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Characterization
of the fragile X syndrome gene products

Mikiko Chihara Siomi

1994
Acknowledgments

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General introduction

Fragile X mental is one of the most common human genetic diseases and the most common cause of hereditary mental retardation, affecting approximately 1 in 1200 males and 1 in 2500 females (Sutherland et al., 1985; Nussbaum and Ledbetter, 1986; Richards and Sutherland, 1992; Oostra and Verkerk, 1992; Caskey et al., 1992). The clinical features include variable but generally severe mental retardation, resulting in IQ of 20-60, a typical facial appearance, and enlarged testicles in adult males. The fragile X syndrome is strongly associated with a chromosomal fragile site, a segmental gap of poorly staining chromatin at Xq27.3 (Sutherland, 1977; Tommerup, 1989), that can be induced to appear in ~50% of metaphases from affected males if cells are starved for precursors of DNA synthesis during the preceding S phase. The genetics of this X-linked disorder are unusual: Approximately 30% of carrier females exhibit mental deficiency while 20% of males with the fragile X chromosome are non-penetrant, phenotypically normal individuals (Sherman et al., 1984; Sherman et al., 1985). These males in turn will transmit the chromosome to daughters, who are consistently unaffected, and they may have affected grandsons. This phenomenon of anticipation, with the risk of mental impairment in fragile X pedigrees appearing to be contingent upon the position of individuals in the pedigrees, has commonly been referred to as the "Sherman paradox".

Fragile X syndrome is caused by the amplification of a simple trinucleotide repeat (CGG)n located within the 5' untranslated region of the fragile X mental retardation gene, **FMR1** (Verkerk et al., 1991). Two classes of mutations have been described (Oberle et al., 1991; Fu et al., 1991; Rousseau et al., 1991): premutation are characterized by moderate expansions of the trinucleotide repeat (n=54-200) and do not cause mental retardation. They are found in normal transmitting males and in normal female carriers (including all daughters of normal transmitting males); full mutations are present in affected males or females patients and are characterized by larger expansions (n>250) associated with an abnormal methylation of the CpG island which includes the CGG repeat (Oberle et al., 1991; Hansen et al., 1992). The transition from premutation to full mutations occurs only by transmission through a female carrier at a frequency
which depends on the size of the premutation (Fu et al., 1991; Yu et al., 1992; Heitz et al., 1992).

There is strong evidence that defects in FMR1 play a central role in the clinical syndrome. First, amplification of the trinucleotide repeat is associated with hypermethylation of the CpG island 5' to FMR1 (Bell et al., 1991; Heitz et al., 1991; Oberle et al., 1991; Vincent et al., 1991) and a marked decrease or extinction of steady-state levels of FMR1 mRNA (Pieretti et al., 1991; Verheij et al., 1993). Additional evidence for a direct role of FMR1 is that three patients with a partial or complete deletion of FMR1 exhibit fragile X syndrome in the absence of the fragile site (Gedeon et al., 1992; Wohrle et al., 1992; Meijer et al., 1994). The finding of a single point mutation in the open reading frame of FMR1 in a patient with very severe fragile X syndrome, but without cytogenetic expression of the fragile site (De Boule et al., 1993), also suggests that FMR1 is directly responsible for fragile X syndrome. Recently, fmri knockout mice have been reported. These knockout mice lack normal FMRI RNA and protein and show enlarged testes, impaired cognitive function, and aberrant behavior. This animal model might serve as a valuable tool in the elucidation of the physiological role of FMR1 and the mechanisms involved in macroorchidism, abnormal behavior, and mental retardation (The Dutch-Belgian Fragile X Consortium, 1994).

Although its apparently ubiquitous expression and extraordinary cross-species conservation (Verkerk et al., 1991) suggest that it may have a 'housekeeping' role, the normal function of FMR1 is not known. The predicted amino acid sequence of the FMR1 gene product has been published (Verkerk et al., 1991), as no homology to proteins characterized previously has been reported. FMR1 expression is widespread as shown by northern blot analysis on human tissues and by in situ hybridization in mouse, and appears strong in brain and testis which are involved in the clinical phenotype (Hinds et al., 1993).

To better understand the function and evolution of the FMR1 gene product, FMR1 cDNA is cloned from Xenopus laevis. In the course of the experiment, a novel gene, termed FXRI, that is highly homologous by amino acid sequence to FMR1 is discovered. FXRI, like FMR1, contains two KH domains and an RGG box and is a cytoplasmic RNA-binding protein. These findings indicate that FMR1 is not a one-of-a-kind gene but rather is a member of a gene family. The antibodies to X. laevis FMR1 and FXRI are raised and show that these proteins are expressed in X. laevis oocytes, indicating that the FMR1 and FXRI mRNAs could be maternal. In Chapter 4, all about Xenopus laevis FMR1 and FXRI are described. FXRI cDNA is also isolated from human and completely sequenced, which is described in Chapter 5. Interestingly, cells of a fragile X patient that do not have any detectable FMR1 express normal levels of FXRI. Unlike FMR1, FXRI is not located on the X chromosome: rather it is an autosomal gene located at 12q13. Moreover, unlike FMR1, there is no CGG repeats in the 5' UTR of the FXRI mRNA. Instead, FXRI mRNA has a most
unusual feature; both X, laevis and human FXRI mRNAs contain an approximately 90 nucleotide perfect inverted repeat in the 5' and 3' UTRs. It suggests that FXRI expression is subject to particular post-transcriptional regulation or that the FXRI mRNA has an unusual function.

Chapter 1
The protein product of the fragile X gene, FMR1, has characteristics of an RNA-binding protein

1-1 Introduction
Although the gene, FMR1, which causes fragile X syndrome has been recently cloned and sequenced (Figure 1-1), the normal function of FMR1 protein product is not still known. The expression of the protein is apparently ubiquitous in living cells and extraordinary cross-species conserved (Verkerk et al., 1991), which suggest that it may have a 'housekeeping' role. The amino acid sequence of the FMR1 gene product can be predicted from the DNA sequence of the gene (Verkerk et al., 1991), but its protein product has not yet been identified and there are no biological parameters to assess the activity of FMR1. To give a clue to study the function of FMR1, the homology search for the peptide sequence is carried out. It is found that the predicted amino acid sequence of the FMR1 gene product contains two motifs that strongly suggest that it is an RNA binding protein, one of which is the K homology (KH) domain (Siomi et al., 1993; Gibson et al., 1993b; Ashley et al., 1993a) and the another one is an RGG box (Kiledjian and Dreyfuss, 1992; Ashley et al., 1993a). In this chapter, it is demonstrated that FMR1 does indeed bind to RNA in vitro. This observation suggests possible functions for FMR1 in RNA metabolism or in RNA-containing cellular structures and focuses on the role of defective FMR1 function in the pathogenesis of this disorder.

1-2 Experimental Procedures
cDNA cloning and construction of expression plasmids for the FMR1 proteins
FMR1 cDNA fragment was isolated by polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Two PCR oligodeoxynucleotide primers were synthesized; one in a 5' to 3' direction within the FMR1 coding regions (27XM7:1272-1301) and one in a 3' to 5' direction within the FMR1 3' noncoding region (27X31:2124-2156; the coordinates are based on the numbering used in Verkerk et al., 1991). 2mg of oligo (dT)-selected HeLa RNA was reverse transcribed using the primer 27X31 according to the manufacturer's suggested conditions (Perkin Elmer Cetus).
Figure 1-1. The DNA sequence and the predicted amino acid sequence of human FMR1. (Verkerk et al., 1991)
binding reactions were carried out with an equivalent of $10^5$ counts per min (c.p.m.) of trichloroacetic acid (TCA)-precipitable protein in a total of 0.5 ml of binding buffer [10 mM Tris-Cl(pH 7.4), 2.5 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.5% Triton X-100, 2 mg/ml Pepstatin, 2 mg/ml Leupeptin, 0.5% Aprotinin] with the stated NaCl concentration for 10 min on a rocking platform at 4°C. The beads were pelleted with a brief spin in a microfuge and washed five times with binding buffer prior to resuspension in 50 ul of SDS-PAGE loading buffer. Bound protein was eluted from the nucleic acid by boiling, resolved on a 12.5% SDS-PAGE gel and visualized by fluorography.

**Expression and purification of fusion protein**

The expression vector pET15 F2 was constructed by cleaving pHHS1 F27X with XhoI and BamHI and inserting a XhoI-BamHI fragment [nucleotide 845-1855, based on the numbering used in (Verkerk et al., 1991)] of FMR1 into the XhoI and BamHI sites of the plasmid pET15b-HA. The pET15b-HA was derived by insertion of a duplex DNA linker containing the codons for the nine amino acid HA epitope with 5' Ndel and 3' XhoI overhangs into the Ndel and XhoI sites of pET15b vector (Novagen). For production of the His-HA-FMR1 fusion protein, the plasmid pET15 F2 was introduced into BL21(DE3)pLysE bacteria and induced with isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) as described (Studier et al., 1990; Rosenberg et al., 1987). Cells expressing reasonable amounts of the fusion protein were screened by using anti-HA mouse monoclonal 12CA5. For purification of the fusion protein, bacterial sonicate was incubated at 40°C with 1x packed volume of DEAE-Sephacel (Pharmacia). The resulting supernatant solution was applied to a 2.5-ml His·Bind™ Resin (Novagen) column, washed and eluted as described by the manufacturer.

