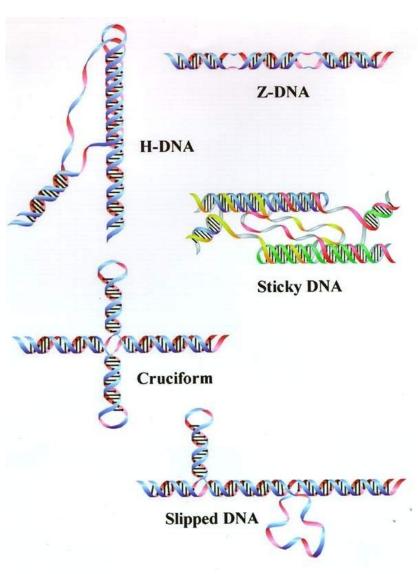
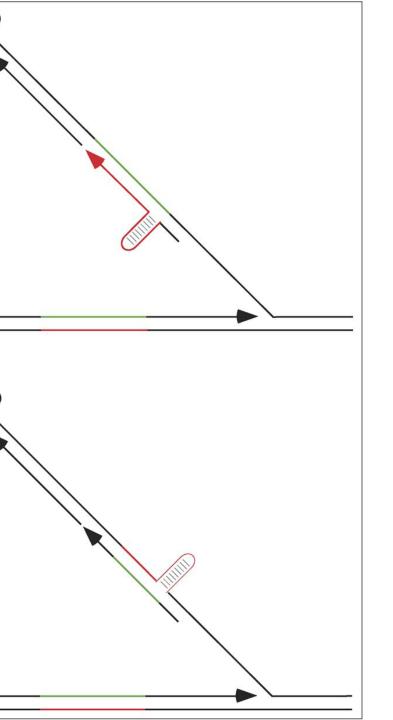
• Trinucleotide repeat sequences (TRS) dynamic mutations - the number of repeats tends to increase in size over generations.

• Several factors contribute to mutational dynamics - number of repeats, composition and length of the repeating motif, presence of interruptions within the sequence and the rate of intracellular processes such as replication, transcription, repair, or recombination.

• A significant feature of tandem repeats is ability to form unusual DNA structures (left-handed Z-DNA, cruciforms, slipped-stranded DNA, triplexes, and tetraplexes). Such non-B-DNA structures potentially may be hazardous for genome stability if not removed by repair mechanisms.





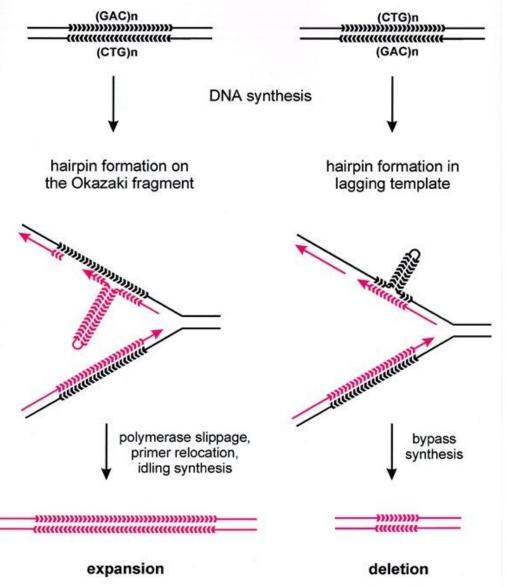
The simplest explanation of an repeat expansion – an slippage of DNA polymerase during DNA replication.

- Repeats form unusual DNA structures in ssDNA.
- The main cellular process involving DNA strand separation is DNA replication.
- Lagging strand model of repeat
  expansion. (a) Formation of the
  repetitive hairpin on the nascent lagging
  strand leads to expansions; (b) the
  same structure on the lagging strand
  template generates contractions.

Current Opinion in Structural Biology 2006, 16:351–358

### **ORIENTATION II**

#### **ORIENTATION I**



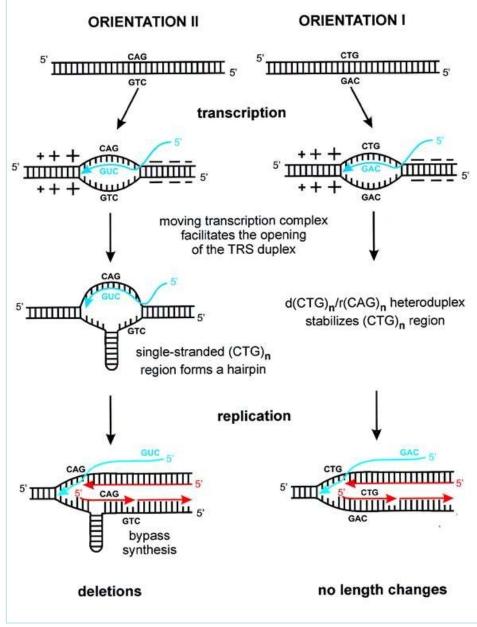
# Mechanism of the genetic instability of the TRS during replication.

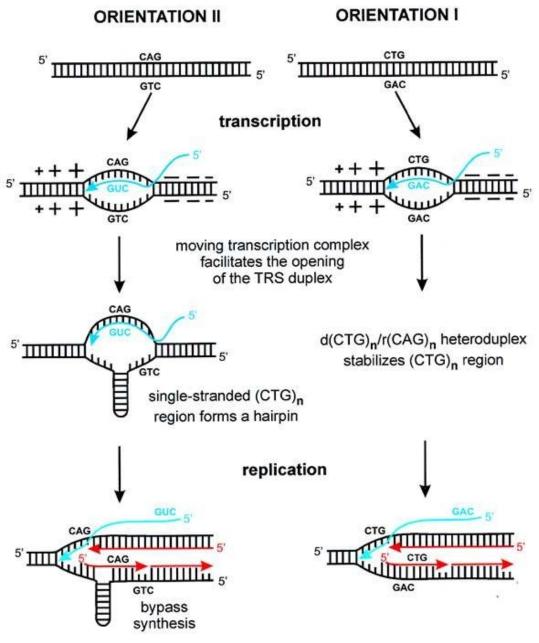
• The observed instability strongly depended on the orientation of the repeat relative to the origin of replication.

 Deletions occur if the hairpin is formed on the lagging strand template (orientation II). Expansions arise as a consequence of secondary DNA structures being formed during lagging strand synthesis (orientation I).

• Both, deletions and expansions may also happen during leading-strand synthesis but such events are substantially less frequent.

- TRS related to human diseases are actively transcribed.
- Unwinding of the doublestranded DNA by moving RNA polymerase complex introduces locally high torsional stress. Torsional stress leads to the formation of domains of differential DNA supercoiling. It was shown that transcription could promote hairpin formation within repeating sequences and formation of such structures in TRS during transcription could lead to length changes of the repeat tract.





