p63 (TP73L) a key player in embryonic urogential development with significant dysregulation in human bladder exstrophy tissue

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Abstract. Human bladder exstrophy-epispadias complex (BEEC) comprises a spectrum of urogenital anomalies in which part or all of the distal urinary tract fails to close. Several lines of evidence implicate genetic factors in the formation of BEEC. Among them a murine p63-/- knockout model showed the full picture of classic exstrophy of the bladder and other urogenital defects within the BEEC spectrum. This led us to study in depth the role of p63 in urogenital development in mice and investigate the implication of p63 in human BEEC. Whole mount in situ analysis in mice was carried out to investigate the ventro-caudal expression of the p63 transcript at gestational days (GD) 9.5-12.5, the equivalent of human gestational weeks 4-6 (postulated time of BEEC organogenesis in humans). In addition, p63 expression analysis was performed in human blood and bladder derived samples of 15 BEEC newborns accompanied by sequencing analysis of their genomic DNA. We also conducted sequencing analysis of genomic DNA in additional 22 BEEC patients. In mouse embryos, p63 expression was detected at days 9.5-12.5 in the cloacal membrane and urethral epithelium, supporting its

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role in the morphogenesis of the external genitalia and the bladder. Tissue-specific expression of a novel and already-known mRNA isoforms were established and a reproducible dysregulation of variable p63 isoforms was observed in 11 of 15 patients indicating altered gene expression. However, no obvious p63 gene mutations were identified in any of the patients.

Our findings strongly suggest that *p63* is not only involved in embryonic formation of the urogenital and ventrocaudal anatomy but is also highly dysregulated in human BEEC bladder tissue. Since *p63* has been shown to self-regulate its expression through a balance of its isoforms, the dysregulation observed may contribute to the formation of BEEC.

Introduction

The bladder exstrophy-epispadias-complex (BEEC) is an anterior midline defect with variable expression that affects the infraumbilical abdominal wall including the pelvis, urinary tract, and external genitalia. It ranges from isolated epispadias (E), to classic bladder exstrophy (CBE), to its most severe form, cloacal exstrophy (CE) also known as OEIS complex (omphalocele, exstrophy of the bladder, imperforate anus, spinal defects) (1,2). Several lines of evidence indicate that genetic factors are involved in the etiology of BEEC, among them, a 400-fold increase of the recurrence risk for offspring of affected individuals (3), observations of rare multiplex families (4) and much higher concordance rates (62% vs 11%) among monozygotic as compared to dizygotic twins (5).

The strong rationale for studying *p63* as a candidate gene for human BEEC is based on its coordinating function during anogenital modeling and epithelial cell differentiation in the developing female mouse urogenital tract (6), and its role during the urorectal septation process deducted from murine

knockout models (p63-/-) that resemble the severe human phenotypic BEEC spectrum such as CE or CBE (7,8). All 12 p63-/- embryos examined by Cheng et al developed bladder abnormalities (8). Of those, four embryos developed CBE with ventral bladder and abdominal wall defects (with and without membrane cover), bifid external genitalia and umbilical hernia, whereas the remaining eight embryos developed dilated bladders with both thin lamina propria and thin muscle layers. In fact, sagittal sections from E18.5 p63-/- mutant embryos presented a range of CBE features, e.g. ventral abdominal and bladder wall defects covered with a thin membrane, absence of pubic symphysis at the midline (i.e. separation of the pubic bones), absence of external genitalia at the midline (i.e. bifid genitalia), umbilical hernia, and ventral translocation of the anus. In the absence of p63, the ventral urothelium is neither committed nor differentiated, while the dorsal urothelium is both committed and differentiated. It has been proposed that p63 is required for the maintenance of 'stemness' of all stratified epithelia (7,9), or required for the very fundamental steps of commitment of and differentiation processes in stratified epithelia (9).