**Northwestern blotting assay**

Poly(G) was 5' end labeled with T4 polynucleotide kinase. Blots immobilizing the overexpressed and purified His-HA-FMR1 fusion peptide were treated for 1h at room temperature in binding buffer [10 mM Tris-Cl(pH 7.4), 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1x Denhardt's solution]. The blots were then probed at room temperature for 1h with 32P-labeled poly(G)RNA (100,000 cpm per lane) in binding buffer containing 20 μg of E. coli tRNA (Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals) and 1 mg of heparin (porcine intestinal mucosa) per ml. Blots were washed three times for 15 minutes each with binding buffer, air dried, and exposed to X-ray films for autoradiography.

### 1-3 Results

**FMR1 has sequence motifs characteristic of RNA binding proteins**

In examining the predicted sequence of FMR1 (Verkerk et al., 1991), it has been noticed that it contains sequence motifs characteristic of RNA-binding proteins. First, several RNA binding proteins have recently been found to contain an arginine and glycine-rich domain that contains a cluster of the tripeptide repeat (Arg-Gly-Gly) called the RGG box (Kiledjian and Dreyfuss, 1992). This motif has been found in a considerable number of nuclear and nucleolar RNA-binding proteins and has been demonstrated to have RNA-binding activity (Kiledjian and Dreyfuss, 1992; Dreyfuss et al., 1993). Figure 1-2A shows the sequence of an RGG box near the carboxyl end of FMR1. This RGG box bears particularly striking similarity to those found in two other proteins, fibrillarin (Aris and Blobel, 1991) and pre-mRNA binding (hnRNP) A1 (Buvoli et al., 1988), both of which are RNA-binding proteins (Tyk and Steitz, 1989; Cobianchi et al., 1988; Nadler et al., 1991). Second, amino acids 286-321 and 347-382 (Figure 1-2B) are two internal repeats. These repeats have significant similarity to each other (39% similarity) but they bear even stronger similarity to a sequence motif, the K homology (KH) domain, that has been recently described in the hnRNP K protein (Siomi et al., 1993) (Figure 1-2B). It consists of the highly conserved I/LV-X-G-X-G-X-G-X-I sequence and regularly spaced hydrophobic residues. This sequence motif, which extends over ~40 amino acids, was originally found in the hnRNP K protein (Siomi et al., 1993; Mauvais et al., 1992; Dreyfuss et al., 1993) and in several other proteins including the archaeabacterial ribosomal protein S3 (Spiridonova et al., 1989) and the yeast meiosis-specific splicing regulator MER-1 (Engerbret and Roeder, 1990; Engelbrecht et al., 1991). We found that KH domains are also present in several additional proteins, including the GAP-associated tyrosine phosphoprotein p62 (Wong et al., 1992), a differentiation-associated protein, vigilin (Schmidt et al., 1992) and a glycine-rich putative hnRNP protein, GRP33 (Cruz-Alvarado and
Comparison of the RGG box in the FMR1 protein to similar domains and putative RNA-proteins.

(A) Primary structure of the FMR1 protein and its sequence similarity with RNA-binding proteins.
(B) The KH domains in the protein show similarity to a number of known proteins. The open bar indicates the coding region.

Figure 1-2. Primary structure of the FMR1 protein and its sequence similarity with RNA-binding proteins.

(A) Comparison of the RGG box in the FMR1 protein to similar domains in other RNA-binding proteins.
(B) The KH domains in the protein show similarity to a number of known proteins. The open bar indicates the coding region.

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Pellicer, 1987) (Figure 1-2B). Because several of the proteins that contain KH domains bind RNA, it appears very likely that this domain is involved in RNA binding. It is of interest that a single mutation in FMR1, I367N [based on the numbering used in (Verkerk et al., 1991)], which changes one of the most highly conserved residues of the KH motif to asparagine, can cause fragile X syndrome (De Boule et al., 1993), (Figure 1-2B). The finding that a highly conserved residue within the KH domain is required for normal function of FMR1 supports the view that the KH domain is of functional significance. The FMR1 KH1 domain is most similar to KH3 of the human and Xenopus laevis hnRNP K protein (14 identities and 18 similarities over 36 amino acids), and FMR1 KH2 is most similar to KH4 of chicken vigilin (14 identities and 17 similarities over 36 amino acids) and to KH domains in hnRNP K, archaeabacterial ribosomal protein S3 and polynucleotide phosphorylase (11 identities each). Taken together, these sequence features strongly suggest that FMR1 is an RNA binding protein. The position of these motifs in FMR1 is indicated in Figure 1-2C.

FMR1 binds RNA in vitro

To test the possibility that FMR1 is an RNA-binding protein directly, we cloned FMR1 [predicted open reading frame beginning with methionine 66 (Caskey et al., 1992); based on the numbering used in (Verkerk et al., 1991)] into an expression vector that contains a T7 RNA polymerase promoter for in vitro transcription as a fusion protein with the influenza hemagglutinin peptide (HA) as an epitope tag starting at the putative initiator methionine. The transcription product was translated in vitro and the protein product was assayed for RNA binding activity using RNA homopolymers immobilized on agarose beads, an assay that has been useful to assess RNA binding for many other RNA-binding proteins (Kiledjian and Dreyfuss, 1992; Swanson and Dreyfuss, 1988). The translation product of FMR1 had an apparent molecular weight by SDS-PAGE of 85K daltons, larger than expected from the predicted amino acid sequence (Figure 1-3A). This discrepancy between molecular mass and mobility in SDS-PAGE is frequently observed for proteins that contain stretches rich in acidic amino acids such as hnRNP C1/C2 (Swanson et al., 1987) and the yeast transcriptional activator GCN4 (Hope and Struhl, 1986). FMR1 contains several clusters of acidic amino acids (e.g. immediately amino terminal to the RGG box).
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and this may explain its slower mobility in SDS-PAGE. The FMR1 polypeptide showed strong binding to poly(G), a little weaker but significant binding to poly(U), and very little binding to poly(A) and poly(C). The failure of the major 50kD translation by-product to bind to the RNA homopolymers further verifies the RNA-binding activity of the FMR1 protein. The hnRNP C1 protein, a tenacious RNA binding protein used as a control in the same experiment, showed binding to poly(U), less to poly(G) and very little binding to poly(A) and poly(C), as previously demonstrated (Swanson and Dreyfuss, 1988). The binding of FMR1 to poly(G) and poly(U) was stable in NaCl concentrations up to 0.25M (Figure 1-3B). Both FMR1 and C1 showed stronger binding to ribohomopolymers than to ssDNA (data not shown), and preferential binding to some ribohomopolymers. This binding profile is characteristic of RNA binding proteins (Piñol-Roma et al., 1988).

To assess the role of the conserved sequence motifs described above in RNA binding, we produced translation products of truncated transcripts generated by digestion of the FMR1 cDNA with AccI and SspI (Figure 1-3C) and compared the RNA binding ability with the full length FMR1. Whereas the full length protein bound well to poly(G) and poly(U) at 0.1M NaCl, the truncated proteins showed little or no binding to either. The polypeptide produced from the AccI-truncated construct is of particular interest as it is missing the RGG box but still contains the KH domains and it does not bind RNA, supporting the possibility that the RGG box is essential for RNA binding.

The RNA binding activity of FMR1 and its fragments was also confirmed by Northwestern blotting. With this approach, the proteins, immobilized on nitrocellulose membrane after SDS-PAGE, are probed with radioactively-labeled RNA and visualized by autoradiography. For this experiment, a fragment of FMR1, which contains all the KH motifs and the RGG box, was fused at the carboxyl terminus to His6-HA. This permitted rapid purification from E. coli extracts on a nickel column (Hochuli et al., 1987; Smith et al., 1988) and afforded detection with anti-HA antibodies. Repeated attempts to produce the full length protein in E. coli were unsuccessful. The purified material contained three bands, the largest of which (ca. 50K), corresponded to the desired polypeptide, and the two smaller ones corresponded to carboxyl terminal deletions as determined by their reactivity with anti-HA antibody (data not shown). Figure 1-4 shows that

![Figure 1-3. RNA binding properties of FMR1 protein.](image)

(A) Binding of the FMR1 protein to ribonucleotide homopolymers. An amount equivalent to 20% of the material used for each binding reaction is shown in the lanes marked “Transition.” In vitro produced proteins were bound to the indicated ribonucleotide homopolymers at 100mM NaCl. The position of molecular weight markers are indicated on the left.
### Figure 1-3. RNA binding properties of FMR1 protein.

**B** FMR1 binds poly(G) and poly(U) in a salt resistant manner. In vitro translated FMR1 protein was bound to the indicated ribonucleotide homopolymers at the indicated salt concentrations.

![RNA binding properties of FMR1 protein](image)

### Figure 1-3. RNA binding properties of FMR1 protein.

**C** The ribonucleotide homopolymer binding domain is located at the C-terminal end of the FMR1 protein. wt, Accl and SspI represent for the full length FMR1, the truncated FMR1 by Accl and SspI site respectively. The structure of the C-terminal deletion mutants is shown below, the stippled boxed representing the KH domains, and the cross-hatched box, the RGG box of the FMR1. In vitro produced proteins were bound to the indicated ribonucleotide homopolymers at 200mM NaCl concentration.
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the full length product, but not the smaller fragments, bound \[^{32}P\]-poly(G) at 50mM NaCl in the presence of 1mg/ml heparin. The heparin-resistant binding (Swanson and Dreyfuss, 1988; Pitoli-Roma et al., 1988) and the lack of binding to the proteins in the molecular weight marker lane (lysosome, carbonic anhydrase, ovalbumin, bovine serum albumin, phosphorylase b and \(\beta\)-galactosidase) demonstrate the stringency and specificity of the binding of FMR1 to RNA. Based on these experiments, it is concluded that FMR1 is an RNA binding protein in vitro and thus has the capacity to bind RNA also in vivo.

