

MIC2: A Human Pseudoautosomal Gene [and Discussion]

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MIC2: a human pseudoautosomal gene

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MIC2 and XGR are the only known pseudoautosomal genes in man. MIC2 encodes the 12E7 antigen, a human cell-surface molecule of unknown function. XGR regulates, in cis, the expression of the XG and MIC2 genes.

DNA probes derived from the *MIC2* locus have been used in the construction of a meiotic map of the pseudoautosomal region and a long range restriction map into the X- and Y-specific chromosome domains. *MIC2* is the most proximal marker in the pseudoautosomal region and recombination between the sex chromosomes only rarely includes the *MIC2* locus. Our long-range restriction maps and chromosome walking experiments have localized the pseudoautosomal boundary within 40 kilobases adjacent to the 3' end of the *MIC2* gene. The same maps have been used to predict the chromosomal location of *TDF*.

Introduction

The Y chromosome of man and other mammals is highly adapted for its role in male sex determination. It is composed of two distinct regions with antithetical genetic properties (Koller & Darlington 1934). One region is Y-chromosome-specific and encodes TDF, a gene required for male sex determination. Sequences derived from this region do not normally recombine with the X chromosome. Abnormal recombination, which occurs infrequently, leads to the generation of XX males or XY females and the breakdown of the chromosomal basis of sex determination (Ferguson-Smith 1966). The second region of the Y chromosome is shared by the X and Y chromosomes and is responsible for correct sex chromosome pairing and segregation in male meiosis. Sequences in this region are exchanged between the sex chromosomes by recombination and fail to show classical sex-linked inheritance. This behaviour has been described as 'pseudoautosomal', and the shared part of the sex chromosomes is known as the pseudoautosomal region (Burgoyne 1982).

Very few genes are encoded by the Y chromosome (Goodfellow et al. 1985). This is a direct consequence of the role of the Y chromosome in male sex determination and the evolution of dosage compensation by X-inactivation in mammals (Lyon 1974). To maintain gene dosage, genes shared by the sex chromosomes must either escape inactivation on the X chromosome or undergo inactivation on the Y chromosome. The X-located homologues of pseudoautosomal genes are known to escape X-inactivation (Goodfellow et al. 1984). There is no evidence for inactivation of Y-located genes. These considerations have led to the prediction that the genes encoded by the Y-specific region are either directly required for the male phenotype or are deleterious to the female phenotype. In contrast there is no obvious a priori restriction on the function of genes encoded by the pseudoautosomal region.

Vol. 322. B

The paucity of genetic markers has in the past hindered the analysis of the human Y chromosome and most studies have been restricted to correlation of phenotype with gross chromosomal rearrangements (Davis 1981). The introduction of molecular cloning techniques has provided an unlimited supply of genetic markers for the Y chromosome and has led to construction of genetic maps of both the pseudoautosomal and the Y-specific regions (Davies et al. 1988). In addition, molecular cloning techniques have resulted in the isolation of the pseudoautosomal gene MIC2 (Darling et al. 1986 a, b) and a candidate sequence for TDF (Page et al. 1987).

In this review we consider the molecular cloning of MIC2 and the use of MIC2-derived probes for investigating the genetics of the Y chromosome.

THE 12E7 ANTIGEN

The monoclonal antibody 12E7 recognizes a human cell-surface molecule with a wide tissue distribution. The 12E7 antigen is found in man, gorilla and chimpanzee, but is not found in orangutan, gibbon or any other species tested (Goodfellow 1983). This species specificity was exploited to investigate the genetics of the 12E7 antigen. Human-rodent hybrids that retain the human X chromosome or the human Y chromosome express the 12E7 antigen; retention of no other human chromosome in the hybrids correlates with expression of the 12E7 antigen. These results define the X-located gene MIC2X and the Y-located gene MIC2Y (Goodfellow et al. 1980, 1983). Biochemical studies demonstrated that the 12E7 antigen is associated with a 32.5 kDa cell-surface molecule with a pI of 5.0. No differences were detected between the putative products of the MIC2X and MIC2Y loci (Banting et al. 1985).

