

Fragile X syndrome: a clinico-genetic study of mentally retarded patients in Kuwait

L.A. Bastaki,¹ F. Hegazy,¹ M.M. Al-Heneidi,¹ N. Turki,¹ A.S. Azab² and K.K. Naguib¹

متلازمة الصبغي X الهش: دراسة سريرية وراثية على مرضى متخلفين عقلياً في الكويت
ليلى بستكي، فاطمة حجازي، مها الهنيدي، ناديا تركي، أيمن عرب، كمال نجيب

الخلاصة: أجريت في الكويت دراسة استباقية للتحري، شملت 182 من الذكور المصابين بالتأخر العقلي الذين استوفوا خمساً أو أكثر من المعايير السريرية لتشخيص متلازمة الصبغي X الهش، وذلك باستخدام اختبار التفاعل السلسلي للبوليميراز. وقد وجد أن عشرين مريضاً (11%) على درجة عالية من الشك بأنهم مصابون بمتلازمة الصبغي X الهش الناجمة عن طفرة في موقع FRAXE، ولم يكن لدى أي من المدرسين طفرة في الموقع FRAXE. ومن بين العشرين كان 11 منهم (55%) ممن تأكد أن لديه متلازمة الصبغي X الهش بتطبيق كل من أسلوب التفاعل السلسلي للبوليميراز والأسلوب الخلوي الوراثة. وقد كانت أهم الملامح السريرية تكررًا: تبارز الجبهة (100%) وضخامة الأذنين (90%) وتبارز الفك السفلي (90%) وفرط الحركة (85%). أما الملامح الأقل شيوعاً فتجنب التواصل بالعينين (45%)، الذاتية (45%) والاختلاجات (30%)، وكانت الخصيتان ضحمتين في 55% من الحالات. وكانت المعايير السريرية في فترة ما قبل البلوغ وما بعده مختلفة.

ABSTRACT In a prospective study in Kuwait, 182 mentally retarded male patients who fulfilled 5 or more clinical criteria of fragile X syndrome were screened using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) testing. Twenty patients (11%) were highly suspected of having fragile X syndrome due to mutation at the *FRAXA* locus; none had mutation at the *FRAXE* locus. Of these, 11 (55%) were confirmed fragile-X-positive by both cytogenetic and PCR techniques. The most frequent clinical features were: prominent forehead, high arched palate, hyperextensible joints, long ears, prominent jaw, height > 10th centile and attention-deficit hyperactivity. Less common were avoidance of eye contact (45%), autism (45%) and seizures (30%). Large testes were found in 55% of cases. Pre-pubertal and post-pubertal clinical criteria were different.

Syndrome du chromosome X fragile: étude clinico-génétique chez des patients présentant un retard mental au Koweït

RESUME Dans une étude prospective au Koweït, 182 patients de sexe masculin présentant un retard mental qui remplissaient 5 ou plus des critères cliniques du syndrome de l'X fragile ont fait l'objet d'un examen PCR (amplification en chaîne par polymérase). Vingt patients (11 %) étaient fortement suspectés d'être atteints de ce syndrome du fait d'une mutation au niveau du locus *FRAXA* ; aucun patient n'avait de mutation au niveau du locus *FRAXE*. Les techniques de cytogénétique et de PCR ont permis de confirmer que 11 (55 %) de ces patients étaient X-fragiles. Les caractéristiques cliniques les plus courantes étaient un front proéminent, un palais ogival, un relâchement des articulations, de grandes oreilles, une mâchoire proéminente, une taille supérieure à cilli correspondant au 10^e centile et une hyperactivité avec troubles de l'attention. Le fait d'éviter le contact visuel (45 %), l'autisme (45 %) et les convulsions (30 %) étaient moins courants. On a observé dans 55 % des cas une macro-orchidie. Les critères cliniques prépubertaires et postpubertaires étaient différents.

¹Kuwait Medical Genetics Centre, Kuwait.

²Neonatal Unit, Department of Paediatrics, Adan Hospital, Kuwait.

