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Optimized PCR fragments for heteroduplex analysis of the whole human mitochondrial genome with denaturing HPLC

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Abstract

Denaturing high pressure liquid chromatography (dHPLC) is an efficient method for discovery of unknown mutations by heteroduplex analysis of PCR fragments. For comprehensive mutation scanning of the whole 16.569 bp human mitochondrial genome, we developed a set of 67 primer pairs defining overlapping PCR fragments that are well suited for heteroduplex analysis. The aim of our optimization efforts was to ensure that point mutations are detectable at every nucleotide position of each amplicon. Some GC-rich regions of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) were found to have unfavourable melting profiles in all possible amplicons, therefore requiring GC-clamps at the end of one or both oligonucleotide PCR primers. Following detection of a heteroduplex pattern by dHPLC, our primers can also be employed for DNA sequencing to identify the underlying mutation. In case of heteroplasmic mutations with a low proportion of mutant mtDNA, a fragment collector is useful to recover the heteroduplex peak, which contains mutant and wildtype DNA molecules in a 1:1 ratio.

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Keywords: Mitochondrial disease; Mitochondrial DNA; Mutation discovery; Heteroplasmy; Heteroduplex analysis; Denaturing HPLC; dHPLC

1. Introduction

It has been suggested that the progressive decline in mitochondrial function during ageing is due to the accumulation of acquired mutations in mitochondrial DNA [\[1–4\].](#page-10-0) Numerous studies have also shown that somatic mtDNA mutations are present in many different tumour types [\[5,6\], b](#page-10-0)ut the importance of these mutations to the development of cancer remains uncertain.

Our interest in mitochondrial DNA stems from the possible involvement of mtDNA mutations in myelodysplastic syndromes (MDS) [\[7,8\].](#page-10-0) This group of clonal bone marrow disorders, some of which transform into overt leukemia, has an unclear etiology. The incidence of myelodysplastic syndromes is strongly age-related, with a peak incidence at 65–70 years [\[9\].](#page-11-0) Mitochondria of bone marrow cells in MDS often show ultrastructural abnormalities, including pathological iron accumulation in the mitochondria of erythroblasts (ringed sideroblasts). We have put forward a hypothesis that explains mitochondrial iron overload on the basis of a respiratory chain defect, likely attributable to mtDNA mutations [\[10\].](#page-11-0) In order to detect clonally expanded mtDNA mutations in the bone marrow of patients with MDS, we needed a scanning technique more economical than whole mitochondrial genome resequencing. Therefore, we turned to heteroduplex analysis with denaturing HPLC. To render mutation discovery as complete as possible, we optimized a set of overlapping PCR fragments for heteroduplex analysis.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Heteroduplex analysis

Discovery of point mutations by heteroduplex analysis is based on the following principle: if a PCR product contains a mixture of wild-type and mutant DNA, heat denaturation of the amplified material followed by renaturation will not only allow reannealing of the perfectly matched, fully complementary strands (homoduplexes), but will also allow the formation of heteroduplexes, which have a pair of non-fitting bases (mismatch) at one position.

Abbreviations: dHPLC, denaturing high pressure liquid chromatography; TEAA, triethylammoniumacetate; *T*ann, annealing temperature in PCR

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Since a nucleotide mismatch reduces the thermodynamic stability of double stranded DNA, heteroduplexes have a lower melting temperature than homoduplexes. At a certain temperature, homoduplexes are still double-stranded while heteroduplexes are already partially denatured. At that temperature, the two DNA species can be separated by dHPLC because their binding to the dHPLC column differs. The difference in melting temperature between homo- and heteroduplexes is strongly dependent on the nucleotide sequence of the respective DNA fragment. Therefore, length and position of DNA fragments must be chosen quite carefully to favour large differences in melting temperatures, thus enabling all possible point mutations to be detected.

