Antagonistic factors control the unproductive splicing of SC35 terminal intron

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ABSTRACT

Alternative splicing is regulated in part by variations in the relative concentrations of a variety of factors, including serine/arginine-rich (SR) proteins. The SR protein SC35 self-regulates its expression by stimulating unproductive splicing events in the 3’ untranslated region of its own pre-mRNA. Using various minigene constructs containing the terminal retained intron and flanking exons, we identified in the highly conserved last exon a number of exonic splicing enhancer elements responding specifically to SC35, and showed an inverse correlation between affinity of SC35 and enhancer strength. The enhancer region, which is included in a long stem loop, also contains repressor elements, and is recognized by other RNA-binding proteins, notably hnRNP H protein and TAR DNA binding protein (TDP-43). Finally, in vitro and in cellulo experiments indicated that hnRNP H and TDP-43 antagonize the binding of SC35 to the terminal exon and specifically repress the use of SC35 terminal 3’ splice site. Our study provides new information about the molecular mechanisms of SC35-mediated splicing activation. It also highlights the existence of a complex network of self- and cross-regulatory mechanisms between splicing regulators, which controls their homeostasis and offers many ways of modulating their concentration in response to the cellular environment.

INTRODUCTION

Alternative splicing (AS) occurs during the expression of most genes and has important functions in many biological processes. Some of the mechanisms controlling the alternative choice of splice sites made by cells in response to various intra or extracellular stimuli are now better understood, yet many molecular aspects of splicing regulation remain unclear. One key feature of AS regulation is the existence of a ‘splicing code’ based on the antagonistic assembly of activator and repressor complexes onto a variety of cis-acting enhancer and silencer elements, allowing the activation or repression of alternative splice sites (1). This relies largely on the relative concentrations of available splicing activators and repressors. Two major families of proteins mediate the interactions between cis-regulatory elements and the spliceosomal machinery: serine/arginine-rich (SR) proteins (2,3) and hnRNP proteins (4). AS is also influenced by its dynamic coupling to transcription and other mRNA processing events (5), or by the formation of RNA secondary structures (6).

A well-known function of AS is to expand the diversity of the proteome, however a large proportion (about one third) of AS events create premature stop codons that are predicted to elicit the nonsense-mediated mRNA decay (NMD) pathway and to result in the specific degradation of those mRNAs. Although recent studies do not support a widespread impact of this phenomenon (called AS-NMD) on gene expression, it clearly influences the expression of some genes by inducing variations in the production of specific mRNA isoforms (7). A few years ago, we and our collaborators described a negative feedback loop controlling the expression of the SR

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protein SC35 through AS-NMD (8). The SC35-encoding gene is essential and conditional knockout experiments in mouse or in embryonic fibroblasts have shown that SC35 is involved in the maintenance of genomic stability and in the control of cell proliferation in thymus and pituitary gland (9,10). These important biological functions presuppose a finely tuned control of SC35 expression in the cell. Indeed, high SC35 concentration activates distinct splicing events within the 3′ untranslated region (3′ UTR) of its own pre-mRNA, resulting in the formation of mRNA isoforms in which the natural stop codon is located far upstream from the following exon–exon junction (8). The NMD machinery considers this stop codon as premature and triggers the degradation of the corresponding mRNAs (8,11–13).

Other feedback regulation loops have been described for mammalian SR proteins SRp20, 9G8 and Tra2β1 (14–16), and similar cross-regulatory mechanisms exist between the highly related TIA1 and TIAR proteins (17) and between PTB and its paralogs nPTB and ROD1 (18,19). One consequence of those AS events can be the production of truncated protein isoforms. However, a series of bioinformatics and biological studies have recently shown that regulation by evolutionary conserved AS-NMD is a mode of regulation of gene expression common to the entire SR family, several hnRNP proteins and core spliceosomal components (12,20–22). These findings suggest the existence of an integrated network of homeostatic control of the expression of splicing factors, based on complex AS regulatory mechanisms, which are still largely unknown. However, sequence elements that are ultraconserved (elements longer than 200 bp with 100% identity in human, rat and mouse genes) or highly conserved (identity over >100 bp) were suggested to participate to those mechanisms (12,21,23).