Received: 09/10/02; accepted: 06/05/03

Introduction

Fragile X syndrome is the second most common cause of inherited mental retardation with an estimated prevalence of 0.4–0.8 per 1000 males and 0.2–0.6 per 1000 females [1]. More recent studies using molecular genetic testing of the gene for fragile X have estimated a prevalence of 16:100 000 to 25:100 000 males affected with the syndrome [2–4]. The syndrome is mainly characterized by a variable degree of mental retardation, typical long and narrow facial appearance, large ears and large testes [5,6]. It is inherited as an X-linked dominant trait with reduced penetrance, i.e. only 80% of carrier males and 30% of carrier females are affected [7]. The responsible gene was identified in 1991 and was designated as 'fragile X mental retardation gene 1' (*FMR-1*) [8]. The fragile site was located at Xq27.3 and designated as *FRAXA*, which can be observed in the metaphase chromosome following selective culture conditions. Three other fragile sites, 1 proximal and 2 distal to *FRAXA*, have been cloned and termed *FRAXD*, *FRAXE* and *FRAXF* respectively.

Chromosome analysis using modified culture technique to induce fragile sites is no longer used due to its low sensitivity and increased costs compared with DNA-based techniques. Direct analysis of the CGG expansion mutation by Southern blotting has begun to replace cytogenetic analysis for the laboratory diagnosis of fragile X syndrome as it detects all the repeat expansion mutations including both full and premutation. However, blotting is a relatively expensive and labour-intensive procedure, particularly in the context of screening routine referrals.

The non-radioactive polymerase chain reaction (PCR) method specific for *FMR1* gene mutation detection is a very rapid test

and has high sensitivity for normal and lower premutation repeat size. However, potential misdiagnosis from false negatives is rare due to cellular mosaicism.

The aim of the present study was to apply PCR testing for the first time in Kuwait and use it as a screening tool for detection of fragile X syndrome among a group of mentally retarded male patients who had clinical signs of the syndrome.

Methods

This prospective study in the Kuwait Medical Genetics Centre, Kuwait, started in January 2000 and lasted for 30 months.

Clinical study

The participants were 182 male patients referred with mental retardation of unknown etiology for clinico-genetic evaluation and diagnosis. A preconstructed sheet was used to record the following: nationality, age, parental age at patient's birth, consanguinity, birth weight height, occipito-frontal circumference, craniofacial features, dermatological findings, skeletal findings, neurological and psychological features, speech, hyperactivity and the external genitalia. Associated anomalies and pedigree study were included too. Neurological and psychometric evaluations were conducted on each patient. Cognitive ability was assessed using the Wechsler Intelligence Scales (for Children or Adults). The severity of mental retardation was categorized into one of 3 groups according to the intelligence quotient [IQ] score: mild (50–70), moderate (35–50) and severe (20–35).

Patients were selected for the study if they fulfilled 5 or more criteria out of the most common 10 criteria associated with fragile X syndrome: mental retardation of unknown cause, family history of mental

retardation, large ears (ear length > 7.0 cm), large testes (testicular volume > 25 mL), long narrow face (inner canthal distance < 3.5 cm), prominent ears/jaws, high arched palate, calluses on hand, hyperactivity, avoidance of eye contact.

After informing the parents about the purpose of the study, peripheral vein blood samples (5 mL) were taken from each patient and stored in tubes with EDTA anticoagulant. Cytogenetic analysis was performed on blood samples cultured for 96 hours in folate-deficient tissue culture medium 199 with 5% fetal bovine serum.

Laboratory testing

Blood samples were obtained from healthy individuals for calibration of the test. The deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) of the patients and control subjects was extracted from blood samples. The concentration and purity of DNA were measured in a PCR reaction before use. Two sets of primers were used for mutation detection of the *FRAXA* (*FXDI* and *FXE*) and *FRAXE* (598 and 603) loci. The primers were synthesized locally in our laboratory using 391 DNA synthesizers.

For amplification of the triplet repeat sequences at the *FRAXA* and *FRAXE* loci, the total volume of PCR mix was 25 μ L, containing 100 mg of DNA mixed with 20 pmol of *FXDI* and *FXE* and 35 pmol of 598 and 603 primers to amplify *FRAXA* CCG and *FRAXE* CCG repeats respectively. It also contained: 2.5 μ L of 10X polymerase buffer (Taq, BioCarta, San Diego, California, USA); 2.5 μ L dimethyl sulfoxide; 200 μ mol/L from each of dATP (deoxyadenosine 5'-triphosphate), dCTP (deoxycytidine 5'-triphosphate), dTTP (deoxythymidine 5'-triphosphate), 100 μ mol of dGTP (deoxyguanosine 5'-triphosphate), 100 μ mol 7-deaza-2-dGTP; and 0.25 μ L (1.25 unit) of DNA polymerase en-

zyme (AmpliTaq Gold, BioCarta, San Diego, California, USA). The amplification was carried out using the Gene Amp PCR System 9700 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA). The PCR was started by DNA denaturation for 10 min at 95 °C followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 1 min, 65 °C for 1.30 min and 72 °C for 2 min with a final extension for 7 min at 72 °C.