The p63 (KET/p40/p51/p73L) gene encodes at least eight protein isoforms realized by alternative splicing and alternative initiation of transcription (Fig. 1), alternate promoter usage results either in the presence (TA) or absence (ΔN) of a classical transactivation domain. By using antibodies, discriminating between only TA and ΔN forms, it has been established that $\Delta Np63$ is the predominant isoform expressed throughout the bladder with a preferential expression in the ventral bladder urothelium during early development (8). It has also been shown that $\Delta Np63$ is required for ventral specification in zebrafish. Loss of $\Delta Np63$ results in reduction of ventral (non-neural) ectoderm, while $\Delta Np63$ overexpression expands the ventral ectoderm (10). Elimination of $\Delta Np63$ by morpholino oligonucleotides results in embryos lacking epidermal structures and fins (10,11). The epidermal proliferation regulated by $\Delta Np63$ is achieved by dominant negative inhibition of the transcription of p53 target genes in vivo

Furthermore, and contrary to the *p63* murine knockout model, several human syndromes with urogenital malformations and various cleft and midline defects [limb mammary syndrome, LMS, OMIM 603543; acro-dermatoungual-lacrimal-tooth (ADULT) syndrome, OMIM 103285; ectrodactyly-ectodermal dysplasia-clefting syndrome, EECS, OMIM 604292; Hay-Wells or ankyloblepharon-ectodermal defects-cleft lip/palate (AEC) syndrome, OMIM 106260; Rapp-Hodgkin syndrome, RHS, OMIM 129400; split hand/foot malformation type 4, SHFM4, OMIM 605289] are associated with heterozygous (dominant) *p63* mutations (12).

Altogether, these findings implicate a role for *p63* in the etiology of human BEEC. In our study, we used whole mount *in situ* analysis in mice to investigate ventrocaudal expression of the *p63* transcript at gestational days 9.5-11.5 in mice. This period is considered the equivalent of human gestational weeks 4-6 (13), the postulated time of BEEC development in humans (14). We also compared *p63* expression in cDNA samples derived from bladder tissues and lymphocytes of 15 BEEC newborns against control samples by semi-quantitative PCR and quantitative real-time PCR. Finally we

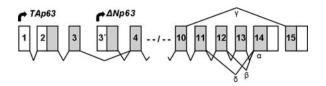


Figure 1. Schematic structure of human p63. Use of different promoters (arrows) yields transactivating (TAp63) and non-transactivating ($\Delta Np63$) isotypes. Alternative splicing events give rise to four mRNAs (α , β , γ , δ) for both these isotypes. mRNA-type δ was identified in this study.

performed mutational analysis of genomic DNA of the entire coding region of *p63* among the 15 BEEC newborns as well as among an additional 22 BEEC cases.

Materials and methods

In situ hybridization of mouse embryos. Mouse embryos were dissected in ice cold PBS, fixed overnight in 4% paraformaldehyde/PBS and then processed for in situ hybridization as described (21). Digoxigenin (DIG)-labelled antisense RNA probes were transcribed in vitro from PCR products of murine p63 (nucleotide 3910-4587 of GenBank acc. no. NM 011641.1). The reverse primer contained a T7 promoter site facilitating generation of antisense probes by using the PCR product as a template. T7 RNA polymerase, transcription buffer, and nucleotide mix (Promega, Roche, Switzerland) were used according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Probes were purified using G-50 sephadex columns (GE-Healthcare, Chalfont St. Giles, UK). Photographs of whole embryos were taken with a Leica MZ16A (Wetzlar, Germany) dissecting microscope and the Zeiss Axiovision (Jena, Germany) software.

Histological analyses of mouse embryos. For the histological analyses, in situ hybridized whole mount mouse embryos were embedded in 20% albumin/13% sucrose/0.5% gelatine/2.5% glutaraldehyde in PBS matrix. Vibratome sections with a thickness of 20 μ m were prepared.

