



This research was supported in part by the Medical Research Council of South Africa.

Liezl Koen
Piet P Oosthuizen
Dana J H Niehaus
Robin A Emsley
Jacqueline E Muller
Dan J Stein
Natasha Keyter
Christine Lochner
Soraya Seedat

Department of Psychiatry
University of Stellenbosch and Stikland Hospital
Tygerberg

1. Poyurovsky M, Fuchs C, Weizman A. Obsessive-compulsive disorder in patients with first-episode schizophrenia. *Am J Psychiatry* 1999; 156: 1998-2000.
2. Tibbo P, Warnecke L. Obsessive-compulsive disorder in schizophrenia: epidemiologic and biologic overlap. *J Psychiatry Neurosci* 1999; 24(1): 15-24.
3. Weissman MM, Bland RC, Canino GJ, et al. The cross national epidemiology of obsessive compulsive disorder. The Cross National Collaborative Group. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1994; 55 (Mar): suppl. 5-10.
4. Moolman-Smook JC, De Lange WJ, Bruwer EC, et al. The origins of hypertrophic cardiomyopathy-causing mutations in two South African subpopulations: a unique profile of both independent and founder events. *Am J Hum Genet* 1999; 65: 1308-1320.
5. American Psychiatric Association. *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*. 4th ed. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association, 1994.
6. First MB, Spitzer RL, Gibbon M, et al. Structured Clinical Interview for Axis I DSM-IV Disorders. New York: Biometrics Research Department, New York State Psychiatric Institute, 1994.
7. Goodman WK, Price LH, Rasmussen SA, et al. The Yale-Brown Obsessive Compulsive Scale. I Development, use and reliability. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1989; 46: 1006-1011.
8. Nurnberger JI, Blehar MC, Kaufmann CA, et al. Diagnostic Interview for Genetic Studies: Rationale, unique features and training. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1994; 51: 849-859.
9. Gangdev PS, Stein DJ, Ruzibiza JB. Obsessive-compulsive disorder in black South Africans – a case series. *S Afr Med J* 1996; 86: suppl 12, 1596-1598.
10. Porto L, Bermanzohn PC, Pollack S, et al. A profile of obsessive-compulsive symptoms in schizophrenia. *CNS Spectrums* 1997; 2(3): 21-25.

Molecular diagnosis of cystic fibrosis in South African populations

To the Editor: Cystic fibrosis (CF) is present in all South African population groups. In a significant proportion of patients a diagnosis of CF can be confirmed by DNA analysis and the detection of two CF transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) mutations, using the panels of mutations developed in this study. The index of suspicion will also be raised in patients with a single CFTR mutation. DNA testing is important, especially in regions without access to reliable sweat tests, and should be considered an aid to diagnosis. In addition to receiving appropriate treatment, patients and their families can receive more accurate genetic counselling, CF carrier testing and prenatal diagnosis.

CF is one of the commonest autosomal recessive disorders among white South Africans, with a prevalence of 1 in 2 000; prevalence in the coloured population is 1 in 12 000.¹ CF was initially thought to be extremely rare in African blacks but a recent study showed a carrier frequency of 1 in 34 and a calculated incidence of 1 in 4 624 births.²

CF is characterised by pancreatic insufficiency, chronic pulmonary disease, elevated sweat chloride levels and a number of other features. It can be difficult to diagnose because of the great variability of clinical presentation and severity. The UK CF Foundation Consensus Panel suggests confirmation of diagnosis only after two positive sweat test results on separate occasions in a patient with suggestive clinical features.³ However, as a diagnostic test the sweat test is not ideal. It requires extreme technical rigour by experienced staff using standardised methods. In large parts of South Africa such services are not readily available.

An alternative method of diagnosis became possible with the cloning of the CFTR gene.⁴ CF is caused by mutations in the CFTR gene — patients have two mutations and carriers have one. Over 1 000 mutations have been identified.⁵ Patients may have two identical mutations (homozygotes) or two different mutations

(compound heterozygotes), but the identification of two CF mutations in a patient confirms the diagnosis of CF.

Given the number of CF-causing mutations and the impracticality of screening the large CFTR gene, testing for mutations that are common in a particular population makes genetic testing useful as a diagnostic tool. The aim of this study was to improve the sensitivity and efficiency of diagnostic genetic testing for CF in South Africa through the development of customised panels of mutations for different South African population groups. A total of 201 white, 43 coloured and 14 black CF patients with confirmed diagnoses were included in this project for CFTR mutation analysis.

White and coloured patients were tested for 24 mutations including $\Delta F508$, 394delTT, Q493X, 3272-26A G, 3120+1G A, R117H, 3659delC, G542X, G551D, R553X, 621+1G T, W1282X, N1303K, 1717-1G A, R1162X, R334W, 3849+10kbC T, A455E, 2183AA G, 1078delT, $\Delta I507$, R347P, S1251N, and E60X. Five coloured patients in whom small amounts of DNA were available from buccal scrapes were only tested for the $\Delta F508$ mutation. Black patients were initially tested for the 3120+1G A mutation. Those black patients whose mutations were still unidentified were tested for the $\Delta F508$ mutation. Mutation detection assays have been described previously.⁶

Significant differences in the CFTR mutation distribution were found between groups, supporting the notion that population-specific panels of mutations are required when using genetic tests to diagnose CF (Table I). Sixteen mutations were detected in the South African white population, accounting for 91% of all CFTR mutations in this population. In the coloured population, the $\Delta F508$ and 3120+1G A mutations occur at appreciable frequencies and account for 74.4% (64/86) of mutations. In the black population, 60.7% of mutations (17/28) were identified,



