

Almost total protection from age-related macular degeneration by haplotypes of the Regulators of Complement Activation

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ABSTRACT

Age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is the leading cause of blindness in developed countries. It has been proposed that the polymorphism encoding Y402H (T1277C) in the complement factor H gene (CFH) is one of the main determinants of disease. We genotyped the polymorphism at a number of loci in the region encompassing the Regulators of Complement Activation (RCA) on chromosome 1, including T1277C SNP, in 187 patients and 146 controls. Haplotypes have been classified as protective (P) or susceptible (S) with respect to AMD. This included the identification of an S haplotype with a T at 1277. The results show that no single locus should be assumed to be directly responsible for AMD, but rather argue for the existence of RCA haplotypes, which can be assigned meaningful predictive values for AMD. We conclude that the critical sequences are within a region 450 kb centromeric to 128 kb telomeric of CFH.

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1. Introduction

Polygenic diseases, such as Age-Related Macular Degeneration (AMD), have proven difficult to understand, at least partly because of the complexity of the interactions between linked and unlinked genes, the influence of noncoding polymorphisms affecting gene regulation, variable age and sex related penetrance, and diverse environmental factors [1–3]. These problems are compounded when the pathogenesis is poorly understood.

AMD is one polygenic disease which appears to be amenable to progress. There are at least several gene clusters involved, but interestingly most (complement factor H (CFH), complement component 2 (C2), complement factor B (CFB), complement component 3 (C3), mannose-binding lectin 2 (MBL2)) may relate to complement activation within vessels and may thus be understood in terms of functional

interactions and quantitative effects [4–12]. At least some risk factors are well known and contribute to a final common pathway involving inflammation and obstruction of terminal vasculature. Effective therapy with anti vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) is available [13] although genetic assays to identify those requiring treatment would be helpful both clinically and financially.

An unresolved series of problems relate to the multiplicity and complexity of the genetic markers in the vicinity of CFH and to the presence of some which may or may appear to contribute to either susceptibility or protection. As one example of the confusion, Spencer et al. [5] report contradictory results and suggest the use of the term “inverse associations” until the pathophysiology is known. The same group also discussed the difficulties resulting from multiple comparisons and from inferring rather than observing haplotypes [14].

A proven approach to evaluating disease associations has been developed through studies of the Major Histocompatibility Complex (MHC) [15–21]. The identification of ancestral haplotypes (AH) provides a means of studying the extensive coding and noncoding sequences which have been selected through human evolution. These are the sequences which are likely to be most important in function and disease. Ancestral haplotypes contain genomic structure, insertions and deletions (indels), copy number variations (CNVs), and regulatory elements as well as single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and microsatellites. Thus potential complexity can be simplified resulting in

Abbreviations: AH, ancestral haplotype; AMD, age-related macular degeneration; C2, complement component 2; C3, complement component 3; CFB, complement factor B; CFH, complement factor H; CNV, copy number variation; indels, insertions or deletions; MBL2, mannose-binding lectin 2; MHC, major histocompatibility complex; P, protective haplotype; RCA, Regulators of Complement Activation; S, susceptible haplotype; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor.

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Table 1
Frequency and size of FH1 alleles in 187 AMD patients and 146 controls.

Size (bp)	FH1 allele	Allele frequency (%)
530	3	0.3
533	4	0.5
535	5	0.2
537	6	1.5
541	7	1.8
543	8	3.6
545	9	5.4
547	10	5.56
549	11	10.1
551	12	5.56
553	13	6.0
555	14	6.3
557	15	4.8
559	16	12.9
562	17	3.9
564	18	10.2
566	19	2.1
568	20	5.56
570	21	0.9
572	22	1.0
574	23	0.2
576	24	0.6
580	25	0.3
600	26	0.2
605	27	1.0
609	28	1.95
613	29	1.8
617	30	1.5
621	31	2.1
625	32	1.8
628	33	0.4

a powerful strategy for examining genetic interactions in determining susceptibility to disease.

Recently [22], we have characterised haplotypes of the beta block of the RCA [23]. Here, we show that there are many more haplotypes than described to date and that these can be classified as protective (P) or susceptible (S) with respect to AMD. The P and S haplotypes differ in several respects suggesting some explanations for the disease association.

A potential clinical application is suggested by the fact that the PP genotype is present in only 2% patients with AMD but 24% of controls. Thus, a PP genotype may be useful in excluding the need for intensive follow-up and treatment.

2. Results and discussion

2.1. The polymorphic FH1 locus as the basis for classifying ancestral haplotypes

The FH1 locus is highly polymorphic, with more than 30 alleles found in the 333 subjects typed to date. The more frequent alleles, designated 7 through to 24, differ in amplicon length by approximately 2 base pairs such that allele 7 is 541 bp, 8 is 543 bp, 9 is 545 bp, 10 is 547 bp etc., as shown in Table 1.

To facilitate comparisons, the FH1 genotypes of all patients and controls are displayed in a percentile database (Fig. 1). Subjects are listed in approximate order of the gene frequency when the two groups are combined. Patients with AMD are listed on the left together with their clinical type and age. Controls are on the right. Most subjects have 2 different alleles; those with only one are assumed to be homozygous.

