

# **CpG Islands in Genes Showing Tissue-Specific Expression**

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# CpG islands in genes showing tissue-specific expression

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Patterns of DNA methylation at CpG dinucleotides and their relations with gene expression are complex. Methylation-free CpG clusters, so-called HTF islands, are most often associated with the promoter regions of housekeeping genes, whereas genes expressed in a single-cell type are usually deficient in these sequences. However, in the human carbonic anhydrase (CA) gene family, both the ubiquitously expressed CAII and the muscle specific CAIII appear to have such CpG islands although erythrocyte-specific CAI does not. The CAII island is quantitatively more CpG rich than that of CAIII, with a CpG:GpC ratio of 0.94 compared with 0.82 for CAIII. Estimation of CpG:GpC ratios in the proximal-promoter regions of 44 vertebrate genes suggest that 40% of genes with tissue-specific or limited tissue distribution may show methylation-free CpG clusters in their promoter regions. In many cases the CpG:GpC ratio is less than that found in housekeeping genes and this may reflect variation in the interaction of CpG clusters with regulatory factors that define different patterns of tissue expression.

### 1. Introduction

Vertebrate DNA contains 5-methylcytosine, which is found almost exclusively in CpG dinucleotides (Gruenbaum et al. 1981). Many studies indicate that CpG methylation is variable and that methylation changes are associated with changes in gene expression (Razin & Riggs 1980; Cedar 1988, and references cited therein). Four classes of methylatable CpG can be distinguished.

- 1. CpGs that are clustered at the 5' ends of genes and are permanently unmethylated in all cell types, including germ cells, and regardless of gene expression so-called 'HTF islands' (Bird 1986, 1987). These CpGs are only methylated on the inactive X-chromosome (Toniolo et al. 1988).
- 2. CpGs that are unmethylated in active genes and bind methylation-sensitive transcription factors (Watt & Molloy 1988; Murray & Grosveld 1987). In these cases, undermethylation is a prerequisite of gene expression and, in contrast to HTF islands, these sites are methylated in non-expressing tissues. This category may be identical with that class of sites that, when demethylated by azacytidine, gives rise to gene expression in cells which are normally non-expressing (Jones 1985).
- 3. CpGs that are scattered along the length of the gene and show an inverse correlation between methylation and gene activity (for review see Crisly & Scangos (1986); Cedar (1988)). In these cases methylation-demethylation seems to be secondary to gene repression-expression, but might be involved in setting the functional state by consequential alteration to DNA conformation and chromatin structure (Buschhausen et al. 1987; Keshet et al. 1986).
- 4. CpGs that are methylated or not in a manner inconsequential to gene expression; for example, in the albumin and  $\alpha$ -fetoprotein genes (Kunnath & Locker 1983) and at the 3' end of the adenine phosphoribosyl transferase gene (Keshet *et al.* 1985).

[ 29 ]

207

2. CpG islands

This paper focuses on the first of these categories, the clustered CpGs. In HTF islands, the G+C content is relatively high, greater than 60%, and CpG dinucleotides occur at a frequency expected on the basis of random dinucleotide occurrence in DNA. This contrasts with bulk genomic DNA where G+C content is about 40% and where CpGs are five times under-represented. Their depletion seems to be the consequence of cytosine methylation and subsequent loss of methylcytosine by its conversion to thymine. The relatively high density of CpGs in HTF islands has been achieved by continuous protection from methylation, and indeed, lack of methylation in all cell types is a diagnostic feature of HTF islands (Bird 1986, 1987). CpG clusters are found most often at the 5' ends of 'housekeeping' genes and are thought to play a role in their constitutive expression. However, this picture is confused by the finding that a small number of tissue-specific genes such as the  $\alpha$ -globin genes (Bird *et al.* 1987), the type II major histocompatibility complex gene (Tykocinski & Max 1985) and the retinol binding-protein gene (d'Onofrio et al. 1985) are associated with candidate HTF islands.

