Haplotype Evolution of SLITRK1, a Candidate Gene for Gilles de la Tourette Syndrome

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Gilles de la Tourette Syndrome (GTS) is a complex disorder with a clear genetic component but no clearly identified genes with variation of etiologic relevance. Various candidate regions and genes show some evidence of affecting risk, though clearly not all patients/families can be explained by any one of them. Resequencing one candidate gene, SLITRK1, has identified four new variants. Including them, we have typed over 2,300 normal individuals from 44 populations for 11 SNPs spanning the gene. The unusual global pattern seen is that one non-ancestral haplotype is the single most common haplotype worldwide. Other haplotypes appear to result from accumulation of mutations with no evidence of historical recombination. Although there is no evidence of selection, the haplotype frequency variation seen around the world will need to be considered in any future association studies of this locus with GTS or any other neuropsychiatric disorder.

INTRODUCTION

Gilles de la Tourette Syndrome (GTS) is a neuropsychiatric disease found in populations worldwide, although accurate estimates of regional disease prevalence have been affected by inconsistency among diagnostic criteria [Singer, 2005]. Attempts to map the disease by linkage have been unable to come up with a gene of major effect [see The Tourette Syndrome Association, 2007 for review]. However, by studying a GTS patient with a de novo chromosome 13 inversion, the gene SLITRK1 was implicated as one cause of GTS [Abeleson et al., 2005]. SLITRK1 is predominantly expressed in the cerebral cortex [Aruga et al., 2003] and induces neurite outgrowth [Aruga and Mikoshiba, 2003], making it a strong candidate as a gene of major effect. More recent work [Züchner et al., 2006] has implicated SLITRK1 mutations in trichotillomania, which, like GTS, has obsessive-compulsive features.

Haplotype analysis is a powerful way to analyze the effect of putative causative SNPs in genes of interest. In previous studies of COMT [Palmatier et al., 2004], we found the haplotype associated with schizophrenia by Shifman et al. [2002] to have a limited distribution around the world with obvious implications to schizophrenia studies in other populations. Our extended COMT haplotype that included the P2 promoter SNP pointed to the relevance to schizophrenia of that promoter. In order to allow researchers to accurately dissect the haplotypes at SLITRK1, using appropriate regional frequencies, we undertook to identify as many SNPs as possible at SLITRK1 and to determine the global pattern of haplotype frequencies. While dbSNP details eight SNPs within the SLITRK1 gene, only three SNPs were confirmed with frequency information, and no detailed examination of haplotypes and their frequencies has previously been conducted.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS

Samples

For resequencing, 24 individuals affected with GTS were selected from families and sib-pair trios from Canada, Michigan, Oregon, Germany, and Hungary. Individuals were selected from divergent branches within the larger families to broaden the genetic variability of the resequencing sample. The North American samples have been studied in our lab previously [Zhang et al., 2002; Paschou et al., 2004] and the pedigrees have been described in detail elsewhere [Kurlan et al., 1986; Pauls et al., 1990; Pakstis et al., 1991]. Polymorphisms found by resequencing were studied in samples of 44 populations to calculate allele and haplotype frequencies. These populations include 10 African (Biaka, Mbuti, Yoruba, Ibo, Hausa, Chagga, Masai, Sandawe, Ethiopian Jews, and African Americans); 3 Southwest Asian (Yemenite Jews, Druze, Samaritans); 10 European (Adygei, Chuvash, Vologda Russians, Archangel Russians, Ashkenazi Jews, Finns, Hungarians, Danes, Irish, and European Americans); 2 Northwest Asian (Komi Zyrians, Khanty), 8 East Asian (Chinese from San Francisco, Taiwan Han Chinese, Hakka, Koreans, Japanese, Ami, Atayal, Cambodians), 1 Siberian (Yakut), 2 from Pacific Islands (Nasioi Melanesians, Micronesians), 4 North American (Cheyenne, Pima from Arizona, Pima from Mexico, Maya), and 4 South American (Quechua, Ticuna, Rondonia Surui, Karitiana). Sample descriptions and sample sizes can be found in ALFRED (http://alfred.med.yale.edu) starting from the UIDs provided in Table I.
TABLE I. Polymorphisms at SLITRK1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site #</th>
<th>dbSNP</th>
<th>TaqMan ID</th>
<th>chr 13 position</th>
<th>Ancestral</th>
<th>Avg. HET</th>
<th>Fst</th>
<th>ALFRED UID</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>rs9531519</td>
<td>C_1797115_10</td>
<td>83,347,193</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.270</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>SI003944U</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>E_218516_10</td>
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<td>0.274</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>SI003902O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>rs3164</td>
<td>C_26349388_10</td>
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<td>0.352</td>
<td>0.086</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.044</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
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<td>E_9602296_10</td>
<td>83,350,393</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>SI003901N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>C_25709799_10</td>
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<td>0.128</td>
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<td>0.039</td>
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<td>0.040</td>
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<td>0.089</td>
<td>SI003898C</td>
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</table>

