-transferase; genomic copy number; expression repression

# **INTRODUCTION**

Although the cause of age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is not completely understood, there is evidence that oxidative stress is involved. The retina's high oxygen saturation and easily oxidized polyunsaturated fatty acids (e.g. docosahexaenoate, DHA) impart a great oxidative burden (1–3). Patients with AMD appear to have a reduced serum antioxidant potential that is partially alleviated by vitamin supplementation (4, 5). Indeed, antioxidant vitamins can slow the progression of vision loss in eyes with moderate to advanced AMD (6). The high concentration of vitamin C in the retina, a natural antioxidant, which has been shown to decrease after intense light exposure, presumably is used to quench oxidative stress (7, 8).

Oxidative insults can cause irreversible damage to the retina (4, 5, 9, 10). There is an increase in ω-(2-carboxyethyl) pyrrole (CEP) protein adducts secondary to oxidation of DHA-containing lipids in the retinas in AMD vs. control eyes (11, 12). Mechanisms employed to counter oxygen toxicity include compartmentalization, repair, removal of damaged macromolecules, and free radical elimination by 'scavenger' molecules, such as vitamins or antioxidant enzymes or compounds (13, 14). We have recently reported that two cytosolic antioxidant enzymes, Glutathione S-transferase Mu 1 (GSTM1) and Mu 5 (GSTM5), located within the neurosensory retina (NSR) and Retinal Pigment Epithelium (RPE)/choroid are greatly reduced in AMD vs. control eyes (15). There are four known allelic variants of  $GSTM1$  (>+/+, +/+, +/0, 0/0), one of which is a deletion resulting in loss of function, which has been reported in up to 50% of the human population (16, 17). Information regarding allelic variants of the GSTMs is available in the ophthalmic literature but there is no consensus if any *GSTM1* polymorphism is associated with AMD vs. controls  $(18-23)$ .

To determine if allelic variants of GSTM1 and/or GSTM5 are responsible for the decreased presence of both genes' mRNA and protein, we studied two separate cohorts of patients. The first cohort (Cohort 1) was used to compare the genotypes of  $GSTM1$  and  $GSTM5$  ( $+\rangle +$ ,  $+$ /0, 0/0) to AMD status to determine if polymorphisms in these genes results in an increase risk of AMD. The second, separate cohort (Cohort 2) genotype was compared to peripheral blood leukocyte mRNA quantification by real time-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) to categorize the genetic polymorphisms affect on expression in peripheral blood leukocytes. A final analysis combining both cohort 1 and 2 (Combined Cohort) was used to determine genomic polymorphism risk for AMD in a large sample size.

### **METHODS**

This is a prospective observational case control study of two independent cohort of patients diagnosed with AMD by a retinal specialist (JD) at the University of Pennsylvania (cohort

1), and by retinal specialists (SP, DT, LM) at the University of California Davis Eye Clinic (cohort 2). All patient underwent a comprehensive eye examination including a dilated fundoscopic examination. Patients were categorized as 'late AMD' vs. 'early AMD' if geographic atrophy (GA) or active exudative AMD was diagnosed in at least one eye by fluorescein angiography (FA) and spectral-domain optical coherence tomography (Cirrus or Spectralis) (Table 1). Age-match control (>60 years of age and within 3 years-of-age of AMD patients) subjects were identified and enrolled among patients (evaluated by the same retina providers) and determined to have a macula without any pathology or drusen. The study was conducted according to a protocol approved by the Office of Human Research Protection of the University of Pennsylvania and the University of California-Davis (UC Davis) School of Medicine and adhered to the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki. The charts and electronic medical records were reviewed from both institutions at the time of each study enrollment from June 2010, to June 2013.

