Inactivation of the *Rps4* Gene on the Mouse X Chromosome

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The human RPS4X and RPS4Y genes, located on the X and Y chromosomes, appear to encode isoforms of ribosomal protein S4. Haploinsufficiency of these genes may contribute to the human phenotype known as Turner syndrome. Although RPS4X maps near the X-inactivation center, the gene is expressed on inactive human X chromosomes. We cloned Rps4, the mouse homolog of RPS4X. Exploiting allelic variation in Rps4, we examined transcription of the gene from active and inactive mouse X chromosomes *in vivo*, in female mice carrying an X-autosome translocation. We report that mouse Rps4, unlike human RPS4X, is subject to X inactivation. This finding may explain, at least in part, why the phenotypic consequences of X monosomy are less severe in mice than in humans. © 1991 Academic Press, Inc.

INTRODUCTION

Most X-linked mammalian genes are dosage compensated via X inactivation, the transcriptional silencing of all but one X chromosome per cell. A few genes, however, have been found to escape X inactivation. Among these are the human ZFX and RPS4X genes (Fisher et al., 1990; Schneider-Gädicke et al., 1989). ZFX encodes a putative DNA-binding protein whose function is unknown; RPS4X encodes ribosomal protein S4, a component of the small subunit. Recently, using a novel assay we showed that in the mouse, in contrast to the human, Zfx undergoes X inactivation (Adler et al., 1991). We used the same experimental strategy to determine the inactivation status of mouse Rps4.

The tissues of female mice are normally mosaic with respect to inactivation of paternally or maternally derived X chromosomes. However, in females carrying Searle's reciprocal translocation of chromosomes X and 16 (Searle, 1962), hereafter designated "T16H," the translocated X is active and the intact X is inactive in adult tissues (Lyon *et al.*, 1964). This is apparently the result of selection during embryogenesis against cells with abnormal levels of expression of genes on chromosomes X and 16 (Tagaki, 1980). Using T16H females, one can assess a gene's X-inactivation status by determining whether the allele on the intact (inactive) X is expressed.

The assay requires the ability to distinguish allelic products of the intact and translocated X chromosomes. As with Zfx, we took advantage of the high degree of genetic variation between inbred strains of laboratory mice and *Mus spretus* to identify nucleotide sequence polymorphisms in *Rps4* alleles. Exploiting restriction site variations and allele-specific oligonucleotide hybridization, we show that *Rps4*, like Zfx, is subject to X inactivation in the mouse.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Characterization of Mouse Rps4 cDNA

A λ gt10 testis cDNA library from mouse strain FVB (Mardon and Page, 1989) was screened by hybridization with human *RPS4Y* cDNA pDP1278 (Fisher *et al.*, 1990). Positives were subcloned as *Eco*RI fragments into the vector Bluescript (Stratagene). The largest cDNA subclone, pDP1340, contained a 0.9-kb insert; its nucleotide sequence was determined by the chain termination method using T7 DNA polymerase and [³⁵S]dATP.

Tissue Samples, Nucleic Acid Preparation, Reverse Transcription Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR)

M. spretus males were crossed to laboratory (C3H and C57BL/6 interbred) females carrying Searle's

Sequence data from this article have been deposited with the EMBL, GenBank, and DDBJ Nucleotide Sequence Databases under Accession No. M73436.

translocation. Female progeny (F1) were typed as either chromosomally normal (XX) or balanced translocation carriers (T16H) by X-linked isoenzyme analvsis (Adler et al., 1991; Krumlauf et al., 1986). RNAs were prepared from tissues as previously described (Adler et al., 1991) and treated with DNase prior to RT-PCR. Rps4 transcripts were amplified by **RT-PCR** using primers TGCTGGATAAGTTGA-CTGGC (coding region, sense) and AGCATGTC-TCCTAGAGACCA (3' untranslated region, antisense) (Fig. 2b). Conditions were as previously described (Adler et al., 1991), except that the PCR annealing step was performed at 60°C. Control reactions omitting reverse transcriptase yielded no product. The RT-PCR product of M. spretus parental RNA was gel-purified and directly sequenced (Casanova et al., 1990).

Electrophoresis, Restriction Analysis, and Oligonucleotide Hybridizations

PCR products were analyzed by restriction digestion and agarose gel electrophoresis as previously described (Adler *et al.*, 1991). Digests were transferred to GeneScreen Plus filters for hybridization. Allelespecific oligonucleotides spanning the 2-bp insertion/ deletion (Fig. 2) were chosen [GAGACCATCACC-CAC (*M. spretus*) and AGACCATTTCACCCA (C57BL/6)] and were labeled using $[\gamma^{-32}P]$ ATP and T4 polynucleotide kinase. Filters were hybridized for 2 h in 6× SSC, 10× Denhardt's, 0.5% SDS with 5 × 10⁵ cpm/ml of probe at 47°C (*M. spretus* oligonucleotide) or 37°C (C57BL/6 oligonucleotide), and then washed three times for 10 min each wash in 6× SSC, 1% SDS at 47°C (*M. spretus* oligonucleotide) or 42°C (C57BL/6 oligonucleotide).

