

Clinical and Genetic Analysis of Alopecia and Ectodermal Dysplasia in Three Consanguineous Families

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Fatima Ansar Abbasi

Department of Biochemistry Faculty of Biological Sciences Quaid-i-Azam University Islamabad, Pakistan 2021

IBRAR

In the Name of ALLAH, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful.

CERTIFICATE

This thesis, submitted by **Ms. Fatima Ansar Abbasi** to the Department of Biochemistry, Faculty of Biological Sciences, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad, Pakistan, is accepted in its present form as satisfying the thesis requirement for the Degree of Master of Philosophy in Biochemistry/Molecular Biology.

Supervisor:

Dr. Wasim Ahmad Professor

External Examinar:

Dr. Muhammad Jawad Hassan Associate Professor National University of Medical Sciences The Mall Road, Rawalpindi.

Dr. Iram Murtaza Professor

Chairperson:

Dated:

November 23,2021

Declaration

I hereby declared that the work presented in this thesis is my own effort and hard work and it is written and composed by me. No part of this thesis has been previously published or presented for any other degree or certificate.

Fatima Ansar Abbasi

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ABSTRACT

Skin, via its interaction with the external environment, has a protective role along with the distinctive functions oflubrication and thermoregulation. The skin appendages that includes the teeth, nails, hair and sweat glands share common functions like immune surveillance, epidermal barrier, and role in pigmentation and defense mechanism in the skin. Human hair is an utter epitome of aesthetics in our culture. Approximately 5 billion hair are present in humans that act as an outer protective covering. The defects in the expression of the genes that are particularly present in the human hair follicle are associated with the congenital hair loss disorders (CHLD) or Alopecia. Moreover, the phenotypes involving the dry skin, scaling and hyperkeratosis comes under the large group disorders termed as palmoplantar keratoderma (PPK). The molecular characterization of the clinical features underlying PPK have developed a concrete understanding by identifying pathogenic mutations in the genes that have crucial role in skin barrier formation.

The study; presented in the dissertation, potentially investigated the clinical and molecular characterization of three families (A, B, and C) of the Pakistani origin exhibiting consanguineous unions, segregating different types of autosomal recessive congenital hair and ectodermal dysplasia. Family A and B were sampled from Khyber Pakhtunkhwa while family C was sampled from Baluchistan. Family A presented isolated fonn of alopecia, family B inherited syndromic form of alopecia while family C showed features of PPK with hyperkeratotic plaques on the skin surface of palms, soles ankles, and between the digits. With the aim of establishing the linkage analysis in all the three families, genotyping using the microsatellite markers was performed. The affected individuals present in all the three families were found to be heterozygous for different parental alleles' combinations thus, excluding the families for linkage to pre-existing genes/loci. Furthermore, in the family B and C, Sanger sequencing of single-exon containing genes, *GlB6* and *GlA]* , was performed by dideoxy chain termination method. Analysis of the results failed to show any phenotypic variant, suggesting the involvement of either the regulatory sequences of the genes or another unknown gene present in the same region.

Clinical and Genetic A nalysis of A lopecia ami Ectodermal Dysplasia in Three COl1sallf(lIineOllS Families

Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The skin being the largest organ with its characteristic protective role interacts with the external environment along with distinctive functions of thermoregulation and lubrication. The two structural layers of skin; "epidermis" and "dermis" are separated through basal membrane (Chuong et al., 2002). Epidermis being a stratified epithelium has self-renewal, differentiation and proliferation properties (Segre, 2006). It is divided into five layers; stratum corneum, basal layer, upper spinous layer, lower spinous layer, and granular layer (Byrne *et aI.,* 2003). The derivation of dermis (corium) from mesoderm makes it a barrier between epidermis and the hypodermis. Different glands, follicles, papillary and reticular layer are the constituents of dermis. The next underlying layer of loose connective tissues and adipose tissues is termed as hypodermis that shows variation in thickness in different body parts (Clark, 1985).

Ectodermal Appendages

The major skin appendages (teeth, hair, nail, glands) share the unique functions as they act as an epidermal barrier, have role in pigmentation and immune surveillance as well as defense mechanism in the skin (Ross and Christiano, 2006).

Nail

The nail being, a keratinous ectodermal appendage, protects the intricate tenninal phalanx (Baran *et al.,* 2012). Nail development is aided by the interlinkage ofBMP4, FGF4, Wnt7A and SHH signaling (Chuong et al., 1996). Transcription factors like *LMX1, MSXl* and *Engrailed-l* also aid in this regard (Chen *et aI. ,* 1998; Jumlongras *et al. ,2001).*

Teeth

Teeth, parts of craniofacial skeleton, have two main parts: the visible portion being the crown and the anchoring part is the root, which holds them to the jawbone, The mineral component of their assembly is enamel, dentin and cementum (Hu and Simmer, 2007). Signaling pathways i.e, WNT, SHH, BMP, FGF and their transcription factors triggers

the teeth development (TFs) (Tucker and Sharpe, 2004; Sartaj and Sharpe, 2006; Hu and Simmer, 2007; Mikkola, 2007).

Sweat **Glands**

Tubular and coiled glands that are highly active mini-organs of skin. Homeostatic body temperature is maintained by sweat glands. Shh signaling is involved in sweat gland inititation and subsequent ductal growth. Transcription factors of the Fox family play an important function in controlling sweat glands secretions (Kunisada *et al., 2009).*

Hair

Humans have approximate 5 million hair (Lai-Cheong and McGrath, 2013) that functions as the protective barrier in the form of the outer covering and is a symbol of aesthetic significance in our culture (McKittrick *et aI.,* 2012). Human hair development is compromised in several congenital hair disorders, broadly categorized as Alopecias that can either be isolated or syndromic or occasionally appear with certain other diseased phenotypes. Ectodermal appendages, when defected, rarely overlap with the defects of the hair a condition termed as ectodennal dysplasia. Nonetheless, it is also reported that the defects of hair are shown with unrelated phenotypes (Duverger and Morasso, 2014).

Hair follicle defects underlie a large majority of hair related disorders. It is the region where hair formation and growth initiates. Different layers of the keratinocytes and the trichocytes form hair follicle because ofthe mesenchymal-epithelial association (Qi and Garza, 2014).

Hair Structure and Formation

Melanin, water, lipids, proteins and a trace amount of elements make up the hair (Harrison and Sinclair, 2003). There are various hair types including the lanugo, vellus, and terminal hair that are seen to be shedding soon after birth, fine hair spread mostly on the body and are long with coarse nature respectively (Lai-Cheong and McGrath, 2017).

The average diameter of a hair fiber is about 50-100 μ m (Yu *et al.*, 2017). Epidermally derived hair comprises majorly of two parts *i.e.* hair follicle which is present in the skin and hair shaft-the visible part seen outside the body (Buffoli *et al.,* 2014). Hair shaft has cross-sectionally following parts: cuticle, cortex, and medulla. Outermost part maintaining mechanical behavior of hair is cuticle. Closely arranged spindle cells, the keratin filaments and the sulphur proteins constitute the cortex that further strengthens the hair is the cortex (Yu *et al., 2017)*. The central portion, consisting of specialized cells with air spaces, is not always necessarily present is the medulla. Only the terminal hair are reported to possess medulla. Previously medulla was found to provide insulation but this role has now been redundant (Harrison and Sinclair, 2003; Lai-Cheong and McGrath, 2017).

Figure 1: Structure of human hair (Erdogan, 2017)

Hair follicle

A complex structure (Beigi, 2018) that contains two parts: outer hair root sheath provides protection to growing hair by surrounding hair follicle, and the inner root sheath continues throughout HS till the sebaceous gland opening. Dermal papilla, present at the hair follicle base, is abounded by sensory nerves and also the blood vessels (Gordon *et al.,* 20l3). Hair bulb, being the hub of growing hair, is present in the dennal papilla. Hair bulge also resides in hair follicle and has both mesenchymal and epithelial stem cells. Anector pili muscles are inserted in the hair bulb that upon contraction gives goosebumps (Lai-Cheong and McGrath, 2017).

Hair Follicle Cycle

HF grows dynamically during a nonnal hair growth cycle (Buffoli *et al.,* 2014) and exhibits three substantial phases namely the anagen, catagen and telogen phase. The longest (about 3-10 years) and the active growth phase is anagen phase. Approximately 84% hair remains in this phase and the hair grows about 1 cm/month (Wolff *et al.,* 2016). The shortest (3-4 weeks) and the growth halt phase is the catagen phase. Approximately only 1% of the hair remain in the growth interruption phase (Qi and Garza, 2014). Hair growth cycle ends with an average length phase (3 -4 months) which is the telogen phase where hair loss occurs prior to beginning of a new cycle. About 15% hair stay in the last hair loss phase (Lai-Cheong and McGrath, 2013; Spano and Donovan, 2015).

Hair Functions

Hair is a unique keratinized epidennal derivative that is specifically confined to mammals, mostly spread all over the body except few areas like external genitalia regions, foot sole, palms and lips buccal area. Despite the special and appealing feature in human females, it has a role in skin protection and homeothermy. The androgenindependent hair like eyebrows and eyelashes protect eyes by stopping things from entering them. Head and neck are protected against physical damage, sunlight and severe cold conditions by the scalp hair (Randall and Botchkareva, 2009). Hair also functions in communication be it social or sexual by displaying the sensory function and increasing the skin's perception of various stimuli. Hair have different types on the basis of forms (wavy, straight, and helical), length, diameter, color and cross-sectional shape (Olabiyi *et al.,* 2008; Randall and Botchkareva, 2009; Ito and Wakamatsu, 2011). Hair may be categorized as dead or living depending upon whether it is present inside the skin or outside (Buffoli *et al.,* 2014).