Patients. The study was approved by the respective Ethics Committees of the respective institutes and informed consent was obtained from all patients and donors of normal (control) samples. Tissue and blood specimens included in the expression studies were all derived from sporadic cases (8 males and 7 females) with the majority of patients (15) being of North American Caucasian origin (Table I). Other anomalies of interest in these probands include ventricular septal defect in BS5 and LS5; spina bifida in LS8; renal anomalies in BS12. Patient LS1 was shown to carry a chromosomal translocation, 46,XY,t(8;9) (p11.2;q13) (15). Patients solely studied by *p63* sequence analysis were all of Central European origin, except for one patient from Morocco (70-501) and one from Panama (314-501), both recently described in detail (16,17). Altogether, samples from 16 males (15 with CBE, 1 with CE) and 6 females (3 with CBE, 3 with CE) were investigated. Additional features associated with BEEC were observed in two of these patients, thereby implicating a BEEC-like/p63-dependent phenotype, 314-501 presented with bilateral cleft lip and

Table I. Summarized findings of expression analyses on p63 isoforms in tissue from BEEC patients.

Lymphocyte	L S9 CE CE C C C N N D N D N D C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C
	F. S.
	LS7 CE CE ND ND ND ND + + + + +
	L 26 CE CE CE CE C
	LS3 CBE F C C C C C + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +
	LS2 CBE CBE C C C C T C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C
	LS1 CBE CC CC CC CC CC
	LC1 - K & + + + + + +
Bladder	BSS CBE F C C C C C C C ND ND ND ND ND ND ND ND ND ND ND ND ND
	BS4 CBE M AS AS AS ND ND ND ND ND ND
	BS3 CBE MD ND ND ND ND ND
	BS2 CBE CBE CCBE CCBE ND ND N
	BS1 CBE TF C C CBE ND C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C
	BS13 CBE F C C + + + - -
	BS12 CBE M C C + + + -
	BS11 CBE M P/AA + + + - -
	BC1 - + + + + + + .
	Sample Type of BEEC Gender Ethnicity $\Delta Wp63\alpha$ $\Delta Np63\beta$ $\Delta Np63\beta$ $\Delta Np63\gamma$ $\Delta Np63\gamma$ $\Delta Np63\gamma$ $\Delta Np63\gamma$ $\Delta Np63\gamma$ $\Delta Np63\delta$ $\Delta Np63\delta$ $\Delta Np63\delta$ $\Delta Np63\delta$

Expression of p63 transcripts in a representative control sample (BC1, bladder control; LC1, lymphocyte control) and relevant findings in patients' tissues (BS, LS) are shown. Differences observed are depicted in bold, with (-) amplification not detected, (+) transcript detected, and (++) repeated experiments suggest overexpression. Data on type of BEEC (CBE, classic exstrophy of the bladder; CE, NA, not applicable;] male) and ethnicity (P, Polynesian; AA, cloacal exstrophy), gender (f, female; m,

palate and patient 55-501 with bifid uvula. History of pregnancy was uneventful in all cases, without any maternal exposure to environmental toxins or maternal infections (15,18).

Tissue specimens. Tissue samples from CBE/CE patients and appropriate controls were obtained at the time of surgical reconstruction during newborn period, immediately placed in RNA*later*[®] tissue collection, RNA stabilization solution (Ambion, Austin, TX) and stored at -80°C until RNA isolation. Epstein-Barr transformed human lymphocyte cells were grown with Gibco RPMI Medium 1640 + 10% FBS + 1% antibiotic in 37°C + 5% CO₂.

RNA and DNA analysis. Genomic DNA was isolated by standard procedures and total RNA was extracted from 50-75 mg tissue homogenized using PolyTron or from $\sim 2x10^6$ cells with a standard Trizol (Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) method and the RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Integrity of the RNA was confirmed by GeneQuant pro RNA/DNA calculator. Reverse transcription (RT) was performed using 2 μ g total RNA with the SuperScript First-Strand Synthesis System and for RT-PCR cDNAs derived from bladder or lymphocyte RNA were used according to the manufacturer's specifications (Invitrogen).