1-4 Discussion

FMR1 plays a central role in the pathogenesis of fragile X syndrome. Sequence similarity between FMR1 and other RNA binding proteins was described and it was demonstrated that the FMR1 protein can bind RNA directly in vitro. This focuses the investigation of the function of this protein on its RNA binding activity and, ultimately, on the role of defective FMR1 function in the pathogenesis of this disorder. The RNA-binding activity of FMR1 was also demonstrated by Ashlay et al. (Ashlay et al., 1993a), in which it was shown that FMR1 selectively bind not only to 4% by mass of the human fetal brain message, but also to sense (Kd=5.7nM in this case) or antisense FMR1 own RNA. These data confirmed my results.

RNA binding proteins can be involved in a wide range of cellular processes in the nucleus and the cytoplasm (Dreyfuss et al., 1988; Frankel et al., 1991) and they can regulate gene expression post-transcriptionally, including regulation of pre-mRNA splicing, mRNA stability, translation efficiency, and possibly the transport of RNAs between the nucleus and the cytoplasm. Several RNA binding proteins can also function as DNA binding proteins (e.g. TFIIIA) and regulate transcription of specific genes (Honda and Roeder, 1980; Pelham and Jrosow, 1980; Murray et al., 1992). A role for RNA binding proteins as developmental regulators has also been previously noted (Bandzuhlis et al., 1989), and several RNA binding proteins that affect development of the nervous system in Drosophila, particularly elav (Robinow et al., 1988), have been described. To determine the function of FMR1 it will be necessary to determine which cellular RNA(s) it interacts with and its subcellular localization. Additional information
obtained from the study of proteins that contain similar structural features such as hnRNP K (containing KH domains) and fibrillarin (containing RGG box) should also yield valuable information about the structure and mechanism of action of FMR1. The arginine residues in the RGG box of several proteins such as fibrillarin and hnRNP A1 have been found to be methylated to dimethylarginines (Christensen and Fuxa, 1988; Lischwe et al., 1985; Riva et al., 1986). It will be of interest to determine if FMR1 is also methylated and if so, to determine the effect of this posttranslational modification on the activity of this protein.

Both the KH domain and the RGG box are strong predictors of RNA binding activity. It is of interest that fragile X syndrome can result not only from lack of expression of the protein but also from expression of a mutant FMR1 protein with point mutation (Ile367 to Asn) in the KH domain (De Boulle et al., 1993). Ile 367 is one of the most highly conserved residues of the KH domain (see Figure 1-2B), and this suggests that the highly conserved residues of the KH domain have important function. It will be important to determine if the point mutation Ile 367 to Asn in FMR1 which causes fragile X syndrome has a reduced RNA binding activity. Although it is premature to speculate on the specific function of FMR1, the fact that the protein is not essential for viability raises various interesting possibilities such as that it may somehow regulate the expression (e.g., at the level of splicing or mRNA stability) of specific mRNAs in the nervous system.

1-5 Summary

Fragile X syndrome is one of the most common human genetic diseases and the most common cause of hereditary mental retardation. The gene that causes fragile X syndrome, FMR1, was recently identified and sequenced and found to encode a putative protein of unknown function. In this chapter it has been reported that FMR1 contains two types of sequence motifs recently found in RNA binding proteins: an RGG box and two hnRNP K homology (KH) domains and demonstrated that FMR1 binds to RNA in vitro. The RNA-binding activity of FMR1 opens the way to understanding the function of FMR1.

Chapter 2

Essential role for the KH domains of FMR1 in RNA binding

2-1 Introduction

The vast majority of patients with fragile X syndrome show a folate-sensitive fragile site at Xq27.3 (FRAXA) at the cytogenetic level, and both amplification of the (CGG)n repeat and hypermethylation of the CpG island in the FMR1 at the molecular level. The FMR1 gene of a patient with the fragile X phenotype but without cytogenetic expression of FRAXA, a (CGG)n repeat of normal length and an unmethylated CpG island has been studied and it was found that a T to A single point mutation in FMR1 resulted in an Ile 304 (based on the numbering used in (Caskey et al., 1992)) Asn substitution (De Boulle et al., 1993). This de novo mutation was absent in the patients' family and in 130 control X chromosomes, suggesting that the mutation causes the clinical abnormalities. In other words, the mutations in FMR1 are directly responsible for fragile X syndrome, irrespective of possible secondary effects caused by FRAXA.

Ile304 is at one of the most highly conserved residues of the KH domain (Figure 2-1), which was originally described in the pre-mRNA-binding (hnRNP) K protein, contains approximately 50 amino acids and was found in a diverse group of proteins many, if not all of which, are RNA-binding proteins. These include the archaeabacterial ribosomal protein S3, the yeast meiosis-specific splicing regulator MER1, the E.coli antiterminator NusA and the human GAP-associated p62 phosphoprotein (Siomi et al., 1993; Gibson et al., 1993a). A common feature to these proteins with KH domains is physical or functional association with RNA molecules, implying that the KH domain is both involved in RNA binding and participates in regulating RNA metabolism (Siomi et al., 1993; Gibson et al., 1993a). However experimental evidence for a function of the KH domain is still lacking.

It is expected that Ile304, or the KH domain which contains the residue is required for the normal function of FMR1, possibly for RNA binding. Since the residue was changed, the Ile304 to Asn mutant would not bind to RNA. To confirm that, the Ile304 to Asn mutant and also the analogous mutant in the
In vitro transcription and translation

et al., 1977). When the eDNA encoding human FMR1 was inserted into pALTER1, which is a vector for the Altered Sites in vitro Mutagenesis System (Promega), the mutants of FMR1 were generated by deoxyoligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis by following the manuscript of the system. Two deoxyoligonucleotides (m1 primer and m2 primer) that introduced the desired amino acid changes, which were made by DNA synthesizer, were as follows.

m1 primer (for Ile241 to Asn; nucleic acid # 908-926, antisense)
5'-GCTTGGCTGAATTAGCAC-3'

m2 primer (for Ile304 to Asn; nucleic acid #1086-1103, antisense)
5'-ACAATCTCTGAACTCAGTTCTTTATTT-3'

After the mutagenesis all mutants were confirmed by DNA sequencing (Sanger et al., 1977). When the cDNA encoding human FMR1 was inserted into pALTER1 with SalI and SacI, the DNA fragment encoding a nine amino acid epitope HA was left in pHHSI-27X. Thus, an alternative short DNA fragment with XhoI and SalI encoding the nine amino acid epitope HA with an additional methionine, was reintroduced in the constructs.

In vitro transcription and translation

Wild-type and its mutants DNAs were linearized with ClaI and transcribed with T3 RNA polymerase (Promega), followed by translation of the resultant RNA in rabbit reticulocyte lysate (Promega) in the presence of [35S]methionine (Amersham).
RNA Binding assay

Binding assay of in vitro produced proteins was carried out as described in Chapter 1. Briefly, ribonucleotide homopolymer (Pharmacia) binding reactions were carried out with an equivalent of 100,000 cpm of trichloroacetic acid-precipitable protein in a total of 0.5 ml of binding buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.4], 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.5% Triton X-100, 0.2% Pepstatin, 0.2% Leupeptin, 0.5% Aprotinin) with a salt concentration of either 100 mM or 250 mM for 10 min on a rocking platform at 4°C. The beads were pelleted with a brief spin in a micro centrifuge and washed five times with binding buffer prior to resuspension in 50 μl of SDS-PAGE loading buffer. Bound proteins were eluted from the nucleic acid by boiling, resolved on a SDS-polyacrylamide (12.5%) gel, and visualized by fluorography. An amount equivalent to 20% of the material used for each binding reaction was used to show in the lanes marked “T” standing for Translation (Figure 2-2).

2.3 Results

It is known that one male patient who shows a severe phenotype of fragile X syndrome but expressing FMR1 gene has a missense mutation (Ile304 to Asn) in it. The discovery raised a question to ask if the corresponding Ile to Asn missense mutation in FMR1 has an effect on its binding to RNA. To address to it, the Ile304 to Asn mutant (m2) and also the equivalent mutant in the first KH domain of FMR1 (Ile241 to Asn: m1) were constructed (Figure 2-2). The natural RNA substrate of FMR1 is not yet known, but wild-type FMR1 binds well to poly(G) and poly(U) but not to poly(C) and poly(A) (Chapter 1). To assess the effect of these mutations on RNA binding, poly(G) and poly(U) binding assays were performed using both wild-type and mutants of FMR1 products synthesized in reticulocyte lysates. The binding to poly(G) of both mutants (m1 and m2), was only slightly reduced at 250 mM compared with the wild-type FMR1. However, in contrast with wild-type FMR1, neither of the two mutants bound to poly(U) at a salt concentration of 250 mM. These data demonstrate that the point mutation Ile304 to Asn in FMR1 that causes fragile X syndrome (De Boulle et al., 1993) results in a protein with impaired RNA binding, establishing a connection between the RNA binding activity of the

![Figure 2-2](image-url)
protein and the disease phenotype.