### deletions

no length changes

Pawel Parniewski and Pawel Staczek

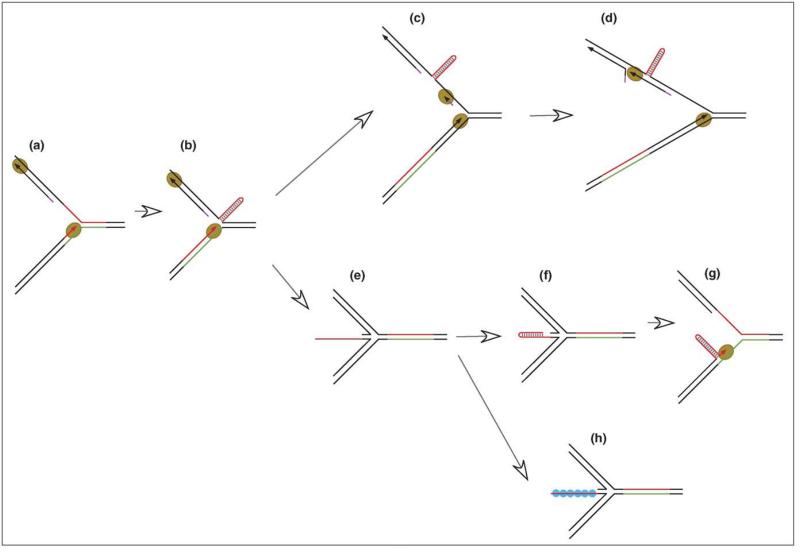
Correlation between replication, orientation of the repeat tract, and transcription.

• Orientation II (CTG strand serves as the lagging strand template), orientation I (CTG is within nascent lagging strand).

• Transcription of the CAG strand leads to deletions, transcription of the CTG strand elicits a much lower frequency of deletions.

• The model proposes that as the CAG strand is being transcribed, the complementary CTG strand while being single-stranded and forms a hairpin. On the other hand, the non-transcribed CAG strand in orientation I is less able to form stable hairpins. In orientation I the CTG strand is not single-stranded and cannot form stable hairpins because it is "occupied" by the RNA polymerase complex.

• The model further supposed that while TRS is transcribed, it is also replicated. In this case, the CTG hairpin in orientation II will be bypassed by the DNA polymerase complex during lagging-strand synthesis, and this will lead to deletions. Conversely, deletions in orientation I will be found rarely since there is a lower propensity to form secondary structures on the lagging-strand template by the CAG tracts and thus, no bypass synthesis occurs.



Model of repeat instability generated during replication fork stalling. (a) Entrance of the leading strand polymerase into the repetitive run. (b) Formation of unusual structure by the lagging strand template, stalling the lagging strand polymerase and the replication fork. (c) Replication continuation by skipping an Okazaki fragment. (d) Contraction of the repeat as the lagging strand polymerase skips the structure on its template. (e) Fork reversal generates a 'chicken foot' structure with a single-stranded repetitive 3 extension. (f) Folding of the repetitive extension into a hairpin-like conformation. (g) Replication restart upon flipping back the chicken foot, leading to repeat expansions. (h) Loading of the recombination proteins responsible for the strand exchange reaction onto the 3 -extension.

Model of repeat instability generated during replication fork stalling. (a) Entrance of the leading strand polymerase into the repetitive run. (b) Formation of unusual structure by the lagging strand template, stalling the lagging strand polymerase and,

ultimately, the replication fork. (c) Replication continuation by skipping an Okazaki fragment. (d) Contraction of the repeat as the lagging strand polymerase skips the structure on its template. (e) Fork reversal generates a 'chicken foot' structure with a single-stranded repetitive 3 extension. (f) Folding of the repetitive extension into a hairpin-like conformation. (g) Replication restart upon flipping back the chicken foot, leading to repeat expansions. (h) Loading of the recombination proteins responsible for the strand exchange reaction onto the 3 -repetitive extension.

A structure-prone strand of the repeat is shown in red, its complementary strand is in green and flanking DNA is black. Golden ovals represent DNA polymerases, purple lines Okazaki primers and blue circles recombination proteins.

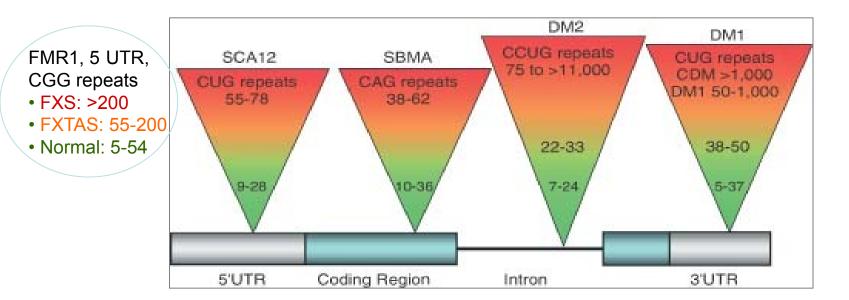
Current Opinion in Structural Biology 2006, 16:351–358

Disorder	Affected gene	Repeat <sup>a</sup>	Repeat location	Normal repeat no.	Symptomatic repeat no.	OMIM no.
Coding repeats						
DRPLA	ATN1	CAG	ORF	7–25	49-88	125370
HD	HTT	CAG	ORF	6-34	36-180	143100
SBMA	AR	CAG	ORF	11–24	40-62	313200
SCA1	ATXN1	CAG	ORF	6-39	39-83	164400
SCA2	ATXN2	CAG	ORF	15-29	34-59	183090
SCA3	ATXN3	CAG	ORF	13-36	55-84	109150
SCA6	CACNATA	CAG	ORF	4-16	21-30	183086
SCA7	ATXN7	CAG	ORF	4-35	34->300	164500
SCA17	TBP	CAG	ORF	25-44	45-66	607136
Noncoding repea	ats					
DM1	DMPK	CTG	3' UTR	5-37	>50->2000	160900
DM2	CNBP	CCTG	Intron 1	<27	75–11,000	608768
EPM1	CSTB	$(C)_4G(C)_4GCG$	Promoter	2–3	30-75	254800
FXS	FMR1	CGG	5' UTR	6-52	~55–>2000	309550
FRAXE MR	AFF2/FMR3	CCG	5' end	6–25	>200	309548
FRA12A MR	DIP2B	CGG	5' UTR	6–23	?	136630
FRDA	FXN	GAA	Intron 1	7–22	>66->900	229300
SCA10	ATXN10	ATTCT	Intron 9	10-29	280-4500	603516
Coding and none	coding repeats					
SCA8	ATXN8/ATXN8OS	CAG and CTG	ORF and NCT	6-37	~107–250	603680
Repeats with unc	P. Contraction of the second se					
HDL-2	JPH3	CAG/CTG	?	<50	>50	606438
SCA12	PPP2R2B	CAG/CTG	?	<66	>66	604326

#### Table 1. The repeat expansion diseases

(OMIM) Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man database of human genes and genetic disorders (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sites/entrez?db=omim); (DM1) myotonic dystrophy type 1; (DM2) myotonic dystrophy type 2; (DRPLA) dentatorubral-pallidoluysian atrophy; (EPM1) progressive myoclonus epilepsy type 1; (FXS) Fragile X syndrome; (MR) mental retardation; (FRDA) Friedreich ataxia; (HD) Huntington disease; (HDL-2) Huntington disease-like 2; (NCT) noncoding transcript; (SBMA) spinobulbar muscular atrophy; (SCA) spinocerebellar ataxia.

"The strand shown corresponds to the top strand of the affected gene where it is known. The sequence of both strands is given where this is not known.