For sequence analysis, PCR amplification of all 16 human p63 coding exons as well as the 5' and 3'UTR regions was carried out on DNA or cDNA samples of 37 BEEC patients. Initially, in 15 patients the entire p63 cDNA derived from lymphocytes or bladder RNA was sequenced (performed by UC Davis DNA Sequencing Facility). The cDNA samples showing aberrant p63 expression were subsequently analyzed by genomic DNA sequencing and a detailed promoter analysis was also performed. The TAp63 promoter sequence analysis is contiguous with the 5'UTR and exon 1 (nucleotide 95,843,101-95,844,456 in acc. no. NT_005612.15) (19). The $\Delta Np63$ promoter has also been characterized and this sequence corresponds to nucleotides 96,001,014-96,002,635 (20). In addition, solely genomic DNA was analyzed in 22 patients in order to screen for single mutations.

Expression analysis. p63 TA or ΔN expression was investigated with a specific forward primer (located in either exon 1 or 3) combined with isoform-specific reverse primers. Carboxy-terminal short products (~300 bp) were obtained with a reverse primer either directed to exon 14 or 15 and a transcript-specific forward primer.

Since short PCR amplicons (<200 bp) are a prerequisite for efficient real-time PCR (qPCR), we did not amplify each long isoform individually for quantitative analysis. Instead, short TA (110 bp) and $\Delta Np63$ (108 bp)-specific products were amplified. These amplicons captured all four isoforms (α , β , γ , and δ) of the TA or $\Delta Np63$ transcript, respectively. Moreover, specific qPCR was only performed on the Nterminal of p63 to observe TA or ΔN family-specific expression since analysis of each individual COOH-terminal isoform amplifies both TA and $\Delta Np63$ species. All qPCR assays consisted of 2X SYBR Green PCR Master Mix, 600 nM of each primer, and the same amount of starting DNA (2 μ g RNA synthesized into cDNA). PCR was performed on the ABI