It is immediately clear that the AMD and controls have very different allele frequencies. For example, in AMD, there are increases in FH1 16, 18, 14, 10, 20 and 12 but decreases in 11, 13, 9 and 17. Note that the alleles increased in AMD are a set (10, 12, 14, 16, 18) reflecting a 4 base difference in length (see Table 1). By contrast, the decreased alleles belong to a different set (9, 11, 13, 17) also reflecting a 4 base difference in length, but offset by 2 bases as shown in Table 1. The exception, FH1 15, is considered further below.

The alternating pattern of frequency is illustrated in Fig. 2 where it can be seen that most alleles can be classified into one of the 2 groups provisionally designated susceptibility (S) or protective (P) alleles. Accordingly, each genotype could be assigned SS, SP or PP and in some cases SX, PX or XX where the effect of X on AMD susceptibility is unknown due to low allele frequency.

To test the validity of this approach we examined the *trans*-interactions between S and P alleles. Initially we excluded lower frequency alleles and selected the patients and controls with genotypes restricted to the P alleles (11, 13) and S alleles (12, 16, 20) which are most significantly increased or decreased as shown in Table 2 and Fig. 3. Seventeen of the 21 controls have PP or PS. None of the patients has PP. Note the PP, PS, SS distributions of 0.29, 0.52, 0.19 in controls and 0, 0.37, 0.63 in AMD. These results suggest that P alleles are indeed protective when homozygous and that S alleles are at least additive.

Very similar results were obtained when the 12 most frequent alleles were included in the analysis (Fig. 4). The P alleles (9, 11, 13, 17) and S alleles (8, 10, 12, 14, 15, 16, 18, 20) gave PP, PS, SS distributions of 0.28, 0.47, 0.24 in controls and 0.02, 0.37, 0.61 in AMD. Only 3 of 137 patients are homozygous PP.

The classification of lower frequency alleles given in Table 1 and Fig. 2 is provisional but, when based on the odd and even rule, the results are again similar with a maximal estimate for PP of 0.06 in AMD. In controls, the gene frequencies of P and S again approximate 0.5 in Hardy Weinberg Equilibrium.

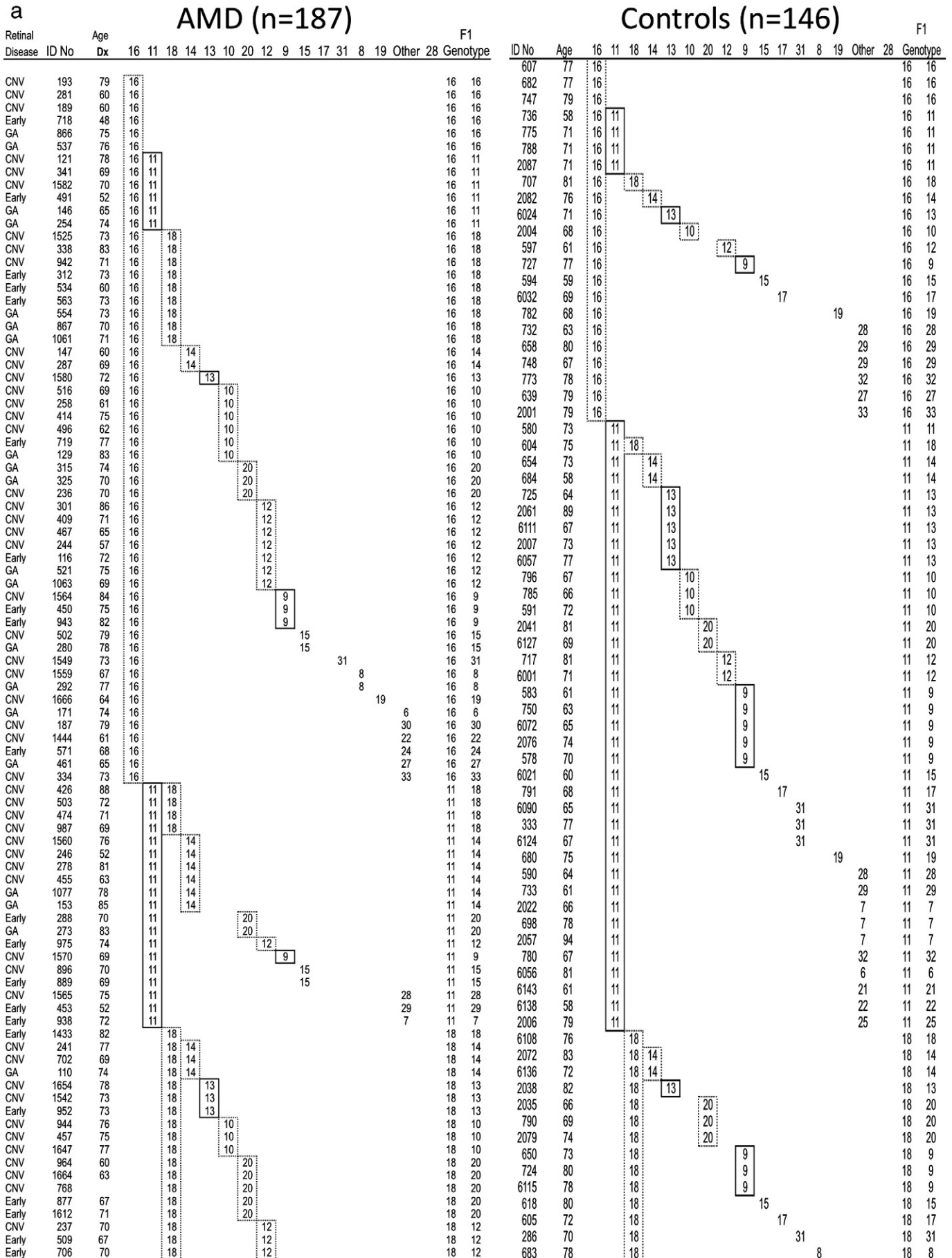
2.2. Other loci define S and P haplotypes