2.2. dHPLC

Denaturing HPLC [\[11\]](#page-11-0) was performed with the WAVE-System (Transgenomic, Crewe, UK). Its central component is the DNASep® Cartridge (Transgenomic, Crewe, UK), a column (4.6 mm diameter, 50 mm length) containing alkylated nonporous poly(styrene-divinylbenzene) particles of $2-3 \mu m$ in diameter, which effectuate the conformation-dependent separation of nucleic acids by means of ion-pair reversed-phase liquid chromatography [\[12\].](#page-11-0) Two buffers were used for dHPLC analysis to form a solvent gradient: Buffer A contains 100 mM triethylammonium acetate pH 7.0 (TEAA; Transgenomic, Crewe, UK), buffer B 100 mM TEAA pH 7.0 and 25% acetonitrile (Lichrosolv®, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). Solvent gradients were chosen according to the length and temperature-dependent melting behaviour of the PCR fragments (see tables). After each run the column was washed for 30 s with 75% acetonitrile (buffer W).

2.3. Samples

Bone marrow aspirates and blood samples were obtained for diagnostic purposes, and spare material was stored at -20° C. From 200μ l of thawed material, DNA was extracted using the QIAamp® DNA Blood Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturers instructions.

2.4. PCR with heteroduplex formation

PCR reactions $(50 \mu l)$ were performed in a GeneAmp 9600 PCR system (Perkin Elmer Cetus/Applied Biosystems, Langen, Germany) with $1 \times$ buffer (supplied with polymerase), 40 pmol of each primer (MWG, Ebersberg, Germany), 20 nmol of each nucleotide triphosphate (New England Biolabs, Frankfurt am Main, Germany), 1 unit VENT polymerase (New England Biolabs, Frankfurt am Main, Germany), and about 10 ng whole DNA. After an initial denaturing step of 4 min at 95 ◦C, 35 cycles were performed, with denaturing at 94 ◦C for 1 min, annealing at 49–59 ◦C (depending on primer pairs, *T*ann in [Tables 1 and 2\)](#page-2-0) for 1 min, and elongation at 72° C for 1 min. The last elongation step of the PCR was extended to 8 min. PCR products were then denatured again at 95 ◦C for 1 min, and finally cooled down to 4 [○]C to allow heteroduplex formation through hybridization.

 $10 \mu l$ of each PCR product was visualized in a 2% agarose gel. Depending on the result, $3-10 \mu l$ (usually 5 μl) of PCR product was subsequently used for each injection into the dHPLC column.

2.5. Primer design

Primer design was supported by OLIGO® 5.0 primer analysis software (National Biosciences Inc., Plymouth, USA). We chose primers of generous length (25 nucleotides) because VENT polymerase has a 3'-5' proof-reading exonuclease activity on single stranded DNA which may lead to shortening of primers during PCR. This approach had a favourable effect on amplification efficiencies.

2.6. Melting profiles

Melting profiles were calculated using WAVE-Maker 3.4.4 software (Transgenomic, Crewe, UK). For each base pair of a PCR fragment, this program displays the probability to be in a closed configuration under the conditions used in the dHPLC, calculated for up to three different temperatures. A calculation for more than three temperatures and different solvent conditions is available at [http://www.biophys.uni-duesseldorf.](http://www.biophys.uni-duesseldorf.de/local/poland/poland.html) [de/local/POLAND/poland.html.](http://www.biophys.uni-duesseldorf.de/local/poland/poland.html) A mismatch should become visible on dHPLC analysis if a temperature increase by 1 K reduces the pairing probability at the respective nucleotide position by at least 40%. Melting temperatures are not much different between neighbouring nucleotides because DNA melts in cooperative domains. Therefore, analysis at one or two temperatures is sufficient for most PCR fragments. However, some GC-rich regions pose a problem because they do not have melting profiles suitable for dHPLC in any of the possible PCR fragments. This requires the incorporation of GC-clamps to stabilize the fragment at one or both ends, in order to achieve a more even melting profile [\(Fig. 1\).](#page-7-0)

3. Results

3.1. PCR fragments

We designed 67 primer pairs defining overlapping PCR fragments that cover the entire human mitochondrial genome ([Table 1\).](#page-2-0) If primer design was straightforward and melting profiles were favourable for dHPLC analysis (e.g. in the region of COX genes), we chose relatively long PCR fragments of >400 bp. However, for DNA extracted from paraffin embedded tissues, long PCR fragments are hard to amplify. Therefore, we constructed alternative, shorter fragments for some of the genes ([Table 2\).](#page-6-0)