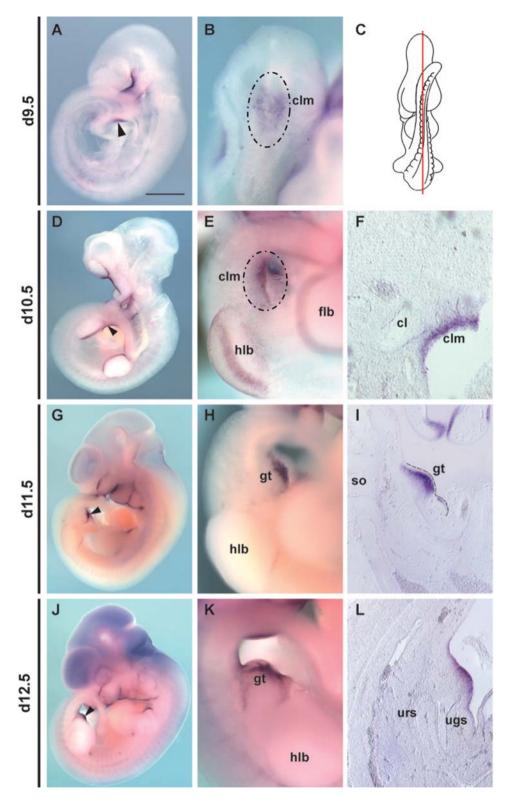


Figure 2. Analysis of p63 gene expression in mouse embryos on gestation days (GDs) 9.5-12.5 using whole mount in situ hybridization. (A) Whole mount of a GD 9.5 mouse embryo. Gene expression is detectable in the ventrolateral region at the level of the cloaca (arrowhead) and in the ectoderm of the first branchial arch. (B) Close-up of the cloacal region (dashed circle) of the embryo depicted in A. (C) Schematic frontal view of a GD 9.5 embryo. The red line indicates the section plane for F, I, L. (D) Whole mount of a GD 10.5 mouse embryo. p63 expression is detectable in the forelimb and hindlimb bud, in the first and second branchial arch and in the cloacal region (arrowhead). (E) Close-up of the caudal area of the embryo circled in D. The ventral view shows a p63 expression in the cloacal membrane (dashed circle) and in the apical ectodermal ridge (AER) of the forelimb and hindlimb bud. (F) Sagittal section of the caudal area of the embryo shows the presence of p63 message in the ectodermal and endodermal part of the cloaca membrane. (G) Whole mount of a GD 11.5 mouse embryo where p63 expression is detected in the genital tubercle (arrowhead). (H) Close-up of the ventrocaudal area of the embryo in G. This view shows the expression of p63 above the genital tubercle. (I) Sagittal section of the urogenital region of the embryo in G. The genital tubercle is marked by a dashed line. Expression is detected in the cloacal membrane. (J) Whole mount of a GD 12.5 mouse embryo. p63 expression is visible in the maxillary and mandibulary arches and above the genital tubercle (arrowhead). (K) Close-up of the genital tubercle of the embryo shown in J, p63 transcripts are detected in the ectodermal compartment of the cloacal membrane. (L) Sagittal section of the urogenital region of the embryo shown in J, p63 expression at the genital tubercle and in the cloacal membrane. The scale bar corresponds to $165 \, \mu m$ in A, D, G and J, $69 \, \mu m$ in B, $330 \, \mu m$ in C, $82 \, \mu m$ in F and I, $220 \, \mu m$ in H

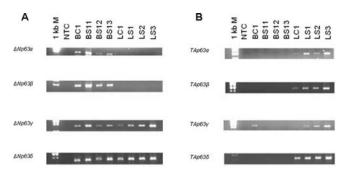


Figure 3. RT-PCR analysis of p63 NH2-terminal isoforms in bladder (BS11-13) or lymphocytes (LS1-3) obtained from control (BC1 and LC1) and CBE patients. NTC denotes no template control.

Prism 7900HT (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, USA) and each experiment was performed at least three times on separate days using the same protocol. The fold change presented for each patient was derived from the average of nine values for each amplicon. Data from all respective nine reactions were highly reproducible and there was no significant deviation between experiments. In order to precisely quantify the expression level of the individual isoform family, data were normalized in comparison to 'housekeeping' genes glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (*GAPDH*) and β-actin (*ACTB*). All primer sequences and protocols can be obtained on request.

Results

To obtain a comprehensive overview of the transcriptional activity of p63 during the development of the urogenital system and external genitalia, we performed whole mount in situ hybridization (WISH) on mouse embryos at gestational days 9.5-12.5 with particular emphasis on the region of the cloaca and the genital tubercle (Fig. 2). At day 9.5, p63 transcripts were detected in the ectodermal compartment of the cloacal membrane, as well as in the ectodermal surface of the first branchial arch and in the region of the emerging forelimb bud (Fig. 2A and 2B). At day 10.5 the expression domains in the cloacal region and in the branchial arch ectoderm persisted and the expression in the limb buds became confined to the apical ectodermal ridge (AER; Fig. 2D-F). Between day 11.5 and 12.5, during the emergence of the genital tubercle, the cloacal p63 expression became more pronounced, resulting in a strong signal in the uretral ectoderm (Fig. 2G-L).

The distribution of p63 isoforms in human bladder tissue (BC1) and lymphocytic (LC1) control samples (Fig. 3B) revealed a tissue-specific expression in that all TA-transcripts were present in lymphocytes but $TAp63\gamma$ was solely found in bladder tissue. Contrary, ΔN -variants were all detected in bladder tissue, whereas lymphocytes only expressed the γ -type (Fig. 3A; data summarized in Table I). In the course of these studies, a novel splice variant was identified, for which the term $p63\delta$ (Figs. 1 and 3) was coined. Primers directed to its exon 11/14 junction allowed us to confirm this yet undescribed isoform. The ΔN - δ -transcript was found to be present in both bladder and lymphocyte control samples, whereas the $TAp63\delta$ -transcript was absent in bladder controls (Fig. 3).