Here, we studied the molecular mechanisms of SC35-dependent AS within the 3′ UTR of the SC35 pre-mRNA. This model is particularly interesting since only a few examples of SC35-mediated regulation of splicing have been studied in detail. We found that splicing of the terminal intron is activated via multiple low-affinity SC35-binding sites located within a highly conserved stem-loop region of the downstream exon. The same regulatory sequence is also bound by several proteins, including hnRNP H and TDP-43, which compete with SC35 binding and antagonize its effect to repress terminal intron splicing in vitro and in cellulo. Our results improve our knowledge on the splicing activator function of SC35 and reveal complex cross-regulatory mechanisms for the expression of splicing regulators.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Plasmids**

The previously described SC35-R1 plasmid (wt-R1) (8) was modified by point mutations to create unique restriction sites within exon 2, in positions +3 (NheI), +38 (AflII) and +74 (BamHI) relative to the 3′ splice site. The resulting pre-mRNA was spliced in vitro as the original SC35-R1.

To create the pSC35-βGlo plasmid, we inserted an MfeI–MfeI PCR fragment (corresponding to the last 237 nt of SC35 terminal intron followed by 172 exonic nts) into a unique MfeI site located in the middle of rabbit β-globin intron 2 from the pXJ41 plasmid (24).

The sequence used for enzymatic probing, including four intronic nts and the first 106 nts of SC35 terminal exon, was cloned into EcoRI and BamHI of the pGEM-3zf(+) plasmid (Promega). Other constructs are described in the Supplementary Data.

**Proteins**

Purification of full-length recombinant SC35, ASF/SF2, hnRNP A1 and of GST-SC35ΔRS and GST-9G8ΔRS is described by Cavaloc et al. and Gallego et al. (25,26). Detailed purification of His6-hnRNP H RRM1-2, GST-hnRNP H and GST-TDP-43 is described in Supplementary Data.

**Antibodies**

Antibodies raised against a carboxyl-terminal peptide of SC35 (1SC-4F11) and an amino-terminal peptide of ASF/SF2 (1D7) were used previously (25). The antibodies anti-PSF/SFPQ (B92) and anti-PTB/hnRNP I (SH54) were procured from Abcam and Calbiochem, respectively. Other antibodies were kindly provided by D. Auboeuf (anti-p68/DDX5), D. Elliott (anti-SAFB2), D. Black (anti-hnRNP H), S. Rousseau (anti-DAZAP1), E. Buratti (anti-TDP-43) and G. Dreyfuss (anti-hnRNP A1).

**RNA affinity chromatography**

RNA affinity experiments and MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry analysis were carried out essentially as described by Venables et al. (24), with minor modifications which are detailed in the Supplementary Data. Several independent experiments were performed. Proteins for which the peptide coverage score was significantly and reproducibly higher with RNA I and/or RNA II than with control RNA in at least two experiments were considered as ‘specific’. Specific binding of some of those proteins was confirmed by western-blotting.

**RNA secondary structure analysis by RNase footprinting**

In vitro transcribed 5′-end labeled RNA (25 fmol) was pre-incubated in buffer D for 10 min at 65°C, in the presence of 2 μg tRNA, followed by a slow cooling. The renatured RNA was then incubated for 30 min at 20°C in the absence or in the presence of recombinant SC35 (8, 16 and 32 pmol) or hnRNP H RRM1-2 (10, 30 and 50 pmol) in 10 μl of buffer D. Digestion was carried out for 6 min at 20°C in the presence of 0.0005 U of the double-stranded specific RNase V1 (Kemotex), 1 U of RNase T1 (Roche) or 1 U of RNase T2 (Invitrogen), that cleave respectively after G residues or any nucleotide (but preferentially after A residues). In the conditions used, both enzymes preferentially cleave single strands. The production of a
single nucleotide or of a G residue ladder and the arrest of the reactions were carried out as described by Jacquet et al. (27). The cleavage products were fractionated by electrophoresis on a 10% polyacrylamide-8 M urea gel. The free energy of the 2D structure of the SC35 RNA was calculated at 37°C and in 1M NaCl with the Mfold software (28).