2-4 Discussion

From this experiment, it was shown that the mutation Ile304 to Asn affects the RNA-binding properties of FMRI. Changing this Ile residue in either the first or second KH domains of FMRI to Asn abolished poly(U) binding, suggesting that the two KH domains constitute a bipartite RNA binding surface. Alternatively, since Ile304 residue is in a region of the protein that is predicted to have a strong propensity to form an α-helix (Gibson et al., 1993b), an Asn substitution (hydrophobic to hydrophilic) could impair the stability of the folded domain. In addition to the two KH domains, FMRI contains an RGG box near the C-terminus. The preliminary domain mapping experiments of FMRI, which has been demonstrated in Chapter 1, showed that one C-terminal deletion mutant which is missing the RGG box but still contains the KH domains, does not bind either poly(G) and poly(U). It appears that poly(U) binding is a more sensitive indicator of defective FMRI binding to RNA and that it requires both KH domains and the RGG box.

The same experiment has been done with hnRNP K protein, in which the KH domain had been originally described. The Ile to Asn mutation was introduced in each of three KH domains of human hnRNP K and RNA binding assay was done with those mutants. The experimental data also showed that the RNA-binding activities of the mutants were abolished, namely the conserved amino acid was essential in RNA binding (Siomi et al., 1994).

KH domains can be located anywhere in proteins and occur singly or in several copies (Siomi et al., 1993; Gibson et al., 1993a). The findings here suggest that KH domains function collectively rather than independently. Therefore, it will be interesting to determine how proteins containing a single KH domain, such as MER1 and S3, interact with RNA.

The Ile 304 to Asn mutation in the KH domain of FMRI in a patient with severe fragile X syndrome (De Boule et al., 1993) provided a framework for a better understanding of the role of the FMRI gene. The tissue specificity of FMRI gene expression is consistent with involvement in the fragile X phenotype; in situ hybridization and immunostaining reveal widespread but not ubiquitous expression of FMRI, with particularly high level in neuronal cells in the brain and in the testis (Hinds et al., 1993; Devys et al., 1993; Abitbol et al., 1993; Bachner et al., 1993). In the vast majority of fragile X patients, the syndrome results from loss of expression of the FMRI gene. Therefore, it is likely that lack of FMRI or disturbance of FMRI function in those tissues is the cause of their clinical manifestation. It appears that the normal role of FMRI is to regulate gene expression posttranscriptionally in those developing tissues. The impaired RNA binding that results from the Ile 304 to Asn change in FMRI (Figure 2-2) may explain how this can lead to fragile X syndrome, namely, by interfering with the proper interaction of FMRI with its cognate RNA(s). It would be of particular interest to identify the cellular RNA(s) with which FMRI interacts. This would permit the identification of relevant RNA-binding sites for FMRI and facilitate a more direct analysis of the function of FMRI. The observation that another mutant, Ile 241 to Asn, is also impaired in RNA binding predicts that such a mutation and many others that may affect the RNA binding activity of FMRI would also result in fragile X syndrome. Together, these findings reduce at least one aspect of intelligence to a molecular issue of protein-RNA interaction.

2-5 Summary

While fragile X syndrome is usually caused by lack of expression of FMRI, a severely retarded fragile X patient has been reported who expresses FMRI that has a mutation in a highly conserved residue of one of its two KH domains (Ile 304 to Asn). The hnRNP K homology (KH) domain is a highly conserved ca. 50 amino acid sequence motif present in many RNA-associated proteins from widely divergent organisms including eukaryotes, eubacteria and archaea. Several proteins have been described which contain from one to fourteen KH domains. Although FMRI and several other KH domain proteins have been shown to bind RNA, the function of KH domains is unknown. To assess the role of KH domains in RNA-binding of FMRI, mutagenesis of the KH domains was carried out and examined their effects on RNA-binding. It was found that the RNA-binding of this mutant is severely impaired. These results demonstrate that KH domains have an essential role for FMRI in RNA-binding.
Furthermore, they strengthen the connection between fragile X mental retardation and loss of the RNA-binding activity of FMR1.

Chapter 3

Production of antibodies for FMR1 protein and the application to the diagnosis for the fragile X syndrome

3-1 Introduction

In Chapter 1 and 2, it was shown that FMR1 protein contains two RNA-binding motifs, one of which is the KH domain (Sioni et al., 1993; Gibson et al., 1993b) and the another is an RGG box (Kiledjian and Dreyfuss, 1992), and demonstrated that it indeed binds to RNA in vitro. When the point mutation that had been found in FMR1 protein of one fragile X male patient with a severe phenotype (De Boulle et al., 1993) was introduced into FMR1 protein by site-directed mutagenesis, the RNA-binding was impaired in a specific manner. This was the first biological parameter to assess the activity of FMR1 gene product since the gene of FMR1 had been identified and sequenced in 1991. However, its protein product has not been identified yet. Moreover, the real substrates to be bound and the physiological function of FMR1 in vivo are still not known.

In this chapter, the production of antibody to FMR1 protein is described. It would not be only the best way to address the questions mentioned above, but also very useful to study the expression of FMR1 in cells at the protein level. The observation that the anti-FMR1 antibodies can detect the majority of the fragile X cases has considerable potential for improved diagnosis of the fragile X syndrome.

3-2 Experimental procedures

Expression and purification of fusion protein

The expression and purification of FMR1 partial peptide fused with His-HA has been described in Chapter 1.

Raising Antibodies to His-HA-FMR1 fusion protein

Antisera to FMR1 protein were raised in BALB/c mice injected with the purified recombinant His-HA-FMR1 fusion protein produced in E. coli. About 100ug of the fusion protein in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) was used to
immunize a mouse per injection. The interval between injections was 2 weeks. Totally 4 times injections were done for a mouse.

**Cell Lines**

Blood samples were obtained from Family FX06 with informed consent. The lymphoblastoid cell lines were established by Epstein-Barr virus transformation of peripheral B lymphocytes by previously published techniques (Wilson et al., 1983).

**Western Blot Analysis**

Cells were grown to subconfluence, lysed in SDS-PAGE sample buffer, sonicated, and then heated at 95°C for 5 min. Proteins were resolved on a 12.5% SDS-PAGE gel and transferred to nitrocellulose using a Bio Trans Model B transblot apparatus (Gelman Sciences) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Filters were incubated in blotting solution (phosphate-buffered saline, 5% non-fat dry milk) for at least 30 min at room temperature and then incubated with primary antibody for 1 hr at room temperature. Filters were washed three times in phosphate-buffered saline/0.05% Tween 20, and bound antibody was detected using the iodinated polyclonal anti-mouse IgG. Western blots were incubated with polysera at a 1:200 dilution.

**Immunofluorescence on HeLa cells**

HeLa cells were grown on cover glasses to subconfluence, fixed with 2% formaldehyde in PBS and permlized with cold acetone. After washing with cold PBS, cells were incubated with polysera diluted at 1:200 by 3% BSA in PBS for 1 hr at room temperature, followed by washing with PBS extensively. FITC-conjugated anti-mouse IgG secondary antibody was diluted with 3% BSA in PBS, applied on cells and incubated for 1 hr at room temperature. The localization of FMR1 gene product in HeLa cells were detected and their pictures were taken under microscope.

### 3-3 Results

**Production of antibodies to FMR1: Expression in divergent organisms**

To examine the expression of the predicted FMR1 protein, antibodies were produced by immunizing mice with the His-HA-FMR1 fusion protein. Immunoblotting of the fusion protein produced in E. coli (data not shown) and of HeLa total cell material (Figure 3-1) demonstrated that the polyclonal antibodies produced against the FMR1 fusion protein also recognized a protein of the expected molecular weight (based on the in vitro transcription/translation described in Chapter 1) in HeLa cells (Figure 3-1). This serum was then used to detect the protein by probing immunoblots of cell lysates from evolutionarily divergent organisms (Figure 3-1). Southern blotting has previously shown cross-hybridizing DNA fragments in several organisms from human to S. cerevisiae, but no hybridization was detected in Drosophila melanogaster (Verkerk et al., 1991). In agreement with these findings, the anti-FMR1 antibodies detected cross-reactive proteins in monkey, mice, bovine, X. laevis and S. cerevisiae but not in D. melanogaster (Figure 3-1). The size of the proteins in other mammals appears similar to that in humans, but the S. cerevisiae protein is considerably smaller (ca. 55K).

**Expression of FMR1 in patients with fragile X syndrome**

It was of particular interest to probe cell lysates from fragile X patients with the anti-FMR1 antibodies. Lymphoblastoid (LBL) cell lines were established from all members of family FX06 by standard procedures (Wilson et al., 1983). A partial pedigree of family FX06 is shown on Figure 3-2A. All members of the family were examined by Dr. Robert L. Nussbaum. FX06-06, FX06-07, FX06-21 arc all affected males; they are moderately to severely retarded, are in special education classes, and live at home. The diagnosis of fragile X syndrome was confirmed initially by finding 50% expression of the fragile site in transformed LBL cells (Sutherland et al., 1985; Nussbaum and Ledbetter, 1986; Richards and Sutherland, 1992) and later by Southern blot analysis of the FMR1 region (Kremer et al., 1991; Yu et al., 1991; Rousseau et al., 1991). All show absent or markedly reduced levels of FMR1 protein (Figure 3-2). Of interest, FX06-07, who shows the most protein of all
Chapter 3

**Figure 3-1.** Identification of the protein product of the FMRI gene in divergent organisms.

Total cellular proteins from the indicated organisms were resolved by SDS-PAGE, transferred to nitrocellulose membrane, and probed with the anti-serum. Total cellular proteins were obtained from the following: human HeLa cell, monkey COS1 cell, mouse NIH3T3 cell, Madin-Darby bovine kidney cell, Xenopus laevis kidney epithelial cell, Drosophila melanogaster Schneider's cell, Saccharomyces cerevisiae and wheat germ. Molecular weight markers are indicated on the left.