RESULTS

Mouse Rps4 cDNA Sequence

We cloned mouse cDNA pDP1340 by cross-hybridization with human RPS4Y. Nucleotide sequencing of pDP1340 revealed a long open reading frame (Fig. 1). The predicted protein is identical in length and primary structure to human RPS4X (Fisher *et al.*, 1990) and to rat ribosomal protein S4 (Wool *et al.*, 1990), but differs from human RPS4Y at 19 of 263 amino acid residues. The genomic locus corresponding to cDNA pDP1340 was cloned, sequenced, and found to map to the mouse X chromosome (R. Hamvas, A.Z., and co-workers, submitted). As with human RPS4X(Fisher *et al.*, 1990), the mouse gene maps between the Ccg-1 and Pgk-1 genes, near the X-inactivation center (Keer *et al.*, 1990). Thus, nucleotide sequencing and comparative genetic mapping demonstrate that the pDP1340 gene, which we refer to as Rps4, is the mouse homolog of human RPS4X.

Allelic Variation

We amplified a 757-bp portion of the M. spretus Rps4 transcript by reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction and compared its sequence with that of FVB cDNA pDP1340 (Fig. 2). The sequences differed by two single nucleotide substitutions within the Rps4 coding region and by a 2-bp insertion/deletion immediately following the stop codon. One base-pair substitution, an A to G transition at nucleotide 393, is silent. The other, a C to A transversion at nucleotide 538, results in substitution of methionine for leucine at amino acid 180 in the predicted translation product. The nucleotide substitutions also create unique recognition sites in the M. spretus sequence for the restriction enzymes Bsp1286I and AfIII. The Rps4 alleles of other inbred laboratory strains examined, e.g., C57BL/6J (Fig. 3), are like that of FVB.

X Inactivation

RT-PCR amplification of *Rps4* transcripts from *M*. spretus, C57BL/6J, and XX and T16H F1 females yielded products of the same size as a control PCR with cDNA pDP1340 (Fig. 3a, lane 14). As expected, products from *M. spretus* were cleaved by *Bsp*1286I (lanes 6, 7), while those from C57BL/6J were not (lanes 8, 9). A portion of the RT-PCR product from each XX F1 female was cleaved, consistent with the expected mosaicism for X inactivation (lanes 10–13). In contrast, none of the product from the T16H F1 females was cleaved (lanes 2-5), indicating the absence of Rps4 transcription on the intact, inactive M. spretus X chromosome. Similar results were obtained using AfIII (not shown). Analysis of transcripts from Hprt, an X-linked gene known to undergo inactivation (Adler et al., 1991; Epstein et al., 1978), confirmed that X inactivation was mosaic in the XX F1 females and that the *M. spretus* X chromosome was inactive in the T16H F1 females (Fig. 3d).

To confirm the presence of M. spretus transcripts in the XX F1 females and their absence in the T16H F1 females, we examined the Rps4 RT-PCR products by hybridization with allele-specific oligonucleotides (Figs. 3b and 3c). The M. spretus and C57BL/6 oligonucleotides detected the expected 419-bp M. spretus restriction fragment (Fig. 3b, lanes 6, 7) and 759-bp C57BL/6J product (Fig. 3c, lanes 8, 9), as well as several RT-PCR artifacts (see below). Regardless of these artifacts, the probes were highly allele-specific and showed only faint cross-hybridization (Figs. 3b and 3c, lanes 6–9, 14). As expected, the C57BL/6 probe hybridized strongly to RT-PCR products from all F1 females (Fig. 3c, lanes 2–5, 10–13). The critical