Hair Morphogenesis

During early embryogenesis, the epidermal-dermal junction is the basis for HF morphogenesis having three different stages; induction followed by organogenesis and the last stage is cytodifferentiation (Rishikaysh *et al.,* 2014). In induction phase epidermal thickens and forms hair placode. Next phase is organogenesis that causes the mesenchymal cells to condensate below the placode. This step forms the basis for the origination of the follicular bud (hair germ). Mesenchymal condensate proliferates with the epithelial cells that invaginate the dermis. Dermal condensate fonnation is a signal for the hair follicle formation (Yang and Cotsarelis 2010; Welle and Wiener, 2016) and induces dermal papilla formation in the last step of the HF morphogenesis i.e. cytodifferentiation (Welle and Wiener, 2016).

Molecular Pathways in Hair Morphogenesis

The interaction between epithelial and mesenchymal cells by triggering signaling pathways like Wnt or β -catenin, Notch, BMP and hedgehog (HH) pathways are essential for hair follicle development. According to Huang *et al.* (2012), β-catenin/Wnt signaling is the chief regulator of induction phase of HF morphogenesis. Wnt pathway exerts its effects by NF-KB /EDA/EDAR signaling cascade that have hair follicle initiation and primary placode maintenance roles (Biggs and Mikkola 2014). The NF-KB enhances the Shh ligand expression. The sonic hedgehog pathway is involved in morphogenesis and late differentiation. Interaction of laminin-511 and dermal β -1 integrin results in primary cilia formation and enhances the expression of Shh pathway's downstream effectors in dermal lineage. Epithelial PDGF-A association with PDGFRa found on primary cilia also initiates the PDGF signaling. Subsequently, noggin expression is upregulated by dermal Shh and the PDGF signal transduction. Noggin inhibits BMP signaling which blocks B-catenin. Stem cell fate is determined by Notch signaling that is upregulated by the Wnt pathway (Welle and Wiener, 2016). Whereas cellular differentiation is controlled by BMP signaling. Epithelial Shh signaling is upregulated upon communication between dermal and epithelial lineage (Rishikaysh, 2014).

Hair Loss Disorders/Alopecia

The hair follicle expresses a wide range of genes and their underlying defects provide insights for the congenital hair loss disorders (CHLD) or broadly termed as Alopecia particularly in humans. There are approximately 50 CHLD reported which are bifurcated broadly into two forms syndromic or isolated (Shimomura, 2012).

Congenital Alopecia

Loose Anagen Hair Syndrome

Loose Anagen Syndrome (MIM 600628), an autosomal dominant (AD) disorder in which early keratinization of IRS of HF promotes loose attachment of the anagen hair to the HF (Dhurat and Deshpande, 2010; Swink and Castelo-Soccio, 2016; Xu *et al.,* 2017). Individuals with LAS have mutations reported in keratin clusters and the candidate genes include *HRAS* (MIM 190020) *K6HFIKRT75* (MIM 609025), *K6IRSIKRT72* (MIM 608246) and *TKFC* (MIM 615844) (Chapalain *et at., 2002;* Dhurat and Deshpande, 2010; Onoufriadis *et aI.,* 2020) The disease is associated with numerous other congenital abnormalities like coloboma (MIM 120200, 216820), neurofibromatosis-Noonan syndrome (MIM 601321) (Tosti *et af.,* 1991 ; Chapalain *et al.*, 2002).

Short Anagen Syndrome

A hair cycle disorder that prevents long hair growth because the anagen phase is short while telogen phase is longer than usual. Children experience short hair by birth. SAS patients shed hair of almost similar length in the telogen phase as compared to the LAS patients who shed hair of different lengths in the anagen phase. The nature of the SAS is the same as LAS in terms of benign nature and self-limiting growth (Herskovitz *et al.,* 2013). The genetic defects lie in the keratin clusters (Giacomini and Starace, 2011) but the specific genes are yet to be identified. *SPINK5* (MIM 605010) and *DKKJ* (MIM 605189) may be associated with the diseased phenotypes. SAS is associated with trichodental dysplasia (MIM 601453) (Kersey, 1987; Avashia *et af.,* 2010) and the genes include *TP63* (603273), *TRPSJ* (604386) and *DLX3* (MIM 600525).

Aplasia Cutis Congenital

Aplasia cutis congenital (MIM 107600) is the cutaneous tissue deficiency which mostly includes the scalp. Patients are born with a single lesion on the limbs, trunks or on the scalp with scarring alopecia. Infection, hemorrhage, or thrombosis may occur inside the lesion (Brzezinski *et al.,* 2015). ACC appears in both the forms i.e. isolated as well as the syndromic. Adams-Oliver syndrome (MIM 100300), Wolf-Hirschhorn syndrome (MIM 194190), Johanson-Blizzard syndrome (MIM 243800), SEN syndrome (MIM 181270) Trisomy 13 are the syndromic forms of ACC (Rodriguez-Garcia *et al. , 2011)* and the genes includeARHGAP3 1 (MIM 610911) *BMS]* (MIM 611448), *UBRJ* (MIM *60598 1), DOCK6* (MIM 614194), *KCTD]* (MIM 181270), *RBPJ* (MIM 1471 83), *EOGT* (MIM 614789), NOTCH1 (MIM 190198) (Marneros, 2013; Marneros, 2015).

Congenital Triangular Alopecia

A benign non-scarring alopecia previously termed temporal triangular alopecia that shows that the patients exhibit left-sided patches of alopecia that are lancet-shaped, oval, or triangular most frequently involve the frontotemporal scalp (Li *et al.*, 2015). CTA is associated with Trisomy 21 (MIM 190685) and phakomatosis pigmentovascularis. The molecular and the genetic causes of CTA are yet not clear.

Congenital Atrichia

Congenital atrichia (MIM 203655) having AR pattern of inheritance, causes complete loss of hair. Hairless gene *(HR;* MIM 602302) containing 19 exons is mapped on chromosome 8p21-22 (Ahmed *et al.,* 1999) that causes congenital atrichia. The presence of papular lesions on torso region as well as face, neck, scalp and extremities is also presented in patients segregating congenital atrichia. Syndromic forms of congenital atrichia are hidrotic ectodermal dysplasia (MIM 601375) progeria (MIM 176670) and Moynahan syndrome (MIM 203600) (Alves and Grimalt, 2015).

Congenital Hypotrichosis

Hypotrichosis refers to the clinically diverse group of conditions that manifest little to complete hair loss from either scalp region or from the other parts of the body as well. It may be exhibited by the generations either in isolated or syndromic form (Basit *et al.,* 2015).

The types of hypotrichosis that segregate in an autosomal dominant (AD) pattern include:

Hereditary Hypotrichosis Simplex Type 1

HHS1 or HYPT1 (MIM 605389) occurs due to the thinning of scalp hair along with short and sparse body hair. Particularly, the region on the top of head bears lesser hair whereas temples have a bit dense hair. Normal eyelashes, eyebrows and beard are observed (Shimomura *et al.*, 2010). Molecular analysis showed the involvement of 5 exon containing *APCDDl* (MIM 607479) gene spanning a region of 40 kb on chromosomal location 18pl1.32-pl1.23 (Baumer *et al.,* 2000). Until now only one missense mutation has been reported that changes leucine to arginine (Shimomura *et al.*, 2010; HGMD, 2021). According to uniprot, the membrane tethering protein *APCDDl* contains a signal sequence domain, a transmembrane domain, and a transmembrane helix domain. Further, it is reported to be an inhibitor of Wnt pathway (Shimomura *et al.,* 2010).

Hereditary Hypotrichosis Scalp Type 2

Hereditary Hypotrichosis Scalp Type 2 (OMIM 146520) involves less scalp hair in infants that progresses to adulthood, while the other body hair is normal including eyelashes, eyebrows, and beard. The HYPT 2 causing gene *CDSN* (Comeodesmosin; MIM 602593), comprising 2 exons (Holm *et al.,* 2003) is mapped on chromosome 6p21.3 (Betz *et al.,* 2000). According to HGMD four mutations are associated with *CDSN* gene underlying HYPT2. *CSDN* protein contains Nand C terminal glycine looprelated domains and a signal sequence domain (Simon *et al.,* 2001).

Hereditary Hypotrichosis 3 and Wooly Hair

HYPT3 (MIM 194300) characterized by dry, extremely curled, and coarse hair, tapering of the distal ends, twisting, knot formation, dystrophic anagen phase. Chromosomal mapping showed that mutations in *KRT74* gene (MIM 608248), present on chromosome 12q 12-q 14.1 , are associated with HYPT3 (Shimomura *et al.,* 2010). *KRT74* gene consists of 9 exons which encodes 529-amino acid K74 protein having molecular weight of 57.9 kDa. It comprises 3 functional domains including C-terminal tail domain, central domain, and N-terminal head domain (Wasif et al., 2011). To date only three mutations have been identified in *KRT74* associated with Wooly Hair (HGMD).

Hypotrichosis 4 Marie Unna Hereditary Hypotrichosis 1 (MUHH1)

HYPT4/MUHHI (MIM 146550) involves presence of little hair or loss of complete hair at birth. This AR type of alopecia varies during the individual's developmental stages beginning from coarse hair formation in children to the progressive loss of hair over the years in adults. *HRURF/ U2HR* (MIM 619257), causing HYPT4, resides on chromosome 8p21.2 (van Steensel *et al.,* 1999). According to HGMD, 19 different mutations are identified in the *U2HR* region that led to HYPT4/MUHHI. It is a highly conserved region that encodes a 34 amino acid peptide whose upregulated expression causes enhanced *HR* expression leading to disrupted HF morphogenesis (Wen *et ai.,* 2009)

Hypotrichosis 5 (MUHH2)

HYPT5 (OMIM 612841) is the second type of Marie Unna hereditary hypotrichosis. At birth, scalp hair is mostly not present but progressively wire-like and irregular thin hair begin developing in early childhood (Yan *et al.,* 2004). 19 exon containing gene (Tocchetti *et al.,* 2003) *EPS8L3* (MIM 614989), causing HYPT5 was identified using the exome sequencing and is mapped to chromosome $1p21.1-q21.3$. To date, only one missense mutation is found in this gene (Zhang et al., 2012; HGMD,2021). *EPS8L3*, belongs to the *EPS8* gene family and contains three domains i.e. SH3 domain, Cterminal effector domain and a PTB (phosphotyrosine binding domain) (Zhang *et al. ,* 2012).