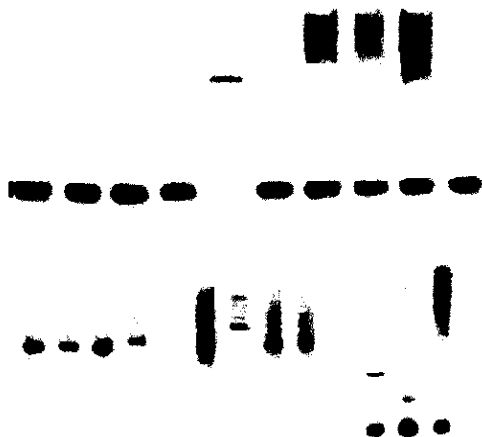
A total of 15 μ L of PCR product were analysed by electrophoresis using 2% agarose gel, 1% agarose and 1% low melting agarose gel (Nusieve GTG, Cambrex, East Rutherford, New Jersey, USA) containing 0.5 μ g/mL ethidium bromide.

Results

Out of 182 mentally retarded patients, 20 patients proved to be positive for fragile X syndrome by the PCR technique, giving an incidence of 11%. Figure 1 shows the amplification products of *FRAXA* and *FRAXE*.

Table 1 shows the clinical features of the fragile-X-positive patients. The frequency of siblings (85%) and relatives (70%) affected with fragile X syndrome was high. The most frequent clinical features among our patients were: mental retardation (100%), prominent forehead (100%), hyperextensible joints (100%), high arched palate (100%), large ears (90%), prominent jaw (90%), height > 10th centile (90%), attention-deficit hyperactivity (85%), stereotyped speech (85%) and biting hand movements (85%). Large testes (55%), avoidance of eye contact (45%), autistic-like behaviour (45%) and seizures (30%) were recorded less frequently (Table 1).

There were some differences between pre- or post-pubertal patients. All post-pu-



Lanes 1,4,6 and 7 are negative DNA samples of PCR products within normal range of repeat size (up to 224 bp)

Lanes 2,3,5 and 8 are suspected to be positive DNA samples with *FRAXA* mutation showing failure of amplification due to high repeat expansion.

Lanes 10 to 17 are amplification products of *FRAXE* locus of the same DNA samples showing that all cases are negative for *FRAXE* mutation

Lanes 19 to 22 are PCR amplification products of *FRAXA* locus using C7d GTP-For more confirmation of positive DNA samples

Lanes 9 and 18 are negative controls without DNA

Figure 1 Amplification products of *FRAXA* and *FRAXE*

beral patients had macro-orchidism (100% of 11). The most prominent features among the 9 pre-pubertal fragile-X-positive patients were: prominent forehead, 100%), hyperactivity (100%), hyperextensible joints (89%), large ears (89%),

Table 1 Characteristic features of mentally retarded patients positive for fragile X syndrome by PCR

Features	No. of patients	%
<i>Stage of puberty</i>		
Post-pubertal	11	55
Pre-pubertal	9	45
<i>Family</i>		
Siblings with fragile X	17	85
Relatives with fragile X	14	70
<i>Behavioural characteristics</i>		
Mental retardation	20	100
Attention-deficit hyperactivity	17	85
Stereotyped speech	17	70
Biting hand movements	17	70
Autistic behaviour	9	45
Avoidance of eye contact	9	45
Seizures	8	30
<i>Physical characteristics</i>		
Prominent forehead	20	100
High arched palate	20	100
Hyperextensible joints	20	100
Ear length > 75th centile	18	90
Prominent jaw	18	90
Height > 10th centile	18	90
Birth weight > 3 kg	17	85
Dry skin	15	75
Head circumference > 50th centile	13	65
Large testes	11	55
Flat feet	6	30
Gynaecomastia	5	25

No cases were found of abnormal heart, pectus excavatum or kyphosis.
n = number of patients.

high arched palate (89%), prominent jaw (78%), avoidance of eye contact (56%), stereotype speech (56%), autistic behaviour (33%) and seizures (22%). There was no difference in the severity of mental retardation among pre-pubertal and post-pubertal groups. Mild and severe mental retardation were equally found (around

45% in both groups), while moderate mental retardation was found in 1 patient in each group (around 10%).