Human-rodent somatic-cell hybrids that retain the inactive X chromosome also express the 12E7 antigen, implying that the MIC2X locus escapes X-inactivation (Goodfellow et al. 1984). These experiments suggested that MIC2 is a pseudoautosomal gene, the first pseudoautosomal gene defined in man. Proof of this contention required cloning of the MIC2 gene.

Molecular cloning and analysis of MIC2

φλgt11 is a cloning vector that allows expression of eukaryotic proteins as fusion products in bacterial cells (Young & Davis 1983). A φλgt11 library was constructed with complementary DNA (cDNA) sequences prepared from the human T cell line J6 and this library was screened with a mixture of two monoclonal antibodies that reacted with the 12E7 antigen (Darling et al. 1986a). A positive clone, designated SG1, was isolated and shown to be derived from the MIC2 locus by three independent methods.

- 1. In situ hybridization of the cDNA clone to human chromosomes identified two sites of hybridization in the human genome: the end of the X chromosome short arm, Xp22.3-pter, and the Y chromosome short arm, Yp11-pter (Buckle et al. 1985).
- 2. Mouse cells were transfected with genomic human DNA and transfectants expressing the 12E7 antigen were isolated by using the fluorescence-activated cell sorter. DNA prepared from the antigen-positive transfectants reacted with the MIC2 cDNA clone in Southern blot analysis (Darling et al. 1986a).
- 3. A monoclonal antibody, MSGB1, was raised against a peptide, the sequence of which was derived from a conceptual translation of the cDNA clone. The MSGB1 antibody recognizes the 12E7 antigen (Darling *et al.* 1986*b*).

The cDNA clone has been used to isolate further cDNA clones and genomic sequences. The DNA sequence of one full length (or close to full length) cDNA clone is presented in figure 1, with its conceptual translation. A preliminary sequence of a partial cDNA clone has been published previously (Darling et al. 1986b). The published sequence contains an error that resulted in the premature termination of the coding region.

MIC2: A HUMAN PSEUDOAUTOSOMAL GENE

CGTGGAGGCC GGGCGGGGC GGGCGCAGCC GGCGCTGAGC TTGCAGGGCC GCTCCCCTCA CCCGCCCCCT TCGAGTCCCC GGGCTTCACC CCACCCGGCC CGTGGGGGAG TATCTGTCCT GCCGCCTTCG CCCACGCCCT GCACTCCGGG ACCGTCCCTG CGCGCTCTGG GCGCACC MET Ala Arg Gly Ala Ala Leu Ala Leu Leu Leu Phe Gly Leu Leu Gly Val Leu Val Ala Ala Pro Asp Gly Gly TTC GAT TTA TCC GAT GCC CTT CCT GAC AAT GAA AAC AAG AAA CCC ACT GCA ATC CCC AAG AAA CCC AGT GCT GGG Phe Asp Leu Ser Asp Ala Leu Pro Asp Asn Glu Asn Lys Lys Pro Thr Ala Ile Pro Lys Lys Pro Ser Ala Gly GAT GAC TTT GAC TTA GGA GAT GCT GTT GTT GAT GGA GAA AAT GAC GAC CCA CGA CCA CCG AAC CCA AAA CCG Asp Asp Phe Asp Leu Gly Asp Ala Val Val Asp Gly Glu Asn Asp Asp Pro Arg Pro Pro Asn Pro Pro Lys Pro ATG CCA AAT CCA AAC CCC AAC CCT AGT TCC TCC GGT AGC TTT TCA GAT GCT GAC CTT GCG GAT GGC GTT TCA Met Pro Asn Pro Asn Pro Asn His Pro Ser Ser Ser Gly Ser Phe Ser Asp Ala Asp Leu Ala Asp Gly Val Ser GGT GGA GAA GGA AAA GGA GGC AGT GAT GGT GGA GGC AGC CAC AGG AAA GAA GGG GAA GAG GCC GAC GCC CCA GGC Gly Gly Glu Gly Lys Gly Gly Ser Asp Gly Gly Gly Ser His Arg Lys Glu Gly Glu Glu Ala Asp Ala Pro Gly GTG ATC CCC GGG ATT GTG GGG GCT GTC GTC GCC GTG GCT GGA GCC ATC TCT AGC TTC ATT GCT TAC CAG AAA Val Ile Pro Gly Ile Val Gly Ala Val Val Val Ala Val Ala Gly Ala Ile Ser Ser Phe Ile Ala Tyr Gln Lys AAG AAG CTA TGC TTC AAA GAA AAT GCA GAA CAA GGG GAG GTG GAC ATG GAG AGC CAC CGG AAT GCC AAC GCA GAG Lys Lys Leu Cys Phe Lys Glu Asn Ala Glu Gln Gly Glu Val Asp Met Glu Ser His Arg Asn Ala Asn Ala Glu CCA GCT GTT CAG CGT ACT CTT TTA GAG AAA TAGAAGATTG TCGGCAGAAA CAGCCCAGGC GTTGGCAGCA GGGTTAGAAC Pro Ala Val Gln Arg Thr Leu Leu Glu Lys AGCTGCCTG AGGCTCCTCCC TGAAGGACAC CTGCCTGAGA GCAGAGATGG AGGCCTTCTG TTCACGGCGG ATTCTTTGTT TTAATCTTGC GATGTGCTTT GCTTGCT GGGCGGATGA TGTTTACTAA CGATGAATTT TACATCCAAA GGGGGATAGG CACTTGGACC CCCATTCTCC AAGGCCCGGG GGGGCGGTTT CCCATGGGAT GTGAAAGGCT GGCCATTATT AAGTCCCTGT AACTCAAATG TCAACCCCAC CGAGGCACCC CCCCGTCCC CAGAATCTTG GCTGTTTACA AATCACGTGT CCATCGAGCA CGTCTGAAAC CCCTGGTAGC CCCGACTTCT TTTTAATTAA AATAAGGTAA GCCCTTCAAT TTGTTTCTTC AATATTTCTT TCATTTGTAG GGATATTTGT TTTTCATATC AGACTAATAA AAAGAAATTA GAAACCAAAA