RNA-protein UV cross-linking

UV cross-linking assays were carried out in splicing conditions as described by Venables et al. (24), using a fixed amount of various RNA probes and different combinations of purified recombinant proteins, as detailed in the figure legend, and in the presence of 0.1 μg Escherichia coli tRNA. After cross-linking and digestion with RNases A and T1, complexes were analysed by SDS-PAGE and autoradiography.

In vitro splicing

In vitro splicing assays were performed and quantified as described by Disset et al. (29). When transcripts with different backbones (SC35-R1 and Sp1-derived transcripts) were used in the same experiment and compared one to another (Figure 6 and Supplementary Figure S5), we incubated the samples in various conditions of temperature (between 26 and 30°C) and time (1.5–2 h) in order to obtain equivalent basal splicing efficiency.

Transfections and RT–PCR analysis

HeLa cells were transfected in 6-well plates, at 50% confluency (30% for siRNA experiments), using lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The following amounts of transfected plasmids were used: 200 ng of pSC35-bGlo reporter, 20 ng of pGF-P-SC35 (a gift from J. Soret) and 500 ng of pXJ41-hnRNP H or pTT3-FLAG-TDP-43. In all transfections, 2 μg of total DNA was added per well. To prevent promoter squelching effects, the total amount of CMV promoter-containing plasmid was adjusted to 1 μg with pGL4-CMV plasmid, derived from pGL4 (Promega). For caffeine treatment, cells were first transfected for 24 h with the pSC35-bGlo minigene and then treated for 24 h with 14 mM caffeine before RNA and protein extraction. For siRNA treatment, two successive applications of negative control siRNA were made (5′-CGGUGUAUUAUAC-3′). RNAs were extracted using TRI Reagent (Sigma-Aldrich), DNAse I-treated (Roche) and analysed by RT–PCR (Roche) and analysed by RT–PCR with the following primers: forward, 5′-ACGCTGCTTGGGAAACCCACC-3′ and reverse, 5′-TACCCATTATAAGCCTGCAAT-3′. The intensity of the bands corresponding to the two mRNAs was quantified using a Typhoon 8600 Imager and the ImageQuant software (GE Healthcare Life Sciences) and corrected to take the relative product size into account. The ratio inclusion/skipping from three independent transfection experiments was normalized using the control sample of each series as a reference, which gave a score for inclusion or skipping of the alternative exon. Proteins were extracted in a buffer containing 50 mM Tris–HCl pH 6.8, 20 mM EDTA, 5% SDS, sonicated briefly and analysed by SDS–PAGE and western blotting.

RESULTS

Splicing of terminal SC35 intron requires specific downstream exonic sequences

We showed previously that SC35 promotes the inclusion of an alternative cassette exon and the excision of the terminal retained intron in the 3′ UTR of its own transcripts (8). We analysed the molecular mechanisms involved in the excision or retention of terminal SC35 intron, first using an in vitro system which recapitulates its SC35-dependent splicing (Figure 1A). As shown by Sureau et al. (8), the wild-type SC35-R1 substrate (for Retained Intron) was poorly spliced in the presence of nuclear extract, but splicing was strongly activated upon the addition of purified recombinant SC35 (Figure 1C, lanes 2–3 and 19–20). In contrast, other SR proteins such as ASF/SF2 (lane 4) or 9G8 (8) did not activate intron excision. Interestingly, a recombinant SC35 lacking the RS domain had no activator effect and even slightly reduced splicing compared to the basal level or to the addition of RS domain-lacking ASF/SF2 (Figure 1C, lane 21 compared with 19 and 22). This dominant-negative effect of SC35ΔRS suggested that SC35 plays a direct role in splicing activation, through interactions mediated by its RS domain.