There were major differences between the percentage frequency of the criteria among the positive fragile X patients and mentally retarded patients negative for fragile X (Table 2).

Cytogenetic analysis detected only 11 cases of fragile X syndrome (55% of the cases positive by PCR), an incidence of 6% among mentally retarded patients.

Discussion

Fragile X syndrome is the second most common cause of inherited mental retardation and is characterized by relative macrocephaly or normocephaly, variable degree of mental retardation, typical long and narrow facial appearance, large ears and large testes [1,5,6]. The dysmorphic features are seldom severe and many males in the past were referred purely with mental retardation.

The population prevalence of fragile X syndrome has been reported to vary from 0.4–0.8 per 1000 in males and 0.2–0.6 per 1000 in females [3,9,10]. More recent studies using molecular genetic testing of *FMR-1* have estimated a prevalence of 16:100 000 to 25:100 000 males affected with fragile X syndrome [2–4]. The prevalence of females affected with fragile X syndrome is presumed to be approximately one-half of the male prevalence. A population based prevalence study of affected African-American males revealed a higher estimate, 39:100 000 to 78:100 000 at 95% confidence interval [11].

Among mentally retarded patients, the incidence of fragile X syndrome varies from 3.5% to 8% [12,13], an incidence lower than that reported here (11%). Our higher incidence may be due to selection of the patients based on the most prominent criteria of fragile X syndrome, which increases the likelihood of finding fragile X positives. Alternatively, the PCR technique might increase the detection rate: we found 11% of mentally retarded patients were

Table 2 Frequency of fragile X traits in fragile-X-positive and -negative mentally retarded patients

Clinical sign	Fragile-X-positive (n = 20) %	Fragile-X-negative (n = 162) %	P-value
Long narrow face	100	38	< 0.0001
High arched palate	100	21	< 0.0001
Large ears	90	29	< 0.0001
Hyperactivity	85	18	< 0.0001
Large testes	55	10	< 0.0001
Avoidance of eye contact	45	7	< 0.0001

n = number of patients.

positive using PCR compared with 6% using cytogenetic analysis. The symptoms and signs of mental retardation are variable, and hyperactivity and seizures are common features. The degree of mental retardation varies from mild to severe, depending on the age group of the selected cases [14-16].

Brain scans in fragile X syndrome are usually normal. However, Mostofosky et al. studied 32 males with magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and found the size of the cerebral posterior vermis was decreased, the hippocampus enlarged and the fourth ventricle increased [17]. A low frequency of fragile X cases (0.5%) was found among males with unexplained learning difficulties and language delay [2,18,19].

There are some specific features associated with fragile X syndrome. These are not necessarily found in all patients at different age groups and the frequency of each feature is age dependent. The most suggestive criteria for the diagnosis of fragile X syndrome found in this and other studies were: mental retardation, a family history of mental retardation, large or prominent ears, an enlarged face, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and autistic-like behaviour. If a patient had 5 of these features then no case of fragile X would have been missed.

The frequency of macrocephaly (circumference > 50th centile) in our study was low (65%) compared with other reports [20] that the single most useful clinical criterion is head circumference above the 90th centile.

Macro-orchidism is difficult to identify early in life and it is frequently absent in the pre-pubertal period. The frequency of enlarged testes in our study was 55% overall, 100% in post-pubertal patients. This finding is consistent with other studies

[1,5,6,13]. Accordingly, the presence of macro-orchidism is not necessary for the diagnosis of fragile X syndrome in the pre-pubertal child. The frequency of macro-orchidism in fragile X syndrome varies from 11% to 20% [1,21].

Other studies have suggested a relationship between autism and fragile X syndrome. However, a molecular study of 141 patients showed no association of autism with fragile X syndrome and the Xq27 region is not a candidate gene for autism [22]. Nevertheless, the present study showed a high incidence (45%) of patients who had autistic-like behaviour and most of them were in the post-pubertal stage. Other authors have reported a lower incidence of autism in fragile X syndrome (10.7%) [1].