Figure 1. Nucleotide sequence of the MIC2 cDNA clone, NT23. The conceptual translation of the cDNA is shown. NT23 was isolated from a cDNA library constructed with mRNA from a human testicular teratocarcinoma cell line by screening with a previously described cDNA, SG1 (Darling et al. 1986 a, b). DNA sequence analysis was done on both strands by using the dideoxy chain termination procedure (Sanger et al. 1977) after cloning into M13 vectors (Messing 1983). Synthetic oligonucleotide primers were used to confirm the sequence in areas of ambiguity.

The MIC2 product contains two hydrophobic regions corresponding to an N-terminal signal sequence and a putative transmembrane domain adjacent to the C terminus. Unusual features of the protein sequence include a high concentration of proline residues in the middle region of the molecule and many charged pairs of amino acids. These features of the sequence present no obvious clue as to the function of the MIC2 gene. A search of available protein and nucleic acid sequence data bases has failed to find related sequences (Banting et al. 1988).

The cDNA clone has been used to isolate genomic sequences derived from the MIC2 locus. These sequences have been used for an investigation of the promoter region at the 5' end of the gene and as a source of polymorphic probes for family studies. The MIC2 gene is unusually large for the size of the transcript. The mRNA is about 1.3 kilobases (the cDNA clone in figure 1 is 1242 base pairs (b.p.) long) and this derives from over 50 kilobases of genomic DNA. The

5' end of the gene contains a region that is high in G+C content (67%) and shows no suppression of the occurrence of CpG dinucleotide pairs (Goodfellow et al. 1988). These features are characteristic of the 5' regions of many mammalian genes and may have functional importance for gene expression (Bird 1986). Another feature of these CpG-rich regions is the lack of methylation of the cytosine in the CpG pair. The absence of 5-methyl cytosine residues allows cleavage by methylation-sensitive restriction enzymes such as HpaII, generating multiple small *Hpa*II fragments (hence the name HTF island or *Hpa*II tiny fragment island). These regions are also cleaved by methylation-sensitive enzymes used in long-range restriction mapping (Brown & Bird 1986). Several X-located genes have CpG-rich 5' regions; these regions are unmethylated on the active X and methylated on the inactive X (Yen et al. 1984; Keith et al. 1986). This correlation suggests that methylation of CpG-rich regions may play a role in X-inactivation. Consistent with this view the MIC2 CpG-rich region is unmethylated on the inactive X as well as on the active X and Y chromosome (Goodfellow et al. 1988). In this case escape from inactivation is correlated with lack of methylation at the CpG-rich region. Methylation at CpG sites within the body of the gene is variable and shows a poor correlation with X-inactivation (Mondello et al. 1988).