#### **GSTM1 and GSTM5 copy number assays**

DNA was isolated from saliva samples using Buccal Amp DNA extraction kits per manufacturer's protocol (Epicenter Biotechnologies, Madison, Wisconsin). The DNA underwent a glycogen cold-precipitation and re-suspension in ddH2O and was stored at −80 C. The final DNA concentration was determined by nanodrop and diluted to 10ng/μL. Copy number was determined by using Taqman Gene Copy Number Assays designed by Applied Biosystems. Multiplex real-time PCR reactions were run on the Applied Biosystems 7900HT Real-Time PCR system by using gene-specific primers with a FAM-MGB probe [GSTM1 (Hs04207352\_cn) and GSTM5 (Hs06525674\_cn)] along with primers for the RNase P gene and VIC/Tamra probe as the reference gene. Samples were run in quadruplicate in a 384-well format by using 10 ng of genomic DNA per reaction, along with a well-characterized reference sample (Coriell Institute for Medical Research, Camden, NJ, USA) with two copies of *GSTM1* as a calibrator. We used Sequence Detection Software (Applied Biosystems) to quantify the gene copy number of each sample. Concordance for blinded samples was more than 90%.

#### **RNA Isolation and Quantitative Real-Time RT-PCR**

RNA was isolated from peripheral blood leukocytes collected with PAXgene Blood RNA tubes (PreAnalytiX GmbH, Switzerland) per manufacturer's instructions. Tubes were stored at room temperature for 6 hours and then stored at −80C until RNA isolation (within two weeks after specimen collection). RNA was isolated with the Qiagen QIAcube (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) and PAXgene Blood miRNA Kit (PreAnalytiX GmbH, Switzerland) per manufacturer's instruction. cDNA was synthesized with reverse transcription reagents (TaqMan; Applied Biosystems, Darmstadt, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The final cDNA concentration was determined by nanodrop and diluted to 50ng/ μL.

Gene expression assays (TaqMan; Applied Biosystems) were obtained and used for PCR analysis. Probes used were GSTM1 (hs01683722\_gh) and GSTM5 (hs00757076\_m1). Eukaryotic 18S rRNA (Hs99999901\_s1) served as an internal control because of its constant expression level across the studied sample sets. Real-time RT-PCR (TaqMan; Applied

Biosystems) was performed (ABI Prism 7900 Sequence Detection System; Applied Biosystems) using the  $C_T$  method, which provides normalized expression values. The amount of target mRNA was compared among the groups of interest. All reactions were performed in technical triplicates.

#### **Statistical Analysis**

Comparison of demographic characteristics between AMD cases and normal controls were performed by Fisher's exact test for categorical characteristics, and two-group t-test.

Genomic copy number data in AMD and normal control groups were summarized by mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) and compared using the two-group t-test. Because of the similarity of results between the two cohorts, the analysis of data from two cohorts combined was also performed. mRNA data were summarized by median (minimum, maximum) and compared between AMD and normal controls using Wilcoxon rank sum test due to the skewed distribution of data. Spearman correlation analysis was used for assessing the correlation between mRNA and copy number. Two-sided  $p < 0.05$  was considered statistically significant. These analyses were performed in SAS v9.2 (SAS Institute Inc. Cary, NC).

# **RESULTS**

In cohort 1 (Table 1), there were 50 AMD subjects and 37 control subjects enrolled. The mean age of patients in the AMD group was 3 years older than controls ( $p=0.06$ ). Gender is evenly distributed between the two groups. Of 50 AMD cases, 30% had early AMD (drusen and pigmentary changes) and 70% had late AMD (geographic atrophy or exudation). The mean *GSTM1* gCN was 1.24 in the AMD group compared to 1.54 in the control group ( $p =$ 0.34, Table 2). A large percentage of patients had no copies of GSTM1 (0/0) in both AMD vs. controls, 44% vs. 40.5% (Table 2,  $p = 0.66$ ). More control patients had 4 or 5 copies of GSTM1 compared to AMD, respectively (16.2% vs. 2.0%,  $p = 0.04$ , Table 2). GSTM5 gCN was 2 in all samples but one control (from cohort 1) that had a copy number of 1 (data not shown).

