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Genetic polymorphism of RhD-negative associated haplotypes in the Chinese

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Abstract The Rh blood group is the most polymorphic human blood group system, and is clinically significant in transfusion medicine. Individuals are classified as Rhpositive and Rh-negative depending on the presence or absence of the D antigen on the red cell surface. The RhDnegative trait could be generated by multiple genetic mechanisms, which have been shown to be ethnic groupdependent. In this study, we evaluated the status of seven RHD-specific exons (exons 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, and 10) and RH intron 4 in 119 Chinese blood donors, using the sequencespecific primers polymerase chain reaction (SSP-PCR). Of the 87 individuals who were RhD-negative, 52 with the ce/ ce, ce/cE, or Ce/ce genotype (60%) lacked the above seven *RHD* exons; 22 with the Ce/Ce or Ce/ce genotype (25%) had all the RHD exons examined; 13 with the Ce/ce genotype (15%) carried at least one RHD exon. Antigen association analysis suggested the existence of a novel class of RhD-negative associated haplotypes in the Chinese, tentatively denoted D(nf)Ce. The D(nf)Ce haplotype consisted of a normal RHCe allele and a nonfunctional RHD gene, which vary depending on the structure of the RHD gene. Among the RhD-negative Chinese, the estimated frequencies of the dce, dCe, and D(nf)Ce haplotypes were 0.7500, 0.0465, and 0.2035, respectively. No statistically significant deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was observed using this genetic model.

Key words Molecular basis of Rh blood group · Novel RhD-negative haplotypes · Chinese population

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Introduction

The Rh blood group system was discovered 60 years ago in the context of a case of hemolytic disease of the newborn (HDN). It is now understood that the pathogenesis of this disorder involves maternal alloimmnunization by Rh antigens. The Rh blood group is the most polymorphic human blood group system and has served as a genetic marker for studying the evolution of human populations (Cavalli-Sforza et al. 1994; Zhao 1998). With the use of a serological method, 45 Rh antigens have been defined (Daniels 1995). The D, C/c, and E/e antigens are the most clinically important antigens, which are associated with incompatible hemolytic transfusion reactions, HDN, and autoimmune hemolytic anemia.

Individuals are clinically classified as Rh-positive and Rh-negative depending on the presence or absence of the D antigen on the red cell surface. In Caucasians, approximately 85% of individuals are Rh-positive, whereas roughly 15% are classified as Rh-negative. The Rh blood group antigens are carried on two glycoproteins encoded by two highly homologous genes, denoted as RHD and RHCE. The D, C/c, and E/e antigens are inherited en bloc from one generation to another. There are eight common Rh haplotypes encoded by the RHCE and RHD genes: Dce, dce, DCe, dCe, DcE, dcE, DCE, and dCE. Although a "d" antigen does not exist, the letter "d" is used to indicate the D-negative phenotype. Both RHD and RHCE consist of ten exons and exhibit similar exon-intron organization. The two genes are closely linked and tandemly organized on chromosome 1p34.3-p36.1, with RHD located 3' of RHCE (Chérif-Zahar et al. 1990, 1991; Colin et al. 1991; Le Van Kim et al. 1992; Mouro et al. 1993). The RHD gene encodes the D polypeptide, and no allele has been detected. The *RHCE* gene has four main alleles, *Ce*, *CE*, *ce*, and *cE*. There are wide racial differences not only in the frequencies of the RH gene complex but also in the genetic background of the Rh antigens. For instance, about 15% of Caucasoid people are RhD-negative, but only 0.1%-0.4% of the population of most Chinese nationalities exhibit this phenotype (Zhao

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1987, 1998). Although early studies indicate that complete deletion of the RHD gene can result in the RhD-negative phenotype in Caucasian populations (Colin et al. 1991), the RhD-negative trait could be generated by multiple genetic mechanisms. These mechanisms involve point mutation (Avent et al. 1997), insertion (Singleton et al. 2000), and partial deletion of the RHD gene (Hyland et al. 1994; Cartron et al. 1995; Okuda et al. 1997; Andrews et al. 1998). In addition, somatic mutation within the *RHD* gene may cause the shift from RhD-positive to RhD-negative in leukemia patients (Chérif-Zahar et al. 1998). In order to determine the genetic basis of the RH gene in RhD-negative Chinese blood donors, we evaluated the status of seven RHD-specific exons (exons 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, and 10) and RH intron 4, using the sequence-specific primers polymerase chain reaction (SSP-PCR).

Subjects and methods

Thirty-two RhD-positive and 87 RhD-negative unrelated blood donors were studied. All individuals investigated were of Chinese Han nationality, living in Mainland China. The Rh phenotypes were determined by standard serological methods, according to the manufacturer's instructions (Gamma Biologicals, Houston, TX, USA; Ortho Diagnostic Systems, Raritan, NJ, USA). Genomic DNA was isolated from whole blood by the salting-out method (Miller et al. 1988). *RHD* and *RHCE* genotyping was performed by SSP-PCR, as described below. The *RH* gene-specific primers (Table 1) were designed from the published sequences

Primers HGHF (5'-GCCTTCCCAACCATTCCCTT-3') and HGHR (5'-TCACGGATTTCTGTTGTGTTTC-3') were included in all PCR reactions to amplify an internal positive control PCR product, a 427-bp fragment from the human growth hormone (HGH) gene (GenBank accession no. M13438). The initial PCR was carried out with 0.1-0.5µg of genomic DNA, 10mM Tris HCl (pH 8.3), 50mM KCl, 1.5mM MgCl₂, 0.001% (w/v) gelatin, 0.2mM dNTPs, 1µM of each forward and reverse primer, and 0.5 units of Taq DNA polymerase (PE Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) in a 10-µl reaction volume. After denaturation for 5min at 95°C, the samples were subjected to 30 cycles of PCR in a DNA Thermal Cycler (PE Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Each cycle included 95°C for 30s, 60°C for 30s, and 72°C for 1.5min, followed by a final extension at 72°C for 5min. The PCR products were analyzed by electrophoresis on a 2% agarose gel.

Results

The Rh phenotyping of all 119 randomly chosen blood donors was performed by a serological method. *RHCE* and

Table 1. Primer sequences used for detection of RHCE alleles and RHD exons

Detection of	Name of primer ^a	Nucleotide sequence $(5' \rightarrow 3')$	Position (exon) ^b	PCR product size (bp)
RHC (Ce, CE)	1F	GCTGCCTGCCCCTCTGC	32 to 48 (1)	117
	1 R	CTTGATAGGATGCCACGAGC	148 to 129 (1)	
RHc (ce, cE)	2F	TTGGGCTTCCTCACCTCAAA	184 to 203 (2)	142
	2R	TGATGACCACCTTCCCAGG	325 to 307 (2)	
RHE (cE , CE)	3F	CTGGCCAAGTGTCAACTCTC	657 to 676 (5)	145
	3R	CATGCTGATCTTCCTTTGGG	801 to 782 (5)	
Rhe (Ce, ce)	4F	CTGGCCAAGTGTCAACTCTG	657 to 676 (5)	145
	4R	CATGCTGATCTTCCTTTGGG	801 to 782 (5)	
RH-Intron 4	5F	CGATACCCAGTTTGTCTGCC	608 to 627 (4)	RHD: 478
	5R	AGAACATCCACAAGAAGAGGG	658 to 638 (5)	RHCE: 1,126
RHD-Exon 3	6F	TCGGTGCTGATCTCAGTGGA	364 to 383 (3)	112
	6R	TACTGATGACCATCCTCAGGT	475 to 455 (3)	
RHD-Exon 4	7F	TACCACATGAACATGATGCACA	493 to 514 (4)	105
	7R	ATCTTTATCCTCCGTTCCCTC	597 to 577 (4)	
RHD-Exon 5	8F	CAATCGAAAGGAAGAATGCCG	692 to 712 (5)	60
	8 R	TCACCACGCTGACTGCTAC	751 to 733 (5)	
RHD-Exon 6	9F	CTTATGTGCACAGTGCGGTG	803 to 822 (6)	130
	9R	GTACTTGGCTCCCCGAC	932 to 916 (6)	
RHD-Exon 7	10F	CCCACAGCTCCATCATGGG	968 to 986 (7)	98
	10 R	GCCGGCTCCGACGGTATC	1065 to 1048 (7)	
RHD-Exon 9	11F	AAATATGGAAAGCACCTCATGA	1172 to 1193 (9)	53
	11 R	CCAGAAAACTTGGTCATCAAAAT	1224 to 1202 (9)	
RHD-Exon 10	12F	TTGGATTTTAAGCAAAAGCATCC	1244 to 1266 (10)	186
	12R	ATTCTCCTCAAAGAGTGGCAG	1429 to 1409	

PCR, Polymerase chain reaction

^aF and R indicate forward and reverse primers, respectively

^bNumbering of nucleotides starts at ATG codon according to the RHD sequence (GenBank accession no. X63094)



Fig. 1. Organization of exons and introns of *RHCE* and *RHD* is shown. Each *RH* gene is represented as *ten boxes*, each box representing an exon; *RHCE* is shown as *white*, and *RHD* as *black*. The positions of

polymerase chain reaction primers used for the detection of RH gene fragments are indicated by the primer name (see Table 1). F and R indicate forward and reverse primer, respectively

Table 2. Detection of RHD exons and RH intron 4 in Chinese donors

			RHD exon ^a						Intron 4 ^a		
Rh phenotype		Number of subjects examined	3	4	5	6	7	9	10	RHD	RHCE
RhD-negative c	cee	43	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	+
c	сEe	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	_	+
(Ccee	8	_	_	_	-	_	_	_	_	+
(Ccee	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	_	+
(Ccee	2	+	+	_	-	_	_	+	_	+
(Ccee	1	+	+	+	+	_	+	+	+	+
(Ccee	14	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
(CCee	8	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
RhD-positive		32	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

^a-, Absence; +, presence

Table 3. Estimation of Rh haplotype frequency among RhD-negative Chinese^a

Genotype ^b	Phenotype	No. observed	No. expected	χ^2
dce/dce	ccee	43	48.33	0.60
dce/dCe	Ccee	8	6.00	0.67
dce/D(nf)Ce	Ccee	27	26.25	0.02
dCe/dCe	CCee	0	0.18	0.18
dCe/D(nf)Ce D(nf)Ce/D(nf)Ce	CCee	8	5.19	1.52
		86	86.00	$\Sigma \chi^2 = 2.99 P_{(2)} > 0.20$

^a Rare alleles *CE* and *cE* [frequency 0.0003 and 0.0128, respectively, in the Chinese (Zhao 1987)] are not included in this analysis. Haplotype frequency, estimated by gene counting, is as follows: *dce*, 0.7500; *dCe*, 0.0465; D(nf)Ce, 0.2035. "d" indicates complete deletion of the *RHD* gene. D(nf) represents those haplotypes consisting of a normal *Ce* allele and a nonfunctional *RHD* gene, which contains at least one *RHD* exon ^b Determined by the DNA-based sequence-specific primers polymerase chain reaction typing method described in the text

RHD genotyping was carried out using DNA-based SSP-PCR. All *RHCE* and *RHD* genotyping results were correlated with the serological results. RHD and RHCE intron 4 and RHD exons 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, and 10 were present in all 32 Rh D-positive donors. Of the 87 RhD-negative donors, 44 individuals with the ce/ce or ce/cE genotype (51%), and 8 with the Ce/ce genotype (9%) had neither RHD intron 4 nor the above seven RHD exons; 22 donors with the Ce/Ce or Ce/ce genotype (25%) had intron 4 and all RHD exons examined. Among the 13 remaining RhD-negative donors with the Ce/ce genotype, 10 (15%) were missing RHD exons 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 9; 2 lacked exons 5, 6, 7, 9; and 1 lacked exon 7 (Table 2). Complete deletion of the RHD exons examined was observed in all ce/ce and some Ce/ce individuals, suggesting the presence of two common haplotypes, denoted dce and dCe, respectively.

It was noted, however, that the genotypes of the individuals who carried at least one *RHD* exon were either Ce/ Ce or Ce/ce. This implied the existence of another class of RhD-negative associated haplotypes in the Chinese, tentatively denoted D(nf)Ce, which carried a normal *Ce* allele and a nonfunctional *RHD* gene. Haplotype D(nf)Ce may vary depending on the structure of the *RHD* gene. Among 27 RhD-negative, phenotype Ccee Chinese individuals, who had *RHD* exon 10, four different D(nf)Ce haplotypes were identified (Table 2). According to the above hypothesis, we estimated the frequencies of the dce, dCe, and D(nf)Ce haplotypes in RhD-negative Chinese to be 0.7500, 0.0465, and 0.2035, respectively. In this population analysis, no statistically significant deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was observed (P > 0.20; Table 3) when using this genetic model.

Discussion

The structure of the *RH* locus was first established in Caucasian populations (Colin et al. 1991), and early studies confirm the observation that RhD-negative Caucasians,

almost invariably, lack the *RHD* gene (Daniels 1995). This finding not only explains finally why no postulated Rh d antigen has ever been shown, but also makes it possible to determine the RhD status of fetuses at risk for HDN, using a DNA-based SSP-PCR technique (Lo et al. 1993; Denomme et al. 1999). Later studies, however, have revealed that RhD-negative individuals may have different genetic backgrounds. Hyland et al. (1994) identified three unrelated Rh D gene polymorphisms among Rh D-negative CCee phenotypes: one lacked the D gene, one had a partial deletion, and the remaining individual appeared to have a normal D gene. Avent et al. (1997) found an RhD-negative CCee phenotype individual who had full-length RHD transcripts, which have a single point mutation, that generates an in-frame stop codon, and this abolished the expression of Rh D antigen. A novel *RHD* gene with a four-nucleotide deletion was detected in a Caucasian RhD-negative CCee phenotype patient (Andrews et al. 1998). Daniels et al. (1997) reported the differences between RhD-negative Africans and RhD-negative Europeans. Of 11 African RhDnegatives, 3 had exons 2, 3, 7, and 10 and intron 4 of RHD, 2 had none of these exons or intron 4 of *RHD*, and 6 had exon 10, but no exon 3 or 7 or intron 4 of RHD. In some RhD-negative Australian Aborigines and Africans, a fragment of the RHD gene or an RHD pseudogene (RHDpsi) were present (Cartron et al. 1995; Singleton et al. 2000). In Oriental populations, in whom the RhD-negative phenotype is rare, the RHD gene may either be intact or show partial deletion (Okuda et al. 1997).

In this study, the individual exons 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10 and intron 4 of RHD were determined, because exon 8 of RHCE and RHD are of identical sequence and their origins are not possible to define by SSP-PCR. Our data indicate that about 40% of RhD-negative Chinese carry both a nonfunctional RHD gene and a Ce allele, suggesting the existence of a novel class of RhD-negative associated haplotype D(nf)Ce. Population study data support this hypothesis. It appears that the genetic polymorphism of Rh haplotypes determined at the DNA level is more complex than that defined by serological typing. As described above, the association between the nonfunctional RHD gene and the CCee or Ccee phenotypes was also observed in Japanese, Caucasians, and other ethnic groups; thus, the D(nf)Ce haplotype may be present in world populations, but differ in its frequency.

Although the exact pathway of the evolution of the D(nf)Ce haplotype is not yet clear, it appears that it may arise from the DCe haplotype, based on an analysis of short tandem repeat (STR) polymorphism in *RH* gene intron 8 (Fujiwara et al. 1999). In addition, our data show that the existing PCR-based methods for prenatal determination of fetal RhD status from DNA samples (Lo et al. 1993) are not suitable for testing the Chinese population. The same situation was also observed in other populations, in which some RhD-negative mothers were found to carry a nonfunctional *RHD* gene (Okuda et al. 1997; Denomme et al. 1999). It is necessary to establish the structure of the *RH* locus for different ethnic groups before DNA-based RhD genotyping is performed.

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