-28 TGCAGCATTATTCAGGAAGOGOGCAOGC

1 ATGCCTOFTGSTCCCAAGAAACACCTGAAGGSTGTAGCTGCTCCAAAAACATTGGATGCTGGATAASTTGACTGGGSTGTTTGCTCCTCGTCCATCACTGSTCCTCACAAGCTGAGG														GAA																										
1	М	A	R	G	Ρ	ĸ	K	H	L	K	R	v	A	A	P	K	Н	W	M	L	D	K	L	т	G	v	F	A	P	R	P	s	Т	G	P	Н	ĸ	r	R	Е
															ACC	GAT	ATA																							
41	С	L	P	L	I	I	F	L	R	N	R	L	K	Y	A	L	Т	G	D	Е	v	K	K	I	С	М	Q	R	F	I	K	I	D	G	K	v	R	Т	D	I
241 ACCTACCTCCTCCTCCTCGCTTTATCGATGTCATCACCATTCACCACCGACCG															GAG	scc	AAG																							
81	т	Y	₽	A	G	F	М	D	v	I	s	I	D	K	Т	G	Ε	N	F	R	L	I	Y	D	т	K	G	R	F	A	V	H	R	I	Т	P	Е	Е	A	K
361 TACAMSTITUTICAAAGIGAGAAAGATCTTIISTAGGCACAAAAGGAATCOOGCACCIGGIGACOCAIGATGCIOGTACTATTOGGTACOCIGATCOOCICAICAAGGIGAACGAC															ACC	ATT																								
121	Y	K	L	С	К	V	R	K	I	F	v	G	Т	K	G	I	Ρ	H	L	v	Т	H	D	A	R	Т	I	R	Y	Ρ	D	Ρ	L	I	K	V	N	D	Т	Ι
481	CACATTCATTTCCACACACOCAAAATAACTCACTTCATCAAGITTCACACTCCCAACCTGTGTATGGTGACTCGACGGCGCGAACCTTGGGAAGAATTGGTGTAATCACCAACAGAG															GAG	AGA																							
161	Q	I	D	L	Ε	T	G	K	I	Т	D	F	I	K	F	D	Т	G	N	L	С	М	v	Т	G	G	A	N	L	G	R	I	G	v	I	Т	N	R	E	R
601																CTT	<u></u>	AGA																						
201	н	Ρ	G	S	F	D	V	V	н	V	к	D	A	N	G	N	S	F	A	Т	R	L	S	N	I	F	v	I	G	K	G	N	K	₽	W	I	S	L	Ρ	R
721	GGA	AAA	GGA	OTA	œ	CIC	ACC	ATI	GCI	GAA	GAG	AGA	GAC	AAG	AGG	CTT	œ	œ	aaa	CAG	AGC	AGI	œ	TGA	AAT	GGI	CIC	IAG	GAG	ACA	IGC	IGG	AAA	AGIN	JTT.	IGI	ACA	AGC	CIT	ICT
241	G	К	G	I	R	L	Т	I	A	E	E	R	D	K	R	L	A	A	K	Q	S	S	G	*																

FIG. 1. Nucleotide sequence of mouse Rps4 cDNA pDP1340 and the predicted amino acid sequence of the encoded protein. The complete nucleotide sequence of the cDNA insert of plasmid pDP1340 is shown. The predicted 263-amino-acid sequence is given below the corresponding nucleotide sequence. Numbering of nucleotides and amino acids begins with the first in-frame AUG codon. There is a 5' untranslated region of 28 nucleotides.

finding was that the *M. spretus* probe hybridized strongly to products only from XX F1 females (Fig. 3b; compare lanes 10-13 with lanes 2-5). We conclude that in the T16H females there is little or no tran-

scription of *Rps4* on the inactivated *M. spretus* X chromosome; mouse *Rps4* is subject to X inactivation. Two types of RT-PCR artifacts were detected by hybridization. One type included abundant small



FIG. 2. Allelic variation at *Rps4*. (a) The *M. spretus Rps4* RT-PCR product was directly sequenced and compared with the sequence of FVB cDNA pDP1340. Nucleotide sequence polymorphisms are boxed. (b) Schematic representation of sequence variation. Thick lines, translated regions; arrows, RT-PCR primers; dashed lines, 2-bp insertion/deletion. Numbering of positions of primers and restriction sites is as in Fig. 1.



FIG. 3. Rps4 undergoes X inactivation. RT-PCR analysis of (a-c) Rps4 and (d) Hprt transcripts in tissue RNAs from T16H F1 females (lanes 2-5), an *M. spretus* female (lanes 6, 7), a C57BL/6J female (lanes 8, 9), and XX F1 females (lanes 10-13). Similar results were obtained with a fourth T16H F1 female (not shown). RNAs were prepared from kidney (lanes 2, 8, 13), spleen (lanes 3, 5), liver (lanes 4, 7, 9, 11), or brain (lanes 6, 10, 12). RNAs in lanes 2 and 3 derive from the same animal, as do those in 10 and 11 and those in 12 and 13. RT-PCR products were restriction digested with *Bsp*1286I (in the case of *Rps4*) or *Mae*II (*Hprt*) prior to agarose gel electrophoresis. Lane 14: PCR amplifications of (a-c) Rps4 cDNA pDP1340 or (d) Hprt cDNA pHPT5 (American Type Culture Collection). Digests prepared as in a were transferred to nylon membrane and hybridized with oligonucleotides specific to the (b) *M. spretus* or (c) C57BL/6 alleles at *Rps4*.

