Haploinsufficiency of ALX4 as a Potential Cause of Parietal Foramina in the 11p11.2 Contiguous Gene–Deletion Syndrome

Yuan-Qing Wu,¹ Jose L. Badano,¹ Christopher McCaskill,¹ Hannes Vogel,² Lorraine Potocki,¹ and Lisa G. Shaffer¹

Departments of ¹Molecular and Human Genetics and ²Pathology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston

Heterozygous mutations in MSX2 are responsible for an autosomal dominant form of parietal foramina (PFM). PFM are oval defects of the parietal bones that are also a characteristic feature of a contiguous gene-deletion syndrome caused by a proximal deletion in the short arm of chromosome 11 (Potocki-Shaffer syndrome). We have identified a human bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) clone mapping to chromosome 11, containing a region homologous to the human homeobox gene MSX2. Further sequence analysis demonstrated that the human orthologue (ALX4) of the mouse Aristaless-like 4 gene (Alx4) is contained within this 11p clone. We used FISH to test for the presence—or for the heterozygous deletion—of this clone in two patients with the 11p11.2-deletion syndrome and showed that this clone is deleted in these patients. ALX4 and Alx4 were shown to be expressed in bone and to be absent from all other tissues tested. The involvement of Alx4 in murine skull development, its bone-specific expression pattern, the fact that Alx4 is a dosage-sensitive gene in mice, and the localization of a human genomic clone containing ALX4 to 11p11.2, with hemizygosity in patients with deletion of 11p11.2 who have biparietal foramina, support the contention that ALX4 is a candidate gene for the PFM in the 11p11.2-deletion syndrome.

Parietal foramina are the result of delayed or incomplete ossification of the parietal bones of the skull. Parietal foramina can occur as either an isolated autosomal dominant trait (PFM [MIM 168500]) or as part of a syndrome. One such syndrome is the contiguous genedeletion syndrome (CGDS) caused by monosomy of 11p11.2 (Potocki-Shaffer syndrome) (Shaffer et al. 1993; Bartsch et al. 1996; Potocki and Shaffer 1996; Wuyts et al. 1999). The Potocki-Shaffer syndrome (PSS [MIM 601224]), includes biparietal foramina, multiple exostoses (MIM 133701), dysmorphic features, and mental retardation (Shaffer et al. 1993; Bartsch et al. 1996; Potocki and Shaffer 1996; Wuyts et al. 1999).

Recently, autosomal dominant, isolated parietal foramina were found to be the result of mutations in the homeobox gene *MSX2*, which maps to 5q34-q35 (Wilkie et al. 2000; Wuyts et al. 2000). Mutations resulting in PFM were either entire-gene deletions or lossof-function mutations, which supports the hypothesis that haploinsufficiency of this protein results in PFM. This possibility is distinct from the previously described gain-of-function mutation in MSX2, which is associated with craniosynostosis (Jabs et al. 1993; Ma et al. 1996). Mice with loss-of-function homozygous mutations in Msx2 display a number of anomalies, including defects in skull ossification (Satokata et al. 2000).

CGDS refers to conditions caused by haploinsufficiency of multiple, functionally unrelated yet physically contiguous loci (Schmickel 1986; Schinzel 1988). The challenge in studying any CGDS is in proving that haploinsufficiency of one particular gene within the deletion interval causes a specific clinical feature of the syndrome. Few examples exist whereby a gene has been shown, through identification of mutations in individuals or families showing the isolated clinical anomaly, to be the causative gene of a single feature (reviewed in Shaffer et al. 2001).

Given that haploinsufficiency of *MSX2* results in PFM, we hypothesized that an *MSX2* homologue could be responsible for the PFM in the 11p11.2-deletion syndrome. Our approach was to use the *MSX2* sequence

Received August 23, 2000; accepted for publication September 21, 2000; electronically published October 3, 2000.