Some of the structural features of CpG clusters and their distribution amongst different genes can be illustrated by considering a single gene family, the carbonic anhydrases (CA).

### 3. METHYLATION PATTERNS IN CARBONIC ANHYDRASE GENES

The human CA gene family provides a comparative system for characterizing DNA methylation patterns as its member genes show diverse tissue and organelle-specific expression (see table 1 for summary and Tashian & Hewett-Emmett (1984) for review). Furthermore, four of the CA genes have been cloned (Barlow et al. 1987; Lloyd et al. 1987; Shapiro et al. 1987; Fernley 1988) and there is evidence for HTF islands at the 5' ends of at least two genes; the ubiquitously expressed CAII (Shapiro et al. 1987) and the muscle specific, CAIII (Edwards et al. 1988).

Table 1. Mammalian carbonic anhydrase gene family catalytic action and tissue DISTRIBUTION

Carbonic anhydrase  $CO_9 + H_9O \rightleftharpoons HCO_9^- + H^+$ 

CAIV membrane CAI erythroid cells (? weak others) kidney, lung CAV mitochondrial CAII erythroid cells others liver CAIII skeletal muscle CAVI secreted (rodent liver) salivary glands

In the 5' flanking regions proximal to the CAII and CAIII genes, the G+C content is 78% and 65%, respectively. In both cases, the CpG:GpC ratio is much higher, 0.94 for CAII and 0.65 for CAIII (table 2), than is found in bulk genomic DNA where the average ratio is about 0.2. In general, the relatively high incidence of CpG within HTF islands is associated with a high frequency of restriction enzymes sites containing this dinucleotide, for both 4-base cutters, such as HpaII (CCGG), and for rarer 6-base cutters such as SacII (CCGCGG). This feature is illustrated in figure 1, that shows HpaII digests of 5' DNA fragments, which encompass the CpG islands of human CAII and CAIII. The high density of *HpaII* sites (mapped in figure 2) is evidenced by the small sizes of the digested fragments, which vary from 26 base pairs (b.p.) to 330 b.p. The incidence of *HpaII* sites in these CA genes is, for example, four to eightfold greater than in the human myoglobin gene (Weller *et al.* 1984), which does not contain a CpG island (figure 2).

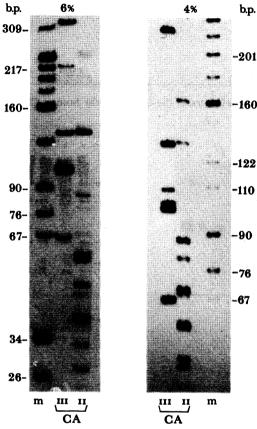


FIGURE 1. Restriction fragment patterns seen after HpaII digestion of a 3.4 kb Hin dIII fragment from the CAIII gene (Lloyd et al. 1987) and a 3.2 kb EcoRI fragment from CAII (Shapiro et al. 1987). Both fragments include the promoter region and exon 1. The HpaII fragments are visualised after end-labelling with the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase I and <sup>32</sup>P dCTP and electrophoresis on 6% and 4% non-denaturing polyacrylamide gels. Lane m (markers) is a <sup>32</sup>P end-labelled HpaII digest of pBR322.

The CpG cluster is maintained by protection from methylation and it is expected that each individual CpG site will be methylation free in all cells at all stages of differentiation and this includes germ cells. However, despite the fact that candidate HTF islands have been identified in most of the cloned 'housekeeping' genes, methylation status has not been established in the great majority of cases. This paucity of data is due to the difficulties associated with detecting the very small DNA fragments generated using methylation-sensitive enzymes (viz; *HpaII* and its methylation insensitive isoschizomer *MspI*). For example, in the analysis of the human CAIII CpG cluster, the smallest fragment detected with reasonable reproducibility by Southern blotting from agarose gels was 228 b.p. (figure 3a). The range of detection can be extended by using a polyacrylamide gel-electroblot procedure (Church & Gilbert 1984; Edwards et al. 1988) that allows the analysis of fragments ranging in size from 400 b.p. down to 50 b.p. (figure 3b). All the expected fragments are seen and intermediate-sized fragments,



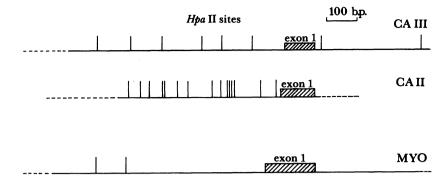


FIGURE 2. The distribution of HpaII sites at the 5' ends of the human CAII, CAIII and myoglobin genes.