The sequence of the entire terminal intron and most of the following exon is well conserved between human and mouse SC35 genes. In particular, a highly conserved 132 nt-long sequence, overlapping the 3′ splice site (positions –43 to +89, Figure 1B), is 100% conserved and was suggested to be involved in the control of unproductive splicing of SC35 transcripts (12). To determine the role of this region in terminal intron splicing, we first replaced nts 7 to 73 downstream from the 3′ splice site (Figure 1B) by a neutral sequence (Supplementary Data) and analysed the splicing of this pre-mRNA in vitro. Both basal and SC35-activated splicing were dramatically inhibited (Figure 1C, compare lanes 5–6 to 2–3), indicating that this sequence is necessary for splicing. Mutation of the distal half of the region (44–73) also led to complete inhibition of basal splicing, but some activation was observed upon SC35 addition (lanes 13–14), indicating that this region contains an important part, but not all the elements required for intron excision. Further analysis showed that the most active elements are located within the segment 44–58 (lanes 15–16), and not in the segment 61–73 (lanes 17–18). Interestingly, substitution of the proximal half of the 70 nt sequence (7–37) inhibited the natural 3′ splice site almost completely, but weak splicing occurred at a cryptic 3′ site (position +43), due to the improvement of its polypyrimidine tract in the
mutant sequence (lanes 7–8). This cryptic site was poorly stimulated by SC35. We found also that the activatory elements were distributed all along this proximal region since the mutation of its two halves (nts 7–23 or 22–37, lanes 9–12) was without effect on splicing. All results obtained in nuclear extract were also confirmed in limiting splicing conditions, using a cytoplasmic S100 fraction complemented with purified SC35 (Supplementary Figure S1). Altogether, these results suggested the presence of several enhancer elements within the 60 nt-long region downstream from the 3' splice site, and which contribute to SC35-mediated splicing of the upstream intron.

The terminal exon contains several SC35-dependent splicing enhancers

To confirm those results and exclude the possibility that the neutral sequence inserted in the SC35-RI substrate contained a strong splicing silencer, we inserted the potential ESEs into the heterologous Sp1 'inverted exon 2' reporter (Figure 2A). Inversion of the second exon of this adenovirus E1A-derived pre-mRNA resulted in a dramatic inhibition of splicing in vitro, which can be restored upon insertion of an ESE (25,29). Indeed, splicing of control transcripts was nearly or completely absent, depending on the nuclear extract (Figure 2B,
lanes 1 and 8). In contrast, splicing activation was reproducibly observed upon insertion of each of the three tested overlapping regions of the SC35 terminal exon [regions I (6–48), II (36–76) and III (70–106), see sequences in Figures 1B and 2A] in the inverted exon (lanes 2–4). The strongest activation was obtained with region II (Figure 2B, lane 3). Next, we progressively shortened the three regions in order to define minimal enhancer motifs. While only a weak splicing activation was observed with the subfragments of region III, indicating that no strong enhancers were present in this region (Supplementary Figure S2), the most efficient of the numerous fragments that we tested was sequence IIB (Figure 2B, lane 11, Supplementary Figure S2 and data not shown), which corresponds to the middle part of sequence II (nts 46–65, Figure 2A). Then the activation properties of three sub-fragments of sequence IIB were tested (IIB-5°, M and 3°, Figure 2A). The two overlapping segments 5° and M, corresponding altogether to nts 46–60, exhibited strong enhancer activity (Figure 2B, lanes 12–13). Interestingly, this short ESE matched the region having the highest enhancer activity in the SC35-RI substrate (nts 44–58, Figure 1). In contrast, the pre-mRNA containing the IIB-3° segment was barely spliced (Figure 2B, lane 14), in agreement with data from Figure 1.