Address for correspondence and reprints: Dr. Lisa G. Shaffer, Department of Molecular and Human Genetics, Baylor College of Medicine, One Baylor Plaza, Room 15E, Houston, TX 77030. E-mail: lshaffer@bcm.tmc.edu

^{© 2000} by The American Society of Human Genetics. All rights reserved. 0002-9297/2000/6705-0031\$02.00





Figure 1 Representative FISH results. BAC 706A13 is labeled with digoxigenin and is detected with anti-digoxigenin conjugated to rhodamine (fluoresces red). The centromere of chromosome 11 is identified by an alpha-satellite probe labeled with biotin and is detected by avidin conjugated to fluorescein (fluoresces green). *A*, Control metaphase showing localization of clone 706A13 to the proximal short arm of chromosome 11. *B* and *C*, Cell lines derived from patients with 11p11.2 deletions and with PSS. *B*, Patient originally reported by Shaffer et al. (1993). *C*, Patient originally reported by Potocki and Shaffer (1996). Arrows indicate the deleted chromosome for each patient.

to identify the 11p-specific gene responsible for PFM in PSS.

The complete coding sequence of human *MSX2* was used to perform a BLASTN homology search against the high-throughput genome-sequence database (BLAST). The human clone RP11-706A13 (GenBank accession number AC019143), previously mapped to chromosome 11, was identified and obtained from the BAC-PAC Resources at Children's Hospital Oakland Research Institute (CHORI). The region of homology in clone 706A13 corresponds to 26 bp of 100% identity to *MSX2*, in only the homeodomain region (E value = 9×10^{-4}).

Two-colored FISH, using 706A13 labeled with digoxigenin 11-dUTP and a chromosome 11 centromeric probe (ONCOR) labeled with biotin 16-dUTP, was performed simultaneously on denatured metaphase spreads of chromosomally normal control individuals. The FISH analysis showed that clone 706A13 localized to the proximal short arm of chromosome 11 (fig. 1*A*). Two patients with dysmorphic features, biparietal foramina, multiple exostoses, and mental retardation were ascertained by clinical geneticists at Baylor College of Medicine, as has been reported elsewhere (Shaffer et al. 1993; Bartsch et al. 1996; Potocki and Shaffer 1996). FISH analysis of these two cell lines showed that 706A13 was deleted in both cases (fig. 1*B* and *C*).

A homology search using sequence flanking the homeobox domain on clone 706A13 was performed and resulted in the identification of significant homology to the mouse *Alx4* coding sequence. *Alx4* is a homeobox gene, which has been shown to be involved in skull and limb development in mice (Qu et al. 1997b, 1998). A BLASTN search using the full mouse *Alx4* cDNA identified four, unordered, nonoverlapping fragments contained within BAC 706A13 (fig. 2). Sequence comparison of Alx4 and these BAC fragments showed extensive and significant homology, with the exception of certain specific regions as shown in figure 2. This finding indicates that the human orthologue of Alx4 (ALX4) is contained within clone 706A13.

ALX4 primers were designed from BAC 706A13 sequence between base pair 151246 and base pair 151803, with the PCR product corresponding to the coding region from amino acid 1 to amino acid 156, and from sequence between base pair 25355 to base pair 25582, corresponding to the coding region from amino acid 382 to the last codon. These regions represent sequence present in the BAC but not corresponding to the mouse cDNA (fig. 2). Nested reverse transcriptase-PCR (RT-PCR) (SUPERSCRIPT First-Strand Synthesis System; Gibco) was performed to obtain the sequence residing between these primer pairs. β -actin was used as a positive control. The PCR products were sequenced and confirmed that ALX4 is contained within clone 706A13, which allowed for the full length of human ALX4 cDNA to be assembled and compared with the Alx4 cDNA (fig. 2). The full-length ALX4 cDNA is 1,583 bp and codes for a 410-amino-acid protein (start codon at base pair 105 and stop codon at base pair 1337). The exon/intron boundaries of ALX4 were obtained by sequence comparison between the cDNA and the genomic BAC clones (table 1). The gene contains at least four exons (fig. 2). The nucleotide-sequence comparison showed 88% identity between the orthologues. Predicted amino acid composition (BLASTX) showed 80% identity and 83% similarity between the two predicted proteins (fig. 3).