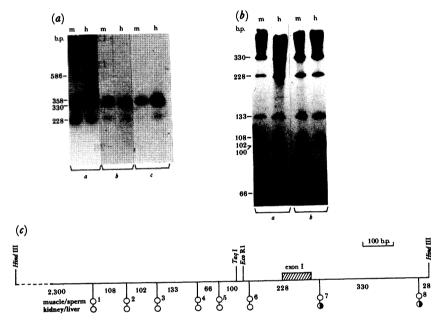


FIGURE 3. Restriction fragment patterns of the CAIII CpG cluster seen after digestion of DNA from human tissues. The DNA was digested with *Hin* dIII before digestion with *Msp*I (lane m) or *Hpa*II (lane h). (a) After Southern blotting from agarose gels: a, liver; b, muscle; c, sperm; (b) after electroblotting from 8% acrylamide gels: a, muscle; b, sperm; (c) Map showing the position and sizes of *Hpa*II fragments at the 5' end of the CAIII gene. Methylation status at each site in DNA from muscle or sperm and kidney or liver is indicated. (0) unmethylated, (a) partially methylated.

which would indicate methylation at one or more sites, are not. Using such a procedure it was possible, in the case of CAIII, to assess methylation at all of the *HpaII* sequences (Edwards et al. 1988); it is worth bearing in mind that not all CpG sites can be tested as only about 30% occur in restriction-enzyme sites.

Our studies have shown that, like many other tissue-specific genes, the CAIII gene shows a tissue-specific pattern of methylation outside the CpG cluster; CpGs are methylated in CAIII non-expressing tissues and unmethylated in the expressing tissue and skeletal muscle (Lloyd et al. 1987). However, immediately upstream of exon 1 in the CpG cluster, there is no methylation in any tissue DNA regardless of expression. Methylation of this region is also absent from sperm DNA (Edwards et al. 1988). Thus human CAIII is in the unusual category of a tissue-specific gene with a methylation-free CpG island.

# 4. CpG islands in tissue-specific genes

It is not clear what role HTF islands play in tissue-specific gene expression. The frequent association of HTF islands with genes that exhibit constitutive expression has led to the suggestion that the 5' sequences enriched in CpGs may be involved in binding ubiquitous transcription factors and that the clustered arrangement of CpGs allows for efficient cooperative binding of multiple factors (Bird 1986). It is tempting to propose that HTF islands in tissue-specific genes are evolutionary remnants and mark an intermediary stage in the conversion from gene control mediated by 'housekeeping' factors to one involving tissuespecific factors (or vice versa). A comparison of the 5' flanking regions of three of the carbonic anhydrase genes provides some support for this notion (table 2). CAII, which is expressed in a wide range of tissues, shows the highest G+C content CpG: GpC ratio of 0.94, whereas CAI, which shows a much more limited tissue distribution does not exhibit a CpG cluster. CAIII which is expressed solely in skeletal muscle in man but is also found in rodent liver, shows a CpG island with intermediate characteristics. In this context it is also interesting to compare the 5' promoter sequences of the human aldolase A gene (Tsutsumi et al. 1985; Maire et al. 1987). Aldolase A contains three different promoter regions determining mRNAs of different length: a distal promoter (N), which governs the synthesis of mRNAs found in a limited range of tissues; a median promoter (M), which is only active in skeletal muscle and a proximal promoter (H), which shows ubiquitous expression. The sequence that contains the H promoter seems to contain an HTF island. It has the highest G+C content (71%) and a CpG:GpC ratio close to 1. The other two promoter regions are intermediate in these characteristics with moderately high CpG:GpC ratios of 0.44 and 0.58 for the N and M promoters, respectively (table 3). The immediate 5' flanking region of aldolase B, a separate gene locus, expressed most abundantly in liver and kidney, but also at low levels in several other tissues, shows a low G+C content of 46% and a relatively low CpG: GpC ratio of 0.38 (table 3, data from rat).