We tested our PCR fragments using samples with known nucleotide polymorphisms or somatic mutations previously identified in our laboratory. For polymorphisms, DNA was extracted from blood samples of five young adults with different ethnic backgrounds (Germany, Portugal, Cameroon, Colombia, and South Korea). Their mitochondrial genomes were sequenced by a commercial laboratory (SeqLab, Göttingen, Germany). The

^a Not matching nucleotides of the GC clamps in the 5'-regions of the primers are written in lower letters.
^b 10~: GC clamp with 10 GC at the 5' end of the primer, not fully matching the mitochondrial sequence.
^c Gra

Table 2	Additional fragments to replace long PCR-products							
Fragment ^d	F-primer ^a R-primer ^a	Primer lengths (bp)	Primer positions ^b	PCR-length (bp)	T_{ann} (PCR) $(^{\circ}C)$	Visibility	T_{WAVE} $(^{\circ}C)$	WAVE buffer ^c A(%)
TR 88a	5'-AAA CTA CCA AAC CTG CAT TAA AAA T-3' 5'-AGA TAG AAA CCG ACC TGG ATT ACT C-3'	25 25	2.782-2.806 3.104-3.080	323	53	2.857-3.079	60	$47 - 35$
TR 89a	5'-CCG CTA TTA AAG GTT CGT TTG TTC A-3' 5'-TTT TCG TTC GGT AAG CAT TAG GAA T-3'	25 25	$3.020 - 3.044$ 3.384-3.360	364	53	$3.060 - 3.359$	- 59	$47 - 35$
Cox 57a	5'-Cgg cgC gGC ggC Ccg G' TCC TGT ATG CCC TTT TCC TAA CAC T-3' 5'-TCG ATT GTC AAC GTC AAG GAG TCG C-3'	41 25	$16 \sim 7.698 - 7.722$ 8.008-7.984	327	55	7.723-7.983	60	$46 - 34$
Cox 58a	5'-ACT CCT ACA TAC TTC CCC CAT TAT T-3' 5'-gGG Geg ggc g'CG GGC CCT ATT TCA AAG ATT TTT AG-3'	25 35	7.941-7.965 $10 - 8.255 - 8.231$	325	51	7.966-8.230	60	$48 - 36$
ATP 87a	5'-AAC CAA ACC ACT TTC ACC GCT ACA C-3' 5'-ccC gCc Gcg ggG cGG' TGT TGG TTC TCT TAA TCT TTA ACT T-3'	25 40	8.123-8.147 $15 \sim 8.350 - 8.326$	243	51	8.148-8.325	60	$52 - 40$
ATP 88a	5'-ATT CCC CTA AAA ATC TTT GAA ATA G-3' 5'-gcG GG'C TTT GGT GAG GGA GGT AGG TGG TAG-3'	25 30	8.225-8.249 $5 \sim 8.485 - 8.461$	266	55	8.305-8.460	- 58	$49 - 37$
ATP _{65a}	5'-cgC gCc gcg Ccc Cgc' CAC CCA ACT AAA AAT ATT AAA CAC A-3' 5'-ATT TGG AGG TGG GGA TCA ATA GAG G-3'	40 25	$15 \sim 8.434 - 8.458$ 8.632-8.608	214	55	8.459-8.607 59		$51 - 39$
ATP 66a	5'-CGC CGC AGT ACT GAT CAT TCT ATT T-3' 5'-AGG GGA TGG CCA TGG CTA GGT TTA T-3'	25 25	8.580-8.604 8.848-8.824	269	55	$8.605 - 8.764$ 57		$47 - 35$
ATP _{67a}	5'-CTA AAG GAC GAA CCT GAT CTC TTA T-3' 5'-GAG TAG GTG GCC TGC AGT AAT GTT A-3'	25 25	8.714-8.738 9.036-9.012	323	55	8.765-9.011	- 60	$48 - 36$
ATP 68a	5'-ggG GCg CgC Ccg C' ACC CCT TAT CCC CAT ACT AGT TAT T-3' 5'-ATG TGT TGT CGT GCA GGT AGA GGC T-3'	38 25	$13 - 8.931 - 8.955$ 9.205-9.181	288	55	9.068-9.180 8.956-9.067	59 61	$48 - 36$ $52 - 40$
ATP 69a	5'-GCc ggC Ccg Cgg CgC ccg cC' ATC TTC ACA ATT CTA ATT CTA CTG A-3' 5' GAG TGG AAG TGA AAT CAC ATG GCT A-3'	45 25	$20 - 9.100 - 9.124$ 9.322-9.298	243	55	9.125-9.297	61	$48 - 36$
Cox 35a	5'-CCC TCT CAG CCC TCC TAA TGA CCT C-3' 5'-CTC AGA AAA ATC CTG CGA AGA AAA A-3'	25 25	9.268-9.292 9.504-9.480	237	55	9.293-9.443	62	54 - 42
Cox 36a	5'-GAT GGC GCG ATG TAA CAC GAG AAA G-3' 5'-TCC TGA TGC GAG TAA TAC GGA TGT G-3'	25 25	9.376-9.400 9.629-9.605	254	53	9.401-9.511	-60	$49 - 37$