Repeat expansions can occur in **5'UTRs, coding regions, introns, or 3'UTRs**. Normal and premutation alleles do not show usually disease symptoms, but premutation alleles are primed to expand in the next generation. As repeats get longer, symptoms are seen at an earlier age and are more severe. **Repeat lengths in introns, 3'UTRs, and 5'UTRs can become much larger than in coding regions.** 

Spinocerebellar ataxias (SCA12), Spinal Bulbar Muscular Atrophy (SBMA), myotonic dystrophy (DM)

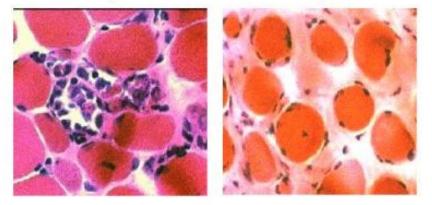
### Svalové dystrofie -

charakterizovány progredující svalovou atrofií a slabostí s typickým histologickým obrazem, který prokazuje kolísání velikosti svalových vláken, jejich nekrózu a v pokročilém stadiu náhradu svalových vláken fibrózní a tukovou tkání.

### **Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy**

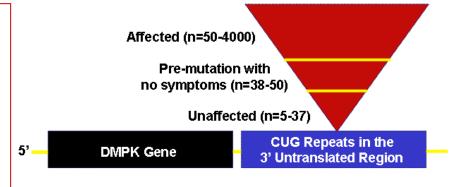


12 yrs



**Myotonická dystrofie** - multisystémová choroba, která postihuje kosterní i hladké svaly, ale také oči, srdce, centrální nervový systém, endokrinní, respirační, gastrointestinální a imunitní systém.

**Přehled orgánových a systémových abnormit u myotonická dystrofie: neuromuskulární:** slabost, myotonie, neuropatie; **CNS:** změny osobnosti, kognitivní deficit, hypersomnie, korová atrofie, změny bílé hmoty; **srdeční:** převodní poruchy, synkopy, náhlá smrt, městnavá srdeční slabost, prolaps mitrální chlopně; **respirační:** snížení rezistence na hypoxii, hypoventilace; **endokrinní:** diabetes, hypogonadizmus, hyperparatyreoidizmus, spontánní potraty, inkarcerovaná placenta, protrahovaný porod, poporodní krvácení; **gastrointestinální:** dysfagie, cholelithiasis, střevní pseudoobstrukce; **oční:** zadní subkapsulární katarakta, ptóza, oftalmoparéza, pigmentová retinopatie, snížený intraokulární tlak; **kostní:** vystouplé čelo, malá sella turcica, gotické patro; **imunitní:** redukce imunoglobulinů. DM1 is caused by an expansion of the CTG repeat in the 3'UTR of the dystrophia myotonica protein kinase gene (*DMPK*, 19q13.3), AD inheritance, frequency of DM: 1:17000.



3'

- Individuals with 5 to 37 repeats are unaffected.
- Individuals with 38-50 repeats carry the premutation. These individuals are asymptomatic. However, these repeats are unstable and can expand during meiosis. As a result, such individuals are at risk of having affected children.
- ~ 50 to 150 repeats are consistent with the mild adult-onset form of DM1,

~100 to 1000 repeats are consistent with the classic adult or childhood onset form of DM1,

> 750 repeats are consistent with the congenital form of DM1 and often result in severe neonatal complications.

- Patients with **50–150 CTG repeats (mild adult onset form of DM1)** may develop cataract, diabetes, myotonia, mild muscle weakness.
- Patients with **100–1000 CTG repeats (the classic form of DM1)** are affected earlier and more severely.
- CTG repeat size above 1000 is associated with the congenital form of DM1, which may be fatal due to respiratory failure. Feeding difficulties, muscle weakness, foot deformity, and cognitive impairments are present in surviving infants.
- The very large mutations (>1,000 repeats) which result in the congenital form of myotonic dystrophy are always transmitted by an affected mother.







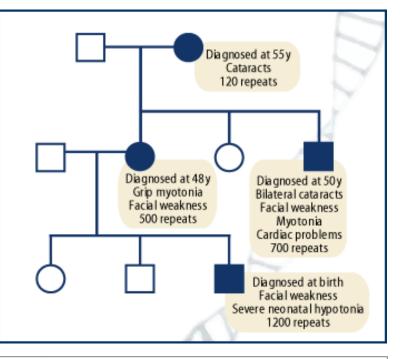






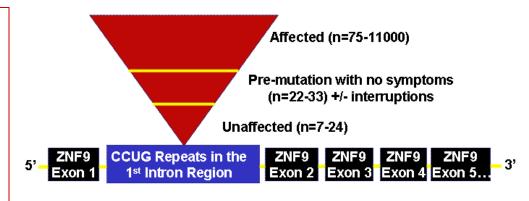
• The expanded CTG repeat - **'dynamic' mutation** - the number of repeats tends to increase in size over generations.

• Expansion of the CTG repeats commonly occurs during meiosis. As a result, children of affected individuals tend to have severe symptoms and earlier onset than their parents.





DM2 (also known as proximal myotonic myopathy [PROMM]) is caused by an expansion of the CCTG repeat in the first intron of the zinc finger 9 gene (*Znf9,* 3q21), AD inheritance.



- Unaffected individuals have less than 24 repeats.
- Affected individuals have between 75 and 11000 repeats.
- The repeat structure in DM2 is more complex than the triplet repeat seen in DM1. The normal repeat structure is (TG)12-26(TCTG)7-12(CCTG)3-9(g/tCTG)0-4(CCTG)4-15.

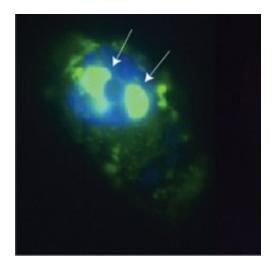
• Individuals with 22-33 uninterrupted CCTG repeats carry a premutation. These individuals are asymptomatic. However, these repeats are unstable and very likely to expand during meiosis (risk of having affected children).

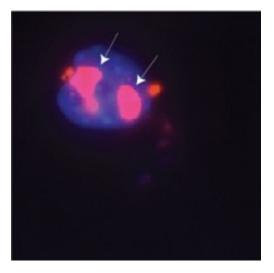
• The minimum pathogenic length of the expanded region appears to be 75 uninterrupted CCTG repeats. Repeat counts can increase to over 11000 in affected individuals, with a mean repeat length of ~5000 repeats. The expanded region has been shown to display an even greater instability than the DM1 mutation.

• Unlike DM1, the length of the DM2 expansion does not appear to correlate significantly with the age of onset or severity of disease symptoms.