Various RNA sequences bound by SC35 with a strong affinity have been previously identified by SELEX, however most of them, including sequences S-7 and S-94 (Figure 2A), have poor ESE activities (25,30). Therefore, we wanted to determine whether splicing activation by SC35 terminal exon ESEs is dependent on SC35 and if this is the case, what is the affinity of SC35 for these ESEs. To address the first question, we compared the SC35-dependent activation properties of these ESEs to those of SELEX sequences S-7 and S-94. As expected, sequence S-7 had no ESE activity in nuclear extract in the Sp1 reporter (Figure 2B, lane 9). In contrast, sequences IIB and S-94 had a strong ESE activity (lanes 10–11). The strong effect of sequence S-94 as compared with our previous data (25) was most likely due to different properties of the nuclear extracts used in the two studies. In fact, when assayed in an S100 fraction, which is devoid of SR proteins, the S-94-containing transcript was very weakly activated by purified SC35 (Figure 2C, lanes 1–4), showing that the splicing detected in nuclear extract was mediated by other factors. In contrast, the Sp1-IIB transcript was efficiently spliced upon addition of recombinant SC35, but not upon addition of ASF/SF2 (lanes 5–8). Splicing assays in S100 also revealed that several independent subfragments from sequences I and II have an SC35-dependent splicing activation property (data not shown). Altogether, results from Figures 1 and 2 and from Supplementary Figures S1 and S2 showed that the 5′ terminal 60 nts of the SC35 terminal exon contain multiple SC35-dependent ESEs which are required for intron excision.

Finally, we also analysed the SC35-dependent cassette exon located within the SC35 3′ UTR. As for the terminal exon, we detected several SC35-dependent ESEs within

Figure 2. (A) Schematic view of the heterologous Sp1 ‘inverted exon 2’ splicing substrate. Various sequences, as listed on the right side of the figure, were inserted in the middle of the inverted exon 2. Like for sequences from the terminal SC35 exon, the fragments 1, 2 and 3 from the cassette exon partially overlap one to another (underlined nts). (B) Splicing assays in nuclear extract. Each transcript, harbouring one specific sequence in exon 2 as indicated, was incubated and analysed in standard conditions. (C) Splicing assays in cytoplasmic S100 extract. Transcripts, containing either the S-94 or the IIB sequence, were incubated in 8 μl S100 supplemented with 3 μl of a 20–40% ammonium sulphate-precipitated fraction from HeLa nuclear extract and with 400 ng of recombinant SC35 or ASF/SF2 protein. As previously shown (25,30), efficient and specific splicing activation in the S100 fraction could only be observed in the presence of this 20–40% fraction, which does not contain SR proteins.
the 3’ part of the cassette exon, which corresponded to another highly conserved element (12) (Figure 2B, lanes 5–7 and data not shown). However, we did not characterize these sequences any further.

**SC35 and several hnRNP proteins bind to exonic regions I and II**

To address the question of SC35 binding to the different ESEs from the terminal SC35 exon, we first performed electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA). Figure 3A shows that the RNA-recognition motif (RRM) of SC35, but not that of 9G8, interacted with RNA probe IIB (lanes 1–5). However, the binding affinity was lower than with SELEX sequences S-94 and more particularly S-7 (at least six times lower) (lanes 6–9 and 11–14). Interestingly, even though those three RNA sequences present some homology (Figure 3B), their RNA-protein affinity and their ESE potential seemed to be inversely correlated: the lower the affinity of SC35 for a given sequence, the higher the ESE activity of this sequence, and vice versa.

One possible explanation could be that efficient SC35-mediated splicing requires not only binding of SC35 to an ESE, but also the binding of a cofactor. This would explain why a high affinity SC35 sequence isolated by SELEX is not sufficient per se to promote splicing. To identify potential SC35 coactivator(s), we performed parallel RNA affinity chromatography experiments with exonic sequences I and II that included the most proximal ESE and the ESE IIB, respectively. The experiment was carried out in splicing conditions to favour the formation of splicing-competent complexes. As negative controls, we used exonic sequence III since it was not required for terminal intron splicing (data not shown), and sequence S-7 as we postulated that coactivator(s) should not bind to this RNA. The proteins remaining bound to RNA after low-salt washes were analysed by silver staining. We observed a complex pattern of proteins and a high non-specific background (proteins bound onto the three RNAs), but bands specific for sequences I or II were detected (Supplementary Figure S3). In particular, a larger number of proteins interacted with RNA than with other sequences. Proteins contained in the bands which were more specific to sequences I and II were identified by mass spectrometry. We found many hnRNP proteins and other RNA-binding proteins known to be involved in pre-mRNA processing or RNA stability (Supplementary Figure S3).