products that were not prominent by ethidium bromide staining (e.g., Fig. 3b, lanes 6, 7, 10–13). These small products, which were present in both parental and progeny samples, were allele-specific. The second type of artifacts was larger and gave less hybridiza-

tion. One, a 419-bp Bsp1286I fragment detected by the C57BL/6 probe (Fig. 3c, lanes 10, 11, and 13), represents formation in vitro of chimeric molecules (Paabo et al., 1990; Meyerhans et al., 1990). Another, a 759-bp product that hybridized to the M. spretus probe but was not cleaved by Bsp1286I (Fig. 3b, lanes 10-13), could reflect similar chimeric products, or alternatively, heteroduplex molecules that are not cleaved by the enzyme. These two larger artifacts were present only in samples from progeny with both allelic transcripts, and not in parental samples. The specificity of the RT-PCR assay was also confirmed by direct sequencing of the parental products (Fig. 2a, M. spretus, and data not shown, FVB). Therefore, the artifacts do not interfere with our conclusion that in the T16H females the M. spretus Rps4 allele is X-inactivated.

One might suppose that in the XX F1 females the proportion of allelic transcripts derived from the M. spretus X chromosome would be similar for various X-linked genes. We note that, as judged by restriction digestion, the M. spretus chromosome appears to contribute a smaller fraction of the transcripts for Rps4 than for Hprt (Figs. 3a and 3d, lanes 10-13). However, the RT-PCR artifacts may confound this assessment. For example, heteroduplexes that are not cleaved by the restriction enzyme would result in underrepresentation of the M. spretus Rps4 product (and overrepresentation of the *M. spretus Hprt* product). Also, the restriction analysis does not take into account the abundant smaller RT-PCR products. Finally, it is not certain that the allelic products are amplified with equal efficiencies. For these reasons, we do not believe that the intensity of the ethidium bromide-stained bands necessarily reflects the true ratio of allelic transcripts in the XX F1 females.

DISCUSSION

The result for mouse Rps4 contrasts with the previous finding that human RPS4X escapes X inactivation. In the absence of an in vivo experimental system, human RPS4X was tested for inactivation in immortalized cultured cells (Fisher et al., 1990). We took advantage of a genetic system to assay mouse Rps4 in vivo. After this work was completed. Ashworth et al. (1991), in a similar study, reported that Rps4 was Xinactivated in liver tissue of a single mouse. Our data corroborate their finding and extend the result to multiple tissues from a number of individuals. Interestingly, mouse Rps4 and human RPS4X map to a conserved genetic linkage group that includes the X-inactivation center (Fisher et al., 1990; R. Hamvas, A.Z., and co-workers, submitted); the species difference in X inactivation cannot be explained by the position of the genes with respect to the inactivation center.

Human RPS4X is one of several X-linked genes that escape inactivation and have a homolog on the Y chromosome (Fisher et al., 1990; Schneider-Gädicke et al., 1989). Such Y homologs may serve to equalize amounts of gene product in males and females. This equalization could be especially important for ribosomal protein S4, a stoichiometric component of a ubiquitous multisubunit structure. In mouse, no Ylinked homolog of Rps4 has been identified (Ashworth et al., 1991; A.Z., unpublished results). Because nucleotide sequence divergence (e.g., silent or neutral substitutions) could explain this failure, it would be premature to conclude that no mouse Y homolog exists. Nonetheless, our results offer a teleologic rationale for the absence of a mouse Y homolog: because mouse Rps4 is dosage compensated by X inactivation, a Y homolog might confer little or no selective advantage.

One percent of human embryos are monosomic for the X chromosome. Most of these abort spontaneously (Carr, 1965; Hassold, 1986). Those that survive to birth display the Turner phenotype, with short stature, gonadal degeneration, and multiple somatic anatomic abnormalities (Ullrich, 1930; Turner, 1938). XO mice are less severely affected, with only mild intrauterine growth retardation, diminished fertility, and no apparent anatomic defects (Cattanach, 1962; Lyon and Hawker, 1973; Burgoyne et al., 1983). It has been hypothesized that, in humans, haploinsufficiency of the RPS4 genes contributes to the Turner phenotype (Fisher et al., 1990). Because human RPS4X is not dosage compensated, one would predict less expression in X-monosomic than in XX embryos. In contrast, one would predict comparable expression of Rps4 in XO and XX mouse embryos following X inactivation. It is possible that, at least in part, the phenotypic consequences of X monosomy are less severe in the mouse because mouse Rps4, unlike human RPS4X, is dosage compensated by X inactivation.

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