^a Not matching nucleotides of the GC clamps in the 5'-regions of the primers are written in lower letters.
^b 10~: GC clamp with 10 GC at the 5' end of the primer, not fully matching the mitochondrial sequence.
^c Gra

Fig. 1. Melting profiles of PCR fragment KR 85a, calculated with WAVE Maker software. For each base pair of the sequence (x-axis), the probability is given in percent (y-axis) for being in the double stranded state, at temperatures from 56° C (blue) to 64° C (red). The top panel, without GC clamp, shows a very stable region of the fragment (positions 200–230). The lower panel shows that, with 14 G/Cs at the 5'-end of the R-primer, stabilisation of the 5'-end of the fragment occurs, creating a larger and more even cooperative melting domain that enables thermodynamic analysis. Dashed lines indicate the positions of polymorphisms underlying the heteroduplex pattern in [Fig. 2](#page-8-0) lower panel. Solid line indicates the position of the heteroplasmic mutation relevant to [Figs. 3 and 4.](#page-9-0)

polymorphisms were used for mixing experiments with mtDNA from another healthy individual. Two wild type samples and all available mutations were at least analysed at six appropriate temperatures for each PCR fragment, using an universal gradient that changed buffer A from 60 to 28% over 17 min (Table 3). An example is shown in [Fig. 2.](#page-8-0) Employing the available polymorphisms in 27 PCR fragments, as well as previously identified heteroplasmic point mutations in further 23 PCR fragments, we were pleased to see that all sequence changes were detected by dHPLC analysis.

Table 3 WAVE-Gradient for PCR fragment testing (Universal gradient), used with multiple temperatures

Time (min)	Buffer A(%)	Buffer B(%)	Buffer $W(\%)$	Description
0.0	65	35	0	Sample injection
1.0	60	40	0	Start gradient
17.0	28	72		End gradient
17.1	0	0	100	Start wash
18.1	0	0	100	End wash
18.2	65	35	0	Start equilibration
20.1	65	35		for next injection

Buffer A, 0.1 M TEAA (triethylammonium acetate); buffer B, 0.1 M TEAA, 25% acetonitrile; buffer W, 75% acetonitrile.

3.2. HPLC parameters

The heteroduplex chromatograms resulting from heteroplasmic mutations or from mixtures of polymorphic sequences were used to choose appropriate analysis temperatures for each PCR fragment (T_{WAVE} , [Tables 1 and 2\).](#page-2-0) They also helped to optimize other dHPLC parameters. A 6-min solvent gradient was chosen, so that the homoduplex peak will elute after 5–6 min. For sample injection at the beginning of the gradient, buffer A is increased by 5% for 0.1 min. At the end of the gradient, the column is washed with 75% acetonitrile (100% buffer W) for 0.5 min. While the wash peak is recorded by the detector (time lag between solvent pump and detector: 2 min), the column is already being equilibrated for 2 min, preparing it for the next injection. Analysis of each sample requires about 10 min (ca. 9 min for the gradient, and another minute for washing the injection system and for data processing).

As an example, the gradient programs for PCR fragment KR 85a are shown in [Table 4](#page-8-0) (left, analysis temperature 58 ◦C and right, analysis temperature 61 ◦C).

3.3. GC clamping

As already mentioned, some PCR fragments required GC clamping. An example is given in Fig. 1. Fragment KR 85a (nt 104–385) shows a GC-rich stretch of about 30 nucleotides

Fig. 2. dHPLC analysis of PCR fragment KR 85a at different temperatures, from 56 ◦C (blue) to 64 ◦C (red). Upper panel: wildtype; lower panel: mixture of samples characterized by two polymorphisms that create mismatches at positions 47 and 92 of this fragment (see [Fig. 1\).](#page-7-0) Heteroduplex patterns are clearly detectable over a broad range of temperatures. For routine analysis, 58 and 61 ◦C (black lines) were chosen.

where basepairs did not melt even at high temperatures. Adding a GC clamp of 14 nucleotides at the $5'$ end of the reverse primer significantly altered the melting behaviour, allowing the recalcitrant GC-rich sequence to become part of a larger and less stable cooperative melting domain, thereby enabling mismatches to be detected at temperatures of 62–63 ◦C.

3.4. "Shoulders" in wildtype homoduplex peaks

PCR amplification is not free of errors, which may contribute, like acquired mutations, to the formation of heteroduplex molecules, thereby causing "shoulders" or small additional peaks on dHPLC analysis. To avoid or diminish those artefacts, we used a "high-fidelity" DNA polymerase featuring 3 -5 exonuclease activity which can remove falsely incorporated nucleotides. The error rate of high-fidely polymerases is about ten times smaller than that of Taq polymerase. We found that normal shoulders are best distinguished from conspicuous findings if homologous PCR fragments from 10 to 20 different samples are run through the column in succession. Since the normal chromatogram has a characteristic pattern for each PCR fragment, deviations from that pattern are conspicious. In [Fig. 3, f](#page-9-0)or example, sample 12 shows a small heteroduplex peak that differs from the normal shoulder seen in the other samples.

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KR 85a, 58 °C				KR 85a, 61 °C					
Time (min)	Buffer A $(\%)$	Buffer B $(\%)$	Buffer W $(\%)$	Time (min)	Buffer A $(\%)$	Buffer B $(\%)$	Buffer W $(\%)$		
0.0	54 ^b	46		0.0	60 ^b	40			
0.1	49 ^a	51		0.1	55 ^a	45			
6.1	37 ^a	63		6.1	43 ^a				
6.2			100	6.2			100		
6.7			100	6.7			100		
6.8	54 ^b	46		0.0	60 ^b	40			
8.8	54 ^b	46		0.0	60 ^b	40			

Table 4 WAVE gradients for PCR fragment KR 85a as an example

Buffer A, 0.1 M TEAA (triethylammonium acetate); buffer B, 0.1 M TEAA, 25% acetonitrile; buffer W, 75% acetonitrile.

^a This values are mentioned as WAVE buffer A in [Tables 1 and 2.](#page-2-0)

^b This values are always 5% higher than the buffer A value at 0.1 min, buffer B accordant.

Fig. 3. Chromatograms of PCR fragment KR 85a from four different individuals. Detector output at 260 nm shows a peak at 0,5 min (on the far left) containing all UV-absorbing material not retained by the column, e.g. nucleotides (for changing solvent conditions, see [Table 4\).](#page-8-0) The peak on the far right represents genomic DNA that leaves the column during the wash step at the end of each run. The PCR fragment of interest elutes at around 6 min. All chromatograms are scaled to show the fragment peak at maximum hight. Upper row: dHPLC at 58 ◦C; lower row: dHPLC at 61 ◦C. Sample no. 12 shows a small additional peak (arrow) at 58 ◦C, which turned out to be a clonally expanded mtDNA mutation [\(Fig. 4\).](#page-10-0) The "shoulders" seen on the left side of each homoduplex peak result from nucleotides falsely incorporated by the polymerase. These PCR errors contribute, like acquired mutations, to the formation of heteroduplex molecules.

3.5. Retrieval of heteroduplex species for DNA sequencing of "low-level" mutations

Heteroduplex findings were always confirmed by repeat PCR and dHPLC. If mutant DNA represented around 50% of the PCR product, mutations were easily confirmed and identified by direct DNA sequencing. In case of <30% mutant DNA, sequencing may yield ambiguous results not clearly distinguishable from background noise. To circumvent this problem, we used a fraction collector (FC) to elute the heteroduplex peak, which represents an equimolar mixture of mutant and wildtype DNA strands [\[13\]. F](#page-11-0)or each sample, 12 fractions were collected, with a collection time of 6 s and a volume of 150μ , respectively. These fractions, containing TEAA, acetonitrile, and the eluted DNA, can be entered into PCR amplifications without further preparation. After PCR amplification of the heteroduplex fraction, the presence of mutant and wildtype DNA in a ratio of 50:50 can be confirmed by re-analysis of the PCR product in another dHPLC. The PCR product is then suitable for mutation identification through DNA sequencing using our forward and reverse primers. [Fig. 4](#page-10-0) demonstrates how the small heteroduplex peak shown in Fig. 3 is further processed according to this approach.