We then analysed the binding of some of those proteins by western blotting. This confirmed that hnRNP H, hnRNP A1 and DAZAP1 interacted only or preferentially with SC35 sequence I (Figure 3C, compare lane 1 to other lanes). Other proteins like TDP-43 and the RNA helicase p68/DDX5 bound sequences I and II equally well and specifically (lanes 1–2). Consistent with the presence of C/U-rich stretches within sequence III, which is a good target for the splicing regulator PTB/hnRNP I, this factor was found strongly associated to this sequence and weakly to others. In contrast, PSF/SFPQ bound to each of the tested RNAs and to uncoated beads. Finally, in agreement with results of Figure 3A, we observed a weak but significant binding of SC35 on sequences I and II (lanes 1–2), whereas it interacted efficiently with RNA S-7 (lane 4). The weak interaction of SC35 with sequences I and II was also confirmed by UV cross-linking of RNA-protein complexes formed in HeLa nuclear extract (Supplementary Figure S4). Other SR proteins, like ASF/SF2, or other splicing factors such as SAFB2, did not bind significantly to any of the exonic sequences (Figure 3C and data not shown). We concluded that SC35 interacts specifically with several low-affinity elements within region I/II of terminal exon, a region which is also recognized specifically (directly or indirectly) by several RNA-binding proteins.

Footprinting assays confirm the presence of several SC35 binding sites in the SC35 terminal exon

Since the secondary structure of pre-mRNAs often plays a role in splicing regulation, we analysed the structure of the
enhancer/silencer region by enzymatic probing, using an RNA fragment that included the last four intronic nts and the first 106 nts of SC35 terminal exon. Enzymatic digestion of naked RNA with RNases V1 (lanes 7–10), T1 (lanes 11–14) or T2 (lanes 15–18) were carried out as described in the ‘Materials and methods’ section. As a control, undigested RNA was fractionated in parallel (lanes 3–6). Lanes OH– and T1 den, corresponding respectively to alkaline hydrolysis and RNase T1 digestion in denaturing conditions, were used for localization of the cleavage sites. Nucleotides with decreased sensitivity to RNases in the presence of SC35 protein are indicated on the right. (B) The same experiment as in A was done using the hnRNP H RRM1-2 recombinant protein. (C) Secondary structure model proposed for SC35 terminal exon. The model was proposed based on thermodynamic considerations and on the results of enzymatic digestions shown in A and B. V1, T1 and T2 RNase cleavages are represented by arrows surmounted by squares, dots and triangles, respectively. Red, orange and green symbols indicate a strong, medium or low cleavage, respectively. The residues protected by SC35 (1.6 μM) or hnRNP H RRM1-2 (3.2 μM), or having a modified sensitivity in the presence of hnRNP H RRM1-2 (3.2 μM) are circled in purple or indicated by a blue or a pink star, respectively (the line thickness is proportional to the protection strength).

Figure 4. (A) The RNA was incubated in the absence (−) or in the presence of different concentrations of SC35 recombinant protein, as indicated above each lane. Digestions with RNases V1 (lanes 7–10), T1 (lanes 11–14) or T2 (lanes 15–18) were carried out as described in the ‘Materials and methods’ section. As a control, undigested RNA was fractionated in parallel (lanes 3–6). Lanes OH– and T1 den, corresponding respectively to alkaline hydrolysis and RNase T1 digestion in denaturing conditions, were used for localization of the cleavage sites. Nucleotides with decreased sensitivity to RNases in the presence of SC35 protein are indicated on the right. (B) The same experiment as in A was done using the hnRNP H RRM1-2 recombinant protein. (C) Secondary structure model proposed for SC35 terminal exon. The model was proposed based on thermodynamic considerations and on the results of enzymatic digestions shown in A and B. V1, T1 and T2 RNase cleavages are represented by arrows surmounted by squares, dots and triangles, respectively. Red, orange and green symbols indicate a strong, medium or low cleavage, respectively. The residues protected by SC35 (1.6 μM) or hnRNP H RRM1-2 (3.2 μM), or having a modified sensitivity in the presence of hnRNP H RRM1-2 (3.2 μM) are circled in purple or indicated by a blue or a pink star, respectively (the line thickness is proportional to the protection strength).
To confirm the binding of splicing repressors bind exonic sequence I and II position G24 in region I.

