

Genome-Wide Search for Genes Related to the Fat-Free Body Mass in the Québec Family Study

Yvon C. Chagnon, Ingrid B. Borecki, Louis Pérusse, Sonia Roy, Michel Lacaille, Monique Chagnon, My Anh Ho-Kim, Treva Rice, Michael A. Province, D.C. Rao, and Claude Bouchard

Fat-free mass (FFM) consists mostly of skeletal muscle and bone tissues, and identification of the genes and molecular mechanisms involved in the control of FFM would have implications for the understanding of sarcopenia and potentially osteoporosis associated with aging, as well as the response to starvation, refeeding, anorexia, and any other conditions in which lean body mass is important. A genome-wide search for genes related to body leanness has been completed in the Québec Family Study (QFS). Microsatellite markers ($N = 292$) from the 22 autosomal chromosomes were typed. The mean spacing of the markers was 11.9 centimorgans (cM) (range, <0.1 to 41). FFM was calculated from percent body fat, derived from underwater weighing, and body weight and was adjusted by regression for age and sex effects before analysis. A maximum of 336 sib pairs or 609 pairs of extended relatives were analyzed using single-point Haseman-Elston regression (SIBPAL and RELPAL) and multipoint variance component (SEGPAT) linkage analyses. Significant linkages were observed on chromosomes 15q25-q26 for a CA repeat within the insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor (IGF1R) gene (Lod score = 3.56) and at 18q12 with D18S877 (Lod score = 3.53) and D18S535 (Lod score = 3.58), 2 markers located 10 cM apart. A moderately significant linkage was also observed on chromosome 7p15.3 with the marker D7S1808 (Lod score = 2.72). The most obvious candidate genes within the regions identified by these linkages include the IGF1R on 15q and neuropeptide Y (NPY) and growth hormone-releasing hormone (GHRH) receptor on 7p. On 18q, the melanocortin receptor 4 (MC4R) is not likely the candidate gene for the observed linkage. This study represents the first genome-wide search for genes that may be involved in the regulation of the lean component of body mass in humans.

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THE REGULATION of body weight is a complex phenomenon in which multiple factors, genetic and nongenetic, are involved. A recent review of the genes or loci potentially related to poor body weight control leading to obesity found evidence for multiple candidates on almost all chromosomes.¹ Up to now, the results from 4 genome-wide scan studies for genes related to body weight, fat mass, and energy expenditure have been reported.²⁻⁸ From these studies, significant linkages (log of the odds [Lod] score ≥ 3.0) were observed with leptin at 2p21, obesity at 10p12, body mass index (BMI) at 11q24.1-q24.3, and BMI and 24-hour respiratory quotient at 20q11.2-q13.

The excess body weight of the obese consists primarily of fat mass, but also of lean tissue, the nature of which is largely unknown.⁹ Although it is known that fat mass is correlated with fat-free mass (FFM) and that these 2 phenotypes are influenced by genetic factors,¹⁰ we have shown that the association between the 2 phenotypes was not explained by common familial factors.¹¹ The lack of familial covariation between these 2 phenotypes of body composition suggests that different genes may be involved in determining them. FFM can be roughly divided into 2 subcomponents, the bone mass and the remaining mass, the latter mostly constituted by the skeletal muscle mass. Twin and family studies have shown that there is a strong genetic effect on FFM.^{10,12} Race differences in FFM have also been reported.¹³

FFM is important to good health, particularly with aging. For instance, it is well known that bone mass and muscular mass decrease with age, eventually giving rise to a decrease in fitness and mobility along with growing fragility in older individuals. On the other hand, in periods of crisis such as famine or starvation or in disease states such as anorexia, it is critical to be able to preserve lean body mass. Since FFM variation is strongly influenced by the genotype, the identification of genes involved in the control of lean body mass is essential for a proper understanding of the mechanisms that modulate its

variation during growth and in the presence of adverse conditions. One candidate gene potentially involved is the ornithine decarboxylase gene for which 2 different variants were found in lines of mice selected for high and low lean body mass.¹⁴ One variant was associated with an increased peak of ornithine decarboxylase activity in embryos of all high-mass lines.¹⁴ This variant resulted in a higher transcription of the gene but not different specific activities between the 2 forms.¹⁵ In addition, 3 quantitative trait loci (QTL) significantly linked to bone mineral density have been reported on chromosomes 1p, 2p, and 4q¹⁶ and 1 on chromosome 11q12-q13,¹⁷ whereas 2 QTLs related to peak bone mass were detected from a murine model of senile osteoporosis on mice chromosomes 11 and 13.¹⁸ Hence, several unknown genes are expected to be involved in the regulation of overall lean body mass in both animals and humans.

