

The *GNAS* Complex Locus and Human Diseases Associated with Loss-of-Function Mutations or Epimutations within This Imprinted Gene

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Key Words

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Abstract

GNAS is a complex imprinted locus leading to several different gene products that show exclusive monoallelic expression. *GNAS* also encodes the α -subunit of the stimulatory G protein (*Gsa*), a ubiquitously expressed signaling protein that is essential for the actions of many hormones and other endogenous molecules. *Gsa* is expressed biallelically in most tissues but its expression is silenced from the paternal allele in a small number of tissues. The tissue-specific paternal silencing of *Gsa* results in different parent-of-origin-specific phenotypes in patients who carry inactivating *GNAS* mutations. In this paper, we review the *GNAS* complex locus and discuss how disruption of *Gsa* expression and the expression of other *GNAS* products shape the phenotypes of human disorders caused by mutations in this gene.

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The imprinted *GNAS* gene is located on the long arm of chromosome 20 in humans [1]. *GNAS* is a complex locus giving rise to multiple gene products, including transcripts that encode the α -subunit of the stimulatory guanine nucleotide-binding protein (G protein) (*Gsa*), extra-

large *Gsa* (*XLas*), and neuroendocrine secretory protein 55 (*NESP55*), as well as the noncoding *A/B* (also referred to as *1A*) and antisense transcripts (*GNAS-AS1*). Encoded by *GNAS* exons 1–13 is *Gsa*, which is a ubiquitously expressed signaling protein mediating the actions of many hormones and other endogenous molecules via the generation of intracellular cyclic AMP (cAMP) [2–4] (fig. 1). *NESP55*, *XLas*, and *A/B* (also referred to as *1A* or *1'*) all contain their own unique first exons, which are spliced onto exon 2 of *GNAS*, i.e. all of these transcripts from this point on are identical in their sequence to *Gsa* [5–8]. *GNAS-AS1* consists of distinct exons that do not overlap with any of the other exons [9, 10]. There are also shortened neural transcripts of *Gsa* and *XLas*, termed *GsaN1* and *XLN1*, which terminate prematurely before exon 4 [11, 12] (fig. 1).

Genomic imprinting results in the expression of a subset of genes according to their parental origin. The *GNAS* cluster contains a number of differentially methylated regions (DMR) that encompass the promoters of the different transcripts. The promoters of *XLas*, *A/B*, and *AS* transcripts are exclusively paternally expressed and the *NESP55* transcript shows exclusive maternal expression, and their promoters are methylated on the inactive allele [9, 10, 13–16] (fig. 1). The genomic region comprising the putative promoter of *Gsa* is not methylated and, consistent with the absence of differential methylation in this region, the *Gsa* transcript is biallelically expressed in