Table 2. Incidence of CpG dinucleotides and recognition sequences for HpaII and the Sp1 transcription factor in the promoter regions of the carbonic anhydrase genes

-300  to  +100	CAII	CAIII	CAI
G+C%	78	65	49
CpG/GpC	0.94	0.65	0.17
HpaII sites	16	8	0
Sp1 sites	9	2	1
tissue specificity	erythroid	muscle	erythroid
	others	(rodent liver)	(? weak others)

Table 3. Incidence of CpG dinucleotides and reconigition sequences for *HpaII* and the Sp1 transcription factor in the promoter regions of aldolase A and B genes<sup>a</sup>

	Hu ALD.A н	Hu ALD.A	Hu ALD.A	Ra ALD.B
G+C%	71	62	60	46
CpG/GpC	0.94	0.44	0.58	0.38
HpaII sites	1	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>	0
Sp1 sites	6	0	1	0
expression	ubiquitous	limited	muscle	limited

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Sequence information from Tsutsumi et al. (1985) and Maire et al. (1987).

## YVONNE H. EDWARDS

The actin gene family also shows 5' promoter regions with variable CpG richness. Exceptionally, among the cloned skeletal muscle actins, the chicken-gene 5' CpG cluster has a high CpG:GpC ratio of 0.96 (for sequence references, see Appendix 1). Some HTF islands occur sporadically within gene families. A well-characterized example is the human  $\alpha$ -globin (Bird et al. 1987), which contains an unmethylated CpG cluster with a high Cpg:GpC ratio of 0.8. In contrast, mouse  $\alpha$ -globin, human  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -globins and human myoglobin all appear to have lost this CpG island.

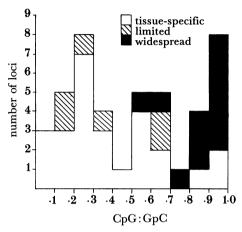


FIGURE 4. Lack of suppression of CpGs in vertebrate genes. 44 vertebrate genes plotted according to the CpG:GpC ratio in their 5'-flanking sequences and including exon 1. Between 200 and 450 b.p. were analysed for each gene. A list of the genes and references to the sequences is given in Appendix 1. The type of tissue expression is indicated.

It is clear from the data that the extent of CpG clustering at the 5' ends of genes is quite variable and that genes cannot be simply divided into those with CpG suppression (no HTF islands) and those without CpG suppression (with HTF islands). Figure 4 shows the distribution of 44 vertebrate genes according to the CpG:GpC ratio in their immediate 5' flanking sequences and first exons. The genes, chosen more or less at random, include 12 that are expressed ubiquitously, nine show limited tissue distribution and 23 are tissue-specific. About half of the genes are grouped around a CpG:GpC ratio of 0.2, the average for genomic DNA, and most of these are tissue-specific except for α-1-antitrypsin, phosphoglycerate mutase M, pyruvate kinase L and aldolase B which are limited in their range of expression. The second peak of 12 genes around a CpG:GpC ratio of 0.9 shows a preponderance of genes with ubiquitous expression, or 'housekeeping' genes, but also includes three that are strictly tissue-specific (chicken skeletal-muscle actin, retinol-binding protein and human α-globin).