No genome-wide search for the lean component of body composition has been reported. Based on the Québec Family Study (QFS) data, we report the first strong significant linkages

From the Physical Activity Sciences Laboratory, Division of Kinesiology, Department of Social and Preventive Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, Laval University, Ste-Foy, Quebec, Canada; Division of Biostatistics, Washington University School of Medicine, St Louis, MO; and Pennington Biomedical Research Center, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, LA.

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Address reprint requests to Yvon C. Chagnon, PhD, Physical Activity Sciences Laboratory, Kinesiology, PEPS 0212, Department of Social and Preventive Medicine, Laval University, Ste-Foy, Quebec, G1K 7P4 Canada.

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with the body FFM on chromosomes 15 and 18, and moderate evidence of linkage on chromosome 7.

SUBJECTS AND METHODS

Subjects and Phenotypes

The QFS is an ongoing project that has been previously described.¹⁹ Caucasian nuclear families from the greater Québec City area representing a mixture of random sampling and ascertainment through obese probands with a BMI greater than 32 kg/m² are involved in the study. Subjects have been tested 1 to 3 times (phases 1 to 3) over a period of 19 years using a battery of morphologic and physiologic variables. Data from the last measures obtained in adult subjects aged 18 years and older were retained for the present study. Blood samples were obtained, and permanent lymphoblastoid cell lines were established for extraction of DNA. The study was approved by the Laval University Medical Ethics Committee, and all subjects provided written informed consent. A total of 748 subjects (46 grandparents, 334 parents, and 368 adult offspring) from 194 families (336 sib pairs and 609 pairs of relatives) were available for the study. The FFM (kilograms) was calculated by subtracting from body weight, body fat mass estimated from body density measurements obtained by underwater weighing²⁰ and the equation of Siri.²¹ Pulmonary residual volume was assessed by the helium dilution technique.²²

Molecular Analysis

Genomic DNA was prepared by the proteinase K and phenol/chloroform technique. DNA was dialyzed 4 times against TE buffer (10 mmol/L Tris and 1 mmol/L EDTA, pH 8.0) for 36 hours at 4°C and ethanol-precipitated. Microsatellite markers (dinucleotide, trinucleotide, and tetranucleotide repeats) have been selected from different sources, mainly the Marshfield panel version 8a. The locations of markers on the chromosomes (Kosambi distance in centimorgans [cM]) have been updated using map version 9 from the Marshfield Institute (<http://www.marshfield.org/genetics/>) and the Location Database (LDB) map (June 1998) from Southampton, UK (<http://cedar.genetics.soton.ac.uk>). The LDB summary map was also used to look for candidate genes 10 cM on each side of the markers yielding the strongest results.

Marker Analysis

The polymerase chain reaction (PCR) conditions and genotyping have been described in detail elsewhere.²³ Briefly, PCRs were performed using a forward primer coupled to the infrared tag IRD800 or IRD700 (LICOR, Lincoln, NE). PCR cycles followed a 2-step procedure in which the annealing temperature was between 52°C and 67°C, with a difference of 5°C being maintained between the 2 temperatures. Automatic infrared DNA sequencers from LICOR were used to detect PCR products. One microliter of each of 52 samples, including up to 5 different markers, interspaced with standards at each 4 samples were applied to the gel. Standards were produced by PCR from a PUC19 plasmid using an infrared-tagged M13 forward primer (LICOR) and a corresponding untagged reverse primer for each standard. The 18-cm gel was run for 1.5 to 2 hours. At the end of the run, an image of the gel was produced for use in the genotyping. Automatic genotyping was performed using the software SAGA (Rick McIndoe, Roger Bumgarner, Russ Welti, University of Washington at Seattle; LICOR). After genotyping, manual editing of the results was performed using the optical density of the PCR fragments of the different markers, and the results were stored in a local dBase IV database, GENEMARK, in which a procedure for checking Mendelian inheritance incompatibilities within nuclear families and extended pedigrees was implemented. Subjects with Mendelian incompatibilities were excluded from the database automatically by GENEMARK and retyped completely, ie,

Table 1. Subject Characteristics by Generation and Gender in the QFS

Variable	Parent				Adult Offspring			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	(n = 133)		(n = 144)		(n = 154)		(n = 204)	
	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range
Age (yr)	54.6	37-71	51.4	32-68	28.2	18-60	29.0	18-62
BMI (kg/m ²)	28.2	19-53	27.4	18-50	25.6	17-57	26.5	17-65
FFM (kg)	59.8	44-81	43.7	31-66	61.9	40-88	47.0	33-73

from the PCR to the genotyping. Less than 5% of the genotypes had to be retyped.