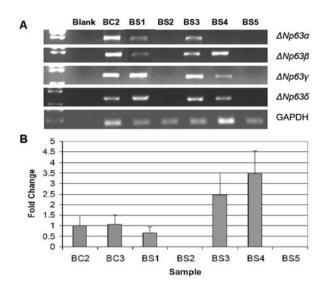


Figure 4. A. RT-PCRs of the $\Delta Np63$ family of mRNA isoforms in different CBE bladder samples (BS1-5) compared with bladder control samples (BC2). GAPDH was used as a loading control. BS2 and BS5 lack all $\Delta Np63$ variants and BS4 shows absence of $\Delta Np63\alpha$ and possible overexpression of $\Delta Np63\beta$. B. Cumulative qPCR of $\Delta Np63$ family of isoforms with bladder controls (BC2-BC3) and bladder samples (S1-S5) from CBE patients. Data confirmed absence of all isoforms in BS2 and BS5 and possible overexpression of (at least) $\Delta Np63\beta$.

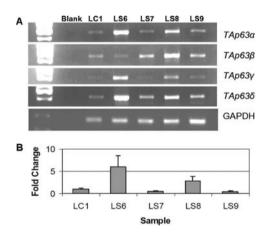


Figure 5. A. RT-PCRs of the TAp63 family of mRNA isoforms in different CE lymphocyte samples (LS6-9) compared with a control sample (LC1). GAPDH was used as a loading control. Semi-quantitative PCR suggests possible overexpression of $TAp63\alpha$, $-\gamma$, and $-\delta$ in LS6 and of all TAp63 isoforms in LS8. B. Cumulative TAp63 qPCR corroborates TAp63 overexpression in both, LS6 and LS8.

As seen in Fig. 3, investigation of CBE patient's samples (LS1-LS3) revealed a normal expression pattern in lymphocytes. However, bladder tissue from three CBE patients (BS11-BS13) showed absence of the $TAp63\gamma$ -mRNA. Investigation of the expressed ΔN transcripts in CBE bladder tissues detected significant alterations in another three samples (Fig. 4A). Here, BS2 and BS5 lacked all $\Delta Np63$ variants and BS4 showed absence of $\Delta Np63a$ with a possible overexpression of $\Delta Np63\beta$. These findings were verified by cumulative qPCR of all $\Delta Np63$ isoforms (Fig. 4B).

Significant variations detected in samples from unrelated BEEC patient lymphocytes are summarized in Table I and examples are shown in Fig. 5. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR

suggested possible overexpression of $TAp63\alpha$, $-\gamma$, and $-\delta$ in LS6 and of all TAp63 isoforms in LS8. Cumulative TAp63 real-time PCR corroborates TAp63 overexpression in both LS6 and LS8. Unfortunately, due to a very limited amount of bladder exstrophy tissue, we were unable to perform the complete series of tests with samples BS1-5 and LS6-9.

Sequencing of all *p63* exons and their corresponding splice junctions, promoter regions and polyA-sites revealed only four heterozygous deviations from normal in all samples tested. A silent variant (c.249T>C, D83) also detected in the unaffected father was found in patient 140-501. DNA from lymphocytes of patient LS1 showed another synonymous substitution (c.678C>T; R226R). Two patients showed an intronic variant (IVS1, +33 A/G and IVS3, +76 C/T, respectively). None of these substitutions has been deposited in the single nucleotide polymorphism database (NCBI dbSNP Build 131) to date.