**Figure 3-2.** Analysis of fragile X family.

(A) In this family (FX06) the grandmother was a carrier female, her two daughters were also carriers and her son was a transmitting male. Squares represent males; circles represent females.

(B) Total cellular proteins from lymphoblastoid cell lines of the fragile X family were resolved by SDS-PAGE, transferred to nitrocellulose membrane, and probed with the anti-FMR1 serum. Lane numbers correspond to individuals in pedigree. The lower panel (C) shows the same membrane probed with an anti-hnRNP C1 antibody 4F4 (Choi and Dreyfuss, 1984). The position of molecular weight markers are indicated.
the affected males, has a 47, XXY karyotype due to paternal nondisjunction as determined by linkage analysis. Males FX06-13, FX06-15, FX06-24, and FX06-20 were all clinically unaffected and had <30 copies of the CGG repeat (data not shown) as determined by polymerase chain reaction amplification across the fragile site region (Verkerk et al., 1991; Fu et al., 1991). Individual FX06-12 is a transmitting male who expressed the fragile site in 5% of his lymphoblasts but did not exhibit signs of the fragile X syndrome. He shows decreased but readily detectable expression of FMR1 protein. FX06-05 and FX06-08 are spouse controls. The western blotting results (Figure 3-2) show excellent correspondence to the clinical picture. They also further confirm that the antibodies are specific for FMR1. Although the available anti-FMR1 antibodies may not be able to detect these rare point mutations, they can readily detect the majority of the fragile X cases. It can thus be anticipated that antibodies to FMR1 will offer a specific and sensitive diagnostic tool for fragile X syndrome. This should augment and complement cytologic and DNA-based methods for the detection and study of this disorder.

**Cellular Localization of FMR1 protein in living cells**

The cellular localization of the endogenous gene product was studied by immunofluorescence on HeLa cells and showed the cytoplasmic localization with no significant staining over the nucleus (Figure 3-3). No significant staining was observed when cells were treated with sera from mice without immunization (data not shown). The cellular localization of FMR1 protein was confirmed in COS1 cells transfected with FMR1 expression vector pHHIS1-F27X (Chapter 1). In cells transfected with the complete protein coding sequence, the anti HA monoclonal antibody detected the overexpressed FMR1 protein with a nine amino acid epitope (HA) as cytoplasmic localization (data not shown).

**3-4 Discussion**

The production in E.coli of His-tagged fusion proteins containing the C terminal half of the FMR1 protein coding sequence allowed to obtain polyclonal antibodies, which could detect the endogenous protein in human cells by either
western blot or immunofluorescence. In western blot analysis of cell lysate from evolutionarily divergent organisms, the anti-FMR1 antibodies detected cross-reactive proteins in monkey, mice, bovine, X. laevis and S. cerevisiae but not in D. melanogaster (Chapter 1). This result confirmed the data of the southern blotting analysis showing cross-hybridizing DNA fragments in many organisms from human to S. cerevisiae with the exception of D. melanogaster (Verkerk et al., 1991). The FMR1 gene and the protein product expression are highly conserved through evolution. The isolation and sequencing of the homologous clones from other organisms may reveal conserved protein domains within FMR1, indicating regions of functional importance. Also such homologies may allow experimental approaches in other organisms to unravel the function of FMR1.

Immunoblotting experiments on the lymphoblastoid cell lines presented here using antibodies to FMR1 protein extend the conclusions made at the mRNA level (Pieretti et al., 1991) to the actual expression of the FMR1 protein and demonstrate that the defect in fragile X syndrome results from the lack of expression of FMR1 (Figure 3-2). Until recently, laboratory diagnosis of fragile X syndrome was carried out by cytogenetic analysis utilizing specialized growth media conditions (Jacky et al., 1991, Dewald et al., 1992). When the guidelines for fragile site induction are carefully followed, the sensitivity for detection of FRAXA in affected males is quite high. Cytogenetic studies, however, are generally insensitive for detection of premutation carriers. In addition, the presence of three other fragile sites in distal Xq (FRAXD, FRAXE, and FRAXF) (Flynn et al., 1993; Hirst et al., 1993) which might not be distinguishable cytogenetically from FRAXA, indicates a positive cytogenetic finding may not be specific for fragile X syndrome and requires confirmation by direct molecular testing. For these reasons, cytogenetic diagnosis is rapidly becoming obsolete and is being replaced by molecular diagnosis of FRAXA. The fundamental molecular assay for the fragile X syndrome is the measurement of the length of the (CGG)n repeat in the FMR1 gene by either Southern blots or PCR (reviewed in Nussbaum and Ledbetter, 1986). Because of its ease and speed, the PCR method has obvious advantage over Southern blotting for assessing the size of the trinucleotide repeat in the FMR1 gene. Unfortunately, the PCR method has been very difficult to use to detect the full mutation because of technical difficulties in performing a PCR across hundreds of tandemly repeated CGG triplets (Fu et al., 1991), though progress adapting PCR for detecting the full fragile X mutation is continuing to be made (Pergolizzi et al., 1992). The experimental data shown in this chapter indicate that antibodies to FMR1 would be particularly valuable for the diagnosis of fragile X syndrome, might be a better way than both cytogenetic method and DNA-based method.

It had been suggested previously that the FMR1 could be a nuclear protein, as it contains a short lysine rich sequence (KKEK) in the C-terminal region which could constitute a nuclear localization signal (Verkerk et al., 1991). However, it was shown that FMR1 protein locates predominantly in the cytoplasm as determined by the immunocytofluorescence and immunohistochemical studies with anti-FMR1 antibodies in HeLa cells and in transfected COS1 cells (Devys et al., 1993; Verheij et al., 1993). The findings from the experiment described in this chapter confirmed those observations. A surprising observation, however, has been reported that the N-terminal half of FMR1, when overexpressed in COS1 cells, had a predominantly nuclear localization, which may suggest that under some physiological conditions, FMR1 or derivatives of it may have a function in the nucleus (Devys et al., 1993).

With RNA binding assay results shown in Chapter 1 and 2, FMR1 could have a function such as translational regulation. The availability of antibodies should allow the investigation of its precise intracellular localization, of possible specific interactions with other cellular materials, or post translational modifications under physiological and pathological conditions.

3-5 Summary

Using antibodies to FMR1, its expression is detected in divergent organisms and in cells of unaffected humans, but little or no in fragile X-affected patients. These findings demonstrate that FMR1 expression is directly correlated with the fragile X syndrome and suggest that anti-FMR1 antibodies will be important for diagnosis of fragile X syndrome. The immunocytofluorescence study show clearly that FMR1 protein has cytoplasmic localization on HeLa cells. Though its function still remains unclear, it is suggested that FMR1 protein could have a function such as regulation of gene expression posttranscriptually.
Chapter 4

cDNA cloning and characterization of FMR1 and its homolog, FXR1 from Xenopus laevis

4-1 Introduction

mRNA in situ hybridization studies and northern blot analysis were performed in mouse and human, respectively to demonstrate the normal gene expression patterns of FMR1 (Hinds et al., 1993). In mice strong expression of FMR1 was located in several regions of the brain and tubules of the testes, which are the major organs affected in fragile X syndrome. Universal and very strong expression was observed in early mouse embryos, with differentially decreasing expression during subsequent stages of embryonic development.

It is of interest to follow the expression of FMR1 throughout oogenesis in order to understand its function. When Western blotting using antiserum raised against the human FMR1 protein was carried out, the homologous protein was detected in Xenopus laevis cells as well as mammalian organisms (Chapter 3). Because Xenopus laevis is a useful system for studying oogenesis, a cDNA encoding FMR1 was obtained from Xenopus laevis.

A novel cDNA, designated FXR1 (for FXR1 crossreacting relative), was obtained when the X. laevis cDNA was screened with the human FMR1 cDNA. In the case of human FMR1, extensive alternative splicing has been demonstrated at the mRNA level (Verkerk et al., 1993; Eichler et al., 1993). Nonetheless a novel clone like FXR1 that is highly homologous to FMR1 has not been reported yet. These findings indicate that FMR1 is a member of a gene family. Studying FXR1 in addition to FMR1 may yield some clues to better understand the function of FMR1 and the correlation between FMR1 and fragile X syndrome.

4-2 Experimental procedures

Isolation of cDNA clones, in vivo excision and sequencing

The full length human FMR1 cDNA was used as a probe to screen a λZAPII Xenopus ovary cDNA library. Six clones reacting with the probe were obtained from 10^6 plaques, and all of them were purified by further screening. In vitro excision was done for three of those positive clones according to the manufacturer’s instruction (Stratagen), creating pXF1-61, pXF1-43 and pXF1-45. Nucleotide sequencing was performed according to the dideoxy chain termination method of Sanger et al. (1977). DNA sequence was determined on both strands of those clones.

RNA Binding Assay

Binding of in vitro-produced proteins to ribonucleotide homopolymers was carried out as described above (Chapter 1). The NaCl concentration of the binding buffer was 250mM.

Expression and purification of fusion peptide and production of antisera against X. laevis FMR1 and FXR1

PCR was done to create a NdeI site in the middle and a BamHI site at the 3' end of the X. laevis FMR1 open reading frame. The PCR product was digested with NdeI and BamHI and inserted into pET15b (Novagen) to construct the expression vector pEXFMR1. To raise antiserum specifically to X. laevis FXR1, pXF1-45 was digested with BamHI and the 600bp fragment encoding just the C terminal region was inserted into pET15b to create the expression vector pEXFXR1. For production of the His-FMR1 peptide and His-FXR1 peptide, the plasmids pEXFMR1 and pEXFXR1 were introduced into BL21(DE3) bacteria and induced with isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside as described (Studier et al., 1990; Rosenberg et al., 1987). For purification of the fusion peptides, bacterial sonicates were applied to 2ml His-Bind resin (Novagen) columns, washed and eluted as described by the manufacturer.

