

# TGFBI gene mutation analysis in a Chinese pedigree of Avellino corneal dystrophy

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## Abstract

- **AIM:** To analyze phenotype and genotype of a Chinese pedigree with Avellino corneal dystrophy (ACD).
- **METHODS:** Complete ophthalmic examinations were performed on all the family members. Exons of TGFBI were amplified by polymerase chain reaction, sequenced, and compared with a reference database.
- **RESULTS:** A single heterozygous G>A(R124H) point mutation was identified in exon 4 of TGFBI in three affected members and two unaffected children who were offsprings of the affected members, but not in the other family members.
- **CONCLUSION:** Mutation R124H in TGFBI was identified in this pedigree and appeared to be the disease causing mutation. Atypical phenotype and low penetrance was observed in this pedigree.
- **KEYWORDS:** corneal dystrophy; corneal opacity; genetics; keratomileusis; LASIK

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## INTRODUCTION

**B**ilateral corneal dystrophy includes a group of genetically determined, non-inflammatory corneal

diseases, which result in loss of corneal transparency and visual impairment<sup>[1,2]</sup>. Identified genes responsible for corneal dystrophies include TGFBI, GSN, K12, K3, M1S1, CHST6, COL8A2 and SLC4A11<sup>[2]</sup>. Up to date, besides symptomatic treatment, cornea transplantation is still the most common surgical therapy<sup>[3]</sup>. Munier *et al*<sup>[4]</sup> identified the transforming growth factor beta-induced gene (TGFBI, OMIM 601692, formerly called BIGH3) on chromosome 5q31 responsible for these autosomal dominant corneal dystrophies. Sharing a common genetic origin, the hereditary corneal dystrophies linked to chromosome 5q31 and TGFBI gene include Reis-Bücklers corneal dystrophy (RBCD, also called Granular corneal dystrophy, type 3 [GCD3]), Thiel-Behnke corneal dystrophy (TBCD), Classic Lattice corneal dystrophy (LCD1), Granular corneal dystrophy, type 1 (GCD1) and type 2 (GCD2)<sup>[1,4]</sup>.

Avellino corneal dystrophy (ACD), known as GCD2, is one of the TGFBI associated corneal dystrophies, of which the clinical aspect is the coexistence of granular and amyloid deposits in the cornea<sup>[5]</sup>. It is characterized clinically by corneal opacities that are shaped like rings, disks, stars, and snowflakes. Some studies showed that mutations in the BIGH3 gene resulted in abnormal keratoepithelin<sup>[6]</sup>. In 5q31 linked corneal dystrophies, corneal keratocytes and/or epithelial cells expressed abnormal keratoepithelin, which interacted with proteoglycans, keratin, and other extracellular proteins leading to various stromal deposits<sup>[7]</sup>. Early symptoms of ACD occur during the first or second decade of life. Linear opacities may be present<sup>[8,9]</sup>, but the typical lines of LCD are usually absent. Compared to GCD-I, the progression of ACD is delayed and slower and the visual acuity is less impaired. In the absence of a histopathologic evaluation or an examination of the molecular genetic defect, ACD can be difficult to be distinguished from GCD-I. In Japanese individuals, ACD is the most common hereditary corneal dystrophy, responsible for 72% of corneal dystrophies associated with TGFBI<sup>[10]</sup>. Its homozygous phenotype is more severe than that of heterozygous mutation. The most frequently reported sites of mutations are at positions 124 and 555 of the transforming growth

**Table 1 Primers used in Polymerase Chain Reaction for amplification of TGFBI**

Exon		Sequence (5'→3')	Annealing temperature(°C)
1	Forward:	GCTTGCCCGTCGGTCGCTA	62
	Reverse:	TCCGAGCCCCGACTACCTGA	
2	Forward:	AGGCAAACACGATGGGAGTCA	60
	Reverse:	TAGCACGCAGGTCCCAGACA	
3	Forward:	CCAGATGACCTGTGAGGAACAGTGA	60
	Reverse:	CCTTTTATGTGGGTACTCCTCTCT	
4	Forward:	TCCTCGTCCTCTCCACCTGT	58
	Reverse:	CTCCATTTCATCATGCCAC	
5 and 6	Forward:	CCTGGGCTCACGAGGGCTGAGAACAT	64
	Reverse:	GCCCCCTTTGGGAGGCAATGTGTCCC	
7	Forward:	GTGAGCTTGGGTTTGGCTTC	63
	Reverse:	ACCTCATGGCAGGTGGTATG	
8	Forward:	TGAGGTATCGTGGAGTG	53
	Reverse:	CACATCAGTCTGGTCACA	
9	Forward:	ACTCACGAGATGACATTCT	60
	Reverse:	TCCAGGGACAATCTAACAGG	
10	Forward:	TAGAAGATACCAGATGTAAAGG	56
	Reverse:	TGTCAGCAACCAGTTCTCAT	
11	Forward:	CCTGCTACATGCTCTGAACAA	58
	Reverse:	GAATCCCCAAGGTAGAAGAAAG	
12	Forward:	GACTCTACTATCCTCAGTGGTG	58
	Reverse:	ATGTGCCAACTGTTTGCTGCT	
13	Forward:	CATTAGACAGATTGTGGGTCA	60
	Reverse:	GGGCTGCAACTTGAAGGTT	
14	Forward:	GCGACAAGATTGAAACTCCAT	58
	Reverse:	CTCTCCACCAACTGCCACAT	
15	Forward:	CCCTCAGTCACGGTTGTT	58
	Reverse:	GGAGTTGCCTTGGTTCTT	
16	Forward:	CTTGCACTTATGTCTGC	58
	Reverse:	TGCACCATGATGTTCTTATC	
17	Forward:	AGTGAAGTTTCACAAACCAC	58
	Reverse:	CCACATTTGGGATAGGTC	