The numeric values for allele frequencies at each of the sites can be found under the site UID in ALFRED (http://alfred.med.yale.edu). Positions are based on UCSC sequence build #hg17. The average heterozygosity and Fst are based on the 44 populations listed in the text. The newly identified SNPs are identified with an asterisk.

Resequencing

Affected individuals were selected for two reasons. First, the hope was to find causative SNPs in the coding and/or regulatory regions of the gene. Alternatively, informative SNPs in the families could be identified for linkage studies. Secondly, if this putative disease gene has undergone negative selective pressure, the linked variation on the disease-carrying chromosome may be at lower frequency within the population, and we wished to enrich our search pool for such variation.

Long range PCR was performed using a mixture of Taq, Pfu, and Pwo enzymes with the primers PROM1F and 3’UTR7R [supplementary data, Abelson et al., 2005] on an ABI 3730xl by W.M. Keck Foundation Biotechnology Resource Laboratory showed no allelic bias in the long-range amplification, based on heterozygote peak heights in the electropherograms.

Marker Typing

Polymorphisms discovered by resequencing were then typed on a set of representative populations by the TaqMan TM (Applied Biosystems) method [Livak, 1999]. We determined the ancestral states of the SNPs by using the same TaqMan assays to genotype genomic DNA for nonhuman primates—three chimpanzees (Pan troglodytes), three gorillas (Gorilla gorilla), three orangutans (Pongo pygmaeus), and three bonobos (Pan paniscus). The newly identified SNPs are identified with an asterisk.

Analyses

Genotype and allele frequencies for each individual site were calculated by direct gene counting, assuming biallelic codominant inheritance. The Hardy–Weinberg test was executed by an auxiliary program, FENGEN, which also creates the input file for the program HAPLO [Hawley and Kidd, 1995] from raw data records. Maximum-likelihood estimates of haplotype frequencies were calculated from the individual multi-site phenotypes of individuals in each population using the program HAPLO [Hawley and Kidd, 1995].

RESULTS

Four new and seven previously reported SNPs were identified by resequencing at the SLITRK1 locus (Table I). All 2,326 individuals in the 44 population samples were typed for these 11 SNPs. The SNPs spanned 8.3 kb. SNPs 8-11 are in the 1.8 kb upstream of the SLITRK1 initiation codon; SNPs 1–7 are in the 4.3 kb downstream from the termination codon. None was found in 43 sites; ss68095332 marker showed significantly significant deviation from Hardy–Weinberg in any of the populations. Twelve haplotypes were found with frequency greater than 5% in at least one population; all but haplotypes #7, #10, and #11 (cf. Fig. 2) were directly observed, that is, occurred in individuals with a genotype of zero or only one heterozygous SNP. Frequencies of the seven most frequent haplotypes are graphed in Figure 1. These 12 haplotypes account for 94.6–100% of the chromosomes in all populations. The ancestral haplotype (Fig. 2), inferred from genotyping non-human primates, was not seen in any population. The globally most common haplotype differs from the ancestral haplotype by two single nucleotide polymorphisms (rs3164 and rs9546538) and is the most common haplotype in every population, ranging in frequency from 38.9% to 68.0%. The haplotype and individual site frequencies for these populations are available online at http://alfred.med.yale.edu/alfred/recordinfo.asp?condition=loci.locus_uid=lo001745r.

All of the common haplotypes can be explained by accumulation of variation on the ancestral haplotype with no recombination within the 8.3 kb region (Fig. 2). Most of the directly observed haplotypes can be ordered in pairs differing by one derived nucleotide change; in one case two changes are required (asterisk (*) in Fig. 2). Collectively, these unambiguously generate two chains, each starting with a separate single derived nucleotide change from the ancestral haplotype: ancestor to #8, #8 to both #1 & #9, #9 to #4, #4 to #5; and separately ancestor to #6, #6 to #3, #6 with two steps to #2, #2 to #11. Any other evolutionary arrangement of these haplotypes would require more mutations, including back mutations. The inferred haplotype #7 differs by only one derived nucleotide substitution from haplotype #6. While not directly observed, haplotype #7 has estimated frequencies of up to 13% in over a dozen populations. The tree in Figure 2 requires two instances of recurrent “mutation”: rs3773193 mutating from A to G to produce haplotypes #3 and #12; ss68095332 mutating from A to C to produce haplotypes 10 and 11. In both cases one of the two haplotypes is seen in several populations and definitely present (haplotypes #8 and #11) and the other is inferred to be present in only one isolated population but at frequencies unlikely to be errors of inference (#12 at 6.5% in Nasioi; #10 at 8.5% in Mbuti). Thus, rare double crossovers (“gene conversions”) or recurrent mutations could have occurred and drifted to detectable frequencies in those populations. These rare haplotypes fit into the tree differing from a common definitely present haplotype by only the recurrent “mutation”; any other location would require additional mutations.
It is somewhat rare to find a single, non-ancestral haplotype that spans 8.3 kb at such high worldwide frequency, given that five of the SNPs have heterozygosities greater than 0.25. HapMap data for this region shows a linkage disequilibrium ‘block’ encompassing these SNPs in their Caucasian (CEU) sample, but haplotype diversity in their Asian (CHB + JPT) and African (YRI) samples. Based on the HapMap, we would have expected more haplotype diversity in our non-European populations. Low haplotype diversity can be one indication of a recent selective sweep or continued selective pressure at a locus. In looking at the SNP data, Fst values ranged from 0.038 to 0.128; there is no indication in any population of an increase in Fst accompanied by a decrease in heterozygosity, indications of a selective sweep. While the 8.3 kb region is too short to look for long range effects on haplotype homozygosity [by using EHH or REHH; Sabeti et al., 2002], values of haplosimilarity for each SNP in each population ranged from 7.8 to 22.0, not varying outside the normal range seen across chromosome 22 [Hanchard et al., 2006].

Combining these observations, it is unlikely that the worldwide, high frequency, non-ancestral haplotype at SLITRK1 has been the target of positive selection; instead, its frequency is likely due to drift. Among the remaining haplotypes

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**Fig. 1.** SLITRK1 haplotype frequencies based on 44 populations for 11 SNPs spanning 8.3 kb region. The seven most common haplotypes are displayed as averages for the populations in each of the major geographic regions. The other haplotype frequencies with non-zero frequency estimates are combined into the residual class. Numeric values for these seven haplotypes in each of the 44 populations are available in ALFRED along with the frequencies of the five additional haplotypes that were estimated to occur with a frequency of at least 5% in at least one population (see Fig. 2) but are included in the residual of very rare haplotypes in this figure.

**Fig. 2.** Proposed evolution of SLITRK1 haplotypes. The 12 haplotypes shown are those that occur with a frequency of at least 5% in at least one population. The boxed haplotype is the ancestral state as determined by non-human primate genotypes. The globally most common haplotype is circled. Haplotype diversity can be one indication of a recent selective sweep or continued selective pressure at a locus. In looking at the SNP data, Fst values ranged from 0.038 to 0.128; there is no indication in any population of an increase in Fst accompanied by a decrease in heterozygosity, indications of a selective sweep. While the 8.3 kb region is too short to look for long range effects on haplotype homozygosity [by using EHH or REHH; Sabeti et al., 2002], values of haplosimilarity for each SNP in each population ranged from 7.8 to 22.0, not varying outside the normal range seen across chromosome 22 [Hanchard et al., 2006].

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Combining these observations, it is unlikely that the worldwide, high frequency, non-ancestral haplotype at SLITRK1 has been the target of positive selection; instead, its frequency is likely due to drift. Among the remaining haplotypes
observed, considerable diversity in frequency is seen, espe-
cially between African populations and the rest of the world.
Such variability should be taken into account in further studies
of the association of this locus with GTS.

ELECTRONIC DATABASES CITED

UCSC http://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgGateway.

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