The tissue-specific expression patterns were investi-

Table 1

ALX4 Splice Junctions and Surrounding Sequence

Splice Acceptor	Flanking Exon Sequence $(5' \rightarrow 3')$	Splice Donor		
tcctccctcag gcgtcttgtag tcctctcccag	ATG AAT GCTCCT GCT ACG CTA AAG AGACGC GTG CAG GTC TGG TTCTAC GCC CAG ATT CAG AACGCC ACA TGA	gtgagtgcacg gtcagtgaggg gtaagtcccgc		

gated, for both Alx4 and ALX4. For all experiments, β actin was used as a positive control. On the basis of northern blot analysis (Clontech), we confirmed that Alx4 is not expressed in mouse heart, brain, spleen, lung, liver, skeletal muscle, kidney, or testis (data not shown) (Qu et al. 1997a); however, Alx4 expression was evident in cultured mouse osteoblasts as assayed by RT-PCR. This expression pattern is consistent with that reported for the whole mount in situ of mouse embryos, in which expression is seen in both the craniofacial region and the anterior aspect of the developing limb buds (Qu et al. 1997b). Expression studies of human ALX4 demonstrated no detectable transcript on a northern blot assay of human heart, brain, placenta, lung, liver, skeletal muscle, kidney, pancreas, spleen, thymus, prostate, testis, uterus, small intestine, colon, or peripheral blood leukocytes (Clontech) (data not shown). However, nested RT-PCR with primers to ALX4 on parietal bone, obtained from a newborn who died of arrhythmia, demonstrated expression (fig. 4). Thus, ALX4 expression is likely to be restricted to bone, and we have demonstrated such expression specifically in parietal bone, the region of defect in PFM.



Figure 2 Diagrammatic representation of regions of homology between human ALX4 sequence (*top, green*) and mouse Alx4 (*bottom, yellow*). BAC 706A13 is indicated in gray (*middle*). Pink areas denote coding regions, and the percentages of identity between ALX4 and Alx4 are given in each area. Blue regions denote intronic sequence. Letters "a"–"d" indicate four different BAC 706A13 fragments used to assemble the human cDNA. Black arrows indicate position and direction of primers designed to obtain the human sequence, not present in the mouse cDNA (see text).

		10	20	30	40	50	60
hALX4	MNAETC	VSYCESPAA	AMDAYYSPVS	SQSREGSSPF	RAFPGGDKF	JITFLSAAAK/	AQGFGDA
mAlx4	MNAETC	VSYCESPAA	AMDAYYSPVS	SQSREGSSPF	RGFPGGDKFV	TTTLSAGAKO	QGFGDA
		10	20	30	40	50	60
		70	80	90	100	110	120
hALX4	KSRARY	GAGQQDLATI	PLESGAGARG	SFNKFOPOPS	STPQPQPPPC	POPQQQQPQP	QPPAQP
					: :::::	: :	:::
mAlx4	KSRARY	GAGOODLAAI	PLESSSGARG	SFNKFQPQP	PTPQPPPA	PP	APPA
		70	80	90	100		
		130	140	150	160	170	180
hALX4	HLYLOR	GACKTPPNG	SLKLQEGSSG	HSAALQVPC	YAKESSLGEP	ELPPDSDTVG	MDSSYL
mAlx4	HLYLOR	GACKTPPDG	SLKLQEGSGG	HNAALQVPC	YAKESNLGEP	ELPPDSEPVG	MONSYL
	110	120	130	140	150	160	
		190	200	210	220	230	240
hALX4	SVKEAG	VKGPQDRAS	SDLPSPLEKA	DSESNKGKKI	RRNRTTFTSY	QLEELEKVFQ	KTHYPD
mAlx4	SVKETG	AKGPODRAS	AEIPSPLEKT	DSESNKGKKI	RRNRTTFTSY	QLEELEKVFQ	KTHYPD
	170	180	190	200	210	220	
		250	260	270	280	290	300
hALX4	VYAREQL	AMRTDLTEAD	RVQVWFQNRR	AKWRKRERF	GOMQQVRTH	FSTAYELPLL	TRAENY
						*********	******
mAlx4	VYAREOL	AMRIDLITEA	RVOVWFONRR	AKWRKRERF	GOMQQVRTH	FSTAYELPLL	TRAENY
	230	240	250	260	270	280	
		310	320	330	340	350	
hALX4	AQIQNP	SWLGNNGLPI	HQCQPACP	'LRP-GACLH	VPSCPPPCSG	ASSVIDFLSV	SGAGSH
			::: :	: ::.	: ::::		*****
mAlx4	AQIONP	SWIGNNGAA	SPV-PACVVP	CDPVPACMS-	-PHAHPPGSG	ASSVSDFLSV	SGAGSH
	290	300	310	320	330	340	
	360	370	380	390	400	410	
hALX4	VGQTHM	GSLFGAASL	SPGLNGYELN	GEPDRKTSS:	laalrmkake	HSAAISWAT	
mAlx4	VGQTHM	GSLFGAAGI	SPGLNGYEMN	GEPDRKTSS	LAALRMKAKE	HSAAISWAT	
	350	360	370	380	390	11	