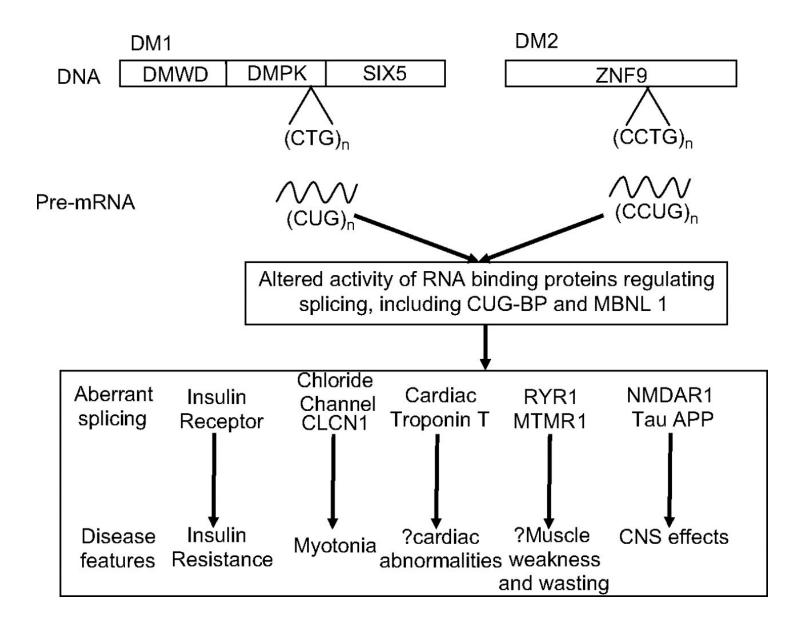
 Nuclei of cells of DM1/DM2 patients → expression of genes containing CUG/CCUG repeats → nuclear foci containing pre-mRNA with expanded CUG/CCUG repeats → <u>RNA gain-of-function effects</u> → capture of RNA binding proteins that regulate mRNA splicing: muscleblind-like (MBNL) factor and others → misregulation of splicing of certain genes: chloride channel 1 (CLCN1), insulin receptor (IR), cardiac troponin T (cTNT/TNNT2), skeletal troponin T (TNNT3), and others.

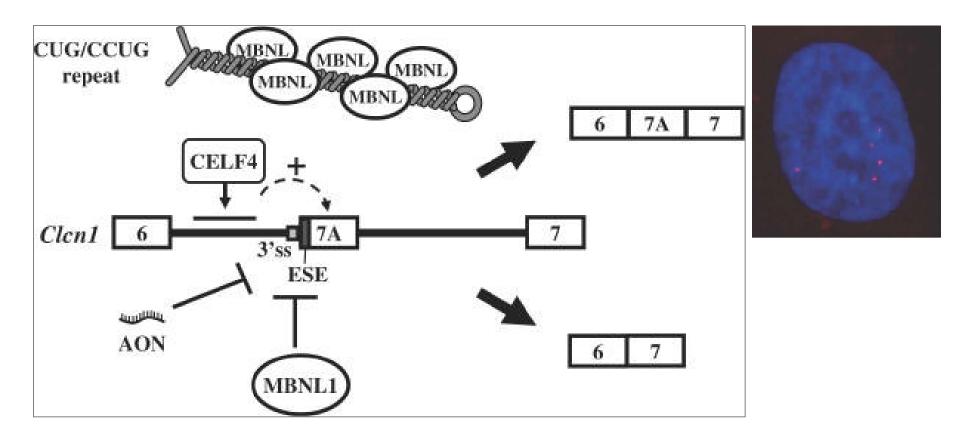
 Insulin receptor and chloride ion channel pre-mRNAs are misspliced in DM patients → inappropriate expression of fetal isoforms and/or degradation of transcripts. The lack of appropriate IR and CLCN1 splice isoforms in DM patients is thought to lead to the symptoms of insulin resistance and myotonia, resp.



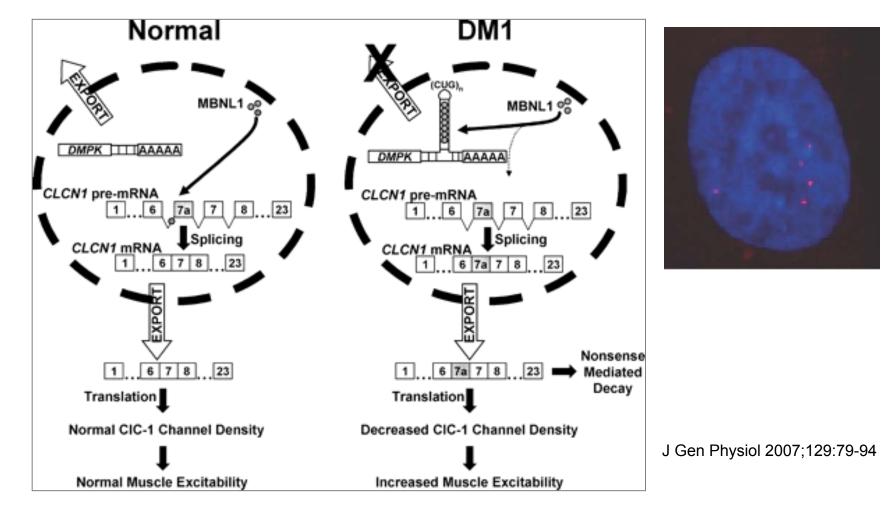


Myotonic dystrophy is thought to be caused by the binding of a protein called Mbnl1 to abnormal RNA repeats. In these two images of the same muscle precursor cell, the top image shows the location of the Mbnl1 splicing factor (green) and the bottom image shows the location of RNA repeats (red) inside the cell nucleus (blue). The white arrows point to two large foci in the cell nucleus where Mbnl1 is sequestered with RNA.

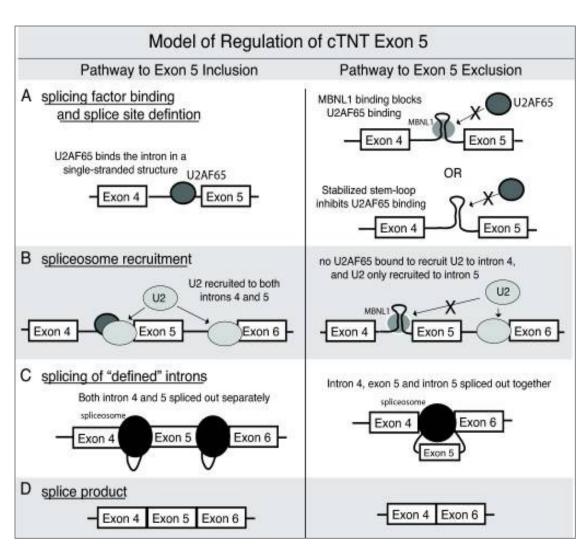




Model *Clcn1* splicing regulation by multiple factors. *Cis*- and *trans*-acting factors involved in the splicing regulation of *Clcn1* exon 7A are depicted. An exonic splicing enhancer (ESE) is located at the 5' end of exon 7A. MBNL1 represses exon 7A inclusion through inhibiting ESE. The facilitation of exon 7A inclusion by CELF4 is mediated by a region located in intron 6. RNAs carrying expanded CUG/CCUG repeats deplete MBNL1 proteins, resulting in the facilitation of exon 7A inclusion.



Proposed molecular model for increased muscle excitability in DM. Proper *CLCN1* pre-mRNA splicing in normal skeletal muscle is regulated by MBNL1 protein. Depletion of MBNL1 proteins results in inclusion of additional exons (e.g., exon 7a) containing premature termination codons. Aberrantly spliced *CLCN1* transcripts are exported from the nucleus, degraded through the nonsense-mediated decay pathway, and/or produce truncated proteins. These effects result in a dramatic reduction in the number of functional CIC-1 channels and a subsequent increase in muscle excitability resulting in myotonia.