Familial cases of fragile X have been reported before [23] but were not as high as reported in our study (85% and 70% of patients had affected siblings and relatives respectively). This incidence represents the frequency of fragile X syndrome among the siblings and relatives of fragile X patients themselves and not among the mentally retarded patients. Genetically, all mothers of isolated male cases of fragile X must be assumed to be carriers of a permutation or full mutation and about one-third of carrier females are retarded [24]. However, around 70% of females with a full mutation have below average IQ (less than 85%) [25]. Premutation was found to be behind the phenomenon of phenotypically normal transmitting males with no fragile sites [21,26]. This was confirmed by the discovery of an unstable CCG trinucleotide repeat sequence in the gene (*FMR-1*) [27,28]. Repeat length appears to be an important but not sufficient condition leading to instability of the *FMR-1* gene [29,30]. It has been suggested that expansion of the CCG trinucleotide repeat occurs during

early development and not during meiosis [31,32]. In males carrying full mutation, only sperm carried the premutation. However Malter et al. looked at the gonads of the fetuses carrying the full mutation and showed that full expansion alleles were detected in oocytes and in the testes of 13-week-old males [33].

Screening of fragile X syndrome can be carried out by different techniques: cytogenetics, molecular or antibody testing for *FMR-1* protein (using blood, chorionic vilus or hair root samples) [34–38]. DNA

testing is a cost-effective alternative to cytogenetic analysis, while antibody testing for *FMR-1* protein is rapid but of limited use (false positive results are high) and needs to be used in conjunction with DNA methods.

In conclusion, the criteria needed for diagnosis of fragile X syndrome will depend on the age of the patient. The laboratory diagnosis should depend on molecular studies rather than cytogenetic ones. PCR is the most suitable screening tool and should be confirmed by Southern blotting.

References

1. Iqbal MA et al. Cytogenetic diagnosis of fragile X syndrome: study of 305 suspected cases in Saudi Arabia. *Annals of Saudi medicine*, 2000, 20:214–7.
2. Murray A et al. Population screening at the *FRAXA* and *FRAXE* loci: Molecular analyses of boys with learning difficulties and their mothers. *Human molecular genetics*, 1996, 5:727–35.
3. Turner G et al. Prevalence of fragile X syndrome. *American journal of medical genetics*, 1996, 64:196–7.
4. De Vries BB et al. Screening and diagnosis for the fragile X syndrome among the mentally retarded: an epidemiological and psychological survey. Collaborative Fragile X study group. *American journal of human genetics*, 1997, 61:660–7.
5. Fryns JP. X-linked mental retardation and the fragile X syndrome: a clinical approach In: Davies KE, ed. *The fragile X syndrome*. Oxford, Oxford University Press, 1989.
6. Hagerman RJ. Physical and behavioral phenotype. In: Hagerman RJ, Cronister A, eds. *Fragile X syndrome: diagnosis, treatment and research*. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins University Press, 1996.
7. McKusick VA, Francomano CA, Antonarakis SE. *Mendelian inheritance in man: catalogs of autosomal dominant, autosomal recessive and X-linked phenotypes*, 9th ed. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins University Press, 1990.
8. Verkerk AJ et al. Identification of a gene (*FMR-1*) containing a CGG repeat coincident with a breakpoint cluster region exhibiting length variation in fragile X syndrome. *Cell*, 1991, 65:905–14.
9. Morton JE et al. Fragile X syndrome is less common than previously estimated. *Journal of medical genetics*, 1997, 34: 1–5.
10. Crawford DC et al. Prevalence and phenotype consequence of *FRAXA* and *FRAXE* alleles in a large, ethnically diverse, special education-needs population. *American journal of human genetics*, 1999, 64:495–507.
11. Crawford DC et al. Prevalence of the fragile X syndrome in African-Americans. *American journal of medical genetics*, 2002, 110:226–33.
12. Jacobs PA, Mayer M, Abruzzo MA. Studies of the fragile (X) syndrome in mentally retarded populations in Hawaii.