4. Discussion

We developed a set of primer pairs defining 67 overlapping PCR fragments suitable for heteroduplex analysis of the entire human mitochondrial genome with denaturing HPLC. We took special care to facilitate mutation detection at all nucleotide positions.

The availability of optimized PCR fragments has several advantages.

First, the mitochondrial genome has GC-rich regions which require stabilization with GC clamps at one or both ends of certain fragments in order to make them amenable to analysis by thermodynamic methods. Such GC clamps are incorporated into our primers. MtDNA fragments created by long-range PCR followed by restriction enzyme digestion [\[14,15\]](#page-11-0) cannot harness the favourable effect of GC clamps.

Second, after finding a heteroduplex peak, a suspected mutation must be identified by DNA sequencing. For this purpose, we can use the same primers as employed for PCR amplification of the respective mtDNA fragment. Methods creating fragments by restriction enzymes need extra primers for DNA sequencing.

Third, we can enrich low-level heteroplasmic mtDNA mutations through retrieval of heteroduplex peaks by means of a fraction collector, followed by PCR amplification of the eluted heteroduplex DNA. Again, this enrichment is only possible if there are PCR primers available for the respective fragment.

Fourth, mtDNA fragments created by restriction enzymes may produce closely adjacent wild-type peaks on dHPLC, which may in some cases obscure a heteroduplex peak or at least hinder the detection of low-level heteroplasmic mutations.

If mtDNA fragments for dHPLC analysis are produced with the help of restriction enzymes, fewer PCR fragments are needed. However, machine time is not saved, since aiming at completeness of mutation detection requires those restriction fragments to be analysed at several temperatures.

With our method, heteroduplex analysis of the entire mtDNA of 20 individuals requires 67 PCR amplifications and about 2000 sample injections into the HPLC column. This takes 2–4 weeks, depending on whether the WAVE system is in continuous operation.

For just one individual, the mitochondrial genome can be scanned within 48 h: 1 day for PCR amplifications and another day for dHPLC analyses. However, besides being less economical, this approach renders the interpretation of results more difficult because chromatograms cannot be compared to a row

Fig. 4. Enrichment of low-level heteroplasmic mutations. a) dHPLC of PCR fragment KR 85a of sample no. 12, analysed at 58 °C. The heteroduplex peak, containing equimolar amounts of wildtype and mutant PCR product, was collected. The contents of vial 31, representing the red coloured part of the chromatogram, was reamplified. b) on the left: the original chromatogram (same as in a); on the right: reamplification and repeat dHPLC of the small heteroduplex peak (vial 31) confimed a clear heteroduplex pattern, with a proportion of mutant mtDNA suitable for DNA sequencing. c) Results of DNA sequencing: a mutation C/T is clearly detectable at position 70 of the amplicon, which corresponds to position 198 in the control region of mtDNA [\[16,17\]. C](#page-11-0)198T has been reported as a polymorphism [\[18\]. T](#page-11-0)he DNA sequence of this highly polymorphic stretch of mtDNA shows four additional (homoplasmic) deviations from the Cambridge reference sequence [\[16,17\], a](#page-11-0)ll representing well-known inherited polymorphisms [\[18\]: A](#page-11-0)189G (here position 61), T195C (67), T204C (76), and G207A (79).

of homologous fragments from other individuals analysed under identical conditions.

Using our optimized PCR fragments, we performed heteroduplex analysis of mitochondrial DNA from bone marrow cells of patients with myelodysplastic syndromes. In 58 of 104 patients, we identified 111 clonally expanded somatic mutations of mtDNA (manuscript in preparation). The mutations are scattered over the whole mitochondrial genome, which is not unexpected. Mitochondrial DNA mutations in different sites can have very similar effects, because all mitochondrial genes contribute to a functioning respiratory chain.

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