The MIC2 cDNA clones recognize many restriction-fragment polymorphisms in genomic DNA; however, the patterns generated with most restriction enzymes are difficult to analyse. Single-copy probes derived from genomic MIC2 sequences have proved to be more convenient tools for use in family studies and the construction of meiotic maps of the pseudoautosomal region (Goodfellow et al. 1986a). MIC2 probes have also been used in the construction of deletion maps and long-range restriction maps of the Y chromosome.

MAPPING THE Y CHROMOSOME WITH MIC2 PROBES

DNA probes, derived from sequences isolated at random from the human Y chromosome, were used to demonstrate recombination between the X and Y chromosomes and to construct a meiotic map of the pseudoautosomal region (Simmler et al. 1985; Cooke et al. 1985; Rouyer et al. 1986; Goodfellow et al. 1986a). The most distal sequence, DXYS14, exchanges in 50% of cases, implying that an obligate recombination occurs in the pseudoautosomal region in each male meiotic event. In an initial search for recombination events that included the MIC2 locus we studied 46 informative male meioses and found one exchange between the X and Y chromosomes. This constitutes formal proof that MIC2 is a pseudoautosomal gene (Goodfellow et al. 1986a).

Figure 2 summarizes the meiotic maps of the pseudoautosomal region for both male and female meioses. There are dramatic differences in the rates of recombination between the pseudoautosomal marker loci in male versus female meioses. The most proximal marker, MIC2, shows no detectable linkage with the most distal marker, DXYS14, in male meioses. In female meioses, however, MIC2 and DXYS14 recombine at a rate of only 2.4% ($\theta = 0.024$, $Z_1 = 20.0$, one lod unit† confidence interval 0.00-0.05) (combined data of Weissenbach et al. (1987) and our unpublished data). Whereas MIC2 and DXYS17 recombine at a rate of 15% in male meioses, no recombination between the pair of markers is observed in female meioses. The male map is more than ten times larger than the female map and emphasizes the high levels of recombination in this region in males. Both indirect evidence (Mondello et al. 1987;

 \dagger A lod score represents the \log_{10} of the likelihood (L) ratio: L (recombination fraction)/L (0.5).

MIC2: A HUMAN PSEUDOAUTOSOMAL GENE

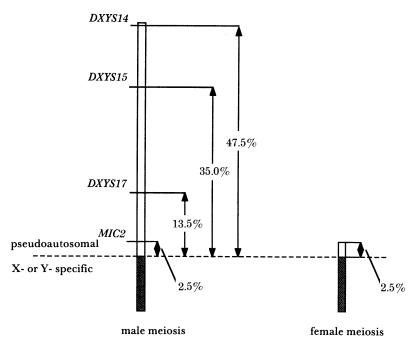


FIGURE 2. Meiotic maps of the pseudoautosomal region for male and female meiosis. Recombination rates with respect to sex-specific sequences and marker loci DXYS14, DXYS15, DXYS17 and MIC2 are given for male meioses. The distances between pairs of markers in male meioses are additive and consistent with values relative to sex-specific sequences. Few recombinants are observed in female meioses and only the estimated genetic size of the region in females is shown. Data are a further compilation of our unpublished results with those compiled by Weissenbach et al. (1987).

Rouyer et al. 1986) and direct measurement using pulsed field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) (J. Weissenbach, this symposium) suggest that the pseudoautosomal region is about 3.0×10^6 b.p. in size. In man, one unit of recombination is on average equated with approximately 1×10^6 b.p. (Renwick 1969). The genetic size of the pseudoautosomal region when measured in female meiosis is consistent with the physical size of the region. In male meiosis, one unit of recombination in the region is equivalent to 1×10^5 b.p. (100 kilobases) or less. Recombination in the pseudoautosomal region in male meiosis therefore occurs at a frequency greater than ten times the genome average.