# MBNL1 Regulates the cTNT cardiac troponin T Exon 5 Through Competition with U2AF65.

Model of regulation of cTNT exon 5 by MBNL1 and RNA structure. (A) Initial recognition of intron 4 by splicing factors. U2AF65 binds the intron in a single-stranded structure, but U2AF65 binding is inhibited if it cannot destabilize the stem because of MBNI 1 binding or mutations that stabilize the stem-loop. (B) U2 snRNP recruitment to all 3' splice sites where U2AF65 is present. (C) Spliceosomal recruitment and splicing. (D) mRNA splice products. We hypothesized that MBNL1 may act through a similar mechanism to compete with U2AF65. U2AF65 is a potential competitive target of MBNL1 because a putative U2AF65binding site appears to be in the loop portion of the stem-loop which MBNI 1 binds. We found that MBNL1 does compete with U2AF65 for binding of a region within intron 4. This competition with U2AF65 is functionally important, because recruitment of the U2 snRNP is reduced by MBNL1.

Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2009 June 9; 106(23): 9203–9208.

### DM1 - expansion of the CTG repeat within the 3 UTR of DMPK, DM2 - expansion of the CCTG repeat within the first intron of ZNF9.

- Despite the different expansions within two unrelated genes, both diseases share many common clinical manifestations (myotonia, muscle weakness, cataracta, insulin resistance, and cardiac defects).
   The shared symptoms suggest the mechanisms causing the disease may also be shared.
  - Although DM1 and DM2 have similar symptoms, there are also a number of very dissimilar features making them clearly separate diseases.
    - In DM1, weakness and atrophy involves distal, facial, bulbar and respiratory muscles, whereas in DM2 the proximal muscles are preferentially involved, and the patients have marked muscle pains.
    - These phenotypic differences suggest that other cellular and molecular pathways are involved besides the shared molecular pathomechanisms.

## • DMPK??? ZNF9???

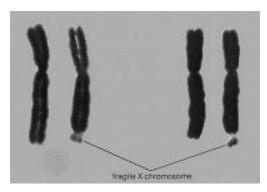
• Knockout of ZNF9 in mice results in embryonic lethality. Mice heterozygous for the ZNF9 knockout display late-onset muscle wasting, cardiac abnormalities, cataracts, and mRNA expression defects similar to those seen in DM2. These defects can be rescued by reintroduction of wild type levels of ZNF9, suggesting that a loss of ZNF9 function contributes to DM2. ZNF9 has been proposed to act in a variety of cellular functions, including transcription, splicing, and translation.

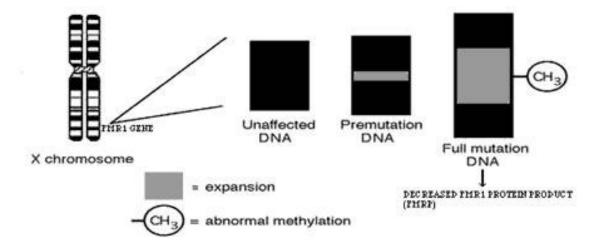
# • ZNF9 protein may play a role in DM2 $\rightarrow$ RNA gain-of-function model for myotonic dystrophy is not the only pathomechanism.



## Fragile X syndrome (FXS)

- FSX is the most prevalent cause of inheritable mental retardation with a frequency of 1:4000 males and 1:8000 females.
- FSX is caused by an expansion of the CGG repeat in the 5'UTR of the fragile X mental retardation gene (*FMR1*, Xq27).
- FSX was the first example of a trinucleotide repeat expansion mutation.



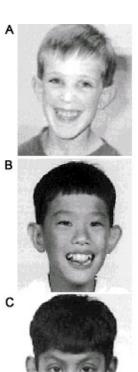


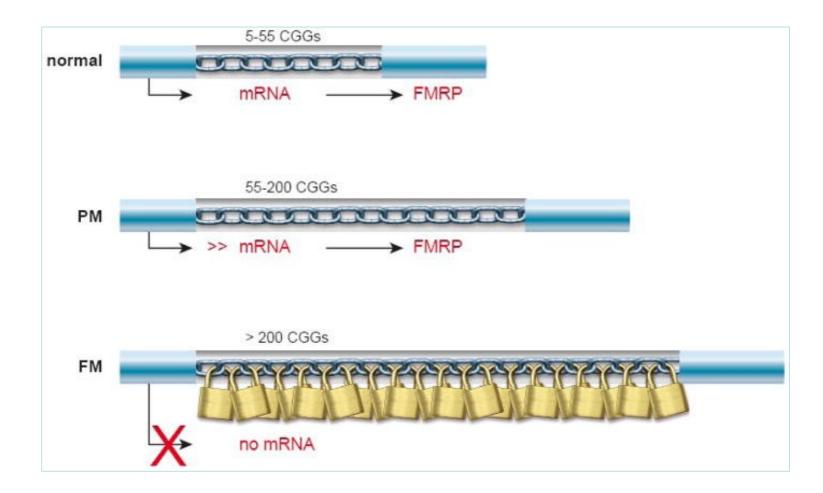
## Phenotype of FSX:

- Reduction of IQ.
- Hyperactivity, hypersensitivity to sensory stimuli, anxiety, impaired visuo-spatial processing, and developmental delay.
- 30% of patients are diagnosed with autism (2–5% of autistic children have FXS).
- 25% of patients suffer from epilepsy.
- Mild facial dysmorphology (prominent jaw, high forehead, and large ears), macroorchidism in postpubescent males, and subtle connective tissue abnormalities.



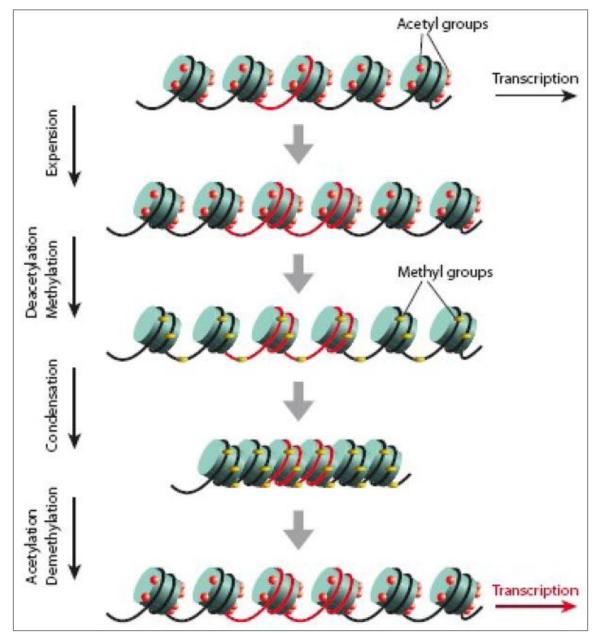






**The CGG repeat in the FMR1 gene** Schematic representation of normal, PM (premutation) and FM (full mutation) alleles of the *FMR1* gene and the effect of the expansion on transcription and translation. Methylation due to extensive elongation of the CGG repeat in the 5'-ÚTR of the *FMR1* gene is depicted as a lock.

Biochim Biophys Acta. 2009 June; 1790(6): 467–477.