factor-beta-induced protein (TGFBIp)<sup>[11]</sup>. In this study, we conducted a clinical evaluation and molecular genetic analysis of TGFBI gene in a Chinese family of ACD with atypical phenotypes.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Patients** A three-generation Chinese family from Sichuan Province, China, with ACD was recruited to this study (Figure 1). This family includes five ACD patients and six unaffected relatives. This study was approved by a local institutional medical ethics committee, and informed consent conforming to the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki was obtained from each of participants.

#### Methods

**Clinical examination** Snellen best-corrected visual acuity test, slit-lamp biomicroscopy, intraocular pressure measurement, and fundus examination were conducted by an experienced ophthalmologist for all subjects. Detailed clinical history such as the age of onset, initial signs and

symptoms, progression of disease, and ocular therapeutic procedures was documented.

**Molecular genetic analysis** Peripheral blood was collected from all individuals involved in this study. Genomic DNA was extracted from leukocytes using QIAamp DNA Blood Mini Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) according to standard protocol. DNA integrity was evaluated by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. Exons of the TGFBI gene were amplified from genomic DNA of each participant by polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Briefly, PCR was performed using 30μL reaction mixtures, each containing 30-40 ng genomic DNA, 1.0 pmol of each of the forward and reverse primers (listed in Table 1), and 15μL 2×Taq Master Mix (SinoBio Biltech Co. Ltd, Shanghai, China). Cycling conditions included an initial denaturation at 94°C for 5 minute, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 seconds, annealing at 52.6-64.3°C for 30 seconds, extension at 72°C for 30 seconds, and a final extension at

**Table 2 Clinical feature in family members with the TGFB1 R124H mutation**

Individual case	Gender	Age	Corneal Status	TGFB1 genotype	Visual acuity at presentation	
					OD	OS
I 1	M	81	Affected	Wt/R124H	0.02	0.1
I 2	F	74	-	-	1.0	0.6/1.0
II 1	M	53	Affected	Wt/R124H	1.2	0.02
II 2	F	42	-	-	0.4/0.9	0.5/0.8
II 3	M	46	-	-	1.2	0.1/1.0
II 4	F	50	-	-	1.2	1.2
II 5	M	43	-	-	1.2	1.2
II 6	F	44	Affected	Wt/R124H	0.8/0.8	0.8/1.0
III1	M	18	Unaffected	Wt/R124H	0.8/1.0	0.8/1.0
III2	F	18	-	-	0.15/1.0	0.15/1.0
III3	F	14	Unaffected	Wt/R124H	1.2	1.5

72°C for 5 minutes. The amplified products were purified with a cycle-pure kit (OMEGA, Bio-Tek, USA) and sequenced on a ABI 3730XL automated DNA sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Nucleotide sequences were compared with the wild type *TGFB1* sequence (GenBank NG\_012646.1).

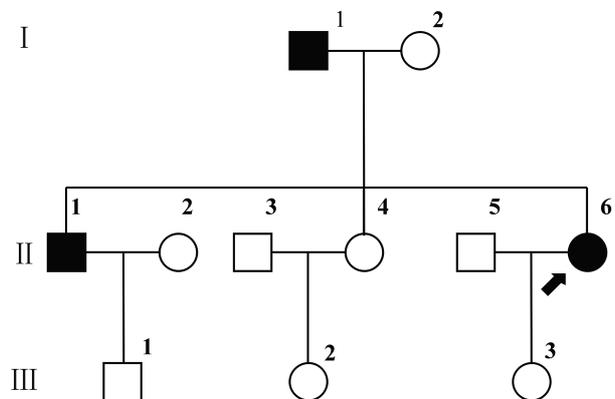
## RESULTS

**Clinical Findings** Clinical features of the family members are summarized in Table 2. The proband(patient II :6, Figure 1) , a 44-year-old female, was asymptomatic but presented with bilateral scattered grayish small dot, annular and snowflake-like opacities in the subepithelial area and Bowman's layer in the central cornea, grayish linear opacity in the stroma anteriorly in her left eye with peripheral cornea unaffected. Her physical examination was otherwise normal.. Her best corrected visual acuity was 0.8 OD and 1.0 OS (Figure 2A).