Statistical Analysis

FFM was adjusted within sex for age, age², and age³ by a regression procedure with outliers (± 3 SD) excluded for the estimation of the regression parameters. Only significant covariates ($P < .05$) were included in the model. Residuals were computed for all subjects, including outliers and ascertained subjects, and then standardized to a mean of 0 and a SD of 1. Single-point linkage analyses using pairs of sibs from nuclear families (SIBPAL) or pairs of relatives from extended pedigrees (RELPAL)²⁴ and a multipoint variance component linkage analysis (SEGPAL)²⁵ on nuclear families were performed. The SAS package (version 6.08) was used for the other analyses (SAS Institute, Cary, NC).

RESULTS

A total of 292 microsatellite markers with a mean heterozygosity of 0.75 (range, 0.32 to 0.94) and an average spacing of 11.9 cM (range, <0.1 to 41) were used for the study. For some chromosome arms, including regions with candidate genes or loci for obesity (1p, 5q, 7q, 8p, 8q, 11p, 16p, and 20q), a higher marker density was used (mean spacing, 5.6 cM; range, <0.1 to 10). The mean age, BMI, and FFM by generation and by sex of the subjects are presented in Table 1. The QFS includes normal-weight (BMI < 25 kg/m², 48%), overweight (25 \leq BMI < 30 kg/m², 27%), and obese (BMI \geq 30 kg/m², 25%) subjects representing, in the aggregate, an overweight population with a mean BMI of 27.3 kg/m² (range, 17 to 65).

Table 2 presents the significant linkage results obtained from

Table 2. Linkage Results With FFM in the QFS

Chromosome	Marker	Position (cM)	Lod Score	P§
SEGPAL analysis				
1q44	D1S547	284	2.27	.0006
7p15.3	D7S1808	41	2.72	.0002
15q26.2-q26.3	IGF1RCA	101	3.56	.00003†
	D15S652	102	2.52	.0003
	D15S657	106	2.05	.001
16p13.2	D16S748	11	2.10	.0009
18q12.1-q12.3	D18S877	54	3.53	.00003†
	D18S535	64	3.58	.00002†
SIBPAL† analyses				
2q22.1	D2S1290	113	—	.0002*
6q16.3	D6S1056	100	—	.001†
7p15.3	D7S1808	41	—	.0003*

*RELPAL.

†SIBPAL.

‡Significant result (Lod score ≥ 3.0).

§Moderately significant results (.001 $\geq P > .0001$) are reported.