Hereditary Hypotrichosis Simplex 3 (HSS3/HYPTll)

Hereditary Hypotrichosis Simplex 3 (MIM 615059) has a variable phenotype primarily beginning with the slight hair thinning at birth and eventually leading to the absent scalp as well as remaining body hair. HYPT 11 causing gene *SNRPE* (MIM 128260), containing 5 exons, was mapped on chromosome lq31.3-1q41 (Pasternack *et al., 2013).* HGMD has only 2 repoted mutations in *SNRPE* gene uptil now (HGMD, 2021). *SNRPE* belongs to the Sm protein family that contains a conserved Sm domain present in close proximity of the N-terminal domain. The domain Sm rarely has a variable C-terminal domain present after it (Seraphin, 1995; Salgado-Garrido *et al.,* 1999; Bouveret *et al. ,* 2000).

Hereditary Hypotrichosis Simplex 4

Hereditary Hypotrichosis Simplex 4 (MIM 615885) is a phenotype in which the infants, at birth, have a normal scalp hair density. At the age of about 2-6 months, the children suffer progressive hair loss that extends to the complete absence of scalp hair. HYPT12 causing gene *RPL21* (MIM 603636), comprising 6 exons (Yoshihama *et al.,* 2002), mapped to chromosome 13q12.12-12.3 (Xu *et al.,* 2010). Until now single heterozygous mutation is found in the *RPL12* gene (Zhou *et al.,* 2011; HGMD, 2021). The gene belongs to ribosomal protein eL21 protein family and encodes a 160 amino acid containing ribosomal protein-the 60S subunit constituent (Zhou *et al.,* 2011).

The sub-categiries of hypotrichosis that are inherited in an autosomal recessive (AR) manner include:

Atrichia with Papular Lesions (APL)

APL (OMIM 209500) is a phenotype segregated in an either isolated AR pattern (Loewenthal and Prakken, 1961) or a pseudo-dominant pattern (Zlotogorski *et al.,* 2002). In 1999, Kruse *et al.* identified that individuals in the recessive fonn experience complete hair loss including that of the scalp and whole body and patients also develop keratinous follicular papules. Ahmad *et al.* (1998) mapped the 19 exons containing hairless gene *(fiR;* MIM 602302), causing APL, on chromosome 8p21 which was further confirmed by Nothen et al. (1998). 52 mutations in *HR* are reported till date (HGMD. 2021). *HR* encodes a protein of 130 kDa with high expression in the HF and acts as a transcription co-repressor for several nuclear receptors. *HR* protein comprises functional domains i.e. a nuclear matrix targeting motif (Djabali *et al.,* 2004), an NLS domain (Djabali *et al.,* 2001), a conserved zinc-finger domain (Ahmad *et al. , 1998),* and a JmjC domain (Clissold *et al.,* 2001).

Localized Autosomal Recessive Hypotrichosis 1

HYPT6 (OMIM 607903) manifests phenotypic variability both intra and inter-familial. Apart from the variable expression, monilethrix (MIM 158000) and HYPT6 are quite similar. The scalp hair may be present or absent at birth or after ritual shaving, may grow again gradually. Normal pubic and axillary hair but scanty to complete absence
of eyebrows, eyelashes. Hair breaks easily as they are thin, flexible, coarse, and brittle (Wajid *et al.,* 2007). Variants in 16 exons containing *DSG4* gene (desmoglein 4; MIM 607892) causing HYPT6 is mapped to chromosome 18q21. To date 8 mutations are reported in *DSG4* underlying HYPT6 (HGMD, 2021). A desmosomal cadherin superfamily member is encoded by *DSG4.* The protein contains various domains; a signal sequence, a propeptide, an extracellular domain with 5 tandem repeats, and a single transmembrane domain (Ullah et al., 2015)

Localized Autosomal Recessive Hypotrichosis 2

HYPT7 (MIM 604379) an AR disorder that phenotypically characterized by scanty wooly scalp hair (Shimomura *et al. ,* 2009) displaying thin, almost colorless, and highly curled hair that at a specific point no longer grow. At birth, normal but thin scalp hair may be present that progressively becomes weak and short (Aslam *et al.,* 2004; Jelani *et al. ,* 2008). *LIPH* (MIM 607365), being causative gene was mapped on chromosome 3q27.3. To date, in the *LIPH* gene, 25 distinct mutations are identified (HGMD. 2021). *LIPH* comprises 10 exons which encodes a 55kDa membrane associated protein composed of an N-tenninal signal sequence and an amino acid triad containing catalytic domain (Sonoda *et at.,* 2002; Aoki *et al., 2007).*

Localized Autosomal Recessive Hypotrichosis (LAH3)

Wooly hair phenotype also appears in HYPT8 (MIM 278150) in which the patients have curled, lighter color tone and fragile hair that is easily breakable with rare papular lesions confined to occipital area. Body hair including the pubic and axillary hair, eyelashes and eyebrows are normal to scanty (Tariq *et al.,* 2009). The chromosomal location of the gene *LPAR61P2RY5* underlying HYPT8 was 13q14.11-q21.32 (Wali *et al.,* 2007). To date 25 pathogenic variants in *LPAR6* (MIM 609239) underlying HYPT8 have been reported (HGMD, 2021). The intronic region of the *RBI* gene comprises *LPAR6* gene. *LPAR6* encodes *P2RY5* protein that is a patt of purinergic G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) family. It is predicted to comprise 7-transmembrane domains, 4 cytoplasmic and 4 extracellular domains (Azeem et al., 2008).

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Autosomal Recessive Hypotrichosis 9

The clinical features of the HYPT9 (MIM 614237) were quite similar to the ones observed in individuals underlying other recessive hypotrichosis forms. The HYPT9 was mapped on chromosome 10q11.23-22 (Naz *et al.*, 2010), but the specific gene that segregates the disease is not yet known.

Autosomal Recessive Hypotrichosis 10

The phenotype HYPT10 (MIM 614238) manifests complete hair loss of the scalp along with the presence of papules localized only to the scalp. Mustache and beard are normal or sparse in some cases while eyelashes, eyebrows, and the remaining body hair are less in density and scanty. Using the homozygosity mapping, the disease was mapped on chromosome 7p21.3-p22.3 (Basit *et al.,* 2010), but the specific gene due to which the phenotypes are presented is yet unknown.

Hypotrichosis with Recurrent Skin Vesicle

Hypotrichosis with recurrent skin vesicle (MIM 613102) involves the presence of fragile and thin scalp hair, followed by shedding and then re-growing after ritual shaving. Body hair, axillary hair, eyebrows, and lashes were quite sparse. Scalp and other body regions bear small vesicles that burst, release water and eventually leave a scar. The chromosomal region 18q 12.1 is organized in a gene cluster of desmoglein and desmocollin that caused the phenotypes. Sequencing results showed the presence of a mutation in the 16 exon containing *DSC3* gene (MIM 600271) (Ayub *et al.,* 2009). To date only a single mutation is present in *DSC3* gene underlying hypotrichosis with recurrent skin vesicles (HGMD). Similar to other cadherins, *DSC3* protein contains several domains i.e. a signal sequence, a propeptide of 28-125 amino acids, a TM domain, a C-terminal domain and an extracellular domain (Garrod and Chidgey, 2008; Ayub *et al., 2009).*

Digenic Autosomal Recessive Hypotrichosis

The patients undergoing digenic autosomal recessive hypotrichosis had limited hair growth and either has mild to completely absent hair on the scalp disease-causing genes were mapped on two different chromosomal locations i.e. 12q21.2-q22 and 16q21q23.1. Locus on the later chromosomal location was reported to have 16 exon comprising *CDH3* gene (MIM 114021) that has been previously associated with HJMD (OMIM 601553) and EEM syndrome (OMIM 225280) (Basit *et ai. ,* 2011). Although the retina and macular pigment epithelium of the patients are nonnal yet they presented certain mutations in the *CDH3* gene that truncated the protein. It was concluded that a phenotype modifier loci mapped on 12q21.2-q22 chromosomal location explicitly showed a combined mutational effect with the first loci to produce the diseased phenotype (Basit *et ai.,* 2015). To date, 28 mutations are present in the *CDH3* gene underlying the digenic autosomal recessive hypotrichosis (HGMD). *CDH3* protein has 5 extracellular domains, a TM domain and an intracellular tail region (Jelani *et al. ,* 2009).

Acquired Alopecia

Several fonns of alopecia are acquired, yet some of them do have unknown genetic causes. Tinea capitis is an infection-based hair loss that have scaling, erythema with or without scarring (Zaraa et al., 2013; Castelo-Soccio, 2014; Fremerey et al., 2018). Persons with autoimmune disorders develop alopecia areata and experience hair loss in round patches that may be asymptomatic or sometimes nail pitting is observed (Safavi, 1992; Alkhalifah *et al.,* 2010). Compromised health conditions medications, metabolic instabilities, and nutritional insufficiencies may develop telogen effluvium, a spontaneous change from anagen to telogen phase causing hair thinning and ultimate shedding (Headington, 1993; Castelo-Soccio, 2014; Alves and Grimalt, 2015). Chemo/radiotherapy, autoimmune disorder, malnutrition, toxins exposure, or infections may develop anagen effluvium, hair shedding during anagen phase occurs causing a type of diffuse non-scarring alopecia (Kanwar and Narang, 2013; Cotter *et al.*, 2017).