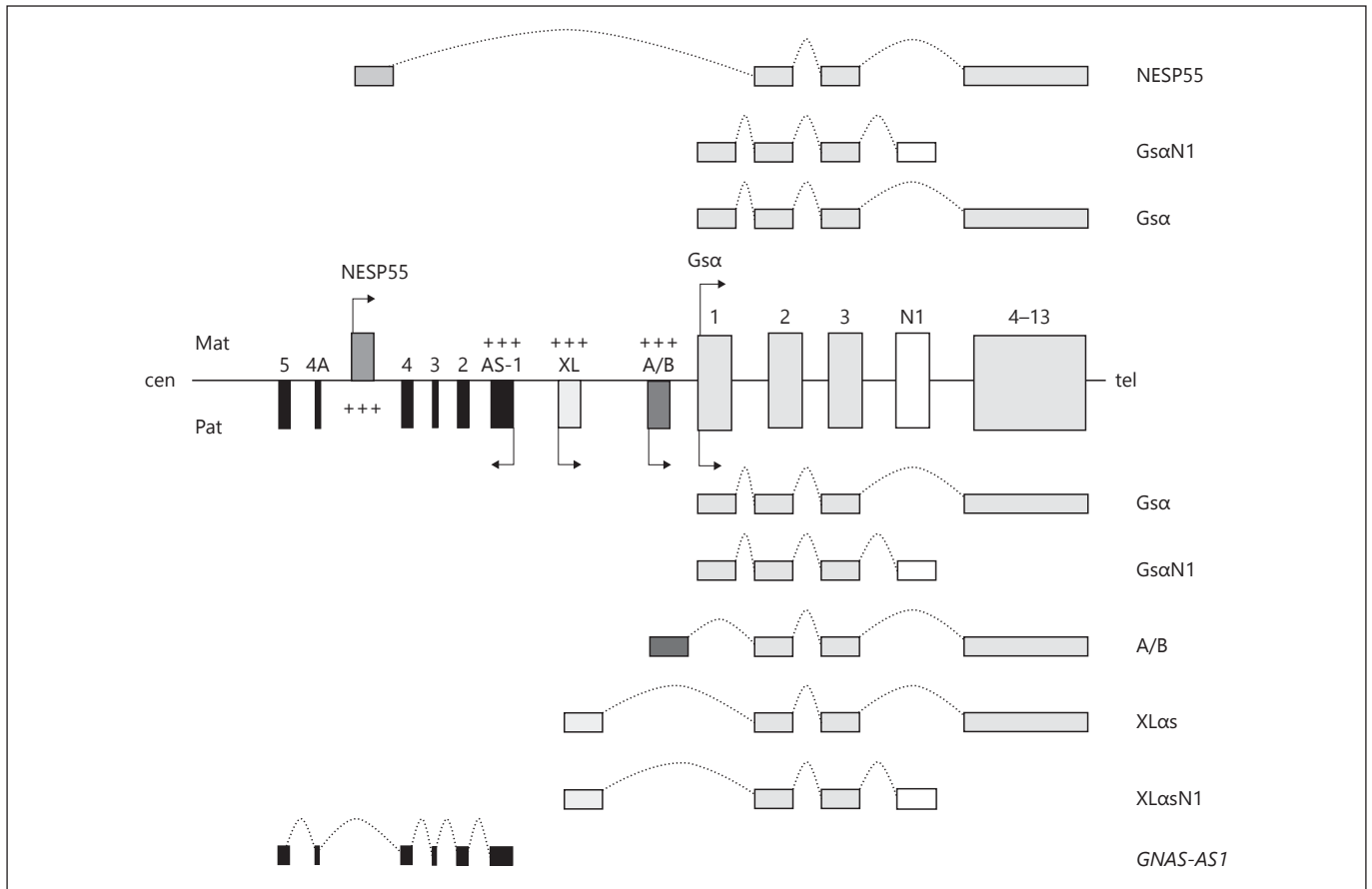


Fig. 1. Multiple imprinted sense and antisense transcripts from the complex *GNAS* locus. Exons 1–13 encode *Gsa*, which is biallelic in most tissues. Several other transcripts arise from differentially methylated promoters, including the maternally expressed *NESP55* and the paternally expressed *XLas* and *A/B* (also referred to as 1A or 1') and the neural transcript of *Gsa* and *XLas* as *GsaN1* and *XLasN1*, respectively. All of these transcripts use individual first exons that splice onto exons 2–13 of *GNAS*. Another noncoding transcript is also derived from the paternal *GNAS* allele by using

its own exons, but this transcript is made from the antisense strand (*AS* transcript, also referred to as *Nespas* in mice). Boxes and connecting lines depict exons and introns, respectively. Maternal (Mat) and paternal (Pat) *GNAS* products are illustrated above and below the gene structure, respectively, with splicing patterns indicated by broken lines. + indicate methylated DMR promoters either on the paternal allele (*NESP55*) or on the maternal allele (*XLas*, *A/B*, *AS* exon 1). Please note that the figure is not drawn to scale.

most tissues. However, as-yet-undefined mechanisms silence paternal *Gsa* expression in some tissues, including proximal renal tubules, neonatal brown adipose tissue, thyroid, gonads, the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus and pituitary [17–23].

Diseases Caused by Inactivating Mutations in *Gsa*-Coding *GNAS* Exons

Genetic alterations affecting the *GNAS* complex locus are responsible for several inherited disorders. Consistent with the parent-of-origin-specific expression of *Gsa* in

some tissues, the phenotypes that are derived from these mutations depend on the parent transmitting the mutation. Pseudohypoparathyroidism (PHP) type I refers to partial or complete end-organ resistance to the actions of parathyroid hormone (PTH) and is characterized by a failure to increase urinary cAMP and urinary phosphate excretion in response to exogenous PTH administration [2–4, 24]. In PHP-II, nephrogenous cAMP generation in response to exogenous PTH administration is normal, but the urinary excretion of phosphate is impaired [25]. Although the common biochemical features of PHP are hypocalcemia, hyperphosphatemia, and elevated PTH levels, Albright hereditary osteodystrophy (AHO) is a

Table 1. Main disease subtypes related to impaired Gsα activity

	PTH resistance	Additional hormone resistance	AHO features	Urinary cAMP to PTH	Phosphaturia to PTH	Erythrocyte Gsα activity	Gene defect
PHP-Ia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Blunted	Blunted	Reduced	<i>Gsα</i>
PHP-Ic	Yes	Yes	Yes	Blunted	Blunted	Normal ^c	<i>Gsα</i>
PPHP	No	No	Yes	Normal	Normal	Reduced	<i>Gsα</i>
POH ^a	No	No	No	Normal	Normal	Reduced	<i>Gsα</i>
PHP-Ib ^b	Yes	No	No	Blunted	Blunted	Normal	<i>STX16</i> <i>NESP55/AS</i>

^a POH patients sometimes have hormone resistance and/or mild AHO features; PTH-induced urinary excretion of cAMP and phosphate has been directly measured in few cases, but in most cases these are predicted to be normal because of the paternal origin of the mutations.

^b The genetic defects alter the differential methylation status of *GNAS*. Some patients additionally show mild TSH resistance; in several cases AHO features have been reported. A recent study showed mildly diminished erythrocyte Gsα activity in a series of patients with *GNAS* methylation defects.

^c In cases caused by Gsα mutations, a normal response is observed when stimulating the reconstituted erythrocytes with direct activators of Gsα.

part of the clinical picture in PHP-Ia, PHP-Ic, and occasionally PHP-Ib (table 1). The features of AHO, as described originally by Albright et al. [26], include obesity with a round face, short stature, brachydactyly, subcutaneous ossifications, and mental retardation (see below for details).