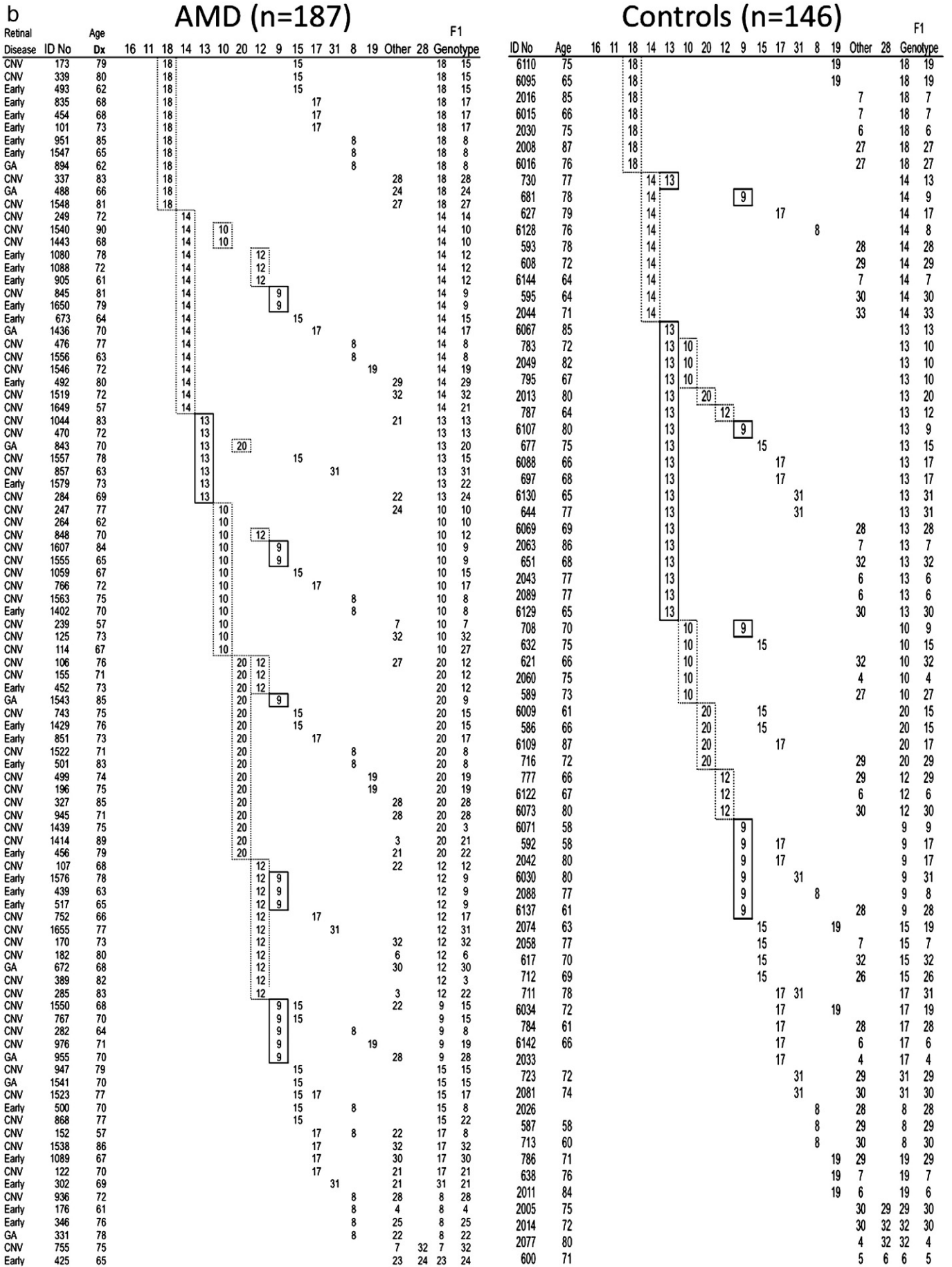
Since it is known that the T1277C mutation is associated with AMD and located close to the FH1 locus, we examined the relationship between FH1 alleles and 1277 alleles. All of the S alleles (such as 10, 12, 14, 16, 18) carry C, whereas P alleles (9, 11, 13, 17) carry T. Interestingly, FH1 15 also has a T although it is increased rather than decreased in AMD and therefore cannot be classified as a P allele. In fact, 8 of the 18 AMD patients with the TT genotype have FH1 15, confirming that this haplotype is distinctive. This finding suggests that neither the FH1 nor the 1277 locus is directly involved in susceptibility or protection: alleles may merely be imperfect markers in linkage disequilibrium with other components on critical haplotypes.