Figure 3 Comparison of predicted protein sequence of human ALX4 (hALX4) to mouse Alx4 (mAlx4). Identical amino acids are denoted by two vertical dots, similar amino acids are denoted by a single dot, and blank spaces denote nonidentity. Dashed lines denote regions of ALX4 not represented in Alx4. The boxed area indicates the location of the homeobox domain.

Herein, we report the identification of a human genomic clone containing a homeobox gene orthologous to mouse Alx4. This clone maps to proximal 11p (band p11.2), the region deleted in PSS. This clone was identified on the basis of a very short region of homology to MSX2 and was shown to contain the sequence encoding the human ALX4 gene. ALX4 encodes a putative transcription factor that is among the pairedclass homeoproteins (Qu et al. 1997a). This gene is similar to the Drosophila gene aristaless, which binds palindromic DNA sequences (5'-TAAT-3') as either homodimers or as heterodimers with other family members (Tucker and Wisdom 1999). The murine orthologue, Alx4, is expressed at several sites during development, including the craniofacial and limb-bud mesenchyme (Qu et al. 1997b). Homozygous null mutants of Alx4 show ventral body-wall defects, preaxial polydactyly, and decreased size of the parietal plate of the skull (Qu et al. 1997b). In these Alx4-mutant

mice, ossification of the parietal bone did not extend over the superior aspect of the skull (Qu et al. 1997b). This is in contrast to what was seen in wild-type mice and may be due to a delay in bone development (Qu et al. 1997b). For the most part, the skeletal anomalies seen in the Alx4-mutant mice are abnormalities of either membranous ossification or endochondral ossification (Qu et al. 1997b). As is often seen when a correlation between a mouse mutation and the human condition is made, the analysis of Alx4-targeted mutations failed to reveal any phenotypic alteration in heterozygous mice. However, the penetrance of the polydactyly phenotype in heterozygotes appears to be dependent on the specific mouse strain (Qu et al. 1998). This same phenomenon may apply to the other aspects of the homozygous phenotype, including the craniofacial anomalies (Qu et al. 1998). The Strong's luxoid mutant, 1^{st} , recently has been shown to be the result of loss-of function mutations in Alx4 (Qu et al. 1998). In addition to craniofacial defects, polydactyly, and other anomalies, the male mice have anomalies of the phallus (Forsthoefel 1963; Qu et al. 1998). This includes both reduction of the pubic bone and a shortened phallus that is not well separated from the scrotal swellings (Forsthoefel 1963). Forsthoefel (1963) speculated that this is the result of retarded growth of the underlying mesenchyme of the pubic bone and phallus. This might be the correlate of the micropenis seen in



males with PSS (Shaffer et al. 1993). Moreover, *Alx4* maps to mouse chromosome 2, a region of conserved synteny with human 11p12q12 (Mouse Genome Informatics). This predicts that human *ALX4*—and any syndromes that may result from mutation at this locus—would likely map to the pericentromeric region of chromosome 11 (Qu et al. 1998; also see Mouse Genome Informatics). Given that the mouse *Alx4* is involved in craniofacial development and that mice that are mutant for this gene show a decrease in the size of the parietal bone (Qu et al. 1997b), *ALX4* is a good candidate for PFM in cases of del(11)(p11.2p12).

