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mutant function more precisely, and additional patient recruitment would be very helpful.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors state no conflict of interest.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Supplementary material is linked to the online version of the paper at http://www.nature.com/jid

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A Mutation in *TP63* Causing a Mild Ectodermal Dysplasia Phenotype

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TO THE EDITOR

The transcription factor p63 has been shown to have a pivotal role during ectodermal, orofacial, and limb development (Mills *et al.*, 1999; Yang *et al.*, 1999; Rinne *et al.*, 2007). So far, mutations in *TP63* encoding p63 have been linked to three major phenotypes: ectodermal defects, split hand/foot malformation, or orofacial clefting (Celli *et al.*, 1999; van Bokhoven *et al.*, 1999; lanakiev *et al.*, 2000; McGrath *et al.*, 2001; Rinne *et al.*, 2007). Ectodermal dysplasia syndromes associated with *TP63* mutation are always inherited in an autosomal dominant manner (Koster, 2010) and include the ectrodactyly, ectodermal dysplasia, and cleft lip/ palate syndrome (EEC), the ankyloble-pharon–ectodermal defects–cleft lip/ palate syndrome (AEC), the limb– mammary syndrome, the acro–dermato–

ungual-lacrimal-tooth syndrome, and the Rapp-Hodgkin syndrome (RHS; Rinne et al., 2007). Through large-scale mutation screening, several phenotype-genotype correlations have emerged: although mutations altering the p63 DNA-binding domain have been shown to cause EEC, mutations affecting the sterile alphamotif domain of the protein cause mostly AEC (Mills et al., 1999; Yang et al., 1999; McGrath et al., 2001; Lo Iacono et al., 2008; Koster, 2010). In the present study, we identified a mutation affecting a conserved residue of the p63 transcription inhibitory (TI) domain causing a phenotype previously unreported to the best of our knowledge.

Abbreviations: AEC, ankyloblepharon-ectodermal defects-cleft lip/palate syndrome; EEC, ectrodactyly, ectodermal dysplasia, and cleft lip/palate syndrome; RHS, Rapp-Hodgkin syndrome; TI, transcription inhibitory

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We assessed a family of Jewish Ashkenazi origin. Patients presented with a variable phenotype (Figure 1). Most affected individuals demonstrated hypodontia, diastema, dystrophic nails, and thin and fragile skin on their feet. In addition, some of the patients had coarse and dry hair, and lower-lip pits. Hypohydrosis was absent and psychomotor development was normal.

After having obtained informed written consent according to a protocol approved by our institutional review board and by the Israel National Committee for Human Genetic Studies in adherence with the declaration of Helsinki Principles, genomic DNA was extracted from peripheral blood lymphocytes obtained from affected and healthy family members. Given the clinical features displayed by the patients, we searched for a causative mutation in a panel of candidate genes previously found to be associated with similar

clinical manifestations (Visinoni et al., 2009). No mutations were identified in the coding sequences of WNT10A, PVRL1, FZD6, or IRF6 (for list of primers, see Supplementary Table S1 online). In contrast, mutation analysis identified a heterozygous missense mutation in TP63, c.G1904T, predicted to result in a single amino acid substitution, p.G635V (p.G596V, according to previous nomenclature (Yang et al., 1998); Figure 2a). Using direct sequencing, we confirmed cosegregation of the mutation with the disease phenotype throughout the entire family. The mutation was not found in any major public databases including in a total of more than 8000 individual sequences deposited in the 1000 Genomes Project (http://www.1000genomes.org/) and in the NHLBI Grand Opportunity Exome Sequencing Project (http://evs.gs. washington.edu/EVS/). Mutation p.G635V affects a moderately well-conserved

amino acid residue (ConSurf score = 5; range = 1–9; http://consurf.tau.ac.il; Ashkenazy *et al.*, 2010). The mutant amino acid residue resides within the TI domain. This domain is specific for the p63 alpha isoforms, which are required for ectodermal and limb development and for the maintenance of mature skin (Wolff *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, we set out to examine the effect of the mutation on the transactivating activity of p63.

We cloned wild-type p63 delta N alpha (Δ Np63 α) isoform into the pcDNA-HA expression vector. We then introduced c.G1904T into the p63 construct using the Quick Change Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA). The wild-type p63 construct, the mutant p63 construct, or an equal mixture of both constructs were co-transfected into primary keratinocytes using Lipofectamine 2000 (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY)



Figure 1. Clinical features. (a) Pedigree of the family. (b) Hyponychia and keratoderma in individual II-2. (c) Diastema and lower-lip pit in individual III-1. (d) Coarse hair in individual III-1. (e) Palmoplantar keratoderma in individual II-2. (f) Nail dystrophy in individual III-3.