In Fig. 5, the haplotypes including FH1 15 and T1277C are shown. Note that 8 of the patients have TT confirming that TT is not protective in the presence of FH1 15. There are numerous potential haplotypes when the -45 and +128 loci are included. Note the frequencies of -45 6 (8/19 v 2/11) and +128 2 (11/19 v 3/11) alleles are the principal differences between AMD and controls suggesting that the -45 and +128 loci may be as important as the FH1 or 1277 loci in marking the critical factors involved in protection and susceptibility to AMD. If so, it is important to define the haplotypes rather than alleles at any single locus.

In a previous study based on 3 generation families [22], 10 ancestral haplotypes of -45, 1277, FH1 and +128 were identified including 5, T, 15, 1. As shown in Fig. 5, the patients have 6, T, 15, 1 or 5, T, 15, 2 rather than 5, T, 15, 1, suggesting that recombination

Fig. 1. Genotypes of all individuals in the study represented as a percentile database. Alleles are listed on the top row. Subjects are listed in approximate order of the gene frequency (when the 2 groups are combined). Patients with AMD are listed on the left together with the clinical type and age. Controls are shown on the right. Most subjects have 2 different alleles; those with only one are assumed to be homozygous. Alleles with a frequency > 5% (Table 2) in the combined groups have been boxed. The alleles increased in patients are boxed with a dashed line. Alleles decreased in patients are boxed with a solid line.





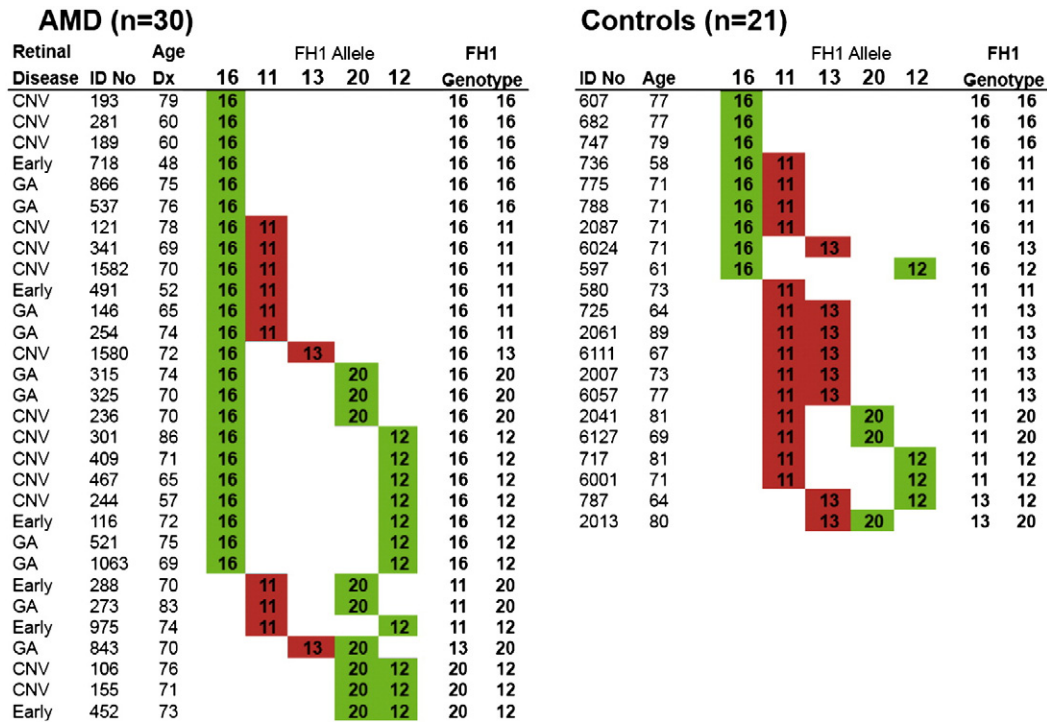


Fig. 2. The allele frequencies (%) of the common FH1 alleles in AMD patients (n = 187) and controls (n = 146). Alleles designated susceptible are shown in green and protective alleles are shown in red. The unbroken line represents the combined (patients and controls) allele frequency.

centromeric or telomeric of CFH is responsible for the increased frequencies of -45 6 and +128 2 in disease and for susceptibility rather than protection. Note that -45 6, in the absence of T, 15, is not associated with disease, therefore implying that there are *cis*-interactions with unidentified sequences marked by -45 6.

2.3. AMD and diabetes

In a subset of the patients with AMD (n=46), the presence or absence of type 2 diabetes (T2D) was known. The frequencies of FH1 in these patients are given in Fig. 6 which suggests that FH1 P alleles such as 9 and 11 may not be protective for AMD in the presence of diabetes. As expected, the frequencies in AMD patients without diabetes are very similar to the total AMD group.

Table 2
The F1 allele defines haplotypes with different levels of protection/susceptibility for AMD. Only F1 alleles with frequencies >5% in the combined groups are shown.

F1 allele	Controls 2n† = 292	AMD 2n† = 374	Combined groups freq (%)	Odds ratio	p‡
12	7	30	5.56	3.55	0.002
20	10	27	5.56	2.19	0.04
16	25	61	12.91	2.08	0.003
10	12	25	5.56	1.67	0.174
14	14	28	6.31	1.61	0.199
18	24	44	10.21	1.49	0.156
9	19	17	5.41	0.68	0.302
11	42	25	10.06	0.43	0.001
13	27	13	6.01	0.35	0.003

2n† = Number of haplotypes.
‡Fisher's exact 2-tailed probability.