Discussion

Our analysis of the p63 expression pattern in midgestation phase mouse embryos clearly showed the spatiotemporal correlation of p63 transcriptional activity with the critical phase of urogenital development. Starting with the formation of the cloacal membrane at day 9.5, p63 transcription takes place in the epithelial compartiments of the cloaca, where it persists in the uretral epithelium and the adjacent ectoderm during the formation of the external genitalia. Loss of p63 in mice was shown to cause limb and craniofacial defects, multiple malformations in urogenital development, and defects in the formation of the abdominal wall, resulting in exstrophy of the bladder (8). As causes for these pleiotropic defects, failures in epithelial to mesenchymal signalling as well as an antiapoptotic role of p63 were described (7,8). p63 expression in the cloacal and uretral epithelium suggests that p63 is necessary for proper function as a source of patterning or proliferation signals on the mesenchyme of the adjacent lateral plate and genital tubercle mesoderm. The loss of p63 activity in this tissue can thus lead to the observed developmental defects that are a prerequisite for bladder exstrophies as described in Cheng et al (8).

Tempo-spatial expression differences of p63 have been previously observed (22,23), and a tissue-specific pattern including a novel p63 mRNA variant, $p63\delta$, was also evident from our analysis of lymphocytes and bladder mRNA obtained from normal tissue. As summarized in Table I, expression differences for selective p63 isoforms were identified in 11 out of 15 tested exstrophic cDNA samples and this dysbalance may be correlated with BEEC. It is known that TA and $\Delta Np63$ compete for the same binding sequence (24). Therefore, a decrease in some of these isoforms can be expected to result in attenuated or lost transactivation of gene targets. Since $\Delta Np63$ is required for epithelial development and formation of stratified epithelia, the lack of all or some of these isoforms might be involved in the formation of urogenital system malformations. Most interestingly is the absence of $\Delta Np63\alpha$ transcripts in bladder tissue from three patients (BS2, 4 and 5). It has been shown in mice that $\Delta Np63\alpha$ protein induces expression of the extracellular matrix component Fras1, required for maintaining the integrity of the epidermaldermal interface at the basement membrane (25). Mutations

in human FRAS1 have been causally linked to classical Fraser syndrome (CFS; OMIM #219000), an autosomal-recessive defect, also known as Cryptophthalmos-Syndactyly syndrome (26). CFS shows phenotypic overlap with BEEC in that umbilical hernia (omphalocele), microphallus in males along with cryptorchidism, vaginal atresia or bicornuate uterus in females as well as diastasis of symphysis pubis in both genders are frequently observed.

Although these data strongly suggest that p63 is not only involved in embryonic formation of the urogential and ventrocaudal anatomy but is also highly dysregulated in human BEEC bladder tissue, we were unable to identify genomic mutations by Sanger sequencing in BEEC patients. Though our sample size may have been too small to detect rare causal mutational events, it is unlikely that screening of larger number of samples will identify such mutations, since we failed to detect genomic mutations even in those patients, in which p63 expression was significantly dysregulated. It is therefore unlikely that genomic mutations in p63 are a frequent or a direct cause of BEEC in humans. However, it cannot be excluded, that we may have missed mutations in yet unknown regulatory sequences or in non-coding regions not detectable using the method applied. Also, dysfunction of other factors, involved in the regulation of p63 transcription may lead to differences in its expression. Here, p63 expression has been shown to be regulated by a set of specific micro-RNAs (miRs) in the respective tissue context (27). Therefore, expression differences observed may also be attributable to misadjusted miR expression and/or the transcription of nonfunctional miRs interfering with the precise degradation of the respective p63 transcript and its quantity required.

In summary, our study showed that p63 expression is consistent with direct effects on the development of the urogenital system, in particular by acting through its proposed function in epithelial stratification, cell proliferation and control of apoptosis. While our work has implicated p63 dysregulation in human bladder tissue of BEEC patients, the genetic basis for its abnormal expression has yet to be identified. Our mutation screening study did not confirm that mutations affecting p63 are a frequent cause of BEEC. It remains to be elucidated to what degree these postnatal findings reflect the situation in early embryonic development when the morphogenetic events leading to BEEC occur. Future studies should consider genes encoding proteins involved in the p63 signaling pathway as possible candidates for the development of these malformations.

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