Trichotillomania (MIM 613229) is caused when hair is subjected to repetitive pulling followed by distress (Lewin *et ai.,* 2009; Alves and Grimalt, 2015; Grant and Chamberlain, 2016). It may have genetic basis and the gene underlying the disorder is *SLITRK1* (MIM 609678). Excessive hair pulling with crusting, pimples, tenderness, elevated scalp (Mirmirani and Khumalo, 2014) because of hairstyling practices causes traction alopecia (Xu *et ai. ,* 2017) In discoid lupus erythematosus head and neck bear erythematous lesions and scales that leave scars and lead to hair loss that can't be

reversed (Arkin *et al.,* 2015; Xu *et al.,* 2017). Neonates develop patches on the occipital region and ensue transient neonatal hair loss and afterwards the hair re-grows (Cutrone and Grimalt, 2005; Kim *et al.,* 201]; Castelo-Soccio, 2014). In androgenetic alopecia hair is lost from the androgen-dependent scalp region i.e midfrontal, temporal, parietal, and vertex. Female pattern hair loss is a type of *AGA* that particularly affects females involving scalp thinning. The androgen receptor gene (AR; MIM 313700) mapped between chromosome Xq 13 and Xp 11 is reported to cause *AGA* (Gonzalez *et al.,* 2010; Migeon *et al.,* 2010; Kibar *et al., 2014).*

Syndromic Forms of Alopecia

Hypotrichosis with Cone-Rod Dystrophy (HJMD)

A syndromic form of alopecia with the AR mode of inheritance is hypotrichosis with juvenile macular dystrophy (MIM 601553) also known as hypotrichosis with cone-rod dystrophy. It is distinguished by slight to complete scalp hair loss, together with retinal degeneration causing visual impairment (Sprecher *et al.,* 2001). Sequence variants are reported in 16 exons containing *CDH3* gene (MIM 114021) that encodes P-cadherins and is mapped to chromosome 16q21-q23.1. High expression in hair and retina is observed (Sprecher *et al.,* 2001; Ahmad *et aI.,* 2016). *CDH3* gene mutations are also associated with a AR recessive disorder i.e. EEM syndrome (MIM 225280) (Kjaer *et al.,* 2005). EEM syndrome phenotypes unravels the role of P.cadherins in limb development, formation of hair and retina (Shimomura and Christiano, 2010).

Alopecia and Mental Retardation Syndrome

APMR (MIM 203650) is characterized as alopecia total is. Patients affected with APMR have mental retardation and other symptoms. Eyelashes, eyebrows, pubic and axillary hair are lost. Three risk loci for AMPR1, 2 and 3 syndrome are localized on chromosome 3q26.q26, 3q26.3-q27.3 and 18q 11.2-q 12.2, respectively (John *et al.,* 2006; Wali *et al.,* 2006; Wali *et al. , 2007).*

Woodhouse Sakati Syndrome

Woodhouse Sakati Syndrome (WSS; MIM 241080), a multisystem disorder is defined by hypotrichosis, hearing loss, extrapyramidal manifestations, diabetes, difficulty in learning, and hypogonadism (Alazami *et al. ,* 2008). It has been identified that the cause of WSS are the variations in the sequence of *DCAF17* (MIM 612515). Organ involvement in WSS is correlated with a *DCAF17* encoded nuclear protein with high expression in liver, skin and brain. Till date 12 sequence variants in *DCAF* 17 cause WSS (HGMD, 2021).

Ectodermal Dysplasias (ED)

Ectodermal dysplasias (ED) refers to the group of heritable diseases which are heterogenous in nature and characterized by genetic imperfections present in more than one ectodennal structure and their appendages i.e. hair, nails, teeth, sweat glands (Itin, 2014). There are two main groups of ectodennal dysplasias. In group one, due to failure of signaling between ectoderm and mesoderm, hypoplasia of ectodermal tissues is seen. Group 2, besides the other epithelial structures, palmoplantar keratoderma is the most significant feature. To date almost 200 different types of ED have been identified (Garcia-Martin *et al.*, 2013). In 75 different ectodermal dysplasias, a total of 77 genes and 9 chromosomal loci have been identified (Pagnan and Visinoni, 2014).

Palmoplantar Keratoderma

Hereditary palmoplantar keratodermas (PPKs) display hyperkeratosis of the soles and palms and belong to the group 2 of keratinization disorders (Priolo, 2009) that is phenotypically diverse and genetically heterogeneous. PPKs are inherited in all Mendelian inheritance patterns (AR, AD, X-linked, or mitochondrial) (Has and Technau-Hafsi, 2016). On the basis of the tissue involved, PPKs may be isolated or syndromic.

Thickening of only the palmoplantar skin is involved in isolated PPK whereas in the syndromic forms, along with the palmoplantar skin thickness, several other ectodermal structures/ extra-cutaneous tissue defects are also highlighted (Schiller *et al.*,2014). To date, 25 genes have been identified that are associated with the PPKs (Schiller *et al. ,* 2014). Traditionally they are classified as;

- Hereditary palmoplantar hyperkeratosis
- Acquired palmoplantar hyperkeratosis

The major defects leading to hereditary PPKs are the ones that particularly disrupt intermediate filaments formed by keratin, gap junctions, desmosomes, water channels and EGFR signaling (Has and Technau-Hafsi, 2016). Drugs, chemicals, systemic disease, infections, dermatoses, malignancy and keratoderma climactericum are responsible for the acquired PPKs (Patel *et al.,2007).* On the basis of morphology and extent of hyperkeratosis on soles and palms, hereditary PPK have 4 major types; Diffuse, Focal, Striate, and Punctate PPK (Sakiyama and Kubo, 2016).

Diffuse Palmoplantar Keratoderma (DPPK)

DPPK is either AR or AD in which the entire surface of soles as well as palms is covered by diffuse hyperkeratosis. DPPK is divided into two types; DPPK with transgrediens and DPPK without transgrediens.

Diffuse PPK without Transgrediens

Unna- Thost PPK (MIM 600962) is the most common, non-epidermolytic AD form of diffuse PPK without transgrediens. It is instigated by mutation in *KRT9* (MIM 607606) *or KRT]* (MIM 139350) (Reis *et al.,1994;* Kuster *et at.,* 2002; Knobel *et al., 20 15).* Nine exons containing *KRT]* localizes to chromosome 12q ll-q 13 (Popescu *et al.,* 1989) while 8 exons containing *KRT910calizes* to chromosome 17q21.1 -q21.2 (Reis *et al.,1994).* To date 29 mutations in the *KRT9* and 42 in the *KRT]* are associated with PPK (HGMD, 2021).

Diffuse PPK with Transgrediens

Several diseases are associated with diffuse PPK with transgradiens. Mal de Meleda (MDM; MIM 248300), characterized by PPK, skin lesions, brachydactyly, and nail deformities, and mutation in *SLURP]* gene (MIM 606119) underlie MDM (Fischer, 2001). Nagashima type of PPK (PPK.N; MIM 615598),), a non-progressive disorder without constricting bands and a variation is observed in PP hyperkeratotic skin on exposure to water (Nagashima, 1977). Mutation in *SERPINB7* (MIM 603357) lead to PPKN (Kubo et al., 2013). Bothnian PPK (MIM 600231) an autosomal dominant form exhibiting spongy appearance upon water exposure. It shows a diffuse nonepidermolytic PPK (Lind *et at. ,* 1994; Kubo *et at. ,* 2013) and *AQP5* gene mutations (MIM 600442), that encodes a water channel protein, is responsible for PPKB (Blaydon et al., 2013). Gamborg-Nielson PPK (PPK-GN; MIM 244850) caused due to *SLURP1* gene mutations (MIM 606119) (Zhao et al., 2014) and displays hyperkeratosis at the knuckle pads without nail abnormalities (Kastl et al., 1990). Greither PPK (MIM 144200) and Sybert PPK are the AD forms ofDPPK. *KRTI* (MIM 139350) mutations underlie Greither PPK while gene for Sybert PPK is yet unknown *(Gachet al., 2005)*. Sybert PPK shows hyperkeratosis and in comparison to Greither is more severe (Sybert *et al. ,* 1988). To date 17, 11 and 6 mutations are found in *SLURP 1, SERPINB7* and *AQP5* gene, respectively underlying PPK.

Focal Palmoplantar Keratoderma

A pachyonychia congenita in which the individual's body weight-bearing area of the soles have hyperkeratosis like calluses (Kubo *et al.*, 2013). Mutations in *KRT6A* (OMIM 148041), *KRT6B* (OMIM 148042), *KRTJ6* (OMIM 148067), or *KRT17* (OMIM 148069), *KRT6C* (OMIM 612315), *DSGI* (OMIM 125670) and *TRPV3* (OMIM 607066) genes cause FPK (Eliason *et al. ,* 2012; Wilson *et al. ,* 2010). *TRPV3* gene mutations are also associated with Olmsted syndrome (MIM 614594), which also exhibit diffuse PPK and perioral hyperkeratosis, indicating *TRPV3* involvement in differentiation ofkeratinocytes (He *et al.,* 2015). To date, 16 mutations underlying PPK are reported in *TRPV3* gene (HGMD, 2021).

Striate Palmopiantar Hyperkeratosis

Thickening of skin on the soles and fingers particularly the pressure points is seen in the AD form of striate PPK. It is bifurcated into three types; PPKS I, PPKS II, PPKS III (Whittock *et al. ,* 2002). Striate PPKSI is characterized by focal , diffused and striate PPK. Underlying cause is the mutation in a desmosomal component 15 exon containing *DSGI* gene (MIM 125670) that also leads to SAM syndrome (MIM 615508). So far 28 mutations are reported in DSG 1 underlying PPKS. Striate PPKSII displays linear and focally distributed lesions on the palms because of the haploinsufficiency of desmoplakins (Has and Technau-Hafsi, 2016). The mutation in desmosomal plaque formation 24 exon containing *DSP* gene (MIM 125647) causes PPKSII. 3 mutations are reported in *DSP* gene underlying PPKS (HGMD, 2021). Striate PPKSIII is caused due to impaired hemidesmosomes and keratin filaments in suprabasal keratinocytes

Clinical and Genetic Analysis of Alopecia and Ectodermal Dysplasia in Three Consanguineous Families 17 (Whittock *et al.,* 1999). To date one mutation in *KRTl* gene (MIM 139350) lead to the PPKSIll phenotypes (HGMD, 2021).