2.4. Clinical utility of FH1 and T1277C in excluding AMD

There have been suggestions that homozygous TT at 1277 may be helpful in excluding AMD. However, in our current data set, the negative predictive value of TT is too low to permit critical clinical decisions. The benefit of PP over TT as an excluding test is largely due to the fact that the 6 TT genotypes including FH1 15 become PS (see Fig. 4).

The present results argue for the existence of RCA beta haplotypes which carry the sequences responsible for protection or susceptibility to AMD. No single locus, including 1277, should be assumed to be directly responsible.

It is always hazardous to assign protection and susceptibility alleles to a single locus since increased frequency of some alleles must be compensated by reductions in others. In the present study, however, we are confident that there are fundamental differences between S and P haplotypes because, with the exception of FH1 15:

1. The distribution of SS, SP and PP in disease is not a simple function of frequency.
2. *Trans*-interactions between S and P haplotypes are clearly powerful, with S alleles dominating over P, although undoubtedly complex.

In general, we are reluctant to ascribe significance to HW distortion in disease since this often reflects an inability to detect heterozygotes. This is not the case in the present study.

Furthermore, with the exception of FH 15:

1. S and P alleles relate to sets determined by amplicon length.
2. S and P alleles relate to T1277C

3. Conclusions

Accordingly, we conclude that there are critical sequences in the vicinity of the 1.7 Mb region between -45 to +128 and including

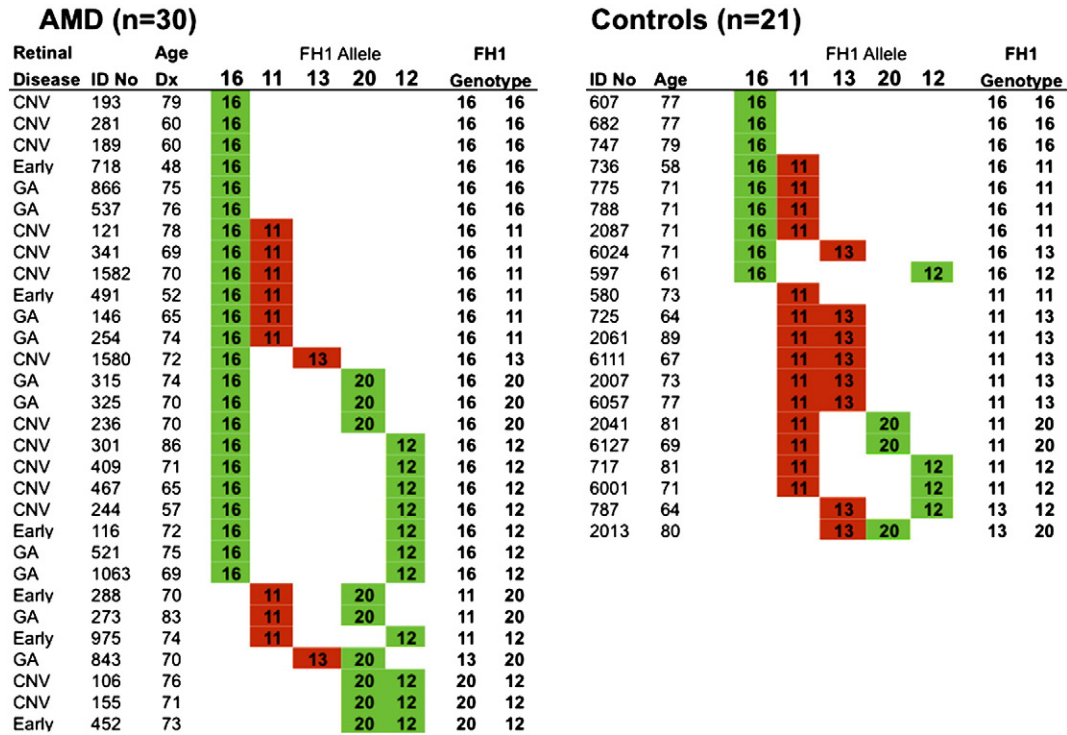


Fig. 3. FH1 genotype distribution in a subset of AMD and control individuals that carry combinations of common alleles that show statistically significant, positive or negative, association with AMD. Susceptible alleles are shown in green. Protective alleles are in red.

CFH and we postulate that there are multiple *cis*-interactions to explain the current results.

These sequences profoundly influence susceptibility to AMD. Subjects with PP genotypes such as 11, 13 have a very low risk of disease and sufficiently low to suggest that genetic typing may be useful clinically. For the first time it becomes possible to assign meaningful predictive values or risks to particular genotypes. We anticipate that further characterisation of RCA beta haplotypes will enhance clinical utility.

Previously, we compared the sequences amplified from FH1 16 and 17 homozygotes and found that 16 and other S haplotypes had a deletion of 2 bp plus multiple substitutions representing an SNP rate of some 5% [22]. The 2 bp indel is found in sequences with a T at 1277 and appears to have arisen contemporaneously during primate evolution. The length differences are largely a function of the number of copies of diverse C and T rich tetramers inserted and deleted on either side of the 2 bp indel. There are also more extensive indels associated with S and P haplotypes.