Antisera against X. laevis FMR1 and FXR1 were raised in BALB/c mice injected with the purified recombinant His-FMR1 and His-FXR1 fusion peptides respectively. Western blots were incubated at a 1:400 dilution.

Western Blot analysis

SDS-PAGE sample preparation and Western blotting procedures were described in Chapter 1.
**Immunofluorescence on Xenopus laevis cells**

Xenopus laevis cells were grown on cover glasses to subconfluence, fixed with 2% formaldehyde in PBS and permeabilized with cold acetone. After washing with cold PBS, cells were incubated with polysera either for Xenopus FMRI or FXRI diluted at 1:400 with 3% BSA in PBS for 1 hr at room temperature, followed by washing with PBS extensively. FITC-conjugated antiserum IgO secondary antibody was diluted with 3% BSA in PBS, applied to the cells and incubated for 1 hr at room temperature. The localization of FMRI and FXRI gene products in Xenopus laevis cells were detected and pictures were taken under the microscope.

**Biological materials**

Mature female Xenopus laevis were purchased from ISCO. Oocytes were separated manually into six stages according to Dumont (1972). Forty oocytes from each stage (stage I and II were not separated) were ground in 50mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5 with 0.05% PMPS, followed by spinning down. About 80ul of protein solution were obtained from each stage and mixed with 1 volume of SDS-PAGE loading buffer.

**4.3 Results**

**Isolation and characterization of a cDNA specific for Xenopus FMRI and a related cDNA, FXRI**

The human FMRI cDNA was used as a probe to screen a Xenopus ovary cDNA library constructed in λZAPII. Six clones were isolated and DNA sequences of three of them were determined from both strands using T7 and T3 primers (Sanger et al., 1977) after in vivo excision. pXFl-61 was 1.2kbp long but incomplete, lacking the 5' terminus. The DNA sequence of pXFl-61 after in vivo excision. pXFl-61 was 1.2kbp long but incomplete, lacking the 5' terminus.

The DNA sequence of pXFl-61 after in vivo excision. pXFl-61 was 1.2kbp long but incomplete, lacking the 5' terminus. The DNA sequence of pXFl-61 after in vivo excision. pXFl-61 was 1.2kbp long but incomplete, lacking the 5' terminus.
The amino acid sequences of X. laevis FMR1 and FXR1 were aligned with human FMR1 (Verkerk et al., 1991). The KH domains and the RGG box are boxed with black line and gray line respectively. The KH domains are underlined and the amino acids in the RGG box are indicated by italic. For optimal alignment. The KH domains and the RGG box are boxed with black line and gray line respectively. The KH domains are underlined and the amino acids in the RGG box are indicated by italic.
The FMR1 gene (Verkerk et al., 1993; Eichler et al., 1993). pXFl-45 was 2.4kbp long and did contain an entire open reading frame encoding a protein of 649 amino acids with a predicted molecular weight of 73kD. Interestingly, the DNA sequences of pXFl-43 and pXFl-45 were not identical and the similarity was less than 70%. pXFl-45 is similar to FMR1 but is a novel clone. It was therefore designated FXR1, for EMR1 crossreacting relative clone 1. The predicted amino acid sequence of FXR1 (Figure 4-1B) showed that it also has the 45 amino acid deletion as seen in Xenopus FMR1. The carboxy terminus of the protein was unique compared to that of Xenopus FMR1, which was shown in Figure 4-2. The amino acid sequence identity of the region between Xenopus FMR1 and FXR1 was only 8%, although the identity of the other regions was 87%. Both Xenopus FMR1 and FXR1 have two KH domains, which are highly conserved with human FMR1. An RGG box was also found in both Xenopus FMR1 and FXR1. However the RGG box between human FMR1 and Xenopus FMR1 is more similar than between human FMR1 and Xenopus FXR1 (Figure 4-2). The CGG repeats in the 5' untranslated region of the mRNA, a characteristic of human FMR1, were not seen in either Xenopus FMR1 or FXR1. It is known that mice contain a much smaller number of triplets in the same region of the 5'UTR as do humans (Ashley et al., 1993). It thus appears that nucleotide triplet repeats may be a mammalian phenomenon.

Both Xenopus FMR1 and FXR1 have similar RNA-binding profile to human FMR1.

To examine whether Xenopus FMR1 and FXR1 also bind to RNA in vitro as human FMR1 does, these cDNAs were transcribed with T7 RNA polymerase and the transcripts were translated in vitro. The protein products were assayed for RNA binding activity using RNA homopolymers immobilized on agarose beads, an assay that has been used for human FMR1 protein product and other RNA-binding proteins (Kiledjian and Dreyfuss, 1992; Swanson and Dreyfuss, 1988). As human FMR1 protein showed strong binding to poly(G), weaker but significant binding to poly(U) and very little binding to poly(A) and poly(C) (Chapter 1), Xenopus FMR1 and FXR1 also showed a similar RNA-binding profile to human FMR1, binding at 250mM NaCl to poly(G) and poly(U) (Figure 4-3).
Production of antibodies to Xenopus FMRI and FXRI: Expression in divergent organisms

The carboxy half of Xenopus FMRI and the carboxy terminus of Xenopus FXRI, which is a unique region, were overexpressed in E. coli as fusion proteins with 6 His amino acids and purified on nickel columns (Hochuli et al., 1987; Smith et al., 1988). To examine the expression of Xenopus FMRI and FXRI proteins, specific antibodies to those proteins were produced by immunizing mice with the fusion proteins. Immunoblotting of the fusion proteins produced in E. coli (data not shown) and Xenopus total cell materials demonstrated that the polyclonal antibodies produced against the FMRI and FXRI fusion proteins also recognized proteins of the expected molecular mass (based on the in vitro transcription and translation described above) in Xenopus cells (Figure 4-4 for FXRI; for FMRI data not shown). The antisera against Xenopus FXRI was then used to detect the protein by probing immunoblots of cell lysates from evolutionarily divergent organisms (Figure 4-4). The anti-FXRI antibodies detected cross-reactive proteins in human, monkey, chicken, and D. melanogaster. Both Southern blotting and Western blotting have shown that no cross-reactive genes and proteins of FMRI were detected in D. melanogaster (Chapter 3; Verkerk et al., 1991). Therefore, it is very interesting that D. melanogaster does contain some cross-reactive proteins to FXRI, although the size of the protein is smaller (~50kD) than of other organisms.

Cellular localization of FMRI and FXRI proteins in living Xenopus laevis cells

The cellular localization of the endogenous gene products of FMRI and FXRI were studied by immunofluorescence on Xenopus laevis cells using antibodies specific for them and showed the cytoplasmic localization for both with no significant staining in the nucleus (Figure 4-5). It has already been known that human FMRI has cytoplasmic localization (Chapter 3; Devys et al., 1993). The data obtained from the experiment with X. laevis were consist with these results.

Figure 4-4. Identification of the protein product of the FXRI gene in divergent organisms.

Total cellular proteins from the indicated organisms were resolved by SDS-PAGE, transferred to nitrocellulose membrane, and probed with the anti-Xenopus FXRI antibodies. Total cellular proteins were obtained from the following: human HeLa cell, monkey COS1 cell, Xenopus laevis kidney epithelial cell, chicken MSB cell, and D. melanogaster Schneider's cell. Molecular mass is indicated on the left.
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Figure 4-5. Cellular localization of FMR1 and FXR1 proteins in X. laevis cells.

Immunofluorescence was performed using (A) anti-X. laevis FMR1 antibodies and (B) anti-X. laevis FXR1 antibodies on Xenopus cells. Cells were incubated at 1:400 dilutions.

Expression of FMR1 and FXR1 during oogenesis

The expression of FMR1 and FXR1 was followed by probing immunoblots of Xenopus oocytes from various stages with anti-FMR1 and anti-FXR1 antibodies (Figure 4-6). It was shown that both FMR1 and FXR1 are expressed at very early stages, demonstrating that mRNAs of FMR1 and FXR1 are maternal, and suggesting that those proteins may have important roles in oogenesis.

4-4 Discussion

In situ studies of the mouse homolog of FMR1 showed strong, if not universal, expression of the gene during early stages of development, suggesting an important functional role in embryonic development (Hinds et al., 1993). However, the expression of FMR1 and/or the protein product through oogenesis had not been studied. The result of Western blot analysis which has been shown in Chapter 3 demonstrated that a cross-reactive protein to human FMR1 is present in Xenopus laevis, which is a useful system to study oogenesis. Therefore, a cDNA for Xenopus laevis FMR1 was isolated. Mice have a much smaller number of CGG triplets in the same region of the 5'UTR than humans do (Ashley et al., 1993). The Xenopus FMR1 mRNA did not have any repeats in the same region of 5'UTR. It seems likely that the existence and the length of the CGG triplets in this region are related to evolution. The overall organization of the FMR1 protein is essentially the same in human and X. laevis including two KH domains and an RGG box. A 45 amino acid sequence immediately after the second KH domain is deleted in Xenopus FMR1. In the case of human FMR1, extensive alternative splicing has been demonstrated at the mRNA level (Verkerk et al, 1993; Eichler et al., 1993) and it is known that the segment encoding the 45 amino acid region corresponds to exon 11 in human FMR1 gene. It is likely that this 45 amino acid region is not essential in the function of FMR1, and may have developed into the human exon.