Thus overall, the general distribution confirms the earlier conclusion that HTF islands are more commonly associated with constitutively expressed genes and that tissue-specific genes are characterized by an absence of such sequences (Bird 1986). However, amongst this collection of 44 genes, there are 12 that show intermediate levels of CpG retention, with CpG: GpC ratios ranging between 0.47 and 0.75 in their 5' flanking sequences. Most of these are tissue-specific or show limited tissue distribution. It is difficult to be certain whether all of these genes carry bona fide methylation-free HTF islands but in three cases where detailed studies have been made, Thy1 (Kolsto et al. 1986), CAIII (Edwards et al. 1988) and DHFR (Yen et al. 1984), the unmethylated status of the CpG cluster has been confirmed. Gardiner-Garden & Frommer

(1987) in their survey of vertebrate genes also reported ten 'limited expression' genes, other than those described here, with intermediate CpG:GpC ratios (Obs/Exp CpG, 0.63-0.75).

This survey suggests that a substantial proportion, perhaps as many as 40%, of genes with tissue-specific or limited tissue expression may have methylation-free CpG clusters in their promoter regions. This observation raises various questions; for example, are these promoters continuously available to transcription factors and how is expression confined to one or a few cell types? If the CpGs in the cluster are part of recognition sequences for binding factors does the density of CpGs within the cluster relate to the efficiency of binding? In other words, do the clusters of relatively low CpG:GpC ratio bind ubiquitous transcription (or methylation protection) factors less efficiently?

It has been proposed that tissue-specific control may be achieved through a mechanism in which negative control plays a major role. This implies the existence of repressor molecules in tissue where a certain gene is not expressed. The human retinol-binding protein is a possible example (Colantuoni et al. 1987; Bird 1987). The range of nuclear factors and the mode of their binding in CpG islands has yet to be fully established. It has been suggested that the Sp1 transcription factor whose binding site contains CpG (Kadonaga et al. 1986), has a special role in CpG islands, both in transcription regulation and their protection from methylation (Holler et al. 1988). However, these sites do not occur in multiple copies in all CpG clusters, for example, the human retinol-binding protein gene and chicken skeletal-muscle actin gene promoters each have only one Sp1 binding site. Furthermore, the Sp1 factor binds equally well to both methylated and unmethylated DNA (Holler et al. 1988).

## Note added in proof (16 October 1989)

A second promoter on the CAI gene, active in the colon, with a G+C content of 40% and a CpG:GpC of 0.14 has recently been described (Fraser, P., Cummings, P. & Curtis, P. 1989 Molec. Cell Biol. 9, 3308.)

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214

### YVONNE H. EDWARDS

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# CpG ISLANDS IN TISSUE-SPECIFIC GENES