The second patient (Patient I :1,Figure 1) was proband's father (81-year-old), who was asymptomatic. Corneal examination revealed a few grayish spot-like confluent opacities in the anterior stroma and one or two granular deposits in the middle stroma of the central cornea (Figure 2B). The best corrected visual acuity was 0.02 OD and 0.1 OS, likely due to age-related macular degeneration.

Patient II :1 (Figure 1) was proband's 53-year-old brother. Slit lamp examination showed a few spot-like opacities in his left cornea (Figure 2C), and nearly no opacities were found in his right cornea (Figure 2D). His best corrected visual acuity was 1.2 OD and 0.02 OS, due to high myopia in his left eye.

In addition, 2 younger family members (III: 1, 18-year-old; III: 3, 14-year-old, Figure 1) who were the descendants of the affected father or mother, presented with no changes in the corneas. Their visual acuity was 1.0 OD/1.0 OS and 1.2 OD/1.5 OS respectively, and they carried the same variation in the heterozygous state.

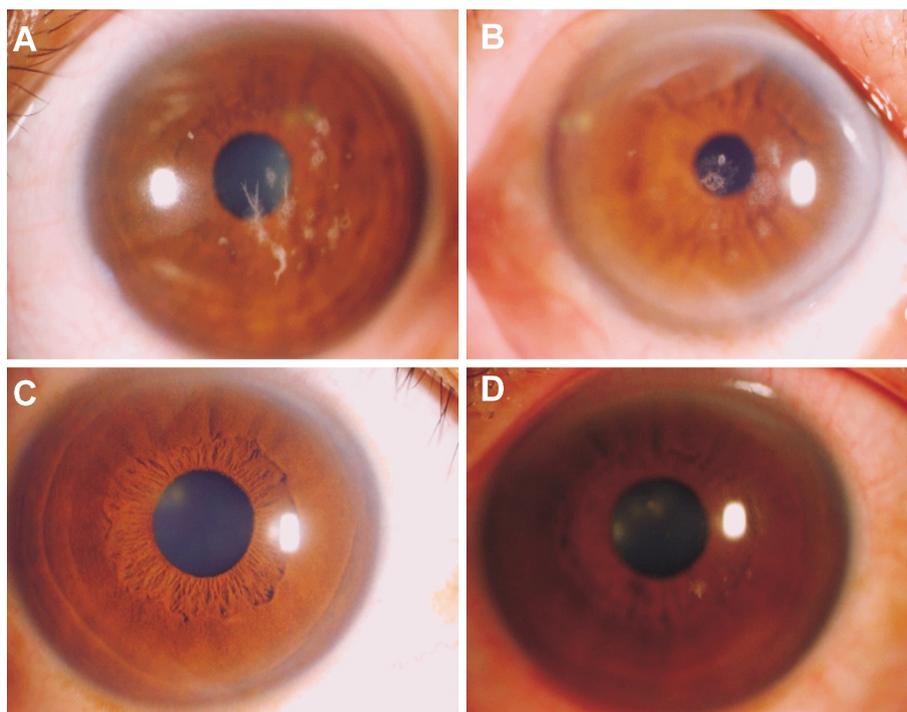


**Figure 1 The pedigree of the family with Avellino corneal dystrophy (ACD). The arrow indicates the proband. The filled circle or square indicates the affected individual**

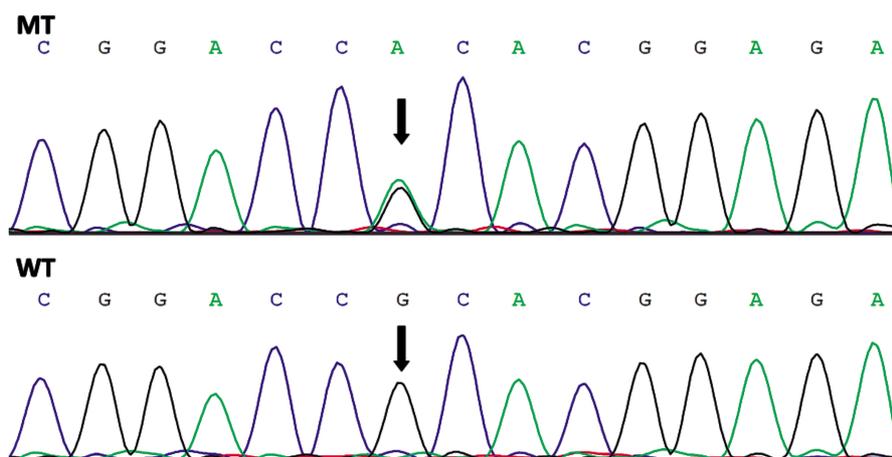
**TGFB1 gene analysis** Seventeen exons of *TGFB1* were analyzed by direct sequencing for the affected and unaffected members of this pedigree. A heterozygous mutation T>A in exon 4 which caused an amino acid substitution from Arginine (CGC) to Histidine (CAC) at codon 124 (R124H) (Figure 3), was identified in all affected members and their children, who were unaffected by the time the study was done, as shown in Figure 1 and Table 1).