The demographics for cohort 2 did not show any statistically significant difference between AMD vs. control ( $p = 0.28$ , Table 1). Of the 50 AMD cases in cohort 2, 24% had early AMD vs. 74% with late AMD (Table 1). GSTM1 gCN ranged from 0 to 5 and the mean GSTM1 gCN was not significantly different between AMD vs. controls ( $p=0.69$ ), similar to the first cohort (Table 2). The presence of null genotype was noted for GSTM1 that was not statistically significantly different between AMD (28%) vs. control (33.3%) ( $p = 0.76$ , Table 2). A non-significant, larger percentage of control patients had 4 or 5 copies of GSTM1 compared to AMD, respectively (14.6% vs. 4.0%,  $p = 0.09$ , Table 2). *GSTM5* had two copy numbers in all samples (data not shown).

In the analysis of data from the combined cohort, the age in patients with AMD was significantly older than controls (80.2 vs. 77.5,  $p = 0.04$ , Table 1). The combined cohort's GSTM1 gCN was still not significantly different, with a mean of 1.40 (range  $0 - 4$ ) in the AMD group compared to 1.61 (range  $0 - 5$ ) in the control group ( $p = 0.29$ , Table 2). Fewer

AMD vs. controls patients had 4 or 5 copies of *GSTM1*, respectively (3.0% vs. 15.3%,  $p =$ 0.004, Table 2). Restricting the AMD cohort to only late AMD (in either cohort 1, 2 or the combined cohort), did not increase any GSTM1 gCN variation to statistical significance (data not shown).

The relative quantification of *GSTM1* mRNA (from patients with *GSTM1* gCN  $> 0/0$ ) from peripheral blood leukocytes was significantly increased in AMD vs. control (−15 vs. −19, p  $= 0.02$ , Table 3). The relative quantification of  $GSMT5$  mRNA was significantly increased in AMD vs. control ( $-2351$  vs.  $-4859$ , p = 0.001, Table 3). *GSTM1* mRNA from peripheral blood and gCN were not significantly correlated (Spearman correlation coefficient  $= 0.13$ , p  $= 0.27$ ).

# **DISCUSSION**

The human genome project first highlighted the large degree of gCNV (24, 25). Approximately, 0.4% of a person's genomic 'signature' is accounted for by copy number variance (26). Even identical twins have been shown to have  $de\ novo$  gCNVs not shared by their sibling (27–29).

Structural variation of our genes can be associated with disease or can be a benign variation (30, 31). GSTM1 and GSTM5 have been localized within the NSR and RPE/choroid of the human eye, and both genes had reduced mRNA and protein in AMD eyes (without null genotype  $0/0$ ) in the same pan-retinal studies (15). Piacentini et al analysis of  $GSTMI$ polymorphisms have recently emphasized the importance of using genotype association  $(++, +0, 0, 0)$  over phenotype (present, null) when looking at *GSTM1* protein function (32). Oz et al. performed phenotype analysis with PCR of peripheral blood leukocytes for GSTM1, GSTT1 and GSTP1 in exudative AMD vs. controls and found that paired homozygous deletions for *GSTM1/GSTT1* or *GSTM1/GSTP1* increase AMD risk (33). Possible loss of redundant or supportive antioxidant functions could cause an accumulative insult necessary for significant AMD risk. Interestingly, oxidative stress in AMD is likely still 'underreported' if a percentage of present phenotypes  $(+/0)$  have significantly reduced GSTM1 or GSTM5 protein in the NSR or RPE due to expression repression (15). Accordingly, we performed sample cohort studies using gCN analysis to see if copy number variations of GSTM1 and GSTM5 could be an independent risk factor for AMD. Guven et al. reported GSTM1 homozygous null (determined by PCR from peripheral leukocytes) associated with AMD and dry AMD (after subtype stratification) in a Turkish population (34). Our results failed to show such an association for AMD or with AMD subtype stratification (e.g., early vs. late, neovascular or atrophic AMD), (data not shown).