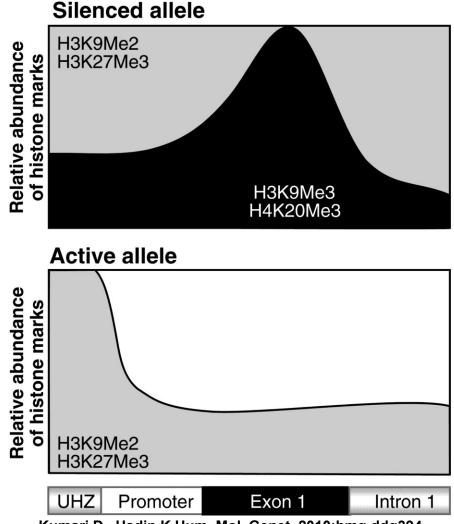


# Schematic representation of the chromatin structure of the *FMR1* gene

In the normal situation the active gene has an open chromatin structure. When the CGG repeat (red line) is expanded, deacetylation and methylation of the promoter and CGG region takes place leading to a packaged and less accessible chromatin structure causing inactivation of the FMR1 gene. Treatment with 5-azadC results in demethylation and acetylation leading to an open chromatin structure and transcription will be (partly) restored.

Biochim Biophys Acta. 2009; 1790(6): 467–477.

Diagrammatic representation of distribution of the two categories of repressive histone modifications associated with FX alleles.



Kumari D , Usdin K Hum. Mol. Genet. 2010;hmg.ddq394

Published by Oxford University Press

### Human Molecular Genetics

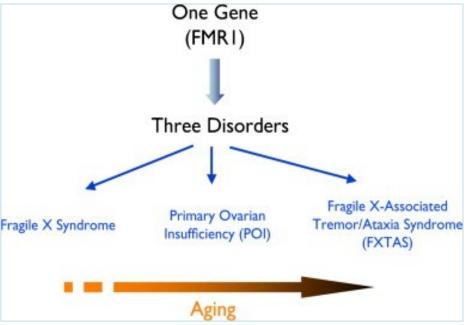
### Mutations in the *FMR1* gene can lead to three distinct disorders.

• The normal human *FMR1* gene has a CGG repeat size of between 5 and 54.

• A large expansion of over 200 CGG repeats triggers CpG methylation and transcriptional silencing of  $FMR1 \rightarrow$  fragile X syndrome (FXS).

 CGG repeat expansions between 55 and 200 (premutation) are associated with an progressive neurodegenerative disorder called fragile X-associated tremor/ataxia syndrome (FXTAS) (age-dependent disease manifesting in or beyond fifth decade of life). Female carriers may suffer from primary ovarian insufficiency (POI).

• Unmethylated expansions of 55– 200 CGG units are unstable in meiosis and are found in both males and females and may expand to a full mutation only upon maternal transmission to the next generation.

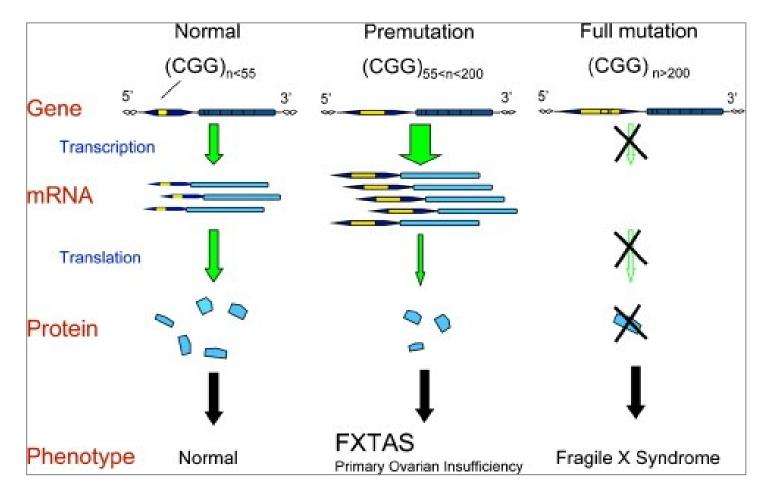


## FXS x FXTAS

Both disorders involve repeat expansions in the *FMR1* gene, but the clinical presentation and molecular mechanisms underlying each disease are completely distinct.

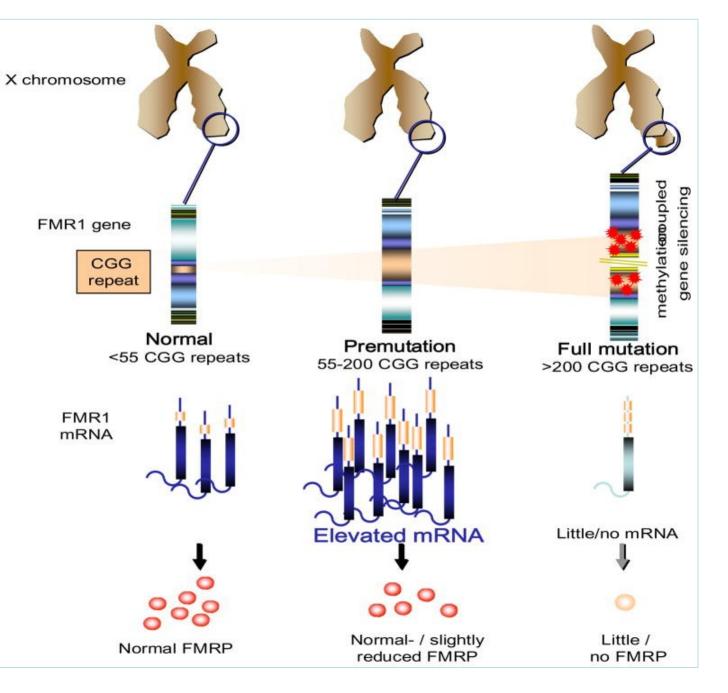
• One third of male PM carriers, aged 50 years and older, show symptoms of FXTAS.

• Prevalence of PM alleles in the general population is approximately 1/800 for males  $\rightarrow$  1 in 3000 men older than 50 years in the general population will develop symptoms of FXTAS (tremor, ataxia, more severe cases may show memory deficits up to dementia).



**Genotype–phenotype correlation at the FMR1 locus.** In fragile X syndrome, large expansions of the CGG repeat (>200) cause hypermethylation of the FMR1 promoter, which leads to the transcriptional silencing of *FMR1* and the loss of the FMR1 product, FMRP. In premutation carriers (55–200), the level of *FMR1* mRNA is elevated above normal level, whereas the amount of FMRP appeared to remain below normal level.

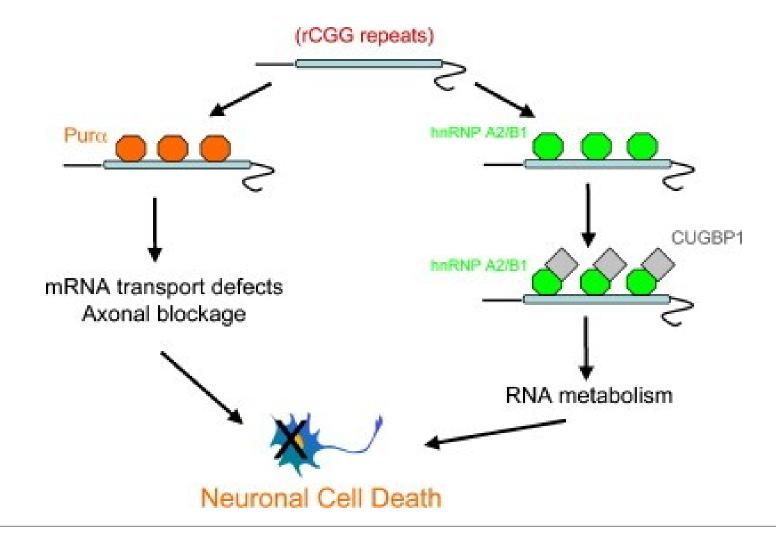
Neuroscience Letters, Volume 466, Issue 2, 2009, 103-108



## Relation of FMRP and mRNA in FXS

Schematic representation of the function of *FMR1* gene and relationship among CGG repeat numbers, mRNA level and FMRP (fragile X mental retardation protein) production in normal, premutation and full mutation individuals.