Table I. Frequency of common CFTR mutations in cystic fibrosis patients from different South African population groups

Mutation	White (N = 201)*	Coloured (N = 43)*	Black (N = 14)*
ΔF508	0.76	0.500	-
3272-26A G	0.040	0.012	-
3120+1G A	0.005	0.174	0.464
394delIT	0.037	-	-
G542X	0.017	0.023	-
R553X	0.01	-	-
W1282X	0.01	-	-
N1303K	0.01	-	-
G551D	0.008	0.023	-
R117H	0.0025	-	-
Q493X	0.0025	-	-
S549N	0.0025	-	-
621+1G T	0.0025	-	-
1717-1G A	0.0025	-	-
2789+5G A	0.0025	-	-
3659delC	0.0025	-	-
R1162X	-	0.012	-
G1249E†	-	-	0.036
3196del54†	-	-	0.036
-94G T†	-	-	0.036
2183delAA†	-	-	0.036
Unknown	0.086	0.256	0.393
Total mutation detection	0.910	0.744	0.607

* N = number of patients studied.
 † These patients were reported previously.^{5,6}
 - = not observed.

including five different mutations. The most common mutation is 3120+1G A, which occurs at a frequency of 46% (13/28). Four patients were homozygous for this mutation. Four other mutations (each on a single chromosome) have been identified.⁶

Fig. 1 shows the breakdown of the expected proportion of CFTR genotypes after testing a suspected CF patient using customised panels of mutations developed in this project. In the white population, 83% of CF patients will have two identifiable mutations (M/M) confirming a diagnosis of CF. Similarly, after DNA analysis alone, 55% of coloured but only 21% of black CF patients can be definitively diagnosed as having CF. The remaining CF patients will have either one identified mutation (M/U) or no identified mutations (U/U). In black CF patients, 71% will show at least one 3120+1G A mutation after DNA analysis, thus assisting the clinician in making a diagnosis. Confirmation of the diagnosis in such patients will only be possible with clear clinical features and/or two positive sweat tests.

We are grateful to the doctors working in CF clinics throughout South Africa, who refer samples from the New Johannesburg General Hospital, Chris Hani-Baragwanath Hospital, Red Cross Children's Hospital, Tygerberg Hospital and Pretoria Academic Hospital. We gratefully acknowledge funding from the H E Griffin Charitable Trust (University of the Witwatersrand), Solvay Pharmaceuticals, the South

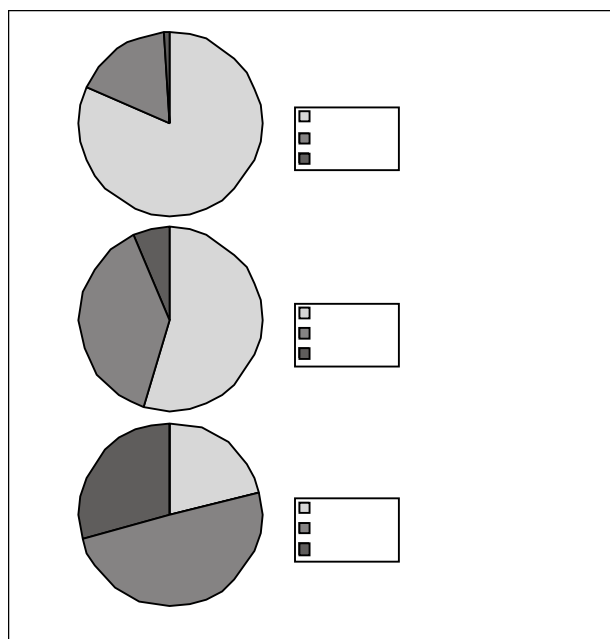


Fig. 1. Pie charts illustrating the proportion of South African CF patients who can be diagnosed by DNA analysis when testing for the common mutations included in the diagnostic panels. (a) white CFTR mutation panel: 15 mutations (91% mutation detection); (b) coloured CFTR mutation panel: 16 mutations (74% mutation detection); (c) black CFTR mutation panel: 3120+1G A (46% mutation detection). M= mutation identified; U= mutation unknown; M/M = two identified CFTR mutations; M/U = one identified CFTR mutation; U/U = no identified CFTR mutations.

African Medical Research Council and the National Health Laboratory Service (formerly The South African Institute for Medical Research).

A Goldman
 C Graf
 M Ramsay

Department of Human Genetics
 School of Pathology
 National Health Laboratory Service and
 University of the Witwatersrand
 Johannesburg

F Leisegang
 A T R Westwood

Red Cross War Memorial Children's Hospital
 Cape Town

- Hill ID, MacDonald WBG, Bowie MD, Ireland JD. Cystic fibrosis in Cape Town. *S Afr Med J* 1988; 73: 147-149.
- Padoa C, Goldman A, Jenkins T, Ramsay M. Cystic fibrosis carrier frequencies in populations of African origin. *J Med Genet* 1999; 36: 41-44.
- Rosenstein BJ, Cutting GR. The diagnosis of cystic fibrosis: A consensus statement. *J Pediatr* 1998; 132: 589-595.
- Kerem B-S, Rommens JM, Buchanan JA, et al. Identification of the cystic fibrosis gene: genetic analysis. *Science* 1989; 245: 1073-1080.
- Cystic Fibrosis Genetic Analysis Consortium. The CFTR mutation database. <http://www.genet.sickkids.on.ca/cfr> (accessed Oct 2002)
- Goldman A, Labrum R, Claustres M, et al. The molecular basis of cystic fibrosis in South Africa. *Clin Genet* 2001; 59: 37-41.