Independent cohort analysis (cohort 1 and 2) did not show an age difference. In the larger combined cohort analysis a significant age discrepancy became evident. The age distribution was similar in the combined cohort  $(60 - 93 \text{ vs. } 62 - 99)$  AMD vs. control, respectively. This suggests an age distribution curve bias toward younger ages in controls in the combined cohort (Table 1). All patients were within the age limits of AMD disease status (>60 years old) and the youngest control patient was two years older than the AMD combined cohort. The enrollment criteria of a normal macula (without evidence of any other pathology) for

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controls may have caused a selection bias for younger individuals that only became evident when the two cohorts were combined. Patients with AMD and additional maculopathies (e.g., epiretinal membrane, history of pseudophakic cystoid macular edema), however, were included. The selection criteria prohibiting any maculopathy (including drusen or RPE change) was chosen to hope minimize misclassification of subclinical AMD given the exponential increase in AMD incidence with each decade of senior life.

GSTM5 had 2 gCNs in all but one control sample (data not shown). Several models plausibly explain the large degree of polymorphisms of GSTM1 and the relative stable allelic configuration of GSMT5 downstream on chromosome 1p13. Recurrent rearrangements of the human genome have been accounted for by different meiotic recombination mechanisms while non-recurrent rearrangements (including deletions) can be understood by errors of DNA replication models (30, 31). A genome wide analysis of copy number variation in AMD would be helpful in further elucidating where and how these GSTM1 polymorphisms occur.

Retinal GSTs are likely to have a significant role in protection against oxidative insult (35– 43). Pharmacologic augmentation of the body's antioxidant defenses, therefore, may prove to be protective in AMD pathogenesis, especially in people with low *GSTM1* and *GSTM5* expression in the eye. The increased presence of 4 or 5 gCN of GSTM1 in control vs. AMD (Table 2) could potentially protect against AMD pathogenesis in the eye, however direct evidence linking increased copy number of antioxidant genes to reduced oxidative stress is sparse in the literature. For example, Wang et al showed that mitochondrial DNA copy numbers in peripheral blood leukocytes were increased in patients with higher plasma oxidation indicators (44). Like AMD, asthma is partially driven by inflammation, of which oxidative stress is believed a part. The incidence of asthma was greatly reduced in patients with two copy numbers of  $GSTM1$  (vs.  $+/0$  or  $0/0$ ) in a Danish atopic cohort (45). In our study, interestingly, there was greater relative expression of GSTM1 (for patients with gCNV > 0) in peripheral blood leukocytes in AMD vs. control (Table 3). GSTM5 had a significant increased expression in AMD vs. control (Table 3). This highlights the tissue-specific nature of gene expression control. Future, larger studies would need to be conducted to corroborate these findings.

The lack of association of *GSTM1* null with AMD in two, independent cohort of patients (and in combined cohort analysis), highlights another form of expression repression to explain the low amounts of GSTM1 mRNA and protein in human retinas with AMD vs. control previously reported. Additionally, given the lack of a *GSTM1* null being a single putative genomic risk factor for AMD incidence, possible additional models need to be examined. Given the relative high degree of homology between different isoforms, 'duplication of function' by the mu-5 isoform to GSTM1, for example, could additionally reduce the retina's anti-oxidative ability below a 'disease causing threshold'. Both GSTM1 and GSTM5 have been shown to be co-localized within the same areas of the NSR and RPE/ choroid by immunofluorescence. Given the lack of polymorphisms of GSTM5, a coexpression repression of both enzymes may be antecedent to disease incidence.

In conclusion, we report here the first evidence showing a lack of a *GSTM1* null (0/0) or genomic polymorphisms of  $GSTM5 (+/0, 0/0)$  (as determined by copy number determination) in AMD. The function and location of these isoenzymes suggest that this decline in antioxidant function could lead to increased oxidative stress in AMD eyes and contribute to AMD pathogenesis.

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**Table 1**

Comparison of demographic characteristics between AMD cases and controls Comparison of demographic characteristics between AMD cases and controls



From Chi-squared test.



**Table 2**

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**Table 3**

Comparison of mRNA between AMD cases and controls in Cohort 2 Comparison of mRNA between AMD cases and controls in Cohort 2



From Wilcoxon rank sum test.