Figure 2. Molecular analysis. (a) Direct sequencing of *TP63* revealed a heterozygous transversion at cDNA position 1,904 (c.G1904T) (lower panel). The wild-type (WT) sequence is given for comparison (upper panel). (b) Primary human keratinocytes were transfected with a luciferase reporter gene under the regulation of the p63-responsive C40 enhancer element alone (control vector) or together with either a wild-type *TP63* expression vector (Wt), a c.G1904T-containing *TP63* expression vector (Mut), or both constructs (Wt + Mut). Forty-eight hours after transfection, luciferase activity was measured. Measurement data are expressed as the percentage of relative luciferase activity corrected for transfection efficiency as determined by *Renilla* activity, compared with maximal wild-type p63 activity. Data shown represent mean values \pm s.d. of two independent experiments (***P*<0.01).

together with a plasmid carrying the C40 enhancer sequence (which contains a highly conserved binding site for the p63 protein (Antonini *et al.*, 2006)) located upstream to the luciferase gene and with pRL-TK renilla luciferase. Forty-eight hours after transfection, luciferase activity was found to be significantly suppressed in the presence of the mutant p63 compared with wild-type p63 (Figure 2b), suggesting that p.G635V alters the transcriptional regulation of p63 targets.

Of interest, p.G635V, which was found in the present study to result in a loss-offunction effect (Figure 2b), causes a constellation of signs overlapping with, but not identical to, RHS (Supplementary Table S2 online) while affecting a region of the gene in which nonsense/truncating mutations have been shown to cause split hand/foot malformation (Rinne et al., 2007) and missense mutations have been associated with the AEC phenotype (Rinne et al., 2009). Phenotypic heterogeneity is typical of p63-associated syndromes and is thought to result from the different biological effects of alterations of the molecule's various domains, as well as from both inherited and environmental modifying traits (Vanbokhoven et al., 2011). In this regard, as IRF6 can act as a modifier gene (Gritli-Linde, 2010), increasing the risk for cleft lip in individuals carrying TP63 mutations, and given the fact that some of our patients displayed lower-lip pits (never previously reported to our knowledge in p63 syndromes), we

excluded by direct sequencing any pathogenic mutation in the coding region of this gene in our patients, as well as in its enhancer (not shown). The fact that p63 regulates IRF6 (Moretti *et al.*, 2010) and that abnormal IRF6 activity leads to lip pit formation (Kondo *et al.*, 2002) may explain how *TP63* mutations affect lip pit formation.

In summary, the present observations expand the spectrum of clinical manifestations associated with *TP63* mutations and re-emphasize the need for a better understanding of the molecular basis of phenotypic heterogeneity in p63 syndromes.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors state no conflict of interest.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

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Proinflammatory Cytokines and Chemokines at the Skin Interface during Powassan Virus Transmission

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TO THE EDITOR

Powassan virus (POWV) is an emerging North American tick-borne flavivirus transmitted to humans by infected tick bites. Ticks transmit pathogens during the complex feeding process of penetrating the skin and stay attached for several days to acquire blood. This process is facilitated by a repertoire of pharmacologically active proteins/ factors in tick saliva (Ribeiro et al., 2006: Kazimírová and Štibrániová. 2013). Thus, skin acts as the interface of the host-pathogen-vector interactions (Wikel, 2013). Skin provides the first line of defense against mechanical and environmental damage and infectious agents (Nestle et al., 2009). In a previous study, which examined cutaneous bite-site lesions from uninfected Ixodes scapularis nymphs, a rapid, proinflammatory progression of the early host response was identified, culminating in the infiltration of innate immune cells by 12 hours after tick infestation (Heinze et al., 2012). Successful transmission of tick-borne POWV has been shown to occur within 15 minutes of I. scapularis

attachment (Ebel and Kramer, 2004). In addition, it was demonstrated that during early feeding time points the viral load in the tick salivary glands increases (Alekseev and Chunikhin, 1990). Therefore, the early cutaneous interactions between host immunity and initial tick-mediated immunomodulation are central to successful diseasecausing agent transmission. In this study, we sought to characterize tick-induced changes in cutaneous gene expression at the early stages of attachment and feeding by POWV-infected I. scapularis nymphs. This will allow us to demonstrate the effect of a tick-borne virus on immune response at the tickhost interface.

In this study, we generated POWVinfected *I. scapularis* nymphs by synchronous infection (McNally *et al.*, 2012) and allowed them to feed on 6-week-old female Balb/C mice. Uninfected ticks were used as control. Each treatment group consisted of four mice, each with a capsule containing one tick. At least three out of four mice had successful tick attachment at each time point, providing us with sufficient sample sizes to perform statistical analyses. Three and six hours after tick attachment (hours post infection, h.p.i.), 4 mm mouse skin biopsies were harvested along with the feeding ticks. Ticks and skin were checked for POWV infection, and all the infected ticks/skin biopsies used in this experiment contained POWV RNA. Total RNA was extracted from each skin biopsy and cutaneous immune responses were analyzed by pathway-specific PCR arrays (Supplementary Table S1 online). In total, 456 genes were analyzed with these arrays. Relative fold differences of the immune genes were calculated as previously described (Heinze et al., 2012). These data were then uploaded to ingenuity pathway analysis software for further analysis. Comparative analysis between POWV-infected and uninfected tick attachment sites at 3 and 6 h.p.i. was performed (Supplementary Table S2 online). When all significantly modulated $(P \leq 0.05)$ host genes in the uninfected versus POWV-infected 3 h.p.i. tickfeeding sites were taken into account, there were 40 upregulated genes and 11 downregulated genes (Figure 1a). Of all significantly modulated host genes in the 6 h.p.i. uninfected versus POWV-

Abbreviations: POWV, Powassan virus; TNF, tumor necrosis factor Accepted article preview online 21 March 2014; published online 17 April 2014