Future studies will quantify the role and interactions between haplotypes, examine the effect of more extensive RCA beta haplotypes on therapeutic responses and perhaps assist in determining which cases require early treatment.

In parallel with improved genetic typing, it will be valuable to include other risk factors which may overcome the protective effect of the PP genotype. A possible example is provided in the present data; diabetes may predispose to AMD in PP subjects, but further studies are required to confirm these results and determine whether the effect is due to diabetes *per se* or further genetic interactions.

As argued here, the mechanism of disease protection is probably quantitative and regulatory, since certain haplotypes are associated with greater or lesser degrees of inflammation and vascular injury. However qualitative changes in CFH itself may be also be important. It seems likely that other products encoded in the region and in other

regions, such as the MHC, may also contribute. In these regards, AMD will serve as a useful model for dissecting the contributions to polygenic diseases.

4. Materials and methods

4.1. Strategy

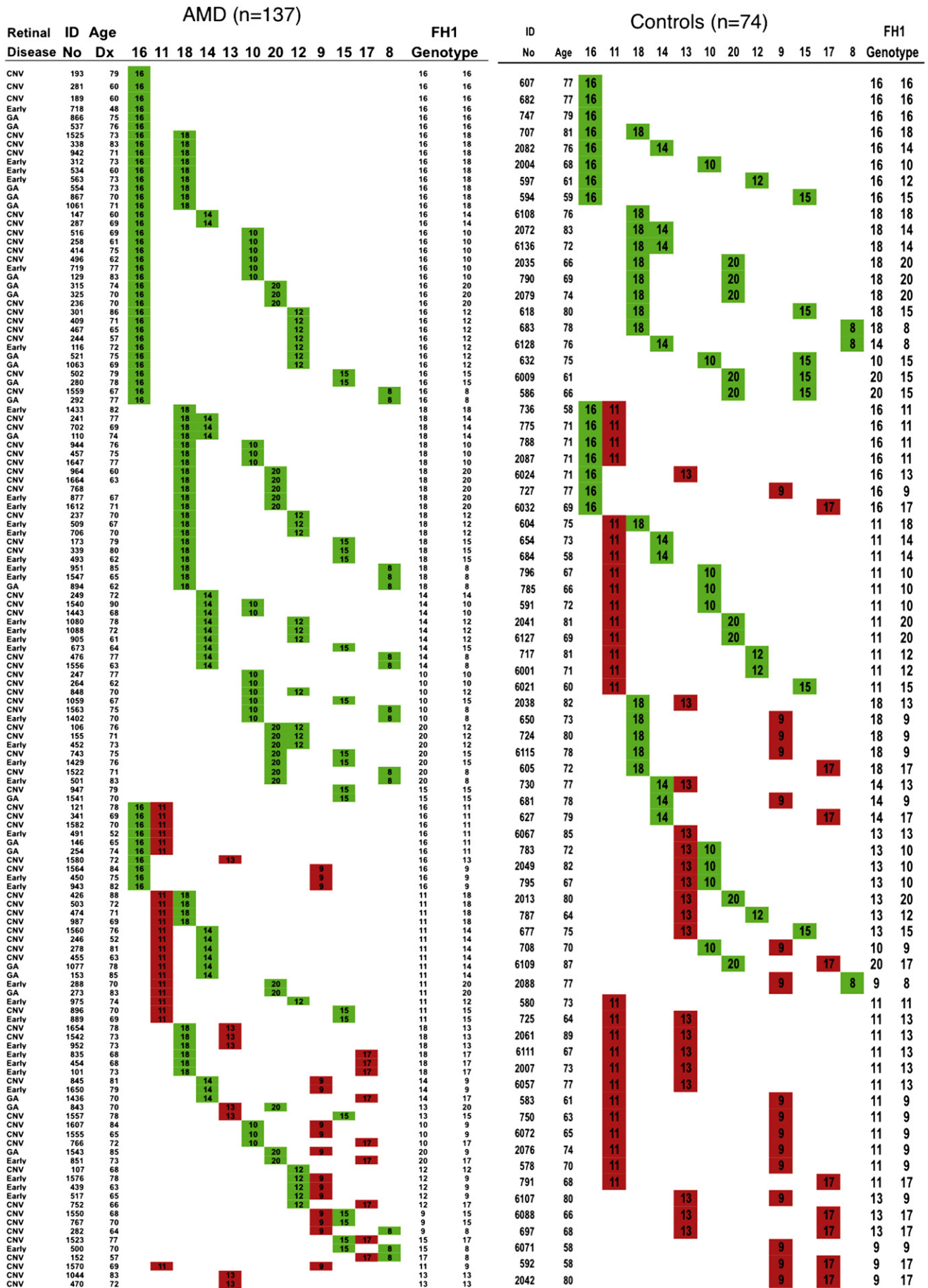
The intention is to determine the coding and noncoding sequences which together determine susceptibility to, or protection from, a polygenic disease. This resolves into the following steps.

Firstly, it is necessary to define multiple linked polymorphisms, and particularly those which have numerous alleles, which can be detected reliably. Combinations of alleles at contiguous loci allow the recognition of candidate haplotypes. To have any value in studying disease and control populations, these combinations must be observed rather than inferred [24] and must be maintained through successive matings. Operationally, an ancestral haplotype is defined as a combination of alleles which occurs:

1. as half the content of at least 3 different genotypes defined in a family study including at least 3 generations,
2. in at least 3 subjects not likely to be related by recent descent.