## DISCUSSION

Granular-lattice dystrophy, also known as Avellino corneal dystrophy, consists of both granular and lattice changes in the same cornea. The disorder appears to progress with age. To date, most cases studied with molecular genetic techniques for ACD have had the R124H mutation in *TGFB1*, but the phenotype of affected individuals varied markedly in severity from family to family [12-16]. Typically, granules develop at a younger age and lattice occurs later in life. Granules become visible and reach their mature quantity early, and remain nearly stationary in size. Lattice changes occur gradually, increase proportionally with age. Affected offsprings appear to have fewer lattice changes than their parents [9]. In our study, we found three affected



**Figure 2 Slit-lamp photomicrographs** A: The proband II :6; B: The father of the proband I :1; C, D: The brother of the proband II :1



**Figure 3** Sequence analysis showed heterozygous mutation consisting of a G>A transversion in exon 4 (red arrow)

family members and two unaffected family members carried the same heterozygous TGFBI R124H mutation. The father ( I :1) exhibited granular changes only, while his daughter, the proband ( II :6) appeared to have both granular and lattice changes. His son ( II :1) who carried the same variation in heterozygous state only had a few spot-like opacities in the left cornea of his eye. Phenotypically, the pedigree we documented here exhibited atypical features of ACD.

In the pedigree, particularly, the patient ( II :1, Figure 2C, D), a 53-year-old male, had only a few spot-like opacities in his left eye, but presented no detectable changes in the other eye by the time the study was done. Therefore, the phenotypes were mild and presented differently in his eyes. Moreover, we also found two individuals (III: 1, III: 3) who

carried the same heterozygous R124H mutation presented no changes to their corneal transparency and visual acuity at the age of 18 and 14 respectively. Therefore we reported the intrafamilial clinical variability observed in this pedigree with TGFBI dystrophy which strengthens the contention that though the phenotypic expression is primarily determined by the effect of the identified mutation on the structure and function of the encoded protein, the genetic background of each individual as well as environmental factors likely influence the manner and degree of expression. On the other hand, it is proposed that there might be some modifier genes which could influence the phenotype of the disease gene, which means TGFBI might have some modifier genes that could ameliorate the effect of the mutated allele<sup>[17]</sup>. The modifier genes could play an important role in phenotypic

variability in monogenic disorders [17]. However, the genetic interactions between modifier genes and the causative genes in corneal dystrophies still remain to be elucidated, although the causative genes have been identified. Thus, the molecule mechanism and the pathogenesis of the diseases are worthy of further studies. Revealing the mechanism and identifying the modifier gene is critical to understand the pathogenesis of the disease.

Today, excimer laser surgery is becoming one of the most effective treatments for corneal dystrophy and ametropic patients. However Avellino dystrophy was considered as a contraindication for laser-assisted in-situ keratomileusis (LASIK) surgery because of the increased deposition of granular material and a decrease in best-corrected visual acuity. Recurrence of ACD as well as granular and lattice dystrophies has been documented after treatment by excimer laser phototherapeutic keratectomy (PTK) and Photo Refractive Keratectomy (PRK) [18, 19], and worsening of ACD after laser in situ keratomileusis (LASIK) has also been reported [20-25]. Studies show that keratoepithelin is secreted by keratocytes after trauma. The accumulation of deposits at the LASIK flap interface in the laser ablation zone is thought to be the result of keratocyte stimulation from the microkeratome and laser ablation or the formation of a potential space at the flap-stromal interface as a result of the surgery [26]. For our pedigree with atypical phenotype and low penetrance, without molecular genetic analysis, it would be difficult to have an accurate genetic counseling and preoperative diagnosis.

In conclusion, our study elucidated the correlation between genotype and phenotype of ACD. Molecular genetic analysis was used as an effective means for future clinical diagnosis. It also enhanced our understanding of corneal dystrophy and showed the limitations of the current phenotypic method of corneal dystrophy diagnosis.

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