Punctate **Palmoplantar** Keratoderma

On the basis of clinical and genetic basis, there are three types of puntate PPK that have autosomal dominant inheritance pattern: PPKPI (MIM 148600, 614936), PPKPII (MIM 175860) and PPKPIII (MIM 101850) (Brown, 1971; Has et al., 2016). PPKP 1 or Buschke-Fischer-Brauer type is the phenotype displaying numerous tiny punctate keratosis on the soles and palms (Brauer, 1913). Lesion number as well as size is observed to increase progressively. *AAGAB* gene (MIM 614888) that encodes p34 protein (an alpha and gamma-adaptin binding protein) (Giehl et al., 2012) and *COL14A1* (OMIM 120324) (Guo *et al.*, 2012) are the major causes of PPKP I. According to HGMD, 41 mutations in *AAGAB* and a single mutation in *COLl4Al* are found underlying PPKP. Porokeratotic PPK or PPKPII shows keratotic spines of columnar parakeratosis on the palmoplantar surface. The genetic basis of PPKII are yet unknown (Brown, 1971). In PPKP III or acrokeratoelastoidosis the margins of feet and hands are covered by tiny keratotic papules. The disease causing gene is mapped on chromosome 2. Filaggrin (FLG; MIM 135490) overexpression is also reported to cause PPKPIII (Braun-Falco, 2009). The underlying genes for PPKPIII are yet to be identified (Has *et al., 2016).*

The present study aimed to clinically and genetically characterize three Pakistani consanguineous families affected with syndromic and isolated fonns of hair disorders and ectodermal dysplasia. One family with palmoplantar keratoderma and two with hair loss disorders were included. The study objectives includes assessing the disease phenotypes, inheritance pattern, identification of genes and the causative variants for pathogenesis of the disorders. Linkage analysis was carried via highly polymorphic microsatellite markers. In family A, linkage was tested to genes, including *HR, DSG4/DSC3, LPAR6* and *LIPH*. In family B, linkage was tested to genes, including HR, DSG4/DSC3, LPAR6, LIPH and CDH3. Both families failed to show linkage to the genes tested. In family C, linkage analysis was performed using polymorphic microsatellite markers associated with syndromic palmoplantar keratoderma genes, *including SERPINB7, JUP, DCAF17, NLRP1, GJB6, SDR9C7, and SLURP1. However,* the family didn't manifest convincing linkage. Sanger sequencing of two previously candidate genes, *GJB6* and *GJAI ,* in affected members in family Band C respectively, failed to identify the disease-causing variants. Exclusion of linkage to the known candidate genes in all three families depict involvement of the unknown novel genes in causing the diseased phenotypes. Use of whole-exome sequencing (WES) and SNPmicroarray can facilitate in identifying the causative genes and the variants.

Chapter 2 Materials and Methods

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Subjects

The current study involved three families of Pakistani origin (A, B, C) that were presented with hereditary hair loss and ectodermal dysplasia. Family A and B belong to Noshera, Khyber Pukhtunkhwa, while family C belongs to a rural area located in Khuzdar, Baluchistan. To proceed the research, approval was granted by IRB (Institutional Review Board) of Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad. For blood collection, families were located and visited to their hometowns. Photographs of affected and normal individuals were also captured with their consent.

Pedigrees/Family Charts

Upon visit, the families were inquired about the thorough family history and clinical information. Further pedigrees were constructed to show that the families understudy segregate the disease in accordance with the Mendelian inheritance pattern. The questions regarding the disease onset and progression, severity, relationship between the couples suffering from the disease, and parents of the couple were asked from elders of the families. Pedigree construction was performed by the protocols set by Bernett *et al.* (1995). Pedigree design illustrates that the double lines indicated the consanguineous marriages, square denoted males while circles females, colorless circles and squares indicated normal members whereas the shaded ones symbolized the affected individuals. Square and circles crossed by inclined line represented the deceased members of the family. Roman numerals represented each subsequent generation when numbered from top to bottom. Within each generation the members and their relative positions were indicated by Arabic numerals.

Collecting Blood Specimens

Phlebotomy was performed on both the normal and affected individuals of the families. With the help of sterilized syringes particularly 10 ml (BD 0.8mm x 38mm 21G x 1 $\frac{1}{2}$) TW, Franklin Lakes, USA), venous blood was drawn and to prevent the clotting, blood was immediately transferred to the EDTA (ethylene di-amine tetra acetate) containing vacutainer tubes (BD vacutainer K3-EDTA, Franklin Lakes, USA). Before DNA extraction was proceeded, the collected blood samples were stored at 4°C in Human Molecular Genetics Laboratory (HMGL) located in the Biochemistry Department, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad, Pakistan.

Genomic DNA Extraction

Extraction of the DNA was performed by the help of manual phenol chloroform method and also using the commercially available kit.

DNA Extraction by Phenol-Chloroform Method

Blood stored at 4°C was first subjected to one hour incubation before extracting DNA. From the whole blood, genomic DNA was extracted by following the standard protocol for the phenol chloroform method (Sambrook *et al., 1989).*

i. The first step was to settle down the blood components at the bottom. For this purpose, the vacutainers containing blood samples were given an incubation time of about 20- 30 minutes at room temperature.

ii. After the incubation, an equal volume of blood and solution $A(750 \mu l$ each) were mixed together in an eppendorf tube of 1.5 ml (Oxygen, Union, USA). A thorough mixing of both components was done at room temperature by giving it an incubation time of 20-30 minutes.

iii. Centrifugation was done for 1 minute on 13,000 rpm (rotation per minute).

iv. After centrifugation, a pellet was seen particularly at the tube bottom. The supernatant was discarded from tube and re-suspension of the pellet was done by adding $400 \mu l$ of solution A to clear out the remaining blood cells from the pellet.

 v . Another round of centrifugation was given for a time of at 13,000 rpm for about 1 minute.

vi. After disposing of the supernatant, pellet was obtained that was dissolved in solution $B(400 \mu I)$, 20% SDS (Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate, 16 μI) and proteinase K enzyme (PK, $16~\mu$ I).

vi. Incubation of the mixture at 37°C for overnight was carried to completely dissolve the pellet.

vii. On the second day, a mixture of fresh solution C , along with solution D in equal amounts (250 µl each) was added in the tubes containing the dissolved pellets.

ix. At 13,000 rpm, the tubes were then centrifuged for a time of 10 minutes. Upon centrifugation, three distinguishable layers were obtained.

 x . In a separate labeled tube, the upper layer was collected and 500 μ of solution D was added and mixed with it.

xi. For 1 minute, centrifuge the mixture at 13,000 rpm. Two separate layers were obtained. Precipitation of DNA in the form of threads was carried out after collecting the upper layer in a separate labeled tube and then added sodium acetate (55 µl) and isopropanol $(500 \mu l)$.

xii. Centrifugation of the mixture at 13,000 rpm was caried out for 10 minutes. Followed by centrifugation, at the bottom of the tube, DNA pellet was vividly observed.

xiv. After removing residual mixture from the tube, washing of DNA pellet was performed with 250 µl of 70% ethanol (BDH, Poole, England) through centrifugation at 13 ,000 rpm for 7 minutes.

xv. After the centrifugation, the residual ethanol was removed. Using the vacuum concentrator 5301 (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) the pellet was dried for 20 minutes at 45°C.

xvi. About 150-18 Oµl of TE buffer solution (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA) was added to the tube containing dried pellet and then incubated at 39°C for overnight to dissolve the pellet in the buffer.

xvii. 1 % Agarose gel was used for visualization and analysis of the extracted DNA using the UV Transilluminator (Biometra, Gottingen, Germany). For the future use, the extracted DNA stock was stored at 4°C.

Table 2.1 Composition of Solutions Used in Genomic DNA Extraction

DNA Extraction Using Commercially Available Kit Procedure

Commercially available Kit Sigma- Aldrich (Gene-Elute Blood Genomic DNA kit) was also used for the extraction of genomic DNA.

i. In a tube of 1.5 ml, blood (200 μ l), lysis buffer (200 μ l) and PK enzyme (20 μ l) were added together and thoroughly mixed.

ii. An incubation time of 10 minutes for 55°C was given to the mixture in a water bath.

iii. 200 μ l of 100% chilled ethanol was put into the mixture and then vortexed for 15 seconds. At 3,000 rpm, a short spin was given to the mixture and then transferred to the column (Sigma-Aldrich USA).

iv. Centrifugation was performed at 8,000 rpm for 1 minute and then the columns were transferred to other tubes.

 $v.$ After that, washing was done twice by upon addition of 500 μ l of AW washing buffer and then centrifuged at 13,000 rpm each time.

Clinical and Genetic Analysis of Alopecia and Ectodermal Dysplasia in Three Consanguineolls Families 24 To dry the columns, an empty spin was given and then elution buffer $(240 \,\mu\text{J})$ was added to the columns. This was followed 10 minutes incubation at room temperature.

vi. DNA was then eluted from the columns into tubes by centrifugation at full speed.