PHP-Ia and PHP-Ic

PHP-Ia is caused by heterozygous mutations located throughout the *Gsα*-coding *GNAS* exons. Homozygous mutations that completely disrupt Gsα activity seem to be incompatible with life, as judged by embryonic lethality observed in mice with homozygous ablation of *Gnas* and by the absence of any homozygous mutations described in humans; however, a single case having a compound heterozygous mutation with 10–20% Gsα activity has been reported [2, 4, 27].

Typically, the heterozygous mutations described in patients with PHP-Ia lead to impaired cAMP generation due to unstable or no Gsα protein from the mutant allele, or impaired stimulation of adenylyl cyclase by the mutant protein. This is evidenced in biochemical assays in which patient-derived erythrocytes are used to complement membranes from turkey erythrocytes or S49 murine lymphoma cell membranes that lack endogenous Gsα activity [28, 29]. While these assays are utilized in the diagnosis of this disorder, a normal response in the presence of clinical features typical of PHP-Ia is the basis for the definition of PHP-Ic. Patients with PHP-Ic could carry mutations in other genes. However, Gsα mutants that are

able to stimulate adenylyl cyclase but are defective in receptor coupling also appear fully functional when the erythrocyte Gsα bioactivity assay is performed by using direct stimulators of Gsα activity, such as a GTP analog, rather than a receptor agonist. Several cases with PHP-Ic have been shown to carry these receptor-uncoupling Gsα mutations, which are located near the C-terminal end of the Gsα molecule, consistent with the importance of this region in receptor interactions [2, 30, 31]. Nevertheless, the clinical phenotype of patients diagnosed with PHP-Ic is indistinguishable from that of patients diagnosed with PHP-Ia. By and large, genotype-phenotype correlation does not exist in diseases caused by inactivating *GNAS* mutations. However, a missense mutation (A366S) identified in 2 boys generates a temperature-sensitive Gsα mutant that causes testotoxicosis due to constitutive activity at the lower temperature of the testes [32], but instability at body temperature, and an AVDT amino acid repeat insertion identified in 2 siblings, results in an unstable but overactive Gsα mutant that leads to transient neonatal diarrhea due to enhanced cAMP signaling in the gut [33].

Consistent with the fact that Gsα signaling and cAMP production play important roles in the action of a variety of hormones, PTH resistance is not the sole hormonal defect that results from inactivating Gsα mutations. Additional hormonal abnormalities including hypothyroidism, growth hormone deficiency, and hypogonadism are also demonstrable in patients with PHP-Ia, reflecting target-organ resistance to TSH, growth hor-

mone-releasing hormone (GHRH), and gonadotropins [2–4].

Patients with PHP-Ia frequently present to the clinic with hypothyroidism due to end-organ resistance to TSH, which can sometimes be detected in neonatal screening for congenital hypothyroidism [2–4, 19–21, 34–36]. Although nearly all patients develop hypocalcemia, this defect often manifests itself later in life, usually after early childhood [35, 36]. It is therefore possible that PTH resistance is delayed. Since the development of hormone resistance depends critically on the silencing of *Gsa* expression from the normal paternal allele, if there is latency in PTH resistance, this finding would suggest that the allelic *Gsa* silencing in the proximal renal tubule is established after the early postnatal period. Accordingly, no evidence for predominant maternal expression of *Gsa* has been found in human fetal renal cortex [37]. Using mice heterozygous for ablation of either maternal or paternal *Gnas* exon 1, we found that the biochemical features of PTH resistance develop after early postnatal development, and that expression of *Gsa* is biallelic in the mouse renal proximal tubule during early postnatal life but becomes maternal with age [unpubl. data]. It is currently unknown whether the predominantly maternal expression of *Gsa* is established earlier in life in other tissues. Future studies are required to address this question.

PHP-Ia and Pseudopseudohypoparathyroidism

Maternally inherited mutations in *GNAS* exons 1–13 lead to PHP-Ia with multiple hormone resistance and AHO, whereas paternal inheritance of the same mutations leads to AHO features in the absence of hormone resistance. The latter condition is termed PPHP [38]. PHP-Ia and PPHP can be found in the same kindred, but not in the same sibship [39, 40]. This parent-of-origin-specific mode of inheritance for hormone resistance could be explained by the tissue-specific paternal silencing of *Gsa*. In the case of a maternal mutation, a significant loss of *Gsa* activity exists in those tissues in which paternal *Gsa* is silenced, thus leading to hormone resistance. When inherited paternally, the same mutations do not severely reduce the *Gsa* activity and allow normal hormone responsiveness. On the other hand, heterozygous inactivating mutations of *Gsa* lead to 50% loss of protein activity in tissues in which *Gsa* expression is biallelic, such as skin fibroblasts, erythrocytes, white adipose tissue, bone, and growth plate chondrocytes [17, 28, 29, 34, 41, 42]. Clinical findings related to those tissues are due presumably to *Gsa* haploinsufficiency and are found independently of the parental origin of the mutation. The

actions of some hormones, such as antidiuretic hormone and ACTH, seem to be unimpaired despite the 50% reduction in *Gsa* activity in their target tissues [34, 43, 44], indicating a lack of haploinsufficiency.