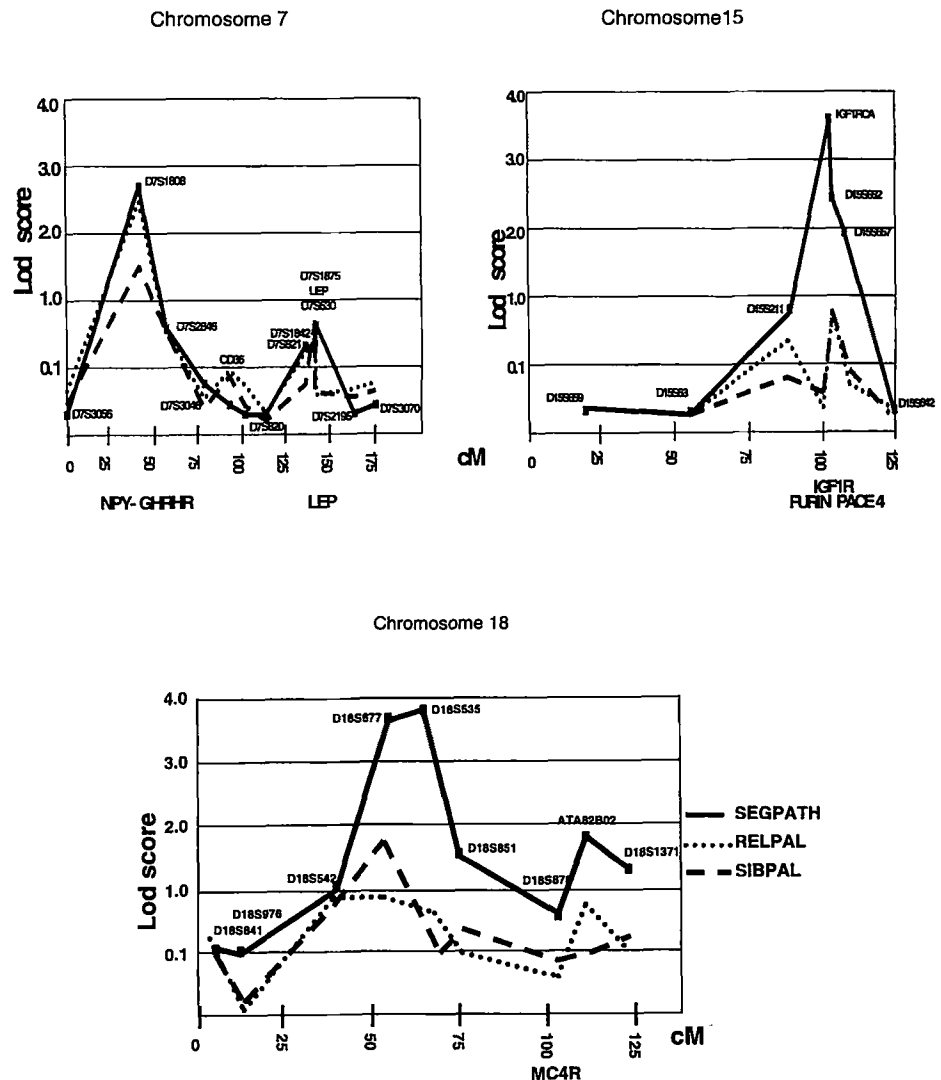
RELPAL and SIBPAL single-point and SEGPAL multipoint linkage analyses. Significant linkages (Lod score ≥ 3.00) with FFM were obtained from the variance component analysis on chromosome 15 with a dinucleotide CA microsatellite repeat (Lod score = 3.56) located in the 5' untranslated region of the insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor (IGF1R), and on chromosome 18 with the markers D18S535 (Lod score = 3.58) and D18S877 (Lod score = 3.53) located 10 cM apart (Fig 1). Additionally, lower Lod scores were observed with the neighboring markers D15S652 (Lod score = 2.52) and D15S657 (Lod score = 2.05) located, respectively, 1 and 6 cM telomeric to IGF1R, and with D18S542 (Lod score = 1.04) and D18S851 (Lod score = 1.51) located, respectively, 25 cM centromeric and 10 cM telomeric to D18S535. The linkages observed with the multipoint analysis on chromosome 18 were generally supported by the other 2 single-point linkage methods, but with lower LOD scores (Fig 1).

Moderately significant linkages with FFM were also found on chromosomes 1, 2, 6, 7, and 16 from single-point ($.001 \geq P > .0001$) and/or multipoint ($2.00 \leq \text{Lod score} < 3.00$) analy-

ses (Table 2). Convincing evidence for linkage can also be inferred when positive results are obtained with different analytical linkage methods, or with several neighboring markers. Such a region was found on chromosome 7, where both RELPAL ($P = .0003$) and SEGPAL (Lod score = 2.72) yielded moderately significant linkages with the marker D7S1808 (Fig 1). The other linkages were observed only with 1 marker or by 1 linkage method.

DISCUSSION

A genome-wide search has been completed on data from the QFS. The 2 strongest linkages with FFM were observed on chromosomes 15 and 18 using multipoint SEGPAL analysis. The linkage on chromosome 18 is supported by the single-point results, whereas the linkage on chromosome 15 is not. The lower statistical power of the single-point methods could be at the origin of these differences. On chromosome 15, a marker within IGF1R showed the strongest signal with a Lod score of 3.56 ($P = .00003$). IGF1R is clearly a strong candidate gene for this linkage with FFM. For instance, we have already ob-



served²⁶ in the HERITAGE Family Study a significant linkage ($P = .0002$) between the changes in FFM following 20 weeks of endurance exercise training and an insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF1) marker. On the other hand, no effect of this polymorphism was observed on bone mineral density in Japanese subjects.²⁷ Growth delay and low levels of growth hormone, IGF1, and IGF-binding protein 3 (IGFBP3) were observed in severely obese subjects with a mutation in the leptin receptor (LEPR) gene,²⁸ but not in a subject with a mutation in the leptin gene.²⁹ We have already reported a linkage and an association between a polymorphism in LEPR and FFM in the QFS.³⁰ Hence, a relation between FFM, IGF elements (IGF1, IGF1R, and IGFBP3), and LEPR is emerging. But the way these genes interact to modulate FFM remains to be clarified. On the other hand, from the absence of effects of IGF1 on bone mineral density in the Japanese²⁷ and from the QTL previously identified on chromosomes 1p, 2p, 4q, and 11q for bone mineral density,^{16,17} we can speculate that the linkages on chromosomes 7p, 15q, and 18q are probably related more to the skeletal muscle component of FFM than to bone mineral density. Additionally, ornithine decarboxylase is not a candidate for these linkages, since the human gene is located on chromosome 2p25, outside any of the linked regions on chromosomes 7, 15, or 18 of the present study.

In addition, the 2 pro-protein hormone convertases, PACE4 and furin, could be candidates for the observed linkage on 15q. Indeed, mutations in another gene involved in the processing of prohormone, the prohormone convertase 1,³¹ were shown to be responsible for a case of severe loss of body weight control leading to obesity. Studies with polymorphisms within the PACE4, furin, and IGF1R genes are needed to clarify their possible involvement in FFM modulation in humans.

The strong linkages observed on chromosome 18q between FFM and both D18S535 (Lod score = 3.58, $P = .00002$) and D18S877 (Lod score = 3.53, $P = .00003$) cannot be translated into obvious candidate genes at this time. The melanocortin receptor 4 (MC4R), located at 18q21.3 (Genome Database [GDB]; <http://gdbwww.gdb.org/>) and previously shown to play a role in body weight regulation³² and human obesity,^{33,34} is not close to this region and therefore is an unlikely candidate. According to GDB linkage maps, markers in 18q21.3, for example, D18S851 and D18S814, are located some 26 cM telomeric to D18S535, which is not very close to the linked region. Moreover, the marker D18S851, located between MC4R at 18q21.3 and D18S535, had an intermediate Lod score of 1.51, whereas the marker D18S878, located at 18q22.1 some 28 cM from D18S535 and closer to MC4R, yielded no evidence of

linkage (Lod score = 0.72). In the QFS, we have previously reported no linkage between FFM and a *NcoI* polymorphism detected by Southern blotting using a MC4R cDNA probe.³⁵ A Val103Ile polymorphism in MC4R reported in a British male population³⁶ also showed negative linkage results in the QFS (Chagnon et al, unpublished observation). On the other hand, a weak association ($P = .05$) was observed in the same study between the MC4R *NcoI* polymorphism and FFM,³⁵ but it is unlikely to be at the origin of the strong linkage reported here.

Weaker linkages were observed at 7p15.3 with D7S1808 based on the RELPAL ($P = .0003$) and SEGPATH (Lod score = 2.72, $P = .0002$) analytical strategies. Two possible candidate genes are present in the linked region. Neuropeptide Y (NPY) is one of the numerous neuropeptides involved in food intake regulation and is known to stimulate food intake.³⁷ Growth hormone-releasing hormone (GHRH), the agonist of GHRH receptor, the other candidate gene for the observed linkage between FFM and D7S1808, is also a peptide that stimulates food intake. The influence of the growth hormone axis, including IGFs, on growth is well known, but a more direct link with lean body mass seems to be emerging. On the other hand, an effect of appetite-controlling factors, such as NPY and GHRH, on lean body mass has not yet been described. Both lines of evidence could represent major clues for the factors involved in the regulation of body weight, particularly muscular mass. An understanding of the genes involved and the role they play in the modulation of FFM would be useful to prevent or correct the FFM disturbances commonly observed with some diseases and aging.

In summary, in the QFS, we have observed for the first time strong significant linkages between FFM and markers located on chromosomes 15 and 18, and good evidence of linkage on chromosome 7. Reasonable candidate genes are available for the chromosome 7 and 15 linkages, whereas there is no obvious candidate for the linkage on chromosome 18. Additional studies are needed to identify the genes responsible for these linkages, and to uncover other loci across the human genome affecting FFM.

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