FXR1, a novel gene that is highly homologous to FMR1, was obtained from Xenopus. It also contains two conserved KH domains and an RGG box. The RNA binding assay showed that Xenopus FXR1 binds to RNA in vitro in the same pattern as human FMR1, which is a reasonable observation in terms of
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Oocytes

Figure 4-6. Analysis of Xenopus FMR1 and FXR1 expression in oogenesis.

Total oocyte proteins from the indicated stages were resolved by SDS-PAGE, transferred to nitrocellulose membrane, and probed with the anti-Xenopus FMR1 or the anti-Xenopus FXR1 antibodies.

the high conservation of the KH domains between FMR1 and FXR1. Immunofluorescence microscopy demonstrated that Xenopus FMR1 and FXR1 are localized in the cytoplasm, like human FMR1. Taken together, FMR1 and FXR1 may have very similar functions in cells, although the cognate RNA targets of FMR1 and FXR1 and their precise functions have not been elucidated yet. In contrast to the conserved N-terminal regions, the C-terminal regions of FXR1, beginning with the region containing the RGG box, differ markedly both in size and sequence from FMR1. This suggests that they may have specific regulatory functions such as protein-protein interactions. The Western blot analysis showed that humans also express a cross-reactive protein to FXR1. It would be very interesting to isolate and characterize the human cDNA.

The Western blot analysis using Xenopus laevis oocytes demonstrated that both FMR1 and FXR1 are expressed throughout oogenesis even at very early stages, revealing that those mRNAs are maternal and suggesting that these proteins potentially have important functions in oogenesis.

4-5 Summary

To better understand the function and evolution of the FMR1 gene product, a cDNA encoding Xenopus FMR1 has been isolated and sequenced. In the course of the experiment, in addition to the X. laevis FMR1, a novel gene, termed FXR1, that is highly homologous by amino acid sequence to FMR1, was also isolated and sequenced. Xenopus FMR1 and FXR1, like human FMR1, are cytoplasmic RNA-binding proteins. FXR1, like FMR1, is highly conserved through evolution. Unlike FMR1, though, FXR1 is present in Drosophila melanogaster. mRNAs of both FMR1 and FXR1 are maternal, implying that these proteins may have important functions in oogenesis.
Chapter 5

Human FXRI: cDNA cloning and characterization

5-1 Introduction

As discussed in Chapter 4, FXRI is a protein highly homologous to FMR1 first found in Xenopus laevis. Using an antiserum raised against Xenopus FXRI, a cross-reactive protein was detected in HeLa cells (Figure 4-4 in Chapter 4). A cDNA encoding human FXRI was isolated from HeLa cDNA library and sequenced. The deduced amino acid sequence revealed that it also contains two KH domains and an RGG box like human FMR1, Xenopus FMR1 and FXR1. The amino acid sequence identity of FXRI between X. laevis and human is about 80%. An alternatively spliced isoform of FXRI, which has a different, shorter carboxy terminus, was also obtained. To determine the expression of FXRI mRNA in different tissues, RT-PCR was performed. FXRI mRNAs were detected in all tissues tested and different size bands were observed in various tissues as expected. Interestingly, cells of a patient with fragile X syndrome that do not have any detectable FMR1 express normal levels of FXRI. FXRI is located on human autosomal chromosome 12 at 12q13. The mRNA of FXRI does not contain CGG repeats, a characteristic of FMR1, but it does have an unusual and striking sequence. There is an approximately 90 nucleotide perfect inverted repeat sequence in the 5' and 3' untranslated region of the mRNA. The inverted repeat sequence of human and Xenopus are 90% identical, more highly conserved than the protein coding sequence. This is the first such mRNA inverted repeat found in animal cells, and it is likely to have an important regulatory function.

5-2 Experimental procedures

Isolation of cDNA clones and sequencing

The partial Xenopus FXRI cDNA was used as a probe to screen a λgt11 HeLa cDNA library. The probe was made using the FXRI-specific region to avoid isolating other FMR1-like clones. Ten clones reacting with the probe were obtained from 10⁶ plaques, and all of them were purified by further screening. PCR was done on the positive phage DNAs using primers hybridizing to λ arms according to conditions suggested by the manufacturer (Perkin-Elmer Cetus). The amplified fragments were cloned into the pCRII vector (Invitrogen). The amino terminal half of human FXRI cDNA was obtained by rescreening the same library using the longest cDNA from the first screening as a probe, which contained the carboxy-terminal half of human FXRI. RT-PCR was done on HeLa poly (A)*RNA to obtain the full length cDNA as one fragment using primers hybridizing to the 5' and 3' UTRs. The RT-PCR fragment was cloned into the pCRII vector. Nucleotide sequencing was performed by the dideoxy chain termination method of Sanger et al. (1977). DNA sequence was determined on both strands of those clones.

Chromosome mapping of FXRI

Somatic cell hybrid panel #2 was purchased from the Coriell Institute Cell Repository. This panel consists of DNA isolated from 24 human/rodent somatic cell hybrids. All but two of the hybrids retain a single intact chromosome. Primers were designed to generate a PCR product of 145 bp from a portion of the carboxy terminal end of the FXRI open reading frame derived from a cDNA clone isolated from a HeLa cDNA library. The primer sequences are

Forward: GATGACATT1CTAAGCTAGC-3' (1870-1892)
Reverse: TTGACAGCACTTAT1TGAATG-3' (1993-2015)

The numbers in the parenthesis of the primers above were based on the numbering in Figure 5-1. PCR reactions were performed according to conditions suggested by the manufacturer (Perkin-Elmer Cetus).

RT-PCR on poly(A)*RNAs from HeLa, human organs and the lymphoblastoid cell lines

Poly(A)*RNA of human heart, brain, kidney, and testis were purchased from Clontech. Poly(A)*RNA of HeLa and the lymphoblastoid cell lines were manually prepared using DYNABEADS mRNA DIRECT KIT (DYNAL). The RNAs (100ng) were reverse transcribed using the oligo(dT) primer according to conditions suggested by the manufacturer (Stratagen). PCR reactions were done on 5ul of cDNA solution with the primers specifically bound to FMR1 or FXRI,
namely 27XM7 and 27X31 for FMRI (27XM7, 1272-1301; 27X31, 2124-2156, the coordinates are based on the numbering used in Verkerk et al., 1991) or XF-E and XF-B1 for FXRI (XF-E, 1328-1348; XF-B1, 2009-2033, the coordinates arc based on the numbering used in Figure 5-1) according to conditions suggested by the manufacturer (Perkin-Elmer Cetus). In order to confirm the existence of the inverted repeat in the 5' and 3' UTRs of FXRI eDNA, poly(A)+RNA (100ng) from HeLa cells was reverse transcribed using the cDNA primer 1 for 5'UTR repeat and the oligo(dT) primer (=cDNA primer 2) for 3' UTR repeat. PCR reactions were done on 5ul of cDNA solution with the 5'PCR primer 1 and 3'PCR primer 1 for 5'UTR repeat and 5'PCR primer 2 and 3'PCR primer 2 for 3'UTR repeat (5'PCR primer 1, 1-25; 3'PCR primer 1, 612-627; 5'PCR primer 2, 1328-1248; 3'PCR primer 2, 2168-2192, the coordinates are based on the numbering used in Figure 5-1). The DNA sequence of 3'PCR primer 2 is the same as 5'PCR primer 1. The amplified fragments were resolved on a 1.2% agarose gel and visualized with EtBr.

Cell lines
The preparation of the lymphoblastoid cell lines was described in Chapter 1.

Western blot analysis
Western blot analysis was carried out using the cell lines established from FX06-24 (as a normal) and FX06-25 (as a fragile X patient) (Chapter 3) and HeLa cells. The analysis was done essentially as described in Chapter 1 with minor modifications using either anti-human FMRI antibodies (Chapter 3) or anti-Xenopus FXRI antibodies (Chapter 4). Bound primary antibodies were detected using the peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse immunoglobulin G + M and ECL reagent (Amersham). Western blots were incubated at 1:400 dilutions.

5-3 Results
Isolation and characterization of human FXRI cDNA
The X. laevis FXRI cDNA was used in hybridization screening to isolate the human FXRI cDNA from a HeLa cDNA library. The clones were isolated and DNA sequences of all clones were determined from both strands after cloning into pCRII vector. None of the clones contained the entire open reading frame encoding FXRI, therefore the same library was rescreened using the cDNA encoding more amino terminal region of FXRI as a probe. One cDNA encoding the amino terminal end of FXRI was obtained, however it was missing the carboxy terminal region. In order to obtain the full length cDNA of FXRI as one fragment, RT-PCR was done on HeLa poly(A)+RNA using two primers for 5' and 3' untranslated regions of FXRI. The nucleotide sequence and the predicted amino acid sequence of the human FXRI are shown in Figure 5-1. FXRI has 86% amino acid sequence identity to human FMRI in the region containing the KH domains (Siomi et al., 1993; Burd and Dreyfuss, 1994) and is very similar to FMRI over the amino terminal domain (70% identity), but human FMRI and FXRI have entirely different carboxy domains (8% identity)(Figure 5-2A and B). The same phenomenon was seen between X. laevis FMRI and FXRI. Sequencing of several cDNA revealed that there are alternative spliced forms of FXRI that differ in a minixceox in the carboxy portion of the protein. The shorter form diverges from the longer form (shown in Figure 5-2A) beginning with amino acid 535, and contains instead the sequence GKRCD as its carboxy terminus.

The FXRI gene is located on human chromosome locus 12q13
Mapping of FXRI was carried out to determine the chromosomal location of FXRI. Reaction conditions allowed specific amplification of the human gene in a background of rodent DNAs. In the mapping panel (Figure 5-3), the cell line containing chromosome 12 contained an amplified fragment of the correct size, 145bp, whereas none of the other samples contained the amplified fragment of interest. Therefore, FXRI was tentatively assigned to human chromosome 12. The cell line containing chromosome 21 also showed a very faint amplified fragment at the same size, which may be due to another member of FMRI gene family.

Recently, further chromosome mapping of FXRI was carried out by fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH). First, the same set of primers was used to screen pools of yeast artificial chromosome (YACs) from the Washington University CGM with the same conditions described for the mapping panel. Two
Figure 5-2. (B) The structure of human FMR1 and FXR1 are schematically shown, the stippled boxes representing the KH domains and the cross-hatched box representing the RGG box. The identity of amino acid sequence of human FXR1 is expressed as percent relative to human FMR1 amino acid sequence.

Figure 5-3. Chromosome mapping of human FXR1.

Hybrids 1 to 22, X and Y were screened for the presence of genomic fragment of human FXR1 by PCR. PCR was done using two 32P-labeled primers specific for human FXR1. The 145bp PCR products are seen in the lane 12 and H (human), indicating that FXR1 locates on human chromosome 12. Lane Ha (hamster) and M (mouse) do not show any PCR products, suggesting that the primers are specific for human FXR1 and are not cross-reacting to rodent genomic DNA. Lane A, C, G, and T are molecular markers. "*" indicates lanes unprogrammed.
YAC clones containing FXRI were identified. Fluorescent in situ hybridization using these two YACs revealed the localization of FXRI to chromosome 12q13 (data not shown).

**Tissue distribution of FXRI expression**

To determine the expression of FXRI mRNA in different human tissues, RT-PCR was performed using specific primers to FXRI on poly(A)+RNA from heart, kidney, brain, testis, and HeLa cells. As control, an equivalent experiment was done using two primers specific to FMR1 cDNA. FXRI mRNA was detected in all tissues tested, but different size bands were observed in various tissues (Figure 5-4). For example, while HeLa cells contain only one variant FXRI mRNA, at least two forms can be detected in brain and testis, and in heart there is an additional large form. The major smaller HeLa band and the longer testis band were cloned and sequenced and their sequences corresponded to the FXRI shorter cDNA form and the FXRI longer cDNA form respectively described above. These findings suggest that there is considerable tissue-specific alternative splicing of FXRI pre-mRNA at least for the carboxy part and immediate 3'UTR of the mRNA. A similar complex tissue-specific pattern of expression has been reported for FMR1 (Eichler et al., 1993), although multiple forms of FMR1 were not observed by RT-PCR with the primers used in this experiment.

**Expression of FXRI in fragile X syndrome patients**

Most fragile X syndrome patients do not express FMR1 mRNA or the protein product. It was, therefore, of particular interest to determine if the expression of the related protein, FXR1, is also affected in these patients. To do so, RT-PCR were (Figure 5-5A) and immunoblotting (Figure 5-5B) carried out on lymphoblastoid cells of a fragile X patient and his normal sibling (Chapter 3). By RT-PCR, both the normal sibling and the patient express FXRI mRNA, while the patient, as expected, does not express FMR1 mRNA. The same is seen for the protein products of FXRI and FMR1, respectively. Because of inherent limitations of RT-PCR it is not possible to draw quantitative conclusions from this experiment. It does, however, appear from the immunoblotting experiments that the amount of FXRI produced in the patient cells is not reduced compared to the normal cells.
to normal. Thus, FXR1 expression is not drastically affected by the lack of expression of FMR1, and therefore, FXR1 gene expression does not appear to be linked to that of the FMR1 gene.

Inverted repeats in the 5'UTR and 3'UTR of FXR1 mRNA

Examination of the nucleotide sequence of the X. laevis FXR1 cDNA and the human FXR1 cDNA revealed a striking and unusual mRNA structure. FXR1 mRNA from both organisms contains a sequence of approximately 90 nucleotides that is present as a perfect inverted repeat in the 5'UTR and 3'UTR (Figure 5-6). The orientation of the repeats and their distance from the open reading frame are shown in Figure 5-6. The repeats in human and X. laevis are not identical but they are much more highly conserved than in the nucleotide sequence of the coding regions. This suggested that the repeats have an important and specific function. To confirm that the repeats were not the result of some artifact introduced in the course of the construction, propagation or handling of the cDNA libraries, an RT-PCR experiment was carried out. First of all, poly(A)+RNA from HeLa was reverse transcribed using the oligo(dT) primer (cDNA primer2), followed by PCR with either 5'PCR primer1 and 3'PCR primer1, or 5'PCR primer2 and 3'PCR primer2. With the latter set of primers, one fragment of the correct size, 864bp, was amplified (lane3, Figure 5-6C). With the first set of primers, a 627bp fragment was amplified as expected (data not shown). The identical fragment was obtained by another RT-PCR using the same set of PCR primers after RNAs were reverse transcribed using cDNA primer1 instead of the oligo(dT) primer (lane1, Figure 5-6C). In this case, the cDNAs contain only the amino terminal region of FXR1 gene, so that the RT-PCR product was not from the region containing the 3'UTR repeat, confirming that 5'UTR does contain its own repeat. All PCR products were cloned into pCR1 vector and the DNA sequences were verified.

5-4 Discussion

A novel gene, FXRI, that is highly homologous to the fragile X mental retardation gene, FMR1, found in Xenopus laevis originally (Chapter 4), was isolated from human and sequenced. Like Xenopus FXR1, the amino acid
Figure 5-6. Inverted repeat sequence in the 5' and 3' untranslated regions of the transcript of FXRI.

(A) Schematic drawing of the transcript of FXRI. The open reading frame and the inverted repeat sequence are indicated by a open box and arrows respectively. The black and the stippled boxes represent the KH domains and the RGG box respectively.

(B) The inverted repeat sequence of FXRI are aligned between 5' and 3' UTRs and between human and X. laevis.

(C) RT-PCR was performed on poly(A)+RNA from HeLa cells with the primers indicated below the agarose gel. Lane 2 and 4: no poly(A)+RNA as negative controls. The human FXRI mRNA is shown schematically. cDNA primers, 5' PCR primers, and 3' PCR primers are indicated by bars. The inverted repeat is indicated by solid arrows on the drawing. The bars below the schematic drawing of FXRI mRNA indicates the RT-PCR products.
sequence of human FXR1 is very similar to FMR1 over the amino terminal region containing the KH domains. The carboxy portion of human FXR1 is quite different from that of human FMR1, though the region has high similarity between human and X. laevis (78% identity). Like FMR1, FXR1 is expressed in many human tissues. While FMR1 mRNA and the protein product are not expressed in cells of a patient with fragile X syndrome, FXR1 is found at apparently normal levels in these cells. In Chapter 4, it was speculated that FMR1 and FXR1 may have very similar functions because of the experimental data from RNA-binding assays and immunofluorescence microscopy. However, it seems that FXR1 protein cannot complement the lack of FMR1 protein function in fragile X patients. This may be because FMR1 and FXR1 have specific regulatory functions such as protein-protein interactions, since these proteins contain quite different carboxy terminal regions. Alternatively, they may have to interact with each other or at least exist in the same complex to perform the correct functions. It would be of interest to see what kind of proteins and/or other factors are associated with FMR1 and/or FXR1 proteins.

The gene encoding FXR1 is located on autosomal chromosome 12 at 12q13, while the gene encoding FMR1 is located on X chromosome at Xq27.3. It is not yet known if there are mental retardation genes in this vicinity. FXR1 gene knockout mice should help to elucidate the physiological function of FXR1.

The mRNA of FXR1 does not contain the CGG repeats in the 5' UTR that is a characteristic of FMR1. Instead, FXR1 has an unusual structure, approximately 90 nucleotide inverted repeats in the 5' and the 3'UTRs in its mRNA. The inverted repeats are capable of forming a perfect duplex. The inverted repeats of FXR1 are the first such structures found in animal cells. There are some examples in plants, such as zein mRNAs from Zea mays (Larkins et al., 1984), A-gliadin mRNA (Anderson et al., 1984), phasexolin mRNA (Slightom et al., 1983), patatin mRNA (Mignery et al., 1984), soybean actin mRNA (Shah et al., 1982), and wheat histon H4 mRNA (Tabata et al., 1983). In the case of zein mRNAs, the inverted repeats are also found in the 5' and the 3'UTRs (Spena et al., 1982). However, the size of the inverted repeats are much smaller than FXR1 and contain some gaps. The secondary structure of the zein mRNAs affect its translational potential and the translational block is released after deletion of the 3' inverted repeat (Spena et al., 1985). It was concluded that

5-5 Summary

A cDNA encoding FXR1, that is a highly homologous protein to FMR1, found in Xenopus laevis originally, has been isolated from HeLa cells and sequenced. Like FMR1, FXR1 mRNAs are expressed in many human tissues and tissue-specific alternative splicing of FXR1 pre-mRNA was found at least for the carboxy part and immediate 3'UTR of the mRNA. Cells of a patient with fragile X syndrome that do not have any detectable FMR1 express normal levels of FXR1, suggesting that FMR1 and FXR1 may have specific regulatory functions such as protein-protein interactions. FXR1 is located on human autosomal chromosome 12 at 12q13. The mRNA of FXR1 has an approximately 90 nucleotide perfect inverted repeat sequence in the 5' and 3'UTRs. It is likely to have an important regulatory function such as a translational regulation.
References


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List of publications

Chapter 1 and 3

Chapter 2

Chapter 4 and 5