Interestingly, the stronger repressor activity of sequence S-7, it could not inhibit the strong interaction of hnRNP H to sequences I and IIB, nor that of TDP-43, which allowed a good detection of the interactions. As shown in Figure 5, recombinant SC35 protein (added to a S100 extract) cross-linked significantly to sequences I and IIB (lanes 1–2 and 9–10, respectively). Interestingly, the addition of increasing amounts of recombinant hnRNP H (lanes 3–4 and 11–12) or TDP-43 (lanes 5–6 and 13–14) proteins reduced the cross-linking of SC35 to both sequences, indicating that those two proteins directly competed with SC35 for overlapping or very nearby binding sites. This competition was probably facilitated by the weak affinity of SC35 for these regulatory sequences (Figure 3). Indeed, neither the binding of hnRNP H to sequences I and IIB, nor that of TDP-43, was significantly impaired by the addition of recombinant SC35 (compare lanes 4 and 7, 6 and 8, 12 and 15, 14 and 16). In fact, only a 3-times higher SC35 concentration could slightly reduce hnRNP H binding, but not TDP-43 binding (data not shown). Finally, although hnRNP H (but not TDP-43) also cross-linked with sequence S-7, it could not inhibit the strong interaction between SC35 and this sequence (lanes 17–20), either because the affinity of SC35 for this sequence is too strong, or because the binding sites of both proteins do not overlap. A similar result was observed with an unrelated control sequence, although the interactions of SC35 and hnRNP H with this sequence were very weak (lanes 21–24).

We next carried out footprinting assays with the hnRNP H N-terminal RRMs 1 and 2, responsible for specific RNA recognition (33) to identify the binding sites for this protein. The results of these experiments (Figures 4B and 4C) revealed an increased reactivity terminal loop and of residue G11 (Figure 4A, lanes 12 and 16 compared to lanes 11 and 15, respectively; results are summarized in Figure 4C). However, at 1.6 μM, most of the segments which were highly sensitive to RNases T1/T2 in the naked RNA (terminal loop and segment 4–11) were partially protected (lanes 13 and 17) and some of the RNase V1 cleavages disappeared (lane 9 compared with lane 7). This indicated an extended binding of SC35 to this region at this protein concentration, confirming the presence of several SC35 binding sites. When increasing the SC35 concentration to 3.2 μM, the RNA was entirely wrapped by the protein since no RNase cleavage was detected (Figure 4A, lanes 10, 14 and 18). Interestingly, initial SC35 binding seemed to occur in the apical loop, which overlaps the 5′ part of sequence IIB, and around position G24 in region I.

Splicing repressors bind exonic sequence I and II

To confirm the binding of trans-acting regulators to the RNA elements located within sequences I and II, we performed competition experiments using these RNAs as competitors and various in vitro splicing substrates (Supplementary Figure S5). As expected, these experiments highlighted the binding of splicing activator(s) to terminal exon sequences but surprisingly, they also revealed that region I, and to a lesser extent region II, are bound by at least one specific splicing repressor that specifically antagonizes the activity of the ESE IIB. Interestingly, the stronger repressor activity of sequence I correlated with the larger number of proteins interacting with this region (Figure 3 and Supplementary Figure S3).