- American journal of medical genetics*, 1986, 23:567-72.
13. Tayel S et al. Two step fragile X screening programme in mentally retarded males. *Kuwait medical journal*, 1999, Sept.: 257-62.
 14. Kluger G et al. Epilepsy and fragile X gene mutations. *Pediatric neurology*, 1996, 15:358-60.
 15. Curts LM, Wiegers AM, Fryns JP. Intelligence and the fra(X) syndrome: a review. *Genetic counseling*, 1991, 2:55-62.
 16. De Vries BB et al. Clinical and molecular studies in fragile X patients with Prader-Willi like phenotype. *Journal of medical genetics*, 1993, 30:761-6.
 17. Mostofsky S et al. Decreased cerebellar posterior vermis size in fragile X syndrome: correlation with neurocognitive performance. *Neurology*, 1998, 50:121-30.
 18. Mazzocco MM et al. The prevalence of the FMR1 and FMR2 mutations among preschool children with language delay. *Journal of pediatrics*, 1998, 132:795-801.
 19. Teague J et al. *FRAXA* and *FRAXE*: evidence against segregation distortion and for an effect of intermediate alleles on learning disability. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 1998, 95:719-24.
 20. Mila M et al. Screening for FMR1 and FMR2 mutations in 222 individuals from Spanish special schools: identification of a case of *FRAXE*-associated mental retardation. *Human genetics*, 1997, 100: 503-8.
 21. Sherman S. Epidemiology. In: Hagerman RJ, Silverman AD, eds. *Fragile X syndrome*. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins University Press, 1991:69-97.
 22. De Vries BB et al. Variable *FMR1* gene methylation of large expansions leads to variable phenotype in three males from one fragile X family. *Journal of medical genetics*, 1996, 33:1007-10.
 23. Smeets H et al. Normal phenotype in two brothers with full *FMR1* mutation. *Human molecular genetics*, 1995, 4:2103-8.
 24. Sutherland G, Mulley J. Fragile-X syndrome and other causes of X-linked mental handicap. In: Rimoin D, Conner M, Pyeritz R, eds. *Principles and practice of medical genetics*, 3rd ed. New York, Churchill Livingstone, 1997:1745-55.
 25. Klauck SM et al. Molecular genetic analysis of the *FMR-1* gene in a large collection of autistic patients. *Human genetics*, 1997, 100:224-9.
 26. Pembrey M, Winter R, Davies K. A permutation that generates a defect at crossing over explains the inheritance of fragile X mental retardation. *American journal of medical genetics*, 1985, 21: 709-17.
 27. Richards RI, Sutherland GR. Dynamic mutations: A new class of mutations causing human disease. *Cell*, 1992, 70:709-12.
 28. Reiss AL et al. Frequency and stability of the fragile X premutation. *Human molecular genetics*. 1994, 3:393-8.
 29. Rousseau F et al. Prevalence of carriers of permutation-size alleles of the *FMR1* gene—and implications for the population genetics of the fragile X syndrome. *American journal of human genetics*, 1995, 57:1006-18.
 30. Zhong N et al. Fragile X founder effects and new mutations in Finland. *American journal of medical genetics*, 1996, 64: 226-33.
 31. Wohrle D et al. Mitotic stability of fragile X mutations in differentiated cells indi-

- cates early post-conceptual trinucleotide repeat expansion. *Nature genetics*, 1993, 4:140-2.
32. Reyniers E et al. The full mutation in the *FMR-1* gene of male fragile X patients is absent in their sperm. *Nature genetics*, 1993, 4:143-6.
 33. Malter HE et al. Characterization of the full fragile X syndrome mutation in fetal gametes. *Nature genetics*, 1997, 15: 165-9.
 34. Oostra BA et al. Guidelines for the diagnosis of fragile X syndrome. Fragile X Foundation. *Journal of medical genetics*, 1993, 30:410-3.
 35. Wang Q et al. Cytogenetic versus DNA diagnosis in routine referrals for fragile X syndrome. *Lancet*, 1993, 342:1025-6.
 36. Willemsø R et al. Rapid antibody test for fragile X syndrome. *Lancet*, 1995, 345: 1147-8.
 37. Willemsø R et al. Rapid antibody test for prenatal diagnosis of fragile X syndrome on amniotic fluid cells: a new appraisal. *Journal of medical genetics*, 1997, 34: 250-1.
 38. De Vries BB et al. Screening for the fragile X syndrome among the mentally retarded: a clinical study. The Collaborative Fragile X Study Group. *Journal of medical genetics*, 1999, 36:467-70.

Some facts on genetics

- 7 million children around the world are born annually with severe genetic disorders or birth defects.
- 90% of infants born with genetic disorders are found in developing countries, contributing significantly to global child mortality.
- Mutations have been characterized for most major single-gene disorders, and there is a growing understanding of the role of genes in complex diseases such as cancer, cardiovascular disease, diabetes and asthma.
- The final version of the entire Human Genome sequence was unveiled in April, 2003.
- Prevention and management of genetic disorders are published health priorities in some developing countries, for which the WHO Human Genetics Programme (HGN) is developing significant capacity building initiatives and normative and regulatory guidance.
- The top ten biotechnologies for improving health in developing countries have been identified by a WHO Human Genetics Collaborating Centre.

Source: WHO Fact sheets: Genomic Resource Centre; genetics and health (http://www.who.int/genomics/about/en/E_grc_final.pdf) and (http://www.who.int/genomics/en/E_hgn_final.pdf)