Elsewhere, we have described a CGDS due to a microdeletion of the proximal short arm of chromosome 11 (Shaffer et al. 1993; Potocki and Shaffer 1996). Some of the features of this CGDS can be found as isolated Mendelian traits-specifically, the multiple exostoses that are caused by haploinsufficiency for the EXT2 gene (Stickens et al. 1996; Wuyts et al. 1996; Ligon et al. 1998). PFM is another clinical finding of this CGDS. There are several lines of evidence indicating that human ALX4 is responsible for the PFM seen in patients with the 11p11.2-deletion syndrome. First, the murine orthologue, Alx4, is expressed in craniofacial mesenchyme during embryogenesis and is involved in skull development. Second, mutations in this gene in mice cause a decrease in the size of the parietal bone, among other craniofacial and developmental features. Third, as demonstrated by the present report, a gene showing significant homology with mouse Alx4 maps to proximal 11p and is deleted in two patients with craniofacial anomalies, including parietal foramina. Fourth, ALX4 and Alx4 appear to be expressed exclusively in bone, and ALX4 has been demonstrated to be expressed in parietal bone. Finally, ALX4 has been identified through homology searches using MXS2, a gene that encodes a homeobox protein and that, by mutation analysis, has been shown to cause parietal foramina in some families.

Further functional studies and identification of isolated mutations in patients with autosomal dominant forms of PFM will be required in order to allow characterization of the role of *ALX4* in the PFM defect seen in 11p-deletion patients. Patients with the PSS deletion show multiple exostoses caused by haploinsufficiency of *EXT2*, PFM, and mental retardation. It is likely that *ALX4* is indeed the cause of PFM in this syndrome. Complete characterization of the molecular basis of PSS awaits the identification of a mental retardation locus within 11p11.2.

Acknowledgments

We thank Cami Knox-Du Bois for the culture of the two patient cell lines, Drs. Brendan Lee and Guang Zhou (Baylor College of Medicine) for the murine osteoblast cell line, and Dr. J. R. Lupski (Baylor College of Medicine) for his critical review of the manuscript.

Electronic-Database Information

Accession numbers and URLs for data in this article are as follows:

BLAST, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast

- GenBank, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Genbank (for BAC 706A13 [accession number AC019143] and human ALX4 cDNA sequence [accession number AF294629])
- Mouse Genome Informatics, http://www.informatics.jax.org
- Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM), http://www3 .ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Omim (for multiple exostoses [MIM 133701], PFM [MIM 168500], and PSS [MIM 601224])

References

- Bartsch O, Wuyts W, Van Hul W, Hecht JT, Meinecke P, Hogue D, Werner W, Zabel B, Hinkel GK, Powell CM, Shaffer LG, Willems PJ (1996) Delineation of a contiguous gene syndrome with multiple exostoses, enlarged parietal foramina, craniofacial dysostosis, and mental retardation, caused by deletions on the short arm of chromosome 11. Am J Hum Genet 58:734–742
- Forsthoefel PF (1963) The embryological development of the effects of Strong's luxoid gene in the mouse. J Morphol 113: 427–452
- Jabs EW, Müller U, Li X, Ma L, Luo W, Haworth IS, Klisak I, Sparkes R, Warman ML, Mulliken JB, Snead ML, Maxson R (1993) A mutation in the homeodomain of the human *MSX2* gene in a family affected with autosomal dominant craniosynostosis. Cell 75:443–450
- Ligon AH, Potocki L, Shaffer LG (1998) Gene for multiple exostoses (*EXT2*) maps to 11(p11.2p12) and is deleted in patients with a contiguous gene syndrome. Am J Med Genet 75:538–540
- Ma L, Golden S, Wu L, Maxson R (1996) The molecular basis of Boston-type craniosynostosis: the Pro148→His mutation in the N-terminal arm of the *MSX2* homeodomain stabilizes DNA binding without altering nucleotide sequence preferences. Hum Mol Genet 5:1915–1920
- Potocki L, Shaffer LG (1996) Interstitial deletion of 11(p11.2p12): a newly described contiguous gene deletion syndrome involving the gene for hereditary multiple exostoses (*EXT2*). Am J Med Genet 62:319–325
- Qu S, Li L, Wisdom R (1997*a*) Alx-4:cDNA cloning and characterization of a novel paired-type homeodomain protein. Gene 203:217–223
- Qu S, Niswender KD, Ji Q, van der Meer R, Keeney D, Magnuson MA, Wisdom R (1997*b*) Polydactyly and ectopic ZPA formation in *Alx-4* mutant mice. Development 124:3999– 4008
- Qu S, Tucker SC, Ehrlich JS, Levorse JM, Flaherty LA, Wisdom R, Vogt TF (1998) Mutations in mouse *Aristaless-like4* cause *Strong's luxoid* polydactyly. Development 125:2711–2721
- Satokata I, Ma L, Ohshima H, Bei M, Woo I, Nishizawa K,