Agarose Gel Electrophoresis (1%)

The extracted DNA from the blood samples was analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively with the help of agarose gel electrophoresis using 1% agarose gel. At first, 1 g of agarose was added in 10X TBE and distilled water (10 ml: 90 ml). Heating the agarose in the microwave oven for a time of 1-2 minutes dissolves the agarose. After the agarose was dissolved completely, $5 \mu l$ of ethidium bromide (staining dye) was mixed in agarose. To create the wells for DNA loading, combs were placed in the tank before pouring the solution. After thorough mixing of the dye in agarose solution, the solution was then poured into the gel tank carefully. In order to solidify, the gel was left at room temperature for 30 mints. DNA $(4 \mu l)$ mixed with loading dye $(4 \mu l)$ was loaded into the gel. TBE buffer (IX) was added to the gel tank in which gel was placed. For 40-50 minutes, electrophoresis was performed at 120 volts. Using the U.V Transilluminator (Biometra, Gottingen, Germany), DNA bands visualization was carried out. With a Digital Camera EDAS 290 (Kodak, New York, USA), the photographs were taken that analyzed the DNA presence along with the DNA quality.

Solutions	Compositions	
Gel preparing buffer (10X TBE)	54.8 g Tris, 27.5 g Boric acid, 3.65 EDTA (pH=8.3), 500ml water	
Gel running buffer (1X TBE)	10X TBE: Distilled water (1:9)	
Ethidium Bromide (100 ml)	1g Ethidium bromide in 100 ml autoclaved distilled H ₂ O	
Loading dye	40 g Sucrose + 0.25 g Bromophenol Blue	
T.E buffer	1M Tris HCl (pH 7.5), 0.5M EDTA (pH 8), autoclaved distilled water	
Distilled Water	90 ml	

Table 2.2 Composition of Solutions Used in Agarose Gel Preparation

DNA Quantification

Quantity of DNA in the DNA samples was calculated using a Colibri micro-volume spectrophotometer (Titertek Berthold, Germany) in which an optical density (OD) of 260 nm wavelength was taken. The instrument was blanked by adding 1 μ l of TE buffer. After that, $1 \mu l$ of the DNA sample was loaded in the instrument to measure its concentration in ng/µl units.

Genotyping and Linkage Analysis/Homozygosity M apping

The families with hereditary hair disorder and ectodermal dysplasia were subjected to linkage analysis using microsatellite markers specific for the genes known to cause the associated phenotypes, Information regarding the genes tested in the research was obtained from the human GRChg/hg19 assembly of the UCSC genome browser. Table 2.5 lists the microsatellite markers used for genotyping. Markers used in present study were selected having an average heterozygosity >80%, Marker's genetic distances were obtained from Rutgers's combined linkage physical map of the human genome (Matise *et al.*, 2007). PCR (Polymerase Chain Reaction) is the final procedure employed for the microsatellite markers analysis,

PCR Amplification

Polymorphic microsatellite markers were used for the amplification purpose. Following the standard procedure, $25 \mu L$ volume was prepared that contained 1 μL of DNA and $23-24 \mu L$ of the reaction mixture in 200 μL PCR tubes (Axygen, California, USA). The concentration of the chemicals used in the PCR reaction are given in Table 2.3. PCR reaction was carried out via T3 Thermocycler (Biometra, Germany) and GENE Amp PCR system 9600 (Perkin Elmer, Wellesley, MA, USA). 8% polyacrylamide gels are used for the resolving the amplified products. Ethidium bromide stained the gel. Further, bands were visualized and analyzed by UV trans illuminator.

Table 2.3 Chemicals Used **in** PCR master mix

Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (PAGE)

The products amplified by PCR were resolved using the 8% non-denaturing polyacrylamide gel. Preparation of single gel plate required addition of 50 ml solution in 500 ml graduated cylinder. Chemicals used for polyacrylamide gel preparation are listed in Table 2.4. Between the two glass plates, that were 1.5 mm distance apart, the solution that was prepared was then poured. After pouring, comb was inserted between the gel plates. Gel was polymerized and subsequent solidification occurred after about 40-60 minutes at room temperature. The DNA sample, before loading into the gel wells,

was mixed with loading dye (6 µl) . By the use of a vertical gel tank (Whatman, Biometra, Gottingen, Germany) containing 1X TBE buffer, at about 120 volts, an electrophoresis reaction was carried out for 120-1S0 minutes. Ethidium bromide stained the gel and UV transilluminator (Biometra, Gottingen, Germany) was used for visualization purpose and for capturing the photograph Digital camera DC 290 (Kodak, Digital Sciences, New York, USA) was used.

Chemicals Used	Composition	Amount Used in PCR
30% Acrylamide	Acrylamide (MERCK Darmstadt, Germany), N,N Methylene -bisacrylamide (29:1)	13.5 mL
10X TBE	Tris 0.89 M + Borate 0.89 M + EDTA 0.02 M	5mL
10% APS	Ammonium Sulphate (5 g/45mL distilled water)	$400 \mu L$
TEMED	N, N, N', N'-Tetra methyl ethylene diamine (Sigma-Aldrich, USA).	$25 \mu L$
Distilled Water		Raised to 50 µL

T able 2.4 Composition and Concentration of Chemicals Used in Polyacrylamide Gel

Sanger Sequencing of Genomic DNA

Based on previous reports of association of *GJB6* and *GJA1* with hair loss and palmoplantar respectively, the same genes were sequenced in DNA of affected and normal members using gene specific primers. For exons amplification two types of PCRs were performed.

First Sequencing PCR or Pre-sequencing PCR including

For the amplification of *GJB6* and *GJA1*, the reaction mixture was carried out in 200µl of PCR tube and reaction mixture of total 50 μ l was prepared. PCR buffer (5 μ l) together with template DNA (2.5 μ I) plus forward and reverse primer (2.5 μ I each) and MgCl₂ $(3 \mu l)$ including dNTPs $(1 \mu l)$ as well as Taq polymerase $(0.7 \mu l)$ and PCR water $(31.8 \mu l)$ μ I).

PCR tube was congregated in thermos cycler and the reaction was carried out by using same conditions as previously performed. 2% agarose gel present in 1X TBE (running buffer) was used for the verification of the product (exon amplification). PCR product (3 μ 1) together with bromophenol blue (3 μ 1) was loaded into the gel wells and run horizontally for 35 minutes at 110 volts.

First Purification of Amplified PCR products

When the amplification was confirmed on 2% agarose gel by visualizing gel bands the PCR products was purified by using Axygen Biosciences PCR Cleanup Kit (Invitrogen). Following steps were carried out during purification.

- To the tube containing the amplified PCR product, $120 \mu l$ of binding buffer solution (buffer A) was added and then vortex thoroughly. Mixture was poured in column, assembled in 2 ml collection tube and centrifugation was carried out at 13000 rpm/1 minute. Afterwards the liquid that flowed through the column was discarded.
- Washing of the column was performed with 500 ul ethanol-added washing buffer twice followed by centrifugation for about 1 mint at 13000 rpm.
- After discarding waste that was present in the collection tube, column was placed again in the tube and subsequent cenhifugation carried out at 13,000 rpm for 2 mints for eliminating residuals.
- Column was then further transferred to a freshly labeled collection tube and elution buffer (25 μ l) kept at 70°C was added.
- After 7 mints incubation, the centrifugation was performed (13,000rpm/3 min) and the purified product was finally collected in an eppendorf tube.

The product purified by the above procedure was evaluated by running on 2% agarose gel. DNA $(3 \mu l)$ and loading dye $(3 \mu l)$ were loaded together onto the gel.

Primer Designing

Primers were designed for coding exons of *GJB6* and *GJAI* using online available "Primer 3" software (http://frodo.mit.edu/primer3/). For checking the effect of variant in *GJB6* and *GJAJ,* primers were designed from exonic regions of *GJB6* and *GJA J* using Integrated DNA Technologies (https://eu.idtdna.com/pages). Properties of amplified products were checked by UCSC and Ensemble genome browsers. The primer sequences are listed in table 2.6 and 2.7.

Analysis of Sequencing Data and Variant Validation

The sequencing data obtained after Sanger Sequencing was analyzed by software BioEdit alignment editor version 7.1.3.0 (http://mbio.ncsu.edu/BioEdit/bioedit.html). For the nucleotide linkage determination, chromatogram of afflicted was evaluated with the normal gene sequence (taken as a reference) which was retrieved from Ensemble Genome Browser Database (http://www.ensembl.org/index.html). Additionally, if variation was documented in the sequence of affected members, its pathogenicity was checked through MutationTaster (http://www.mutationtaster.org) or Polyphen-2 software (http://genetics.bwh.harvard.edu.pph2).

Table 2.5 List of microsatellitc markers used for linkage analysis of candidate gene/loci

Table 2.6 List of primer sequences to PCR-amplify *GJB6*

Table 2.7: List of primer sequences to PCR-amplify *GJA J*

Chapter 3 **Results**

RESULTS

Recruitment of Families

Three families showing various types of skin disorders were recruited from different parts of the country for the study presented in the dissertation.

Family A

Family A, identified with alopecia, was sampled from Tehsil Pabbi located in Nowshera, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province, Pakistan. Pedigree drawing shows that it is composed of three generations exhibiting autosomal recessive pattern of inheritance of the alopecia resulted from a consanguineous marriage (Figure 3.1). The first generation contains normal parents while the $2nd$ generation contains 2 carrier individuals, including a male and a female, and 11 other normal members. The $3rd$ generation has one affected male (III-3) and four normal individuals.

Affected member (III-3) in the family presented clinical features of a non-syndromic alopecia. He showed no other diseased phenotypes (Figure 3.2). Teeth, nails, and sweating were unaffected. For DNA analysis, blood was sampled from three individuals, including carrier parents (II-8, 11-9) and an affected (TII-3). These three members were represented with asterisk (*) in the pedigree drawing (Figure 3.1).

Family B

Similar to the family A, this family was also originated from Nowshera, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. It was identified that the family segregated a syndromic form of congenital alopecia. A four generations pedigree (Figure 3.3) was constructed for this family. Upon pedigree analysis, it was revealed that the pedigree showed autosomal recessive inheritance pattern with consanguineous marriages. Generation III contains 2 male alopecia patients (III-7, III-9), 4 carrier individuals (III-10, III-11, III-13, III-14) and 8 normal individuals. In the $4th$ generation 2 alopecia patients (IV-7, IV-8) resulted from the carrier parents in the $3rd$ generation.