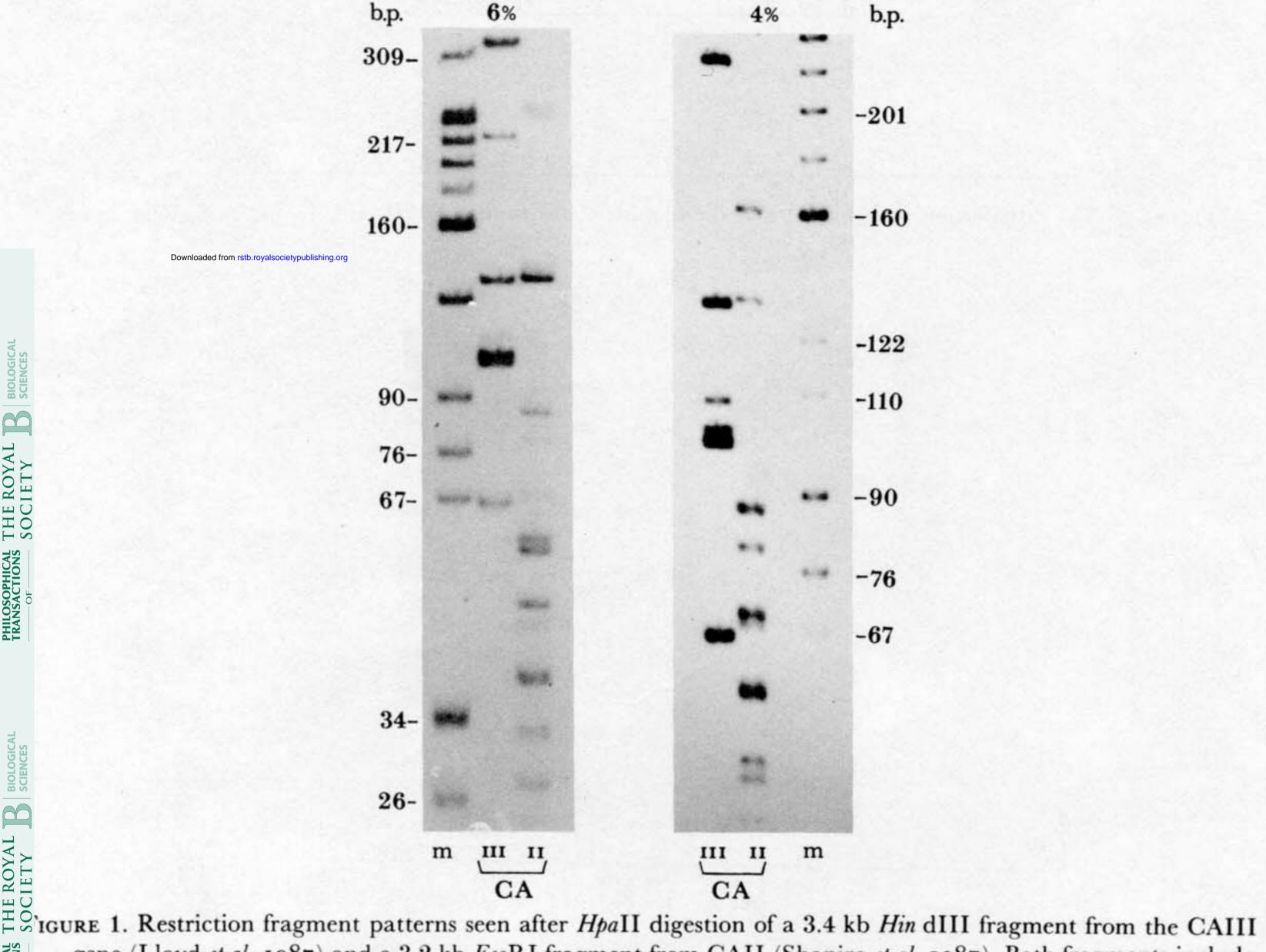
215

# Appendix 1. List of genes and references to their sequences

locus <sup>a</sup>	expression <sup>b</sup>	references
Hu adenosine deaminase	W	Wiginton et al. (1986) Biochemistry 25, 8234.
Hu mt aldehyde dehydrogenase	W	Hsu et al. (1988) Genomics 2, 57.
rat skeletal muscle actin	S	Nudel et al. (1985) Proc. natn. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 82, 3106.
Hu cardiac actin	S	Minty et al. (1986) Molec. cell Biol. 6, 2125.
Chk skeletal muscle actin	L	Nudel et al. (1985) Proc. natn. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 82, 3106.
rat aldolase B	L	Tsutsumi et al. (1985) J. molec. Biol. 181, 153.
Hu aldolase A	W/L/S	Mairie et al. (1987) J. molec. Biol. 197, 425.
Hu α-1 antitrypsin	'L'	Long et al. (1984) Biochemistry 23, 4828.
Hu carbonic anhydrase I	S	Butterworth et al. (personal communication).
Hu carbonic anhydrase II	W	Shapiro et al. (1987) Molec. Cell Biol. 7, 4589.
Hu carbonic anhydrase III	S	Lloyd et al. (1987) Genes Devel. 1, 594.
Mo creatine kinase M	${f L}$	Jaynes et al. (1986) Molec. Cell Biol. 6, 2855.
Hu creatine kinase B	L	Maruman et al. (1987) Genomics 1, 126.
Mo α-A-crystallin	S	King et al. (1983) Cell 32, 707.
Mo dihydrofolate reductase	W	Crouse et al. (1982) J. biol. Chem. 257, 7887.
Hu glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase	W	Toniolo et al. (1984) EMBO J. 3, 1987.
Hu β-globin	S	Efstratiadis (1980) Cell 21, 653.
Hu γ-globin	S	Efstratiadis (1980) Cell 21, 653.
rabbit β-globin	S	Efstratiadis (1980) Cell 21, 653.
Hu γ-globin	S	Baralle et al. (1980) Cell 21, 621.
Hu α-globin	S	Proudfoot et al. (1980) Cell 21, 537.
Mo α-globin	S	Nishioka et al. (1979) Cell 18, 875.
Bo growth hormone	S	Woychik et al. (1982) Nucl. Acids Res. 10, 7197.
Hu growth hormone	S	Woychik et al. (1982) Nucl. Acids Res. 10, 7197.
rat growth hormone	S	Woychik et al. (1982) Nucl. Acids Res. 10, 7197.
Hu glutathione-S-transferase	W	Cowell et al. (1988) Biochem. J. 255, 79.
Hu haptoglobin	S	Benoi et al. (1985) EMBO J. 4, 119.
Mo hypoxanthine guanine ribosyltransferase	: W	Melton et al. (1986) Cell 44, 319.
Hu myoglobin	S	Weller et al. (1984) EMBO J. 3, 439.
Chk myosin heavy chain f	S	Kropp et al. (1986) J. biol. Chem. 261, 6613.
rat myosin light chain 1f	S	Robert et al. (1986) UCLA Symp. Molec. Cell Biol. 29, 487.
rat myosin light chain 3f	S	Robert et al. (1986) UCLA Symp. Molec. Cell Biol. 29, 487.
Mo nerve growth factor α	S	Evans et al. (1985) EMBO J. 4, 133.
Mo nerve growth factor γ	S	Evans et al. (1985) EMBO J. 4, 133.
Hu tissue plasminogen activator	W	Degen et al. (1986) J. biol. Chem. 261, 6972.
rat phosphoenol pyruvate carboxy kinase	S	Short et al. (1986) J. biol. Chem. 261, 9721.
Hu phosphoglycolate mutase M	L	Sakoda & Schon (personal communication).
Hu phosphoglycerate kinase X	W	Singer-Sam et al. (1984) Gene 32, 409.
Chk pyruvate kinase M <sub>1</sub>	$\mathbf L$	Lonberg et al. (1985) Cell 40, 81.
rat pyruvate kinase L	${f L}$	Cognet et al. (1987) J. molec. Biol. 196, 11.
Hu retinol binding protein	S	d'Onofrio et al. (1985) EMBO J. 4, 1981.
Mo Thy 1 antigen	S	Giguere et al. (1985) EMBO J. 4, 2017.
rat tyrosine aminotransferase	S	Shinomiya et al. (1984) Proc. natn. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 81, 1346.
Hu superoxide dismutase A	W	Levanon et al. (1985) EMBO J. 4, 77.