Maeda T, Takano Y, Uchiyama M, Heaney S, Peters H, Tang Z, Maxson R, Maas R (2000) *Msx2* deficiency in mice causes pleiotropic defects in bone growth and ectodermal organ formation. Nat Genet 24:391–395

- Schinzel A (1988) Microdeletion syndromes, balanced translocations, and gene mapping. J Med Genet 25:454–462
- Schmickel RD (1986) Contiguous gene syndromes: a component of recognizable syndromes. J Pediatr 109:231–241
- Shaffer LG, Hecht JT, Ledbetter DH, Greenberg F (1993) Familial interstitial deletion 11(p11.12p12) associated with parietal foramina, brachymicrocephaly, and mental retardation. Am J Med Genet 45:581–583
- Shaffer LG, Ledbetter DH, Lupski JR (2001) Molecular cytogenetics of contiguous gene syndromes: mechanisms and consequences of gene dosage imbalance. In: Scriver CR, Beaudet AL, Sly WS, Valle D, Childs B, VogelsteinB (eds) Metabolic and molecular basis of inherited disease, 8th ed. McGraw Hill, New York
- Stickens D, Clines G, Burbee D, Ramos P, Thomas S, Hogue D, Hecht JT, Lovett M, Evans GA (1996) The EXT2 multiple exostoses gene defines a family of putative tumour suppressor genes. Nat Genet 14:25–32

Tucker SC, Wisdom R (1999) Site-specific heterodimerization

by paired class homeodomain proteins mediates selective transcriptional responses. J Biol Chem 274:32325–32332

- Wilkie AOM, Tang Z, Elanko N, Walsh S, Twigg SRF, Hurst JA, Wall SA, Chrzanowska KH, Maxson RE (2000) Functional haploinsufficiency of the human homeobox gene MSX2 causes defects in skull ossification. Nat Genet 24:387–390
- Wuyts W, Di Gennaro G, Bianco F, Wauters J, Morocutti C, Pierelli F, Bossuyt P, Van Hul W, Casali C (1999) Molecular and clinical examination of an Italian DEFECT 11 family. Eur J Hum Genet 7:579–584
- Wuyts W, Reardon W, Preis S, Homfray T, Rasore-Quartino A, Christians H, Willems PJ, Van Hul W (2000) Identification of mutations in the *MSX2* homeobox gene in families affected with foramina parietalia permagna. Hum Mol Genet 9:1251–1255
- Wuyts W, Van Hul W, Wauters J, Nemtsova M, Reyniers E, Van Hul E, De Boulle K, de Vries BBA, Hendrickx J, Herrygers I, Bossuyt P, Balemans W, Fransen E, Vits L, Coucke P, Nowak NJ, Shows TB, Mallet L, van den Ouweland AMW, McGaughran J, Halley DJJ, Willems PJ (1996) Positional cloning of a gene involved in hereditary multiple exostoses. Hum Mol Genet 5:1547–1557