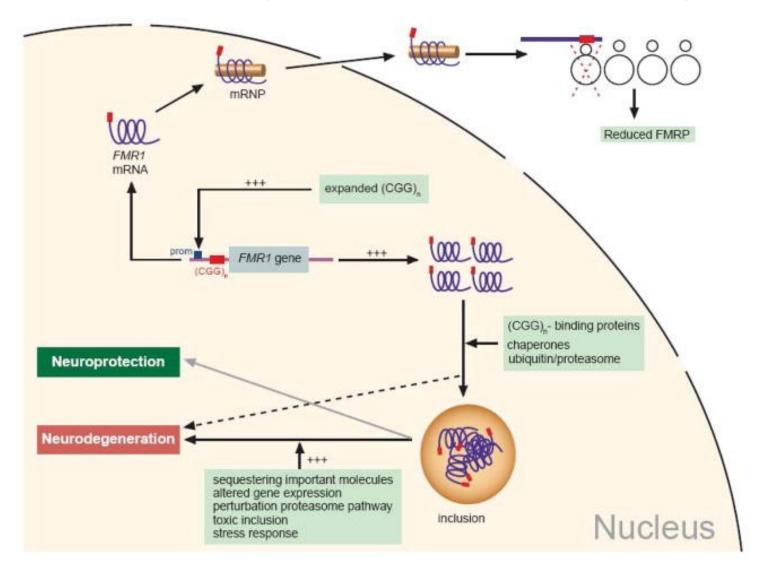
Adv Pediatr. 2009; 56: 165–186.



Elevated level of *FMR1* mRNA  $\rightarrow$  toxic effect on cells via sequestration of RNA-binding proteins. Sequestration of proteins into intranuclear inclusions may lead to abnormal RNA metabolism and neurodegeneration

Neuroscience Letters, Volume 466, Issue 2, 2009, 103-108

A schematic representation of the RNA gain of function mechanism proposed for the pathogenesis of FXTAS



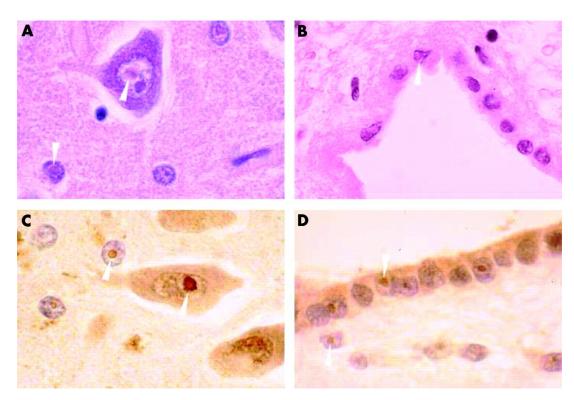
The *FMR1* gene is transcribed in the nucleus and transported to the ribosomes. The expanded CGG repeat results in enhanced transcription  $\rightarrow$  mRNAs attract proteins  $\rightarrow$  the formation of intranuclear inclusions. Sequestration of proteins into the inclusion  $\rightarrow$  disturbing normal cellular functions  $\rightarrow$  neurodegeneration.

## A schematic representation of the RNA gain of function mechanism proposed for the pathogenesis of FXTAS

The *FMR1* gene is transcribed in the nucleus and transported to the ribosomes. The expanded CGG repeat present in the 5' UTR of the FMR1 mRNA hampers translation, leading to lower levels of FMRP. The presence of the expanded CGG repeat results in enhanced transcription via a thusfar unknown mechanism and leads to elevated *FMR1* mRNA levels. In an attempt to get rid of the excess of *FMR1* mRNAs, the cell might attract chaperones or elements of the ubiquitin/proteasome system. Also CGGbinding proteins might be recruited. These processes could lead to the formation of intranuclear inclusions. Sequestration of proteins into the inclusion might prevent them from exerting their function, thereby disturbing normal cellular function, which in the end might cause neurodegeneration. However, it cannot be excluded that the formation of inclusions has a neuroprotective effect, such that neurons that are capable of capturing the toxic transcripts in the inclusions are the cells that survive.

Biochim Biophys Acta. 2009; 1790(6): 467–477.

- The neuropathological hallmark and post-mortem criterion for definitive FXTAS is the presence of intranuclear inclusions.
- The inclusions are located in broad distributions throughout the brain (in neurons, astrocytes and the spinal column).
- Mass spectroscopic analysis of purified inclusions and immunohistochemical analysis of isolated nuclei and tissue sections uncovered eight major functional categories of proteins, including: histone family; intermediate filament; microtubule; myelin-associated proteins; RNA-binding proteins; stress-related proteins; chaperones and ubiquitin-proteasome-related proteins.



Intranuclear inclusions in neural cells with premutation alleles in fragile X associated tremor/ataxia syndrome

J Med Genet 2004;41:e43

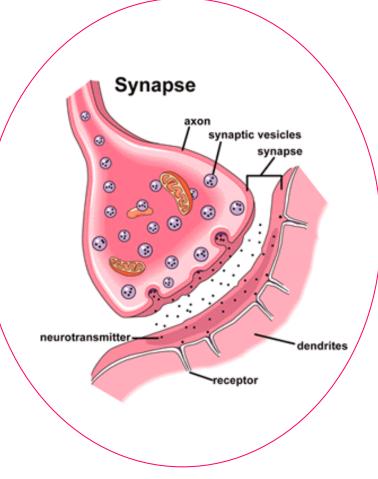
<u>Synapse</u>

 spojení dvou neuronů sloužící k předávání vzruchů.

 Neurony se v synapsích přímo nedotýkají, je mezi nimi mezera (synaptická štěrbina).

 Spojení se uskutečňují mezi nervovými zakončeními jednoho neuronu a vstupní membránou dalšího neuronu. Jako vstupní membránu označujeme membránu dendritů a buněčného těla neuronu.

 Jestliže přijde po nervovém vlákně neuronu k nervovému zakončení signál v podobě akčního potenciálu (signál elektrický), nepřejde ve stejné podobě na další neuron, ale přenese se na další neuron v podobě signálu chemického: z nervového zakončení se vyloučí chemická látka – neurotransmiter, která způsobí vznik synaptického potenciálu na dalším neuronu (po "vylití" do synaptické štěrbiny se molekuly neurotransmiteru vážou na receptory v synaptické membráně nasledného neuronu).