In summary, MIC2 only rarely exchanges between the sex chromosomes and is the most proximal of the pseudoautosomal markers in man.

A DELETION MAP OF THE Y CHROMOSOME

The genomes of the majority of XX males contain Y chromosome sequences (Affara et al. 1986 a, b; Guellaen et al. 1984; Petit et al. 1987). These sequences derive from an abnormal exchange between the X and Y chromosomes resulting in the transfer of Y sequences, including TDF, to the tip of the X chromosome (Andersson et al. 1986; Buckle et al. 1987). The amount of Y-derived sequences transferred is variable but, by definition, must always include TDF. Analysis of the variable amounts of Y sequences present in XX males has allowed construction of deletion maps of the Y chromosome (Affara et al. 1986 a; Vergnaud et al. 1986). From these maps it was concluded that TDF is located on the distal part of the short arm of Y chromosome

adjacent to the pseudoautosomal region. These studies defined Y-specific proximal flanking markers and implied that MIC2 was the closest known distal flanking marker for TDF.

The regional localization of MIC2 has been exploited to demonstrate that not all XX males are generated by a terminal exchange between the X and Y chromosomes. It was argued that exchange XX males will inherit the Y chromosome allele of MIC2 on the paternal X chromosome (except in 2% of cases in which normal recombination at MIC2 might also occur). Petit et al. (1987) constructed somatic cell hybrids to define the MIC2 allele present on the Y chromosome in the fathers of XX males and were able to demonstrate that in three XX males the Y chromosome MIC2 allele had not been inherited. A similar case was reported by Goodfellow & Goodfellow (1988). However, it should be stressed that the majority of XX males are due to aberrant X-Y exchange.

CONSTRUCTION OF LONG-RANGE RESTRICTION MAPS

PFGE extends the size separation range for DNA molecules in agarose gels up to several million base pairs. Combined with restriction enzymes that cut infrequently in the genome, PFGE can be used to construct long-range restriction maps of complex genomes. Most 'rare cutting' restriction enzymes recognize sequences containing CpG dinucleotide pairs and are sensitive to cytosine methylation. In consequence, 'rare cutting' enzymes frequently cleave the CpG-rich regions found at the 5' end of many genes (Brown & Bird 1986).

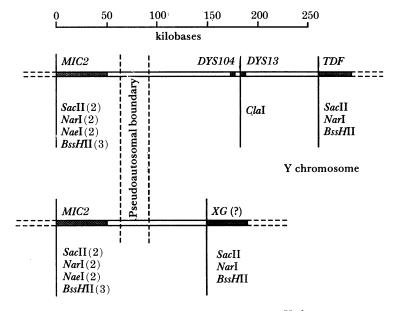
From a series of experiments designed to facilitate 'reverse genetic' approaches to cloning TDF, a Y-specific sequence, DYS104, was isolated from the region adjacent to TDF (Pritchard et al. 1987a). Another sequence, DYS13, with similar properties, was isolated by Affara et al. (1986a,b). Using probes for MIC2, DYS104 and DYS13, a long-range restriction map was constructed (Pritchard et al. 1987b). The starting point for this map was the CpG-rich region at the 5' end of MIC2. This region has been sequenced (Goodfellow et al. 1988) and several sites for 'rare cutting' restriction enzymes were demonstrated to be unmethylated in genomic DNA, providing an 'anchor point' upon which a long-range restriction map was based. The map we obtained contained several features of interest (figure 3).

1. For several enzymes all three sequences are located on the same restriction fragments. As MIC2 is pseudoautosomal and DYS104 and DYS13 are Y-specific these fragments must span the boundary of the pseudoautosomal region. This conclusion was confirmed by demonstrating that MIC2 probes recognize different restriction fragments on the X and the Y chromosomes. The smallest fragment that differs between the X and Y chromosomes is 150 kilobases. This defines the maximum distance between the MIC2 CpG-rich region and the boundary. The position of the boundary has been further localized, by chromosome-walking experiments, to a region within 40 kilobases of the 3' end of the MIC2 gene.