The affected members have sparse hair especially on the scalp as well as eyebrows, eyelashes, and beard hair. Wooly hair phenotype was also associated with the disease. Whitish discoloration of the nails (onycholysis) with hypodontia wee exhibited by the patients. Blood was drawn from five members, including two carriers (III-10, III-II) and three affected (III-7, IV-7, IV-8). Molecular analysis of the extracted DNA was carried out as described below.

Family C

Family C is an inhabitant of a rural area located in Khuzdar, Baluchistan province of the country. Affected members in the family segregated palmoplantar keratoderma in autosomal recessive manner. The four generations pedigree was constructed after collecting required information from elders in the family (Figure 3.5). It consists of 22 members, including 8 affected (III-6, IV-1, IV-2, IV-3, IV-8, IV-9, IV-10, IV-11).

Clinical examination of the affected members presented palmoplantar keratosis with thick waxy skin. Careful examination revealed presence of hyperkeratotic plaques on the pressure points of soles, palms, ankles and between the digits in the affected members. In addition, they displayed chipped tooth and mild hammertoes. One of the affected members (III-6) exhibited an additional feature of pre-axial polydactyly. For DNA analysis, blood samples were provided by seven family members, including one normal (III-1), two carriers (III-3, III-4), and four affected (III-6, IV-1, IV-2, IV-3).

Mapping Candidate Genes Involved in Causing Alopecia and Ectodermal Dysplasia

To search for the causative genes and sequence variants in each of the three families, genomic DNA extracted from affected and unaffected members' blood was subjected to genotyping using polymorphic microsatellite markers linked to the previously known genes for alopecia and palmoplantar keratoderma. In all, 12 candidate genes were tested for linkage in the three families. These included, *DCAF]* 7 (2q31.1), *LIPH* (3q27.2), *HR* (8p21.3), *SLURP 1* (8q24.3), *SDR9C7* (1 2q13.3), *GJB6* (13q12.11), *LPAR6* (13qI4.2), *CDH3* (16q22.1), *NLRPI* (17p13.2), *J UP* (17q21.2), *DSG41DSC3* (18q12.1), and *SERPINB7* (1 8q21.33).

A list of microsatellite markers used to test linkage is provided in the table 2.5. As described in the previous chapter, PCR was performed using the standard protocol and

the products were then resolved on PAGE (8%) and stained with ethidium bromide. The confirmation of linkage of the family to the tested gene was based on the normal individuals exhibiting heterozygous and affected homozygous pattern of alleles.

In family A, DNA of three members including parents (II-8, Il-9) and single affected (IlI-3) was genotyped using microsatellite markers tightly linked to previously reported alopecia causative genes. These included *HR* [D8S 1116, D8S 1861 , D8S 136, D8S 1752, D8S1734], *DSG41DSC3* [D18S49, D18S36, D18S47, D18S456, D18S536], *LPAR6* [D13S161, D13S1269. D13S268, D13S788, D13S1325], and *LIPH* [D3S1521, D3S1571, D3S3573, D3S3592, D3S1530]. Analysis of the genotyped markers failed to reveal homozygous pattern for alleles, indicating the family was not linked to any of the four candidate genes tested.

In family B, DNA of five members, including two normal (III-10, III-11) and three affected (III-7, IV -7, IV -8) was genotyped using microsatellite markers tightly linked to previously reported alopecia causative genes. This included *HR* [D8S 1116, D8S 186 1, D8S136, D8S1752, D8S1734], *DSG41DSC3 DSC3* [D18S49, D18S36, D18S47, D18S456, D18S536], *LPAR6* [D13S 161 , D13S 1269. D 13S268, D13S788, D13S 1325]. *LIPH* [D3S1521, D3S1571, D3S3573, D3S3592, D3S1530], and *CDH3* D16S3141, D16S3067, D16S3095, D16S752, D16S681. Based on the principle of linkage described above, the family failed to show linkage to the five genes tested.

Based on the clinical features, observed in affected members in the family C, linkage was tested with seven genes. This included *SERPINB7* [D18S465, D18S483, D18S382, D18S875, D18S367, *JUP* [D17S902, D17S965, D17S1860, D17S579, D17S934], *DCAF]7* [D2S376, D2S2284, D2S2302, D2S1267, D2S1274]. *NLRP]* [D17S1828, D17S1876, D17S1854, D17S1832, D17S678], *GJB6* [D13S1316, D13S175, D13S633, D13S1275, D13S787]. *SDR9C7* [D12S1632, D12S90, D12S305, D12S1298, D12S1056]. and *SLURP]* [D8S1520, D8S373 , D8S2334, D8S1926, D8S1108]. DNA extracted from blood of six individuals, including two normal (III-1, -III-4) and four affected (III-6, IV-I, IV-2, IV-3) was subjected to genotyping. Similar to the results obtained in other two families, in the present case as well linkage was not found.

Sequencing Candidate Genes in Family Band C

In addition to testing microsatellite-based linkage to candidate genes, described above, two major causative genes were sequenced in an affected member in family B and C. Dideoxy chain termination method (Sanger Sequencing) was followed for sequencing the candidate genes. Protocol followed for sequencing the genes has been described in the chapter 2. Primers to PCR-amplify coding regions of the two genes were designed by Primer 3 software (http://frodo.mit.edu/primer3/) and listed in the Table 2.6 and Table 2.7.

In family B, *GJB6* gene containing single exon, located on chromosome 13q12.11, was sequenced in the affected member. In family C, however, another gene *GJA* J containing one exon, located on chromosome 6q22.31, was sequenced in the affected member. However, analysis of the sequencing data failed to reveal disease causing variants in both the families.

Figure 3.1: Pedigree of family A, segregating a non-syndromic form of alopecia. Circles indicate females and squares represent males. Affected members are denoted by shaded symbols whereas, unaffected members with the unshaded symbols Roman numerals reveal the generation number of individuals within a pedigree while Arabic numerals show the position of members within a generation. Asterisk (*) labeled shapes indicate the members whose blood is drawn.

Figure 3.2: Affected individual (III-3) of family A displaying non-syndromic form of congenital alopecia. Images show sparse body hair (C) especially of the scalp (B), with absent eyebrows and eyelashes. Beard is also absent. Triangular shaped face is also seen in the above image (A). No other associated abnormalities were reported. Pictures were taken and presented here with the consent of the elders of family.

Figure 3.3: Pedigree chart of family B segregating a syndromic form of alopecia. Males are shown by squares while females by circles. Completely filled shapes illustrate the members with hypotrichosis while the unfilled ones represent the normal individuals. Double lines highlight the consanguineous unions. Roman and the Arabic numerals are used to represent the generation number and the members in the pedigree, respectively. Shapes with the asterisk (*) symbolize the members from whom the blood was collected.

Figure 3.4: Affected individuals of the family B (III-7, III-9 IV-7, IV-9) displaying a syndromic form of alopecia. Images show that the patients have sparse wooly hair on the scalp (A). Eyelashes, eyebrows, and beard hair are also sparse (B, C). Hypodontia (C) and nail discoloration are also seen in the above pictures (D).

Figure 3.5: Pedigree sketch of family C with syndromic form of palmoplantar keratoderma having autosomal recessive pattern of Mendelian inheritance. Normal members are represented using the colorless symbols while affected members are symbolized by colored shapes. Double lines show the cousin marriages. The asterisk (*) marked individuals show the samples that are available for the study.

Figure 3.6: Affected individuals of the family B (III-6, IV -1, IV -2, IV -3) with clinical features of palmoplantar keratoderma (E). Diffuse PPK with trans-gradients showing hyperkeratotic plaques on ankles, knees, palms, and the soles surface are seen in the pictures (A, B, C). Hammertoes and chipped tooth phenotypes are also shown by the patients (D).

Figure 3.7: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family A amplified using micro satellite markers flanking the *LIPH* gene on chromosome 3q27.2. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (II-land 2-II-2 while Lane 3 shows results for affected individuals (III-3). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual 's number within the generation.

Figure 3.8: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family A amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the HR gene on chromosome 8p21.3. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (II-land 2-II-2 while Lane 3 shows results for affected individuals (III-3). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation

Figure 3.9: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family A amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *LPAR6* gene on chromosome 13q 14.2. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (II-l and2-II-2 while Lane 3 shows results for affected individuals (III-3). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual 's number within the generation.

Figure 3.10: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family A amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *DSG41DSC3* gene on chromosome 18q21.1. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (II-1 and 2-II-2 while Lane 3 shows results for affected individuals (III-3). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation.

Figure 3.11: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family B amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *HR* gene on chromosome 8p2 I.3. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-10 and III-11) while Lane 3, 4 and 5 shows results for affected individuals (III-7, IV-7, IV-8). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation.

Figure 3.12: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family B amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *DSG4/DSC3* gene on chromosome 18q21.1. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-10 and III-11) while Lane 3,4 and 5 shows results for affected individuals (III-7, IV-7, IV-8). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation.

Figure 3.13: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family B amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *LPAR6* gene on chromosome 13q 14.2. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-10 and III-11) while Lane 3, 4 and 5 shows results for affected individuals (III-7, IV-7, IV-8). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation.

Figure 3.14: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family B amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *LIPH* gene on chromosome 3q27.2. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-10 and III-11) while Lane 3, 4 and 5 shows results for affected individuals (III-7, IV -7, IV -8). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation.

Figure 3.15: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family B amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *CDH3* gene on chromosome I6q21.1. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-10 and III-11) while Lane 3, 4 and 5 shows results for affected individuals (III-7, lV-7, IV-8). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation.

Figure 3.16: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family C amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *DCAF]* 7 gene on chromosome 2q31.1. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-1 and III-4) while Lane 3, 4, 5 and 6 shows results for affected individuals (III-6, IV-1, IV-2, and IV-3). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation.

Figure 3.17: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family C amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *SLURP1* gene on chromosome 8q24.3. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-1 and III-4) while Lane 3, 4, 5 and 6 shows results for affected individuals (III-6, IV-1, IV-2, and IV-3). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual 's number within the generation.

Figure 3.18: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family C amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *SDR9C7* gene on chromosome 12q 13.3 . Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-1 and III-4) while Lane 3, 4, 5 and 6 shows results for affected individuals (III-6, IV-1, IV-2, and IV-3). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation.

Figure 3.19: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family C amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *GJB6* gene on chromosome 13q12.11. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-1 and III-4) while Lane 3, 4, 5 and 6 shows results for affected individuals (III-6, IV-1, IV-2, and IV-3). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual 's number within the generation.

Figure 3.20: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family C amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *NLRPI* gene on chromosome 17q13.2. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-1 and III-4) while Lane 3, 4, 5 and 6 shows results for affected individuals (III-6, IV-1, IV-2, and IV-3). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation.

Figure 3.21: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family C amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *JUP* gene on chromosome 17q21.2. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-1 and III-4) while Lane 3, 4, 5 and 6 shows results for affected individuals (III-6, IV-1, IV-2, and IV-3). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation.

Figure 3.22: The Electropherogram shows the allelic pattern of family C amplified using microsatellite markers flanking the *SERPINB7* gene on chromosome 18q21.33. Here, Lane 1 and 2 shows results for normal individuals (III-1 and III-4) while Lane 3, 4,5 and 6 shows results for affected individuals (III-6, IV-I , IV-2, and IV-3). In the pedigree, Arabic numbers represent the postions of the individuals within a generation and Roman numerals specify the individual's number within the generation.

Chapter 4 **Discussion**

DISCUSSION

Skin and the appendages development, including the hair, nails, teeth, and the sweat glands, is influenced by the genetic control. The defective embryonic developmental mechanisms cause clinically and genetically heterogeneous group of the skin disorders. Further, these disorder are associated to the genotype of the individual either directly or indirectly (Uitto and Richard, 2005; Shah, 2018).

The loss of some or entire hair either on head or the whole body results in a dermatologic disorder called as alopecia. It causes inflammation which in return affects the hair follicles. The phenotypic features associated with the disorder can be mainly skin irritation and loss of eyelashes and eyebrows. Despite being chronic, the disorder is not life threatening, fatal or painful. An autoimmune disorder whose root causes and etiology are yet unknown due to variable manifestations, non-specific presentation and overlapping phenotypes. But majorly both, the genetic and the environmental factors, subsequently are the causes of the development of alopecia (Madani and Shapiro, 2000; Shah, 2018).

Hair is an essential embodiment of the woman identity. Hence the abstract features like attraction, beauty, femininity, sexuality, and personality in general is figuratively linked to women's hair more than it is associated to men hair (Wolf, 1991). Loss of hair is a very common complaint in patients owing to the increased shedding and diffused or localized alopecia (Gordon and Tosti, 2011). The disorder is inherited both in isolated or syndromic forms and is segregated in both the inheritance patterns i.e. autosomal recessive as well as autosomal dominant. So far, eight autosomal recessive and six autosomal dominant forms of non-syndromic forms of hair loss disorders have been reported. The causative genes corresponding to disorders have been successfully mapped on different chromosomes.

Thickening of the stratum corneum on the soles and the palms leads to a diseased condition called palmoplantar keratodenna. Approximately 60 genetically distinct heterogenous group of genodermatosis have been identified so far (Wilson *et al.,* 2010). It is bifurcated on the basis of either acquired or hereditary types. Hereditary types are further divided into diffuse, striate, punctate and focal types (Sakiyama and Kubo, 2016). The pattern of inheritance of PPK can either be autosomal recessive, autosomal dominant, X-linked or mitochondrial inheritance. Keratin filaments, desmosomes, gap junctions and water channels are particularly affected in the PPK diseased condition (Has and Technau-Hafsi, 2016).

An ancient practice of consanguinity, that is associated to genetic abnormities, have a high prevalence in Pakistan due to the lingering societal and spiritual beliefs. For the identification of the genes specifically causing autosomal recessive disorders, the strategy of autozygosity mapping is employed. The method involves the identification of the locus responsible for the diseased phenotypes that is homozygous by decent in the subsequent generations. First cousin marriage with a single affected child is shown to have the exact amount of the linkage information as a nuclear family having three affected individuals (Lander and Botstein, 1987).

The current study conducted the clinical and molecular characterization of three Pakistani families with consanguineous unions (A, B, and C) that presented hereditary skin and hair disorders belonging to rural areas of KPK and Baluchistan province of the country. For this purpose, blood sampling was carried out for DNA extraction. In order to determine the autozygous regions in the families under study, microsatellite markers specific to pre-reported gene/loci were amplified with affected families' extracted DNA.

Family A was identified with non-syndromic form of alopecia with only a single affected individual. Patient exhibited complete hair loss on the scalp as well as other body hair were also absent including eyebrows, eyelashes and beard. Whereas nails, teeth and sweating patterns were unchanged. DNA of the parents and the affected individual were subjected to homozygosity mapping by the help of microsatellite markers flanking the putative genes responsible for autosomal recessive form of alopecia. For genotyping in the main region of the known gene/loci, five markers were selected. The genes tested for linkage analysis included *LJPH* (3q27.2), *HR* (8p21.3), *LPAR6* (13q14.2), and *DSG41DSC3* (18q12.1). Exclusion of families from known genes was concluded as no linkage was reported upon mapping of gene/loci using highly polymorphic microsatellite markers. The results propose the involvement of novel genes/loci or the corresponding novel variants in these genes causing pathogenicity in family A.

The affected members of family B demonstrated the phenotypes of syndromic form of alopecia with sparse hair on scalp, eyelashes, eyebrows, and beard. The patients particularly showed tightly curled hair termed as Wooly hair. Along with these features, nail discoloration and hypodontia were also seen in affected members. Homozygosity mapping of all the available family memebers was performed by minimum five micro satellite markers for each candidate gene. These genes included *LIPH* (3q27.2), *HR* (8p21.3), *LPAR6* (13q14.2), *CDH3* (16q22.1) and *DSG41DSC3* (18q12.1). No linkage was established and hence predicting novel genes or the variants responsible for the diseased phenotypes.

Family C presented the clinical features of syndromic form of autosomal recessive palmoplantar keratoderma. The affected members experience skin thickening along with the presence of hyperkeratotic plaques on waxy skin especially palmar and plantar surfaces and also between the digits. Phenotypes including chipped tooth and hammertoes are also displayed by the affected individuals. For autozygosity mapping, minimum five markers were used for genotyping the candidate region of different genes in all available individuals. The genes known to be associated with palmoplantar phenotypes were genotypes and these included *DCAF]* 7 (2q31.1), *SLURP]* (8q24.3), *SDR9C7* (12q13.3), *GJB6* (13q12.11), *NLRP1* (17p13.2), *JUP* (17q21.2), and *SERPINB7* (18q21.33). No evident linkage was observed, therefore, excluding the family from the pre-reported genes and anticipating some novel genes/variants that are suggestive of the pathogenicity in this family.

In family Band C under study, besides the linkage analysis using the polymorphic STS markers, sequencing of two important genes, particularly known to develop the clinical features, i.e. *GJB6* (MIM 604418) and *GJA1*(MIM 604418) was also performed using the Sanger Sequencing. Primer 3 software was used to design primers for both the genes. Diseased individuals in the family B were tested and sequenced for *GJB6* gene that is located on chromosome $13q12.11$ and contains only one exon. Family C was checked for the presence of any novel variant existing in the *GJA]* gene, a single exon containing that was mapped on chromosome 6q22.31 . To conclude, the dideoxy sequencing results were unable to reveal the involvement of any novel causative gene variant in both the families.

GJB6 (MIM 604418) gene belongs to the connexin superfamily that encodes protein constituents of gap junction channels. They are specifically involved in the transport of ions as well as metabolites across adjacent cells by forming the hexameric hemichannels (Lautermann *et al.,* 1998; Pallares-Ruiz *et al. ,* 2002). It encodes a protein connexin 30 (CX30) that comprises 261 amino acids and has a 93% homology with the human *GJB2* protein (Dahl *et* aI., 1996; Grifa *et* af., 1999). Various missense mutations in the gene lead to a diseased state called Clouston syndrome/ hidrotic ectodermal dysplasia (HED, MIM 129500). It is an autosomal dominant skin disorder that shows the phenotypes of hyperkeratosis leading to palmoplantar, partial to complete hair defects and nail dystrophy (Cammarata *et al.,* 2019). According to HGMD, 28 different mutations have been reported in the *GJB6* gene with 6 particularly associated with HED/Clouston syndrome.

GJAl (MIM 121014) gene belongs to transmembrane protein family of connexins that interlink two neighboring cells by connecting their cytoplasm via constituting the gap junction proteins (De Bock *et al.*, 2013). It encodes a protein connexin 43 (CX43) that shows 97% homology with the mouse CX43 (Sohl *et al.*, 2003). Perhaps certain mutations in CX43 result in a disease characterized by palmoplantar keratoderma and AP and sometimes nail abnormalities. HGMD reported about 98 various mutations in *GJAl* with much higher incidence of missense mutations (105).

The study aimed at underpinning the molecular basis of the congenital hair loss and ectodermal disorders particularly palmoplantar keratoderma. Furthermore, the study will aid to further provide the future insights into the pathogenesis of above disorders. Over the last two decades, diligent efforts have created an enormous pool of knowledge about the causative genes underlying hair and the skin disorders. But, the identification of the rare phenotypes is quite challenging. In the present era, the focus of the genetic research has been shifted towards the development of the relationship between phenotypes and genotypes. Identification of the genes underlying these rare disorders will eventually lead to the disease cure and developing strategies like gene therapy that will be productive for the disease treatment.

Chapter 5 References

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by Kamran Saeed

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