In such cases, it has been found that the entire sequence between and beyond the component loci is identical, with the important exception that some rapidly mutating microsatellites will exhibit slippage. Thus the haplotype marks indels, CNVs, stable microsatellites and SNPs and can be numbered generally by reference to the component allele at the most polymorphic locus, with a second digit to reflect the order of discovery e.g. MHC AH8.1 [25].

Secondly, the extent of the haplotype is determined by locating the boundaries defined by recombination. As multiple examples are accumulated, it is often possible to identify rare recombinants between



Retinal AMD								Controls										
Disease	ID No	-45	1277	FH1	+128	ID No	-45	1277	FH1	+128	ID No	-45	1277	FH1	+128			
Early	1429	3	7	T	C	15	20	2	1	618	3	8	T	C	15	18	1	1
CNV	502	3	2	T	C	15	16	2	1	632	3	4	T	C	15	10	1	2
CNV	339	3	3	T	C	15	18			712	3	2	T	T	15	26	1	1
CNV	1523	3	1	T	T	15	17	1	3	617	3	8	T	T	15	32	1	1
Early	889	4	7	T	T	15	11	1	2	2074	4	5	T	T	15	19	1	1
CNV	1557	4	8	T	T	15	13	1	1	6009	4	5	T	C	15	20	1	2
CNV	947	5	9	T	T	15	15	2	1	586	4	2	T	C	15	20	1	1
GA	1541	5	4	T	T	15	15	2	1	6021	4	1	T	T	15	11	1	1
Early	493	5	8	T	C	15	18	2	2	677	5	7	T	T	15	13	2	1
CNV	743	5	8	T	C	15	20	2	2	2058	6	3	T	T	15	7		
Early	500	5	4	T	C	15	8	2	2	594	6	1			15	16	1	1
CNV	173	6	2	T	C	15	18	1	2									
CNV	1059	6	3	T	C	15	10	1	2									
CNV	767	6	8	T	T	15	9	1	2									
GA	280	6	4	T	C	15	16	1	1									
CNV	868	6	8	T	C	15	22	1	1									
CNV	1550	6	1	T	T	15	9	1	1									
CNV	896	6	6	T	T	15	11	1	1									
Early	673	6	1			15	14	1	1									

Fig. 5. Alleles at –45 and +128 loci in FH1-15 individuals.

ancestral haplotypes at the more remote sites. These become useful in mapping the contributions of the components [26,27].

Thirdly, it is possible to compare and contrast AHs and to classify groups by virtue of their different effects in terms of susceptibility and protection. *Trans*, *cis* and epistatic interactions can be defined. The validity of the groupings within the population can be tested using the Hardy Weinberg equation.

In the present study, we have used the AHs defined by Williamson et al. [22] to examine the effects in AMD and particularly the contributions to susceptibility and protection.

4.2. Methods

The genomic region of 1.7 Mb containing CFH and its copies was interrogated with multiple potential markers, including the T1277C mutation in exon 9 of CFH and the FH1 polymorphism in intron 9. The gene content and marker locations are shown in Fig. 7. By also using the –45 and +128 markers ancestral haplotypes could be defined. All methods as Williamson et al. [22].

4.3. Patients and controls

The Centre for Eye Research Australia (RG and PNB) provided 187 AMD patients and 146 aged matched controls, which have been described in previous studies [10,28]. All AMD participants were recruited for the AMD inheritance study (AMDIS) from ophthalmology clinics in Melbourne. Individuals were classified into clinical subsets as 1. early (n = 49), 2. geographic atrophy (GA; n = 29) or subfoveal choroidal neovascularisation (CNV; n = 109). Controls were collected as part of the Visual Impairment Project (VIP), a population-based epidemiological eye study or through aged-care nursing homes. All individuals were of Anglo-Celtic ethnic background. On a subset of 35 control and 46 AMD individuals, additional clinical information was available. This included the presence or absence of type 2 diabetes (T2D).

Informed written consent was obtained from all individuals. Ethics approval was provided by the Human Research and Ethics Committee of the Royal Victorian Eye and Ear Hospital. The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration at Helsinki.

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Fig. 4. Genotype distribution of FH1 alleles in those patients and controls that carry the 12 most frequent alleles. Susceptible alleles are shown in green. Protective alleles are shown in red. Subjects are sorted by allele frequencies within SS, SP and PP genotypes.

