Am. J. Hum. Genet. 64:000, 1999

Mutations in the *RP2* Gene Cause Disease in 10% of Families with Familial X-Linked Retinitis Pigmentosa Assessed in This Study

To the Editor:

X-linked retinitis pigmentosa (XLRP; MIM 312600) is a severe form of retinal degeneration that typically presents as loss of the peripheral visual field and night blindness in affected males within the 1st or 2d decade of life, owing to primary degeneration of rod photoreceptor cells and bone spicule pigmentary deposits (Bird 1975). The disease is progressive: loss of central vision occurs later in life, and complete functional blindness often occurs by 40-50 years of age. RP2 was the first genetically mapped retinitis pigmentosa (RP) locus (Bhattacharya et al. 1984) and showed disease segregation with the RFLP detected by the probe L1.28 (DXS7). Subsequent genetic-mapping studies have shown exceptional genetic heterogeneity for autosomal RP and XLRP, which is illustrated on the short arm of the X chromosome and on RP2, RP3, RP15, and RP23 (Ott et al. 1990; McGuire et al. 1995; Thiselton et al. 1996; A. J. Hardcastle, D. L. Thiselton, T. S. Mah, M. B. Gorin, and S. S. Bhattacharya, unpublished data). Extensive homogeneity and heterogeneity analyses of worldwide XLRP family collections suggested that RP3 (frequency 70%-75%) and RP2 (frequency 20%-25%) are the predominant forms (Ott et al. 1990; Teague et al. 1994). The *RP3* gene was positionally cloned, facilitated by the identification of submicroscopic deletions in affected patients (Meindl et al. 1996; Roepman et al. 1996). The causative gene, a putative guanine-nucleotide-exchange factor (RPGR), appears to be mutated in only 15%-20% of patients with XLRP (Meindl et al. 1996; Roepman et al. 1996; Buraczynska et al. 1997), not the 70%–75% expected from the results of genetic-mapping studies (Teague et al. 1994). Investigation of splice variants, promoter/enhancer mutations, and as yet unidentified exons may account for the low mutation rate detected in this gene; however, a more likely explanation for these findings is microheterogeneity. In comparison, genetic mapping suggested that RP2 is rare (15%-20%)

of patients with XLRP), and the close proximity to RP3, together with a lack of disease-associated deletions, has hampered the search for the RP2 gene for many years. We reported haplotype analysis for two pedigrees, which defined both proximal and distal boundaries of the RP2 critical interval to a region of 5 cM between DXS8083 (Xp11.3) and DXS6616 (Xp11.23) (Thiselton et al. 1996) and which excluded the candidate gene TIMP1 (Hardcastle et al. 1997b). The RP2 gene recently has been positionally cloned by targeting this interval by use of the YAC representation hybridization technique (Schwahn et al. 1998). RP2 consists of five exons, encodes a polypeptide of 350 amino acids, and is ubiquitously expressed. The predicted amino acid sequence has homology to cofactor C, over 151 amino acids (30.4%), which is involved in β -tubulin folding (Schwahn et al. 1998). Currently, this provides the only functional clue for the RP2 gene; hence, the overall function and specific role in the retina are unknown at present. We have screened our panel of patients with XLRP for mutations in the RP2 gene, to define the spectrum of mutations causing disease. Of particular interest were the two definitive genetically defined families with RP2 that we had described previously (families F72 and NRP; Thiselton et al. 1996).

Appropriate informed consent was obtained from patients and relatives. Of a total of 59 families with XLRP assessed in this study, 26 families were excluded from RP2 gene mutation screening, because haplotype and linkage analyses excluded the RP2 interval or because RPGR mutations had already been identified. The remaining 33 families with XLRP were assessed for RP2mutations.

DNA from affected male patients from each of the 33 pedigrees (and two normal male controls) was amplified with primer pairs described by Schwahn et al. (1998), by use of 150 ng of initial template DNA and with minor modifications to the suggested annealing temperatures (details available on request from the authors). Purified PCR products (8 μ l of product incubated with 1 U shrimp alkaline phosphatase [SAP; Amersham Life Science] and 1 U Exonuclease I [United States Biochemical] in SAP buffer, at 37°C for 30 min followed by 80°C for 15 min) were aliquoted (5 μ l) for cycle sequencing in the forward and reverse directions, by use of the ABI

Prism Ready Reaction Dye Terminator cycle sequencing kit (fluorescent sequencing kit, Perkin-Elmer), in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. Reactions then were electrophoresed on an ABI 373A automated sequencer.

Segregation of the mutation, with the disease, was shown by SSCP analysis. PCR products were labeled by incorporation of α [³²P]-dCTP during amplification. Denatured PCR products were resolved by SSCP analysis (Orita et al. 1989), in nondenaturing 0.5 × mutationdetection–electrophoresis gels (FMC Bioproducts) in 0.6 × Tris-borate EDTA buffer run at 8–10 W for 14–18 h. Autoradiographs were exposed at -80° C for 1–12 h. In addition, DNA from 50 female controls (100 chromosomes) was amplified, together with DNA from a patient harboring each mutation found, and was separated under the same conditions.

To complete an effective mutation screen at the sequence level, the wild-type RP2 gene sequence was compiled by complete sequencing of DNA from two unaffected males (see above) and by cloning of the cDNA, because no DNA sequence information was publicly available. Human brain cDNA (~150 ng, from Dr. M. Cheetham) was amplified by use of the 1F/5R primers described by Schwahn et al. (1998). PCR was performed by use of proofreading *Taq* polymerase (KlenTaq, Clontech), with an initial denaturation at 94°C for 3 min followed by 40 cycles of 94°C for 20 s, 57°C for 20 s, and 68°C for 1 min 30 s. The resultant product was cloned directly into pGEM-T Easy (Promega) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. DNA was prepared from 1F/5R PCR-positive colonies (QIAprep Spin Miniprep kit, Quiagen) and was sequenced bidirectionally on the ABI sequencer, by use of the vector and internal primers described by Schwahn et al. (1998). The cDNA sequence for the RP2 gene is shown in figure 1, along with the predicted amino acid sequence. The amino acid sequence deviates from the published sequence by one residue (residue 169; $Asp[D] \rightarrow Asn[N]$). Sequence information from all patients, covering the entire coding region and the exon/intron boundaries, was examined for mutations by use of Sequence Navigator software (Perkin Elmer), to compile normal and patient sequences and to compare them directly to the cloned RP2 cDNA.

The electropherograms in figure 2 show mutations found in our patient pool, with normal sequences depicted below each mutation sequence. A 5-bp deletion in exon 2 (del688–692) was detected in family NRP, and the sequence of an affected male from this pedigree is shown in figure 2*A*, above the normal sequence of the gene (fig. 2*B*). Figure 2*C* shows the sequence of exon 4 from an affected male in family RP3877. When compared with the normal sequence of the gene in this region (figure 2*D*), a 1-bp insertion (T) is apparent (929insT; see fig. 1), thus causing a frameshift. The most common mutation observed in our sample set was a nonsense mutation converting CGA (Arg; fig. 2F) to TGA (termination codon; fig. 2E) in exon 2 (C358T; see fig. 1), at a CpG dinucleotide. This mutation was found in three apparently unrelated pedigrees, namely, F15, F71, and RP227. One missense mutation was observed in exon 2 in family F72, namely, a CGT (Arg; fig. 2H) to CAT (His; fig. 2G) change at nucleotide position 353 (G353A; see fig. 1), which is identical to the missense mutation reported by Schwahn et al. (1998). In summary, only 6 of the subset of 33 families appeared to harbor mutations in the *RP2* gene.

Segregation of mutations, with the disease, was confirmed by SSCP analysis, examples of which are seen in figure 3a (segregation of C358T mutation in family F71) and in figure 3b (929insT in family RP3877). To rule out the presence of nonpathogenic sequence variants, all described mutations were analyzed by SSCP analysis and were excluded in 50 independent female controls.

Table 1 summarizes the results of our mutation screen of the subset of 33 pedigrees with XLRP and the mutations described in the original publication (Schwahn et al. 1998). Of particular interest to us were the two families we previously had reported as defining the genetic interval for RP2 (families F72 and NRP; Thiselton et al. 1996). A mutation was identified in exon 2 in an affected male from family F72; this missense mutation (G353A, Arg118His) had been reported previously (Schwahn et al. 1998) and is the only missense mutation found to date. We also found an RP2 gene mutation in the second pedigree (NRP). This 5-bp deletion (del688– 692) in exon 2 leads to a premature termination of translation two amino acids downstream, thus leading to a severely truncated polypeptide. Further phenotypic studies of these two families may show slightly differing disease progression or severity, reflecting the significance of a subtle point mutation (basic-to-basic amino acid substitution) and of severe truncation in a protein of unknown function. One of the original families (F15) described as showing linkage to the RFLP L1.28 (Bhattacharya et al. 1984) also was included in our sample subset of 33 pedigrees. In this family, disease segregates with the nonsense mutation in exon 2 (C358T). The same mutation was observed in two other families, F71 and RP227, which apparently are unrelated, making this the most common RP2 mutation to date. A 1-bp insertion in exon 4 (929insT) was identified in pedigree RP3877. This mutation leads to a frameshift coding for 18 novel amino acids, followed by premature termination. In summary, from the total set of 59 families with XLRP assessed in this study, ~10% (6/59) of cases of familial disease were caused by mutations in the RP2 gene. When considered together with the original screen, no mutations in exons 3 and 5 have been detected to

10

1

	tggaagtgcc	tgagctagtg	agctggccaa	cgagctccgc	gggctgggac	-2
		ττςττςτςς				49
3		F F S K GGAGGAGCGG				99
18			P X Q Y			
		CAAAAGACTA	CATGTTCAGT	GGACTGAAGG		149
34	X V 8 P	K © Y CCTGGGACGG			Έ Ϋ Ϋ ΑΤΤΓΛΑGACT	199
53	G R L		A G Q		I Q D C	135
		TAACATCTAT	ATTTTTGATC	ACTCTGCTAC	AGTTACCATT	249
28	E N C	N I Y		S & T	V Y X	200
84		CTAACTGCAT				299
		AATTGCAGAG				349
303	<u> </u>		$C \times C$		CQQF	
338		AGATTGTAGA			TTGTGCCACT	399
3365		TTGAGTCTTC				449
334	QPII	\$ 5 5	SNI	8 F G C	F Q W	
		GAATTAGCTT				499
153	Υ Υ Έ ΤΓΑΔΓΑΔΤΑΓ	E L A F ATGGAGTAAC	ATTCATGACT		L S I F	549
168	N N T		I H D F		S & E	010
		GCCTTCTTCC				599
184		L L P ACCGAAGAGC				649
203		T E E L				045
~~.		TGTTCCAATA	TCCCGGGGTC	AGAGACAGAA		699
218	8 5 3	V × X		8 Q K	<u> </u>	740
234	GAATCATGCT	TAGTGGTATT	ATTTGCTGGT	GATTACACTA	A N A	749
22.59		ATTGATGAGA				799
584	8 K L	1088	VGK	3 7 3	LVQT	
		GTCCATGAAA S M K				849
288		ACTTCCTTCC				899
284	K A P B	F E P	E E N	X G P V	3 A L	
		GGGGATGGTG				949
301		G D G A				999
318		G T K				555
-	TCTGGAGATG	TAGACAGCTT	CTACAACTTT	GCTGATATAC	AGATGGGAAT	1049
334	S & D V		Y N F	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		1098
351	AIGAGTOCA	atgtggaacc	aggaettggt	uttaageett	τιςςααςττ	1030

Figure 1 cDNA and predicted amino acid sequence of the *RP2* gene

date. The significance of the distribution of mutations is not known, because the gene is novel; therefore, without an interspecies/gene family sequence with which to identify conserved residues and domains, functional assessment of pathogenic sequence alterations can only be speculative.

Interestingly, however, the spectrum of mutations has a trend toward severe protein truncation, with only one missense mutation identified in two families (reported by Schwahn et al. [1998] and F72 in this study). This suggests a critical role for this residue in protein folding/ function. Because mutations in the *RP2* gene that cause XLRP are skewed toward protein truncation, more subtle missense mutations may cause a variant phenotype such as X-linked congenital stationary night blindness (CSNBX), which also shows genetic heterogeneity (Hardcastle et al. 1997*a*). In this study we did not search for upstream or intronic mutations; however, we do not anticipate a large increase in the percentage of cases of XLRP attributable to *RP2* gene mutations, since geneticmapping studies suggest that a maximum of 25% of XLRP cases are linked to this interval (Teague et al. 1994).

The only indication of the functional role of this novel protein in the retina or, indeed, in any tissue is its homology to cofactor C, which in itself is unique. Cofactor C was identified as part of the β -tubulin folding pathway (Tian et al. 1996) and cooperates with the cytosolic

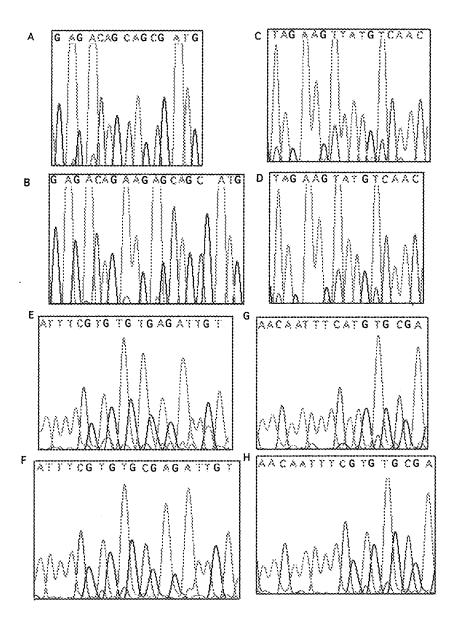


Figure 2 Electropherograms depicting mutations in patients with XLRP and normal sequences in the *RP2* gene. *A*, 5-bp deletion in exon 2 (del688–692) in affected male from family NRP. *B*, Normal sequence of corresponding region in exon 2. *C*, 1-bp insertion (T) in exon 4 (929insT) in affected male from family RP3877. *D*, Normal sequence of corresponding region in exon 4. *E*, Nonsense mutation in exon 2 (C358T) in affected male from family F15. *F*, Normal sequence of corresponding region in exon 2. *G*, Missense mutation in exon 2 (G353A) in affected male from family F72. *F*, Normal sequence of corresponding region in exon 2.

chaperonin (CCT) and other cofactors to produce properly folded β -tubulin subunits that can form heterodimers with α -tubulin. The precise role of cofactor C is unknown, but it appears to function as a chaperone late in this folding pathway, binding near native β -tubulin (Tian et al. 1996, 1997). Cofactor C also copurifies with microtubules and also may be a microtubule-associated protein (MAP). Therefore, *RP2* possibly is also a molecular chaperone involved in tubulin biogenesis or a specialized MAP modulating some aspect of microtubule function. For example, photoreceptors have a specialized microtubule cilium connecting inner and outer segments, and *RP2* may be involved in either cilium biogenesis or maintenance. Alternatively, *RP2* may act as a chaperone in cooperation with CCT, by acting to fold proteins other than β -tubulin, possibly including retina-specific proteins. Studies of the cellular and subcellular localization of *RP2* will provide valuable insights into its physiological function and its relationship to other essential retina proteins (these experiments are currently under way).

The identification of RPGR as the causative gene for RP3 (Meindl et al. 1996) has not accounted for all the cases of disease mapped to this genetic interval. Approximately 20% of families with XLRP have mutations



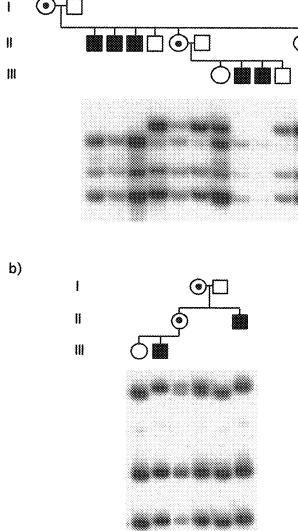


Figure 3 SSCP-based cosegregation analysis of two novel *RP2* mutations. Pedigree symbols are aligned to correspond to the appropriate gel lane. *A*, Segregation of the exon 2 C358T mutation in family F71. *B*, Segregation of the 929insT mutation in family RP3877.

in this gene (Meindl et al. 1996; Roepman et al. 1996; Buraczynska et al. 1997), compared with the 75% estimated from genetic-mapping studies (Teague et al. 1994), suggesting the potential for microheterogeneity around this locus. Currently, new XLRP loci are being identified (*RP23*; A. J. Hardcastle, D. L. Thiselton, T. S. Mah, M. B. Gorin, and S. S. Bhattacharya, unpublished data), suggesting that the level of heterogeneity for this disease is far greater than originally hypothesized. Because mutations in the *RP2* gene can cause only a maximum of 25% of XLRP cases, as determined from genetic-mapping studies (Teague et al. 1994) and morerecent mutation studies (Schwahn et al. 1998; this study), $\leq 60\%$ of XLRP cases are still unaccounted for. The cloning of the *RP2* and *RP3* genes should facilitate disease definition in a significant proportion of XLRP pedigrees; however, the genetics of XLRP is still complex and ill defined. The majority of families with XLRP may have mutations in one or more genes that lie in the interval between *RP2* and *RP3*, which potentially is allelic with the newly identified location for CSNBX (*CSNB4;* Hardcastle et al. 1997*a*).

Acknowledgments

We wish to thank Dr. Wolfgang Berger for kindly providing the primer sequences 2 wk prior to publication. The authors also wish to thank all the clinicians and participating families who have supported our research over the years; Dr. Kamal Dulai for invaluable computer support; and Ilaria Zito for running SSCP gels. This research was supported by The Wellcome Trust (grant 051733/Z/97 to A.J.H.), the Guide Dogs for the Blind Association (grant 95-52A to D.L.T.), and the British RP Society.

ALISON J. HARDCASTLE,^{1,*} DAWN L. THISELTON,^{1,*} LIONEL VAN MALDERGEM,² BRATIN K. SAHA,³ MARCELLE JAY,¹ CATHERINE PLANT,¹ RACHEL TAYLOR,¹ ALAN C. BIRD,¹ AND SHOMI BHATTACHARYA¹ ¹Departments of Molecular Genetics and Clinical

Ophthalmology, Institute of Ophthalmology, University College London, London; ²Institut de Pathologie et de Genetique A.S.B.L., Gerpinnes (Loverval), Belgium; and ³Winship Cancer Center, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta

Electronic-Database Information

Accession number and URL for data in this article are as follows:

Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM), http://www .ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Omim (for XLRP [MIM 312600])

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0	0	0	

Family/Patient	Exon	Intron	Nucleotide Position ^a	Mutation
10004 ^b	1		Del16-18	Del Ser6
2553ь	1		76	Nonsense mutation CAG→TAG, Gln26Stop 325 aa missing
2967 ^b		1		LINE1 (long interspersed repeated sequence 1) retrotransposition
2613, ^b F72	2		353	Missense mutation, CGT→CAT, Arg118His
F15, F71, RP227	2		358	Nonsense mutation, CGA→TGA, Arg120Stop, 231 aa missing
1168 ^b	2		453	Nonsense mutation, TAC→TAG, Tyr151Stop, 200 aa missing
3102 ^b	2		Del453	Frameshift, 199 aa missing
NRP	2		Del688-692	Frameshift, 2 aa novel and 117 aa missing
RP3877	4		929	Insertion (T)/frameshift mutation, GTA→GTT, 18 aa novel and 23 aa missing
2448 ^b	4		Del	Frameshift, 55 aa missing

Mutation Spectrum of the RP2 Gene in XLRP

Table 1

NOTE.—Del = deletion, and aa = amino acids.

^a See figure 1.

^b Results from the study by Schwahn et al. (1998).

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Address for correspondence and reprints: Dr. Alison J. Hardcastle, Department of Molecular Genetics, Institute of Ophthalmology, University College London, 11-43 Bath Street, London, EC1V 9EL. E-mail: ahardcas@hgmp.mrc.ac.uk

^{*} The first two authors contributed equally to this work.