AHO features, which are fairly nonspecific, can be present in a patient regardless of the parental origin of the *Gsa* mutation. Thus, it is thought that AHO results primarily from *Gsa* haploinsufficiency in those tissues where *Gsa* expression is biallelic. Consistent with this interpretation, growth plate chondrocytes that lack either the maternal or the paternal *Gsa* allele differentiate into hypertrophic chondrocytes earlier than wild-type chondrocytes in a chimeric mouse model [42]. Likewise, mice with ablation of *Gnas* exon 1 develop subcutaneous ossifications regardless of whether the disrupted allele is inherited from the mother or the father [45]. Nonetheless, recent data from human studies have revealed that obesity and cognitive impairment occur predominantly in patients with PHP-Ia rather than PPHP [46, 47], indicating that the mechanisms leading to these AHO features involve *Gsa* imprinting.

Progressive Osseous Heteroplasia

Progressive osseous heteroplasia (POH) is a severe, rare manifestation of AHO characterized by severe heterotopic ossification that affects deep connective tissue and skeletal muscle [48]. Patients with POH often lack any features of AHO or hormone resistance. Based on published cases, it appears that the great majority of *GNAS* mutations leading to POH are inherited paternally [49–51], suggesting the involvement of a loss or impaired function of the paternally expressed protein in the development of the severe ossifications. *GNAS* mutations identified in patients with POH are the same as those found in PHP-Ia or PPHP, and it is unclear why some cases present only with PHP-Ia or PPHP while others develop POH [3, 48–51]. This phenotypic variation and different disease presentation of a *GNAS* mutation might involve the genetic background, epigenetic changes, and/or environmental factors.

Mouse Models of PHP-Ia

The homozygous disruption of *Gnas* exon 1, which is exclusively utilized by *Gsa*, causes embryonic lethality during early postimplantation stages, consistent with the essential roles of this protein in numerous cellular functions [52, 53]. Heterozygous disruption of this exon on the maternal allele (*Gnas* E1m-/p+) leads to moderate

Table 2. Phenotypes of *Gnas* disruption in mice that resemble human diseases caused by *GNAS* mutations

	Deleted allele	Affected proteins	Phenotype	References
<i>Gnas</i> exon 1	Paternal	Paternal Gsa	Mildly decreased body weight and length, heterotopic ossification	45, 52, 53, 54
	Maternal	Maternal Gsa	Perinatal mortality, and neonatal edema Adults: PTH resistance, increased adiposity with normal food intake, decreased length, a low metabolic rate, decreased sympathetic activity, and heterotopic ossification	45, 52, 53, 54
<i>Gnas</i> exon 2	Paternal	Paternal Gsa, XLas, XLN1	Perinatal mortality, poor suckling, decreased adiposity Adults: lean phenotype with decreased adiposity, a high metabolic rate, decreased length, increased sympathetic nervous system activity, and fibromatous skin tumors	17, 53, 55, 62
	Maternal	Maternal Gsa	Neonatal edema and preweaning mortality Adults: PTH resistance, increased adiposity with normal food intake, decreased length, a low metabolic rate, decreased sympathetic activity, and fibromatous skin tumors	17, 53, 55, 62
<i>Gnasxl</i>	Paternal	XLas, XLN1, ALEX ^a	Perinatal mortality, poor suckling, decreased adiposity Adults: lean phenotype with decreased adiposity, a high metabolic rate, decreased length, and increased sympathetic activity	56, 57
ENU point mutation <i>Gnas</i> exon 6	Paternal (Sml)	Paternal Gsa, XLas	Preweaning lethality, postnatal growth retardation with normal suckling, small body size Adults: an increased metabolic rate, small body size, decreased length and BMI, adiposity unaffected by a high-fat diet, mild PTH elevation, hypocalcemia, hypophosphatemia, and heterotopic ossification	58–61
	Maternal (Oed)	Maternal Gsa	Perinatal mortality and edema, microcardia Adults: PTH resistance, increased adiposity, low metabolic rate, heterotopic ossification	58–61
<i>Nesp55</i> DMR ^b	Maternal	Nesp55 Maternally silenced Gsa in some tissues Maternally derepressed 1A, XLas	Neonatal edema; hypoglycemia; 100% early postnatal mortality PTH resistance	83, 84

^a ALEX is an alternative protein of unknown function, generated from the XLas exon alone through the use of an alternative reading frame.

^b Paternal deletion of the *Nesp55* DMR has no detectable phenotype.

(50%) preweaning mortality and edema at birth [52, 53]. Surviving mice show a phenotype similar to that observed in PHP-1a patients, including obesity, a decreased metabolic rate, and PTH resistance [52, 54] (table 2). Evidence for TSH resistance was not observed in one of the mouse models in which *Gnas* exon 1 was ablated [53], while el-

evated TSH was documented in another model [52]. This discrepancy likely reflects strain-specific differences, although it is conceivable that it results from the difference in the extent of the genomic deletion between these two models. Interestingly, mildly elevated PTH and TSH levels have been reported for one of the two knockout mod-

els when the disruption is inherited paternally [52]. Likewise, in the other paternal *Gnas* exon 1 knockout mouse model, our recent analyses demonstrated a mild elevation of PTH at 3 weeks of age [unpubl. data]. Unlike these findings in mice with paternal disruption of *Gnas*, humans with paternal heterozygous inactivating mutations of *GNAS*, i.e. patients with PPHP, have not been reported to have any evidence for hormone resistance.

Disruption of maternal *Gnas* exon 2 results in a phenotype fairly similar to that caused by disruption of maternal *Gnas* exon 1 [17, 55] (table 2). However, the same is not true for disruption of paternal *Gnas* exon 2 (*Gnas* E2m+/p-), as this genetic modification leads to severe early postnatal lethality and defects in glucose and energy metabolism. A small percentage of *Gnas* E2m+/p- mice survive to adulthood and show apparently normal life spans when crossed to outbred strains, but those mice are hypermetabolic and lean [55]. The phenotype of *Gnas* E2m+/p- mice is strikingly similar to the phenotype of mice in which *XLas* is ablated (*Gnasxl* m+/p- mice) (table 2), implicating the deficiency of this paternally expressed *Gnas* product in the phenotype [56, 57].

The oedematous-small (*Oed-Sml*) is another mouse model of the *Gnas* locus in which a point mutation in *Gnas* exon 6 (V159E) is induced by ethylnitrosourea (ENU) [58, 59] (table 2). Maternally transmitted mutations result in microcardia with gross edema (*Oed*); note that neonatal edema has been reported for mice with maternal heterozygous *Gnas* exon 1 ablation [52, 53]. However, when this point mutation is transmitted paternally, the offspring shows growth retardation (*Sml*), which is likely related to the disruption of the paternally expressed *Gnas* product *XLas* [58–60]. Both of these maternal and paternal phenotypes are early postnatal and are associated with high lethality within this developmental period [59]. In surviving adult mice carrying this point mutation on the maternal allele, hypocalcemia, hyperphosphatemia, and elevated PTH levels have been documented, consistent with the findings observed in PPHP-Ia patients [18]. Recent investigations have also revealed mildly elevated PTH and hypocalcemia in older (>12 months) *Sml* mice, but these biochemical changes have been accompanied by hypophosphatemia, unlike the findings in *Oed* mice and other mouse models with maternal *Gsa* ablation, which show hyperphosphatemia [61].

Subcutaneous heterotopic ossifications, as seen in patients with AHO, have also been documented in mice heterozygous for *Gnas* exon 1 ablation and in *Oed/Sml* mice [45, 61] (table 2). By 1 year of age, nearly all male mice with these genetic modifications develop subcutaneous

ossifications, but precursor lesions can be detected by histological analyses as early as 3 months of age [45]. Similar to the findings in patients with AHO, the ossifications develop regardless of the parent of origin, implicating the deficiency of biallically expressed *Gsa* in the pathogenesis. In mice heterozygous for *Gnas* exon 2 disruption, osseous lesions have not been detected, but instead calcified fibromas or angiofibromas of the skin are found by 4 months of age, independently of whether the maternal or the paternal *Gnas* exon 2 is disrupted [62] (table 2).

PHP Type Ib: Hormone Resistance Caused by Epigenetic Alterations of *GNAS*

In certain patients, hormone resistance is confined to the renal proximal tubular action of PTH, and this form of PHP is defined as PHP type Ib [2–4]. Some PHP-Ib patients have been shown to have mildly elevated TSH levels, indicating TSH resistance [21]. Some recent studies have also shown that AHO features can exist in patients who have epigenetic abnormalities of *GNAS* that are typically found in PHP-Ib [63–66].

Autosomal Dominant PHP-Ib

Most PHP-Ib cases are sporadic, but some cases are familial and inherited in an autosomal dominant fashion (AD-PHP-Ib). Similar to the hormone resistance in PHP-Ia, the hormone resistance in PHP-Ib is inherited only from female obligate carriers [67, 68], yet no mutations in *GNAS* exons encoding *Gsa* have been described in patients with PHP-Ib. On the other hand, a genetic linkage analysis has mapped AD-PHP-Ib to a locus within the telomeric end of chromosome 20q which comprises the *GNAS* locus [67]. It has subsequently been revealed that PHP-Ib patients have methylation defects within *GNAS* [68, 69] and, accordingly, various paternal uniparental disomies involving chromosome 20 have been documented in some PHP-Ib patients who lack the maternal methylation pattern in this locus [70–74]. The most consistent epigenetic abnormality in both sporadic and familial PHP-Ib is a loss of methylation in the exon A/B DMR, which is often the only methylation defect in AD-PHP-Ib cases (fig. 2) [68, 69].

In patients with AD-PHP-Ib, genetic studies have revealed deletions in the neighboring *STX16* locus, the gene encoding syntaxin 16 [75, 76]. Recently, a large deletion removing *GNAS* exon *NESP55* was discovered in a single AD-PHP-Ib family [77]. Both the *STX16* and the *NESP55* deletions are inherited from female obligate carriers, con-

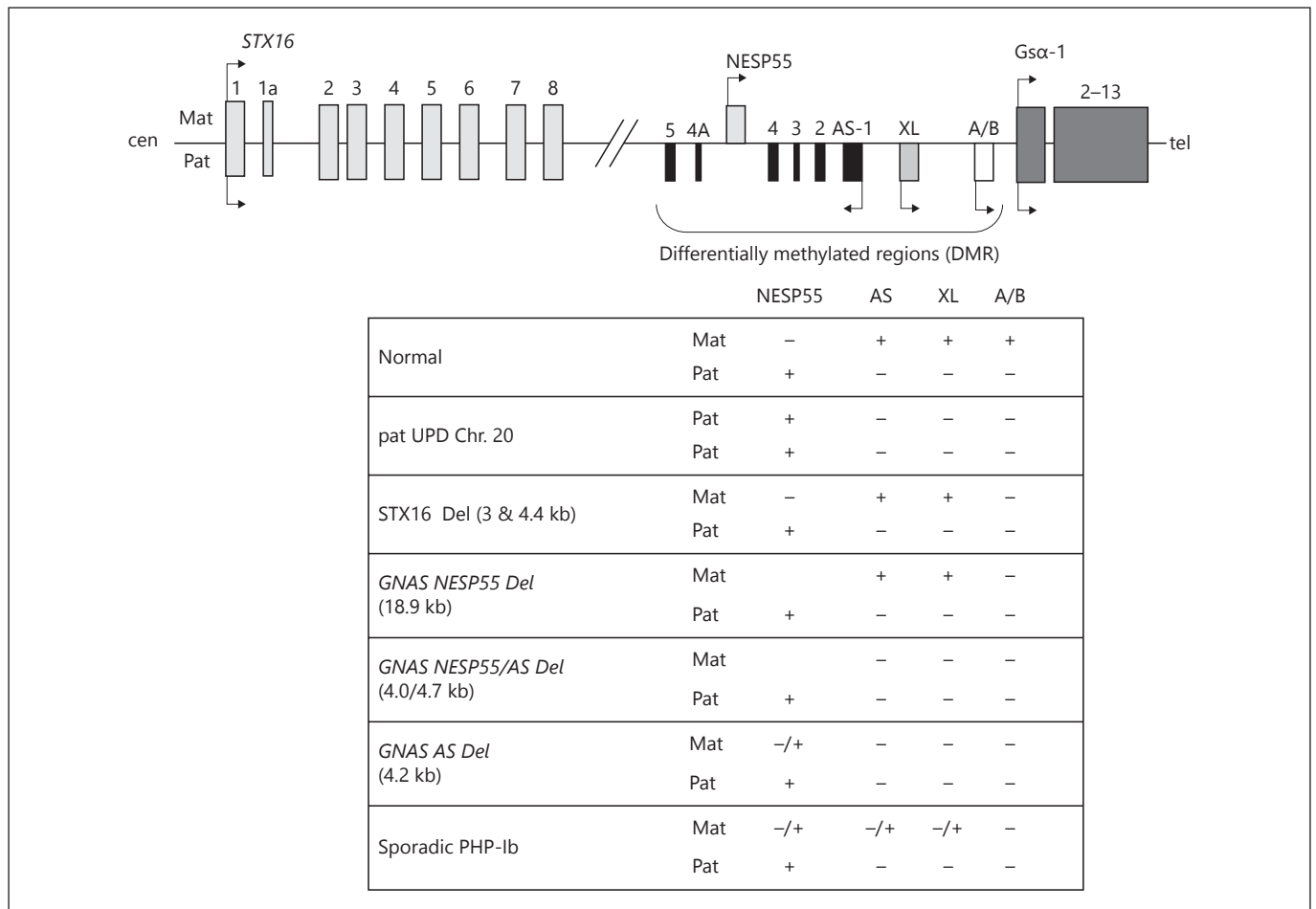


Fig. 2. Genetic and epigenetic defects causing PHP-Ib. Maternal *STX16* deletions cause isolated *A/B* loss of methylation; maternal deletion of *NESP55* leads to isolated *A/B* loss of methylation with hemizyosity in *NESP55*. However, maternal deletions affecting *AS* exons 3 and 4 result in a loss of methylation at all maternal

GNAS imprints. Sporadic PHP-Ib cases show loss of methylation at exon *XL*, the promoter of *AS*, and exon *A/B*, and a gain of methylation at *NESP55*. Please note that the figure is not drawn to scale. Note that the methylation changes at the *NESP55*, *AS* promoter, and *XL* in sporadic PHP-Ib cases are often, but not always, partial.

sistent with the imprinted mode of inheritance for AD-PHP-Ib [75–77]. Interestingly, *STX16* is located ~220 kb centromeric of exon *A/B* and encodes a member of the SNARE family proteins involved in intracellular trafficking [78, 79]. *STX16* is not an imprinted gene, and therefore it is thought that the deletion disrupts a regulatory element of *GNAS* controlling the methylation of exon *A/B*. However, a mouse model carrying a deletion of *Stx16* exon 4–6, which is equivalent to the 3-kb *STX16* deletion frequently found in AD-PHP-Ib cases, does not have PTH resistance or *GNAS* methylation abnormalities regardless of the parental origin of the genetic defect [80], suggesting that this putative *cis*-acting regulatory element of *Gnas* is located in a different position in mice.

Some AD-PHP-Ib cases show methylation defects in multiple *GNAS* DMR. In 3 unrelated AD-PHP-Ib families in whom affected individuals showed methylation defects in all *GNAS* DMR, deletions of all or part of the *NESP55* DMR have been identified, including exon *NESP55* and exons 3 and 4 of the *GNAS-AS1* transcript [81, 82]. In 2 families, the deletions are nearly identical and remove the entire *NESP55* DMR [81]. In the third family, the sequences comprising exon *NESP55* are preserved, but *GNAS-AS1* transcript exons 3 and 4 are deleted along with a significant portion of intron 2 [82]. The deletions affecting the *NESP55* DMR also point to a *cis*-acting element regulating the imprinting of the maternal *GNAS* allele. In fact, maternal deletion of the entire

Nesp55 DMR in mice leads to loss of all maternal *Gnas* methylation imprints, leading in kidneys to increased *IA* transcription and decreased *Gsα* mRNA levels, and to hypocalcemia, hyperphosphatemia, and hyperparathyroidism; note that no methylation abnormality has been detected in mice that inherited this deletion paternally [83, 84] (table 2). Furthermore, the maternal *Nesp55* deletion in mice leads to hypoglycemia and 100% mortality during the early postnatal period [83, 84]. Recent investigations have revealed that the loss of *XLas* imprinting, which is associated with a two-fold increase in the expression of this *Gnas* transcript, is responsible for the early postnatal hypoglycemia and lethality in mice with maternal deletion of *Nesp55* DMR [84]. Normalization of the *XLas* expression level in the latter mice by crossing them with mice in which the paternal *XLas* allele is disrupted allows generation of double-mutant offspring that show markedly improved survival, thus providing a viable model of human AD-PHP-Ib [84] (table 2). It should be noted that the early postnatal lethality and hypoglycemia phenotypes in the latter mice are not typical features of patients with PHP-Ib, although neonatal hypoglycemia has been described in a single patient with paternal UPD of chromosome 20q who had PHP-Ib and broad *GNAS* imprinting defects including a loss of *XLas* imprinting [70]. The phenotypic consequence of *XLas* loss of imprinting may be specific to mice or it may be compensated or masked by other genetic or environmental factors in humans.

Sporadic PHP-Ib

Epigenetic changes that involve multiple *GNAS* DMR are mostly observed in sporadic PHP-Ib patients [85]. As indicated above, some of these patients carry paternal uniparental disomy involving a part or the whole of chromosome 20q, but the genetic cause of these methylation abnormalities in most sporadic cases remains to be identified [70–74, 86]. De novo single or multiple base pair changes in the region spanning *NESP55/AS* exons 3 and 4 are plausible or, as suggested previously [85], these methylation changes could occur stochastically. Additionally, it is possible that the epigenetic abnormalities in sporadic cases, which tend to be incomplete, result from genetic defects in a *trans*-acting factor necessary for the maintenance of methylation at *GNAS* and, perhaps, some other imprinted loci. In fact, methylation defects in *GNAS* have been identified in combination with methylation defects in other loci in the context of certain other disorders [87, 88]. In addition, a recent study of sporadic PHP-Ib cases revealed methylation changes in the *DLK1/GTL2* or

the *PEG1/MEST* locus [89]. The clinical significance of the loss of methylation at *DLK1/GTL2*, detected in one sporadic PHP-Ib case, could not be examined. On the other hand, the loss of methylation at *PEG1/MEST*, found in another sporadic PHP-Ib case, could perhaps explain the finding that this case had the highest BMI within the study population [89], given that the loss of the paternally expressed *PEG1/MEST* gene causes embryonic growth retardation, and a loss of maternal methylation marks at this locus may therefore result in the biallelic expression of *PEG1/MEST* and fetal overgrowth [90].

Potential Roles of Other *GNAS* Transcripts in Physiology and Disease

As shown in figure 1, multiple transcripts originate from the *GNAS* locus, but unlike *Gsα* these *GNAS* products have remained largely obscure in terms of their specific cellular roles.

XLas Transcript

XLas shares a significant portion of its amino acid sequence with *Gsα*, whereas the other *GNAS* products that utilize exons 2–13 do not have this portion as part of the primary protein structure (see below for details and possible exceptions). Therefore, *XLas* appears to be an important *Gsα* variant that may have roles that are similar to the roles of the latter. While *Gsα* is expressed ubiquitously, *XLas* displays a more discrete expression pattern; it is expressed primarily in neuroendocrine tissues, such as the pituitary and orexigenic neurons in the hypothalamus of neonatal and adult rodents [5, 12, 14, 56, 91–93]. Its expression has been detected in a number of other tissues and cells in humans and rodents, including pancreas, white and brown adipose tissue, platelets, kidney, and various types of muscle cells [5, 12, 14, 56, 93]. Studies have shown that *XLas* can function as a distinct α -subunit of the heterotrimeric Gs signaling protein [54, 94–96]. In fact, *XLas* remains more stably on the plasma membrane than *Gsα* and, at least under certain conditions, is able to produce receptor-stimulated cAMP formation more potently and in a more prolonged manner than *Gsα* [97]. Recently, hypermethylation of the *XLas* DMR, along with reduced *XLas* protein expression in platelets, was reported in certain patients who had Gs hypofunction in their platelets and an AHO-like phenotype in the absence of coding *Gsα* mutations [98], thus supporting a *Gsα*-like role for *XLas*. The phenotype of *Gnasxl* *m*^{+/p}- mice is vastly different

from, and in many ways the opposite of, the phenotype of mice in which *Gsa* (but not XLAs) is ablated; note that the latter mice are heterozygous for ablation of *Gsa* exon 1 [52, 53]. On the other hand, the study of *Gnasxl* *m+/p-* mice has clearly revealed that XLAs is essential for early postnatal adaptation to feeding and survival, as well as glucose counterregulation [56, 57]. Consistent with these findings, which were shown in some but not all of the other mouse models in which the XLAs transcript was ablated, some pediatric patients with perinatal developmental defects and intractable feeding difficulties have been reported to have large paternal deletions of *GNAS* [99, 100]. Furthermore, recent studies of patients with POH or PPHP have indicated that paternal *GNAS* mutations are associated with a low birth weight [101, 102]. Based on evidence from different mouse models, however, it remains plausible that some of the early postnatal phenotypes, such as poor suckling, observed in *Gnasxl* *m+/p-* mice and in patients with large paternal *GNAS* deletions reflect the ablation of other gene products that use exon XL but not XLAs itself [56, 57, 59, 103]. Recent analyses in mice have also implicated XLAs functions in bone and mineral metabolism. As explained above, older (>12 months old) *Sml* mice were shown to have mild hypocalcemia, hypophosphatemia, and elevated serum PTH [61]. Moreover, mild hypocalcemia and marked hyperphosphatemia was documented in 10-day old *Gnasxl* *m+/p-* pups [84]. In addition, bone mineral density was found to be diminished in a mouse model in which both XLAs and XLAs-N1 was ablated together with loss of *Gsa* imprinting [103].

A/B Transcript

The A/B transcript is biallelically expressed in patients with PHP-Ib due to a loss of methylation in its promoter [68–70]. It is thought that, under normal conditions, a *trans*-acting protein expressed in certain tissues, such as renal proximal tubules, binds to the unmethylated region at the exon A/B DMR and thereby silences – either directly or by blocking the effect of an enhancer element – the promoter of *Gsa*, which is about 2 kb downstream [15, 18, 104]. While this is a plausible hypothesis, another possibility is that the activity of the A/B promoter results in transcriptional interference on the downstream *Gsa* promoter in a tissue-specific manner. Studies with various genetically manipulated mice have shown that the exon A/B (referred to as 1A in mice) DMR on the paternal allele is required for the tissue-specific paternal silencing of *Gsa* [18, 104]. In addition, evidence supporting a negative effect of A/B transcription on the *Gsa* promoter has been

obtained by generating mice in which the A/B transcript was prematurely truncated [103]. Furthermore, the A/B transcript can code for a truncated *Gsa*-like protein by using an initiation codon in exon 2 [7]. Evidence for the existence of this protein could be obtained by analyzing fetal kidney lysates [105]. In transfected cells, overexpression of this A/B protein inhibited PTH-mediated and, less potently, TSH-mediated cAMP production, raising the possibility that the hormone resistance phenotype in PHP-Ib patients is due, at least partly, to the biallelic (i.e. doubled) expression of the A/B protein [105].

NESP55 Transcript

NESP55 is a chromogranin-like neurosecretory protein. Its expression is often lost in patients with PHP-Ib due to a gain of methylation at its promoter [69, 70]. No phenotype, however, can be attributed to the loss of NESP55 expression in those patients, whose clinical findings seem to be apparently identical to the clinical findings of those who have normal NESP55 methylation [69, 106]. Ablation of the Nesp55 protein in mice is not associated with an early postnatal or developmental phenotype, but in adult mice it results in a mild behavioral phenotype that involves abnormal reactivity to novel environments [107]. On the other hand, an oocyte-specific Nesp55 transcript has been identified in mice, and premature termination of Nesp55 transcription through introduction of a polyadenylation cassette into the *Gnas* locus leads to a loss of methylation at exon A/B and, in some cases, at other *Gnas* DMR [108]. Thus, at least one of the important roles of NESP55 appears to be in the regulation of imprinting at this complex locus, and it appears likely that the maternal deletions of the NESP55 DMR in PHP-Ib patients result in a loss of *GNAS* methylation because they disrupt NESP55 transcription.

GNAS-ASI Transcript

The *GNAS-ASI* transcript (referred to as Nespas in mice) is a noncoding paternally expressed transcript [9, 10]. Studies in mice have shown that it is required for silencing Nesp55 expression on the paternal allele [109, 110]. Accordingly, one of the deletions identified in an AD-PHP-Ib kindred results in the reduction of *GNAS-ASI* expression in unaffected carriers, who inherit this deletion paternally [82], and these individuals show a partial loss of NESP55 methylation, indicating derepression of NESP55 transcription [82]. Also present in these unaffected carriers is a partial gain of methylation at exon A/B DMR [82], consistent with a role of NESP55 transcription in regulating methylation of downstream *GNAS* DMR, as

explained above [108]. However, since the deletion identified in these unaffected carriers is located on the paternal allele [82], the latter finding suggests that NESP55 transcription may perhaps regulate *GNAS* DMR not only in the female germ line but also in the male germ line or somatic tissues.

In summary, the imprinted *GNAS* complex locus, which gives rise to the ubiquitously expressed signaling protein Gs α and other imprinted gene products, is critical for the actions of many hormones, and genetic defects in this gene lead to PHP and related diseases. Although these human disorders have been explored for decades, further

genetic studies, together with generation and investigations of mouse models, are required to improve their understanding at the genetic, molecular, and clinical levels.

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