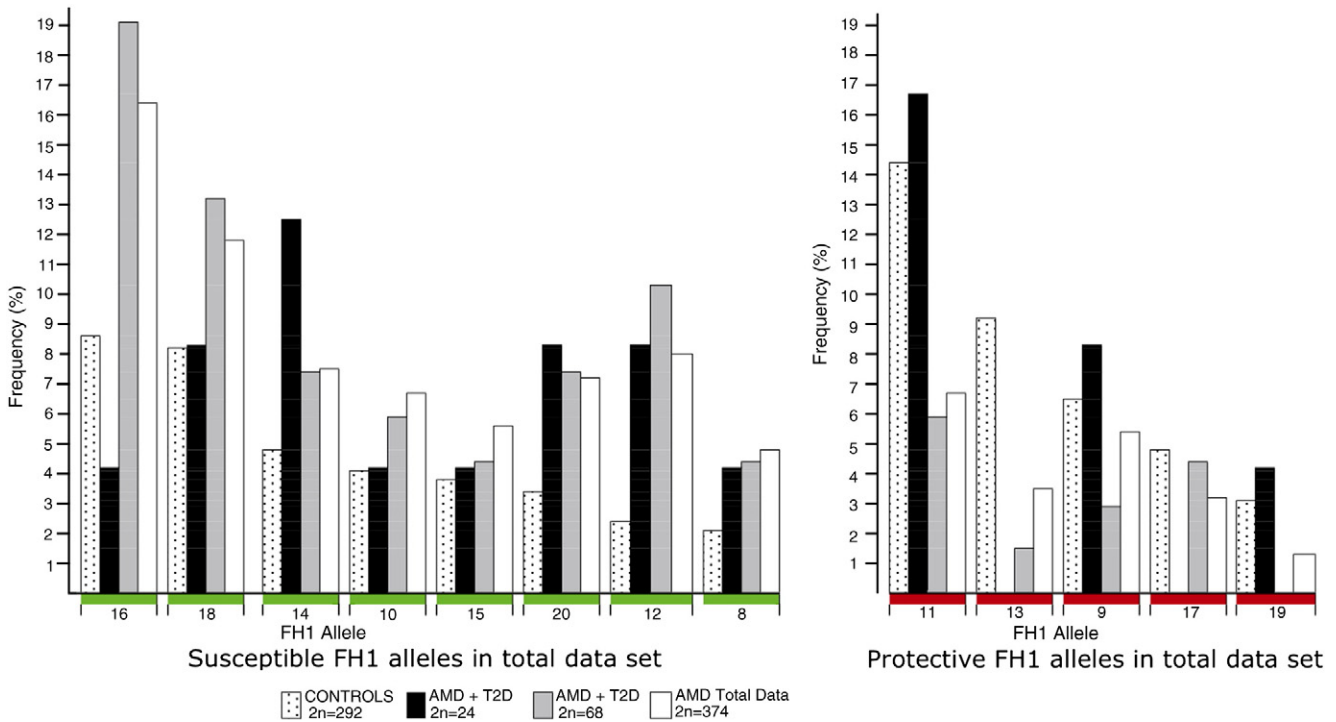


Fig. 6. Frequency distribution of FH1 alleles in AMD patients with and without diabetes shown in comparison with the total AMD patient and controls. T2D = Type 2 diabetes.

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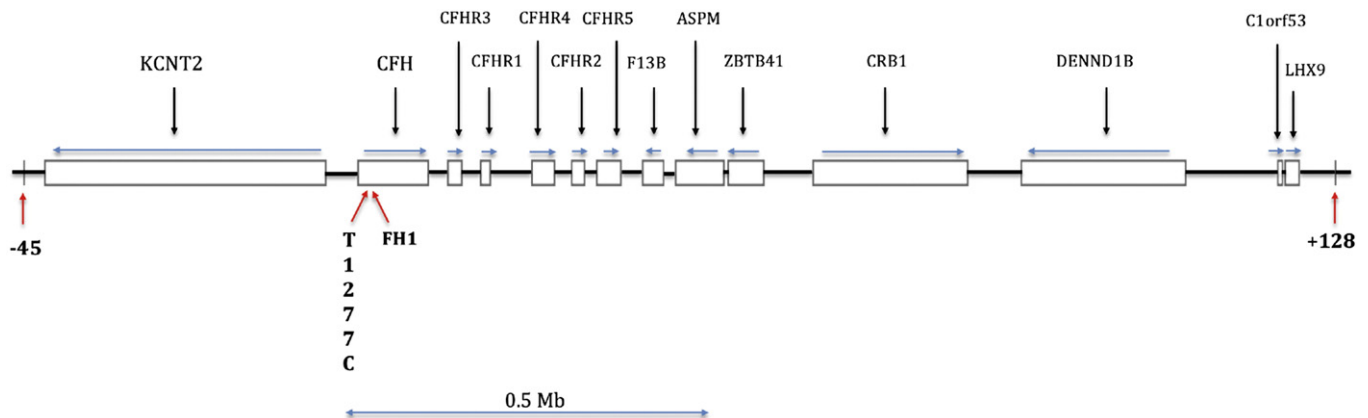


Fig. 7. Map of the location and distribution of genes and markers on chromosome 1q31–32 RCA β (~196,114,000–197,900,000). The location of the four markers used to define RCA β haplotypes are shown under the line. Boxes represent genes with names shown above the line. KCNT2: potassium channel, subfamily T, member 2; CFH: complement factor H; CFHR1–5: complement factor H related genes; F13B: coagulation factor XIII B; ASPM: abnormal spindle (asp) homologue; ZBTB41: zink finger and BTB domain containing 41 homologue; CRB1: crumbs homologue 1; DENND1B: DENN/MADD domain containing 1B; C1orf53: chromosome 1 open reading frame 53; LHX9: LIM homeobox 9. Gene names and sequences were obtained from NCBI RefSeq Build 37.2 (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>). Horizontal arrows indicate direction of transcription.

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