The genetic distance between MIC2 and the boundary is approximately 2.5 cM^{\dagger} . This recombination occurs in a physical distance of only 100 kilobases. Thus there is no evidence for suppression of recombination in the immediate vicinity of the boundary.

- 2. On the Y chromosome there are two clusters of 'rare cutting' cleavage sites detected by the probes. The first cluster is at the 5' end of MIC2, the second cluster is approximately 260 kilobases proximal to MIC2. We suggested that this cluster was defining a gene and, on
- † The morgan is the unit of relative distance between genes on a chromosome. One centimorgan (cM) represents a crossover value of 1%.

MIC2: A HUMAN PSEUDOAUTOSOMAL GENE



X chromosome

151

FIGURE 3. Long-range restriction map across the pseudoautosomal boundary. Rare-cutting restriction-enzyme recognition sites in the MIC2 HTF-island and the X- and Y-specific cluster of sites are shown. The number of sites at the MIC2 island are given in parentheses. The ClaI site that separates DYS104 and DYS13 and their positions relative to it are shown. The positions of DYS104, DYS13 and the pseudoautosomal boundaries were refined by chromosomal walking experiments (our unpublished observations).

the basis of chromosomal location, we predicted that this gene was TDF. This prediction appears to have been confirmed by the elegant studies of Page et al. (1987).

3. On the X chromosome there are also two clusters of 'rare cutting' cleavage sites detected by the MIC2 probe. The second cluster is specific to the X chromosome and we have suggested that this may represent the structural gene for the Xg blood-group antigen. This prediction is based on the finding of genetic interaction between MIC2, XG and a third locus XGR (Goodfellow et al. 1986 b). On red blood cells, expression of the XG antigen and the 12E7 antigen is coordinately regulated in cis by XGR, a pseudoautosomal locus. This locus was previously believed to be Y-specific and was named YG (Goodfellow& Tippett 1981; Tippett et al. 1986). Recombination occurs between XGR and XG, but XGR has not been separated from MIC2 and it is possible that XGR is a polymorphism at the MIC2 locus. Nevertheless, the cis interaction between XGR, MIC2 and XG is easier to understand if XG and MIC2 are in close proximity.

Conclusions

Two pseudoautosomal genes have been defined in mammals: Sts in mouse and MIC2 in man. The murine Sts locus encodes the enzyme steroid sulphatase and this locus exchanges with a high frequency between the sex chromosomes in male meiosis (Keitges et al. 1985). The equivalent locus in man, STS, is not pseudoautosomal, but is located on the X chromosome adjacent to the pseudoautosomal region (Geller et al. 1986; Mondello et al. 1987). STS is subject to only partial X-inactivation (Migeon et al. 1982) and this might imply that STS was originally pseudoautosomal and has been lost recently from the Y chromosome during

evolution. The presence of an incomplete copy of the STS gene on the Y chromosome is consistent with this suggestion (Frazer et al. 1987; Yen et al. 1987).

MIC2, and the related XGR locus, are the only known pseudoautosomal genes in man. The position of MIC2 close to the pseudoautosomal boundary has made it a valuable genetic marker for analysing the structure of the human Y chromosome. In particular, it was possible to construct long-range restriction maps, based on MIC2, which precisely defined the chromosomal location of TDF (Pritchard et al. 1987b; Page et al. 1987). The same restriction maps have located the pseudoautosomal boundary immediately adjacent to the 3' end of the MIC2 gene. It should be possible to clone the boundary region by chromosome-walking methods starting with cloned MIC2 sequences.

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MIC2: A HUMAN PSEUDOAUTOSOMAL GENE

153

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Discussion

- H. Sharma (71 Barrack Road, Hounslow, U.K.) Is there homology to any known protein sequence with MIC genes? Is it conserved in species?
- P. N. Goodfellow. Outside the putative signal sequence we have not detected sequence homology between MIC2 and any other described sequence; this is true both at the protein and nucleotide sequence level.

MIC2-related sequences are present in primates, but have not been detected by high-stringency hybridization in other animals.