The identification of splicing inhibitor(s) among the proteins found associated to the 5′ part of the terminal exon would have been laborious due to their elevated number. Therefore, prior to testing potential candidates, we fractionated a HeLa nuclear extract through different chromatographic steps and tested the resulting fractions for their sequence-specific repressor activity in vitro using the Sp1-IIB substrate (Supplementary Figure S6A and B). The most repressive fraction that we obtained was enriched in TDP-43 and hnRNP H proteins, but contained no or weak amounts of the other region I-interacting factors such as hnRNP A1, DAZAP1 or p68/DDX5 (Supplementary Figure S6C). We therefore focused our attention on those two splicing factors.

TDP-43 and hnRNP H compete with SC35 for binding to the terminal exon sequences

In order to determine whether the binding of hnRNP H and TDP-43 proteins to the enhancer/silencer region of terminal exon could interfere with SC35 binding, we carried out UV cross-linking experiments using various concentrations of recombinant proteins, in conditions (low amount of S100 extract and of competitor tRNA) which allowed a good detection of the interactions. As shown in Figure 5, recombinant SC35 protein (added to a S100 extract) cross-linked significantly to sequences I and IIB (lanes 1–2 and 9–10, respectively). Interestingly, the addition of increasing amounts of recombinant hnRNP H (lanes 3–4 and 11–12) or TDP-43 (lanes 5–6 and 13–14) proteins reduced the cross-linking of SC35 to both sequences, indicating that those two proteins directly competed with SC35 for overlapping or very nearby binding sites. This competition was probably facilitated by the weak affinity of SC35 for these regulatory sequences (Figure 3). Indeed, neither the binding of hnRNP H to sequences I and IIB, nor that of TDP-43, was significantly impaired by the addition of recombinant SC35 (compare lanes 4 and 7, 6 and 8, 12 and 15, 14 and 16). In fact, only a 3-times higher SC35 concentration could slightly reduce hnRNP H binding, but not TDP-43 binding (data not shown). Finally, although hnRNP H (but not TDP-43) also cross-linked with sequence S-7, it could not inhibit the strong interaction between SC35 and this sequence (lanes 17–20), either because the affinity of SC35 for this sequence is too strong, or because the binding sites of both proteins do not overlap. A similar result was observed with an unrelated control sequence, although the interactions of SC35 and hnRNP H with this sequence were very weak (lanes 21–24).
in the 3’ part of the terminal loop (segment 48–50), which overlaps sequence IIB, and a weak increase of the reactivity of residues 79 and 81. Such variations suggest that hnRNP H induced a modification of the RNA structure, in contrast to what we observed with SC35. Most importantly, however, we observed also a strong protection of the segment 40–45, which overlaps regions I and II and corresponds to one of the major SC35 binding sites (Figure 4A and C).

Altogether, results of Figures 4 and 5 indicated that hnRNP H and TDP-43, two proteins which are enriched in a fraction that represses SC35-mediated splicing, have binding sites which overlap those of SC35 within the terminal exon, and that both proteins efficiently and specifically compete the low-affinity binding of SC35 to that region.

TDP-43 and hnRNP H inhibit splicing of SC35 terminal intron in vitro

We next addressed directly the potential repressive effect of hnRNP H and TDP-43 on SC35 terminal intron splicing, using in vitro splicing assays. As shown in Figure 6A, recombinant TDP-43 and hnRNP H proteins both inhibited moderately the splicing of the SC35-RI transcript (lanes 3 and 4 compared to lane 2), but they had a cooperative effect when added together (lane 5), inhibiting splicing by over 60%. Despite its complete absence in our enriched repressor fraction (Supplementary Figure S6C), hnRNP A1 also inhibited strongly the splicing of this pre-mRNA (lane 6). However, this effect was not dependent on the presence of the terminal SC35 exon since hnRNP A1 inhibited weakly and equally the chimeric Sp1-ter-ex and the control Sp1-wt transcripts (Figure 6B, lanes 6 and 11 compared with lanes 2 and 8). In contrast, TDP-43 and hnRNP H inhibited specifically Sp1-ter-ex splicing (40 and 35% inhibition, respectively) (lanes 3–4 and 9–10). Similarly, the Sp1 transcript containing the sequence IIB, but not an ASF/SF2-specific sequence, