

Molecular Diagnosis

Basic Concepts, Genetic Alterations,
Approaches to Detection,
Interpretation, Clinical, Ethical and
Legal Implications.

What is a “Genetic Test”?

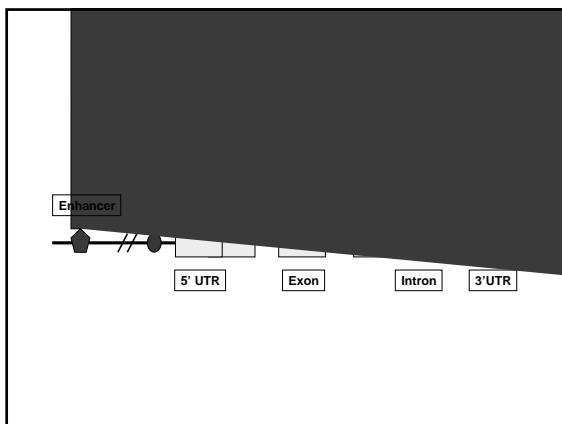
- Analysis of human
 - DNA, RNA, chromosomes, proteins, metabolites
- to detect heritable disease related
 - genotype, mutation, phenotype, or karyotype
- for *clinical purposes*.
- “*Molecular*” genetic test: DNA/RNA-based
 - Usu. PCR or related methodology, or Southern Blotting.

Human genome organization

- Human genome:
 - Total DNA content of cells
 - Nuclear genome – approx. 30,000 genes
 - Mitochondrial genome – 37 genes.
- Nuclear genome:
 - 24 linear double-stranded DNA molecules.
 - 1.5% coding
 - 3% non-coding highly conserved in mammals
 - 45% transposon-based repeats!
 - 6.6% heterochromatin repeats
 - 44% other non-conserved

Nuclear genome organization

- **Coding DNA**
 - 90-95% encode mRNA – polypeptides.
 - 5-10% - RNA genes.
- DNA sequence **families** (related coding sequences)
 - Arise from gene duplication
 - Clustered (e.g., V-family genes) or dispersed
- **Pseudogenes**/gene-fragments
 - Non-functional gene-related segments
 - May contain introns (duplication events) or lack them (“processed pseudogenes” - retrotransposition events.)
 - Estimated 20,000 pseudogenes in human genome.



Mitochondrial genome

- 16,569bp, 44% GC
 - “H” strand – rich in G; “L” strand – rich in C.
- 37 genes – 28 encoded on “H”, 9 on “L”
 - 22 tRNA, 2 rRNA
 - 13 polypeptide genes
 - 13 of > 80 subunits of respiratory complexes of oxidative phosphorylation system.
- Variable number per cell.
- “**Heteroplasmy**”

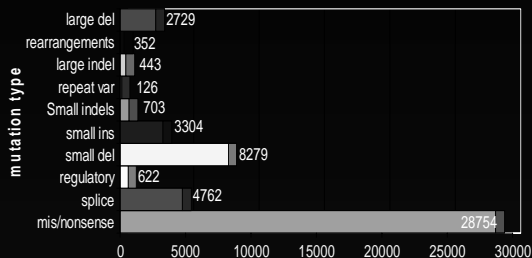
Mitochondrial Genetic Code

Codon	Nuclear Code	Mitochondrial code
AGA	Arg	Stop
AGG	Arg	Stop
UGA	Stop	Trp
AUA	Ile	Met

Types of mutations and their consequences

Implications for Molecular genetic diagnosis

Mutations in human genome database Jan 28, 2006



Mutations: functional vs. phenotypic effect

- Phenotypic effect of mutation
 - Effect on phenotype of individual with mutation.
- Functional effect:
 - No change in gene function.
 - E.g., point mutation w/ no AA change.
 - Loss of function:
 - Gene product with reduced or absent function.
 - Gain of function
 - Mutant gene product does something abnormal.

Loss of Function Mutations

- Usually Recessive Phenotypes
 - Dominant phenotype w/
 - Haploinsufficiency
 - E.g., BMPR-2 mutations in Primary Pulmonary hypertension
 - Dominant negative effect
 - E.g., Fibrillin-1 mutations in Marfan Syndrome.
 - Hereditary Cancer Syndromes
 - Somatic loss of second allele ("second hit").
- Many mutations in gene w/ similar phenotype.
 - Point mutations, frame-shift mutations and deletions with similar phenotypes.

Loss of Function mutations

Change	Example
Entire gene deletion	α -thalassemia
Partial gene deletion	60% of DMD
Insertions	LINE-1 insertion in F8
Translocations	Women w/ DMD
Inversion	F8 inversion
Promoter mutation	β -globin -29 A>G
Promoter methylation	Many cancers
Poly-A site mutation	α -globin AATAAA>AATAGA

Loss of Function mutations

Change	Example
Nonsense mediated RNA decay	Beta-globin Q39X
Splice donor loss	PAX3 451+1 G>T
Splice acceptor loss	PAX3 452-2 A>G
Δ Exonic splicing enhancer	SMN2 Exon7 change
Activate cryptic splice site	CFTR 3849 +10kb C>T
Frame-shift mutation	BRCA1 185delAG
Nonsense mutation	PAX3 Q254X
Missense mutation	HFE C282Y

Gain of Function Mutations

- Usually dominant phenotypes
- Only few (or one) mutation(s) per gene with gain of function effect

Gain of Function Mutations

- Factor V Leiden
 - Arg506Gln.
 - Resistance to inactivation by activated Protein C.
 - Increased thrombotic risk

Gain of Function Mutations

- Fibroblast Growth Factor Receptor 3 (FGF3)
 - Receptor tyrosine kinase, activated by binding FGF, to start signaling cascade.
 - Gly390Arg (1138 G>A):
 - “Mildly” increased activity (requires FGF binding)
 - ACHONDROPLASIA.
 - Y373C, R248C, and S249C
 - Create extracellular cysteine
 - Ligand independent binding: “greatly increased” activity.
 - Severe phenotype: neonatal death (“Thanatophoric Dysplasia.”)

Nucleic-acid alterations targeted in molecular diagnosis

- Molecular Genetics:
 - Recurrent mutations
 - “Private” mutations
 - Gross alterations vs. “smaller” alterations
 - Coding region vs non-coding region alterations
 - Trinucleotide repeat alterations.
 - Very large repeats defy amplification methods.
 - Mitochondrial DNA alterations.
 - “heteroplasmy”.

Samples for Molecular Genetic Diagnosis

- DNA Testing: Any nucleated cells.
 - Blood samples; mouthwashes or buccal scrapes; CVS samples; 1-2 cells from 8 cell stage; hair; semen; archived pathological specimens (dead patients); “Guthrie cards” (dried blood spots).
- RNA Testing: Cells which express the transcript.

RNA vs. DNA

- DNA:
 - Stable; can be directly amplified w/PCR; easy to work with.
 - Obtainable from any nucleated cells.
 - Contains introns:
 - Need to amplify each exon separately (w/ large introns)
 - Introns not tested – cryptic splice sites may be missed.
 - Breakpoints variable:
 - Problem w/ PCR-based methods.

RNA vs DNA

- RNA:
 - No introns: RT-PCR in fewer segments.
 - Effects of mutations seen in mRNA
 - Cryptic splice sites; Gross rearrangements
 - RNA fusions less variable than DNA breakpoints
 - Difficult to work w/:
 - Need for RT step
 - Ubiquitous Ribonucleases.
 - Need for cells w/c express RNA
 - Not all rearrangements w/ gene fusion
 - Nonsense-mediated decay.

Mutation Detection Tests

- Tests for known mutations
 - One mutation (e.g., Factor V Leiden)
 - A few mutations (e.g., CF 23 mutations plus 2 polymorphisms)
 - Many mutations
- Tests for known & Unknown mutations
 - Mutation “scanning” tests
 - Detect presence, not identity of variant
 - Sequencing (DNA or RNA)
 - Presence & identity of variant.

Tests for known mutations

- Most use some form of target amplification
 - E.g. Polymerase chain reaction
- Either a probe, or a restriction enzyme is used to distinguish normal from mutant sequence.
- Results, shown as presence or absence of the specific mutation.
 - No information on presence or absence of other mutations in gene.

Tests for known mutations

- Many proprietary technologies.
- Each with its own advantages and pitfalls.
 - Pitfalls known to laboratory.
 - In New York State, report must indicate the limitations/pitfalls.
- Positive result – usually unambiguous.
- Negative result:
 - Significance varies by condition.

Mutation Scanning Methods

- Mutation in family not known.
- Scan multiple segments of one or more genes for mutations in.
 - Exons
 - Introns, introns, splice sites, promoters, enhancers, “locus control region”, etc.
- Specific strategy determined by clinical syndrome/test purpose.

“Physical”/screening methods

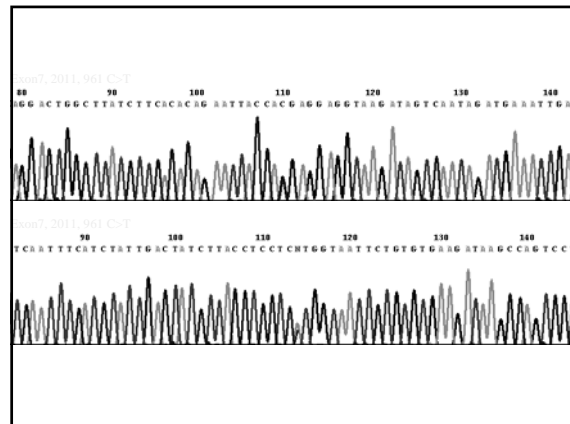
- physical properties of amplified gene segments
 - denaturation profile, electrophoretic mobility, etc.
 - SSCP (single strand conformation polymorphism)
 - DGGE (Denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis)
 - DHPLC (denaturing high performance liquid chromatography)
 - Cleavage fragment length polymorphisms
 - heteroduplex analysis
 - dideoxy fingerprinting.

“Physical”/screening methods

- Sensitivity determined by specific mutation
- Need for multiple conditions
- *One* datapoint per gene segment evaluated
- Screen for *presence* not *identity* of mutation.

Mutation Scanning Methods

- Direct Sequencing
 - Screen presence *and* identity of mutation
 - Bidirectional sequencing
 - 2 datapoints *per base* sequenced.
 - DNA sequencing
 - usu. multiple exons tested.
 - splice-site mutations may be missed, especially mutations deep in large exons.
 - RNA sequencing
 - need for cells w/c express gene
 - “nonsense mediated decay”
 - RNA more labile



Testing Strategies.

- Single gene disease w/ only recurrent mutations: e.g., Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia-2 (MEN-2)
 - *Activating* (gain of function) mutations in RET proto-oncogene.
 - 55kb gene w/21 Exons.
 - Mutations limited to: 13 codons on exons 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16.
 - Test for specific mutations.
 - Positive and negative results:
 - *High positive and negative predictive values.*

Testing Strategies.

- Single gene ds w/recurrent and private mutations (e.g., CFTR, thalassemias).
 - test for “ethnic” recurrent mutation(s)
 - If positive, significance known
 - If negative, and index case or relative, perform “mutation scanning” test.
 - if positive, probably significant, family testing may help.
 - if negative, significance depends on whether index case or relative.

Recurrent mutations: Cystic Fibrosis

- CF: AR; disease when 2 mutated CFTR alleles.
 - 1:3,300 Caucasians;
 - 1 in 9,500 Hispanics;
 - <1 in 50,000 Native Africans and Asians. (*Af.Am.* 1:15K; *As. Am.* 1:32K)
- NIH consensus statement:
 - Offer testing to all planning pregnancy.

Recurrent mutations: Cystic Fibrosis

- NIH Consensus statement:
 - Offer testing to all planning pregnancy.
- **BUT: 900 CFTR MUTATIONS AND COUNTING!!!!!!**
- **Solution:**
 - Test for most common mutations (currently 25)
 - i.e., test for recurrent mutations w/c will detect most cases in population.

CFTR: INCIDENCE, CARRIER, MUTATION RATES: BY POPULATION

Group	Incidence	Carrier freq.	%ΔF508	% other "common"	% group-specific	Sensitivity
Caucasian	1:3,300	1/29	70	13		80-90%
Hispanic	1/8-9000	1/46	46	11		57%
Ashkenazim	1:3,300	1/29	30	67		97%
Native Am.	1:1500 – 3970		0	25	69	94%
African Am.	1:15,300	1:60-65	48	4	23	75%
Asian Am.	1:32,100	1:90	30	0	0	30%

Negative results, Screening

- Caucasian Couple, no family hx. both test (-):
 - Carrier rate = 0.04
 - Population incidence = $0.0016 * 0.25 = 1$ in 2500
 - “Residual Risk” = 0.00249 (94% detection rate)
 - probability of affected child ~ 1 in 645,000
- Hispanic couple:
 - Carrier rate = 0.022
 - Population incidence ~ 1 in 8-9000
 - “Residual Risk” = 0.00958
 - probability of affected child ~ 1 in 43,584

Negative results, Screening

- Asian Couple:
 - Carrier rate = 0.011
 - probability of affected child ~ 1: 32,000
 - “Residual Risk” = .0077
 - probability of affected child ~ 67500

Negative results: + family history

- Caucasian Couple
- each w/ sibling with CF
 - (Mutation in sibling not known).
 - (Prior Probability of each parent being a carrier = 2/3).
- Both test negative for the 25 mutations.
 - Probability of being a carrier (each parent) = 0.168 .
 - Probability of affected child = 1 in 140

Result Interpretation:

- Previously reported mutation
 - Known to be cause of disorder
 - Known to be “neutral variation”
- New mutation:
 - Type likely to be assoc. w/disorder
 - frame-shift mutation, start “ATG” mutation, “Stop codon” missense mutation, nonsense mutation, splice-junction mutation, non-conservative missense in active site,
 - Type likely to be “neutral”
 - e.g., no change in amino acid, and not cryptic splice site
 - Type w/c may or may not be assoc. w/ disorder
 - E.g., non-conservative missense mutation, in region not known to be active site, etc.

RESULT INTERPRETATION

- Two mutations (Recessive Disorders)
 - Test parents to ensure two mutations in *trans* (separate alleles) not in *cis* (same allele).
- No mutation detected.
 - Residual risk depends on individual gene
 - some genes - mainly point mutations, easily detected.
 - Other genes: deletions, rearrangements, intronic alterations, etc., common (e.g., Neurofibromatosis1, BMPR2 - need special tests e.g., tests for gene dosage, etc.).

Molecular Genetic Testing

Additional considerations

Genetic Testing: Additional Considerations

- Screening vs Genetic testing of “index” case
 - With “index” case, it is known that tested individual has clinical disease; only value of negative test is that you know that it cannot be used to screen relatives.
- Locus heterogeneity:
 - Multiple genes causing same syndrome
- Variable “penetrance”
 - May or may not depend on specific mutation.
- Variable expressivity
 - Variable severity of disease.
 - May or may not depend on specific mutation

Benefits Vs. Risk of Testing:

- Availability of treatment/prevention
- Pre-clinical manifestations.
- Discrimination:
 - Insurance
 - Employment
 - Confidentiality

Modified from: BMJ: 322: 1054; April 28, 2001.

Factors affecting utility of genetic testing

- | | |
|--|---|
| ● Increased Utility | ● Decreased utility |
| – High morbidity/mortality of ds | – Low morbidity/mortality of disease |
| – Effective but imperfect Rx | – Highly effective and acceptable RX (i.e., can wait for clinical disease) |
| – High predictive power test (high penetrance) | – Poor predictive power of genetic test (low penetrance) |
| – Screening/surveillance expensive/difficult | – Screening simple/needed regardless of mutation status |
| – Preventive measures expensive or associated with adverse effects | – Preventive measures inexpensive, efficacious, and highly acceptable - e.g., folate supplementation. |

Genetic Testing: Additional Considerations

- Ethics
 - implications for patients *and* relatives.
 - e.g., identical twins; siblings;
 - paternity issues -
- Legal issues
 - New York State Civil Right Law:
 - Need for informed consent
 - Genetic testing only (not phenotypic testing)
 - Standards for informed consent in civil rights law, section 79-1 [<http://assembly.state.ny.us/leg/?cl=17&a=12>].