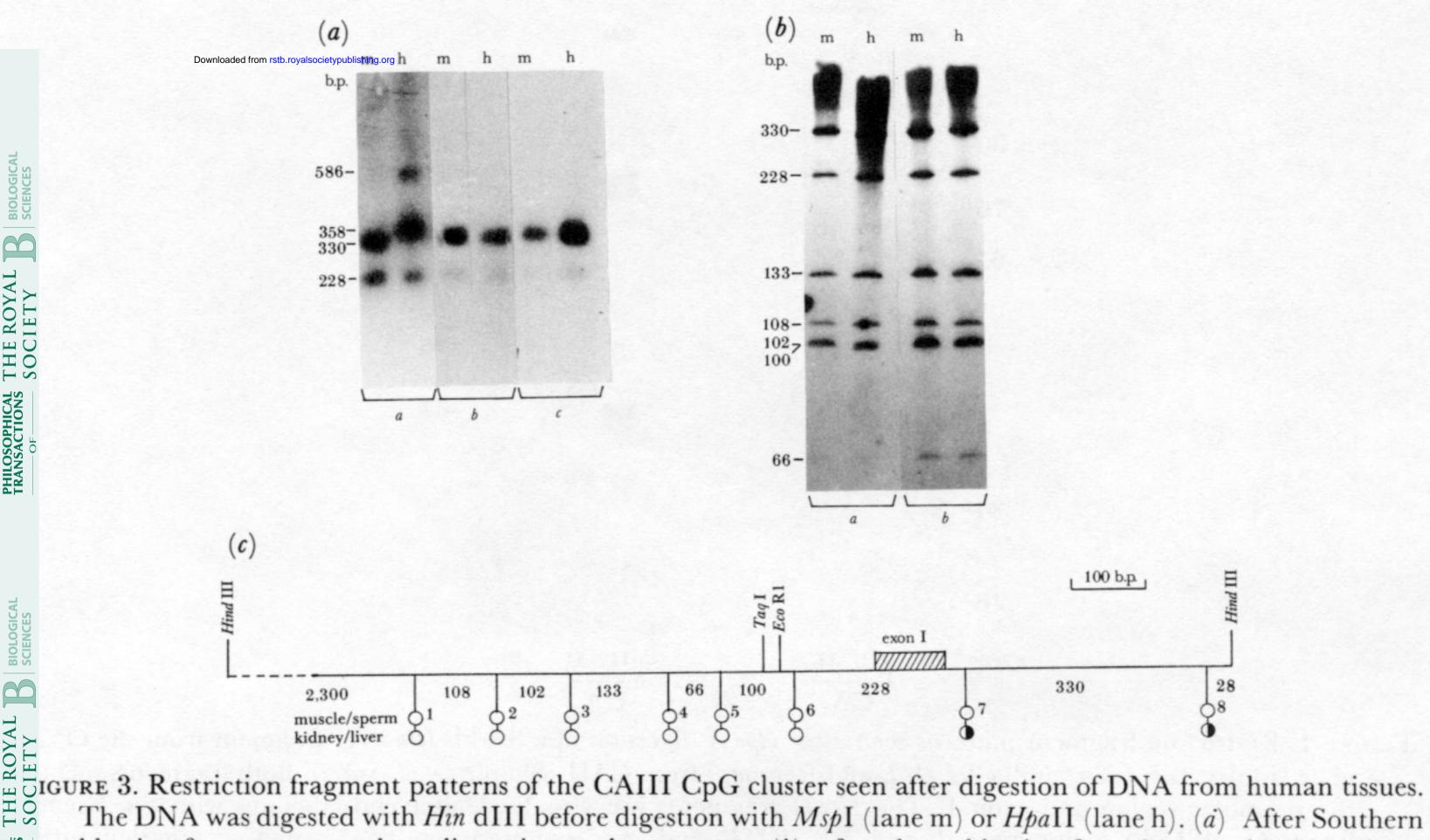
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Hu, human; Chk, chicken; Mo, mouse; Bo, bovine.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> W, widespread; L, limited; S, tissue specific.



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gene (Lloyd et al. 1987) and a 3.2 kb EcoRI fragment from CAII (Shapiro et al. 1987). Both fragments include the promoter region and exon 1. The HpaII fragments are visualised after end-labelling with the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase I and 32P dCTP and electrophoresis on 6% and 4% non-denaturing polyacrylamide gels. Lane m (markers) is a <sup>32</sup>P end-labelled *HpaII* digest of pBR322.



blotting from agarose gels: a, liver; b, muscle; c, sperm; (b) after electroblotting from 8% acrylamide gels: a, muscle; b, sperm; (c) Map showing the position and sizes of HpaII fragments at the 5' end of the CAIII gene. Methylation status at each site in DNA from muscle or sperm and kidney or liver is indicated. (0) unmethylated, (o) partially methylated.