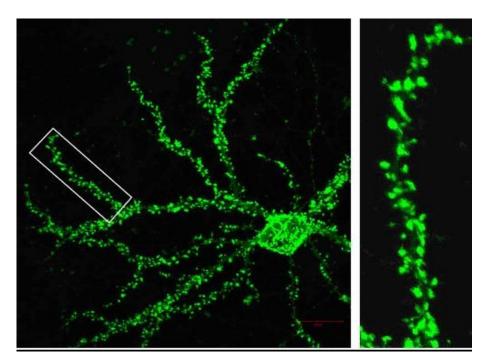
• FXS patients have alterations in synapse number, structure and function.

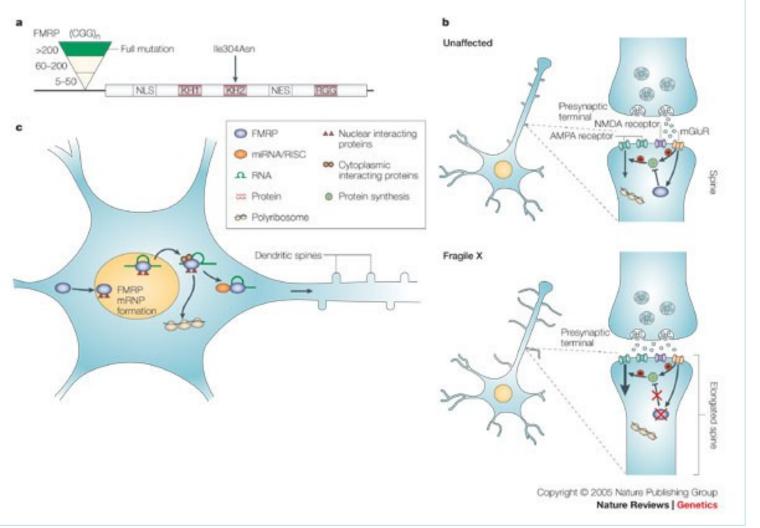
- FMRP is proposed to act as a regulator of mRNA transport and translation of target mRNAs at the synapse (dendritic spines).
- FMRP is involved in translational control and could suppress translation both *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

• The migration of mRNP particles is established by movement along microtubules. A similar model has been proposed in which FMRP binds specific mRNAs and mediates the transport of these transcripts.

• During FMRP-mRNA transport mRNAs remain translationally inactive until appropriate synaptic input allows translation.

• It is not known whether certain mRNAs can not be transported into the dendrite spine in the absence of FMRP. However, it is evident that FMRP plays a role at the synapse in controlling the translation of certain mRNAs.



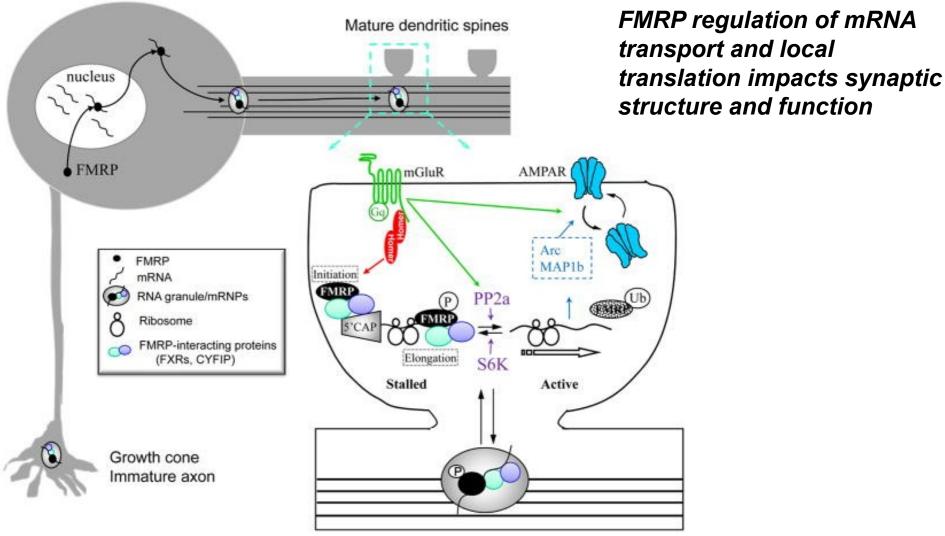


Typical spine morphologies from (A) a human afflicted by fragile-X syndrome and (B) an unaffected control.

Abnormal dendritic spine morphology in patients with FRAXA (an increased density of long, immature dendritic spines). During transport FMRP-mRNA, FMRP suppresses translation. Stimulation of postsynaptic glutamate receptors (mGluRs) results in increased protein synthesis. FMRP, which is also upregulated by mGluRs, serves to dampen this process. The absence of FMRP in FRAXA results in over-amplification of this response.

Expansion of CGG repeats in the *FMR1* gene that encodes FMRP underlies fragile X syndrome (FRAXA). Repeats that contain >200 copies (full mutation) lead to loss of FMRP expression. FMRP contains two domains that bind RNA: the KH2 domain and the RGG box. The IIe304Asn mutation in the KH2 domain, which prevents FMRP from binding targets that contain the kissing complex motif, gives rise to a severe mental retardation phenotype. **a** | Abnormal dendritic spine morphology in patients with FRAXA. An increased density of long, immature dendritic spines indicates that FMRP has a role in synaptic maturation and pruning, possibly through its regulation of gene products that are involved in synaptic development. FMRP might also have a regulatory role in activity-dependent translation at the synapse. Stimulation of postsynaptic metabotropic glutamate receptors (mGluRs) results in increased protein synthesis and subsequent internalization of -amino-3hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazole propionic acid (AMPA) receptors, which is important in the expression of long-term depression. FMRP, which is also upregulated by mGluRs, serves to dampen this process. The absence of FMRP in FRAXA results in over-amplification of this response. **b** | FMRP modulates the translation of its targets, probably through its association with the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC). FMRP is transported to dendritic spines, together with its associated RNAs and proteins. mRNP, messenger ribonucleoprotein particle; NES, nuclear export signal; NMDA, *N*-methyl-**D**-aspartate; NLS, nuclear localization signal.

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FMRP is shuttles to and from the nucleus. FMRP is found both in growth cones of immature axons and mature dendritic spine. In these compartments, FMRP is associated with mRNAs. During transport, it is thought that FMRP functions to translationally suppress cargo mRNAs. In the dendritic spine FMRP phosphorylation and ubiquitination are regulated by mGluR activity which is thought to play a role is activation of translation initiation and elongation.

# FMRP regulation of mRNA transport and local translation impacts synaptic structure and function

FMRP is shuttles to and from the nucleus where it may play a role in nuclear export of mRNAs. FMRP is found both in growth cones, immature axons and mature dendrites, as well as dendritic spines. In these compartments, FMRP is associated with mRNPs and larger RNA granule structures which also contain FMRP-interacting proteins such as FXRs and CYFIP. RNA granules and FMRP travel into dendrites via kinesin motors on microtubules. During transport, it is thought that FMRP functions to translationally suppress cargo mRNAs. Inset: Once in the spine FMRP phosphorylation and ubiquitination are regulated by mGluR activity which is thought to play a role is activation of translation initiation and elongation. Proteins whose translation is regulated by FMRP include Arc and MAP1b, all of which are known to regulate AMPA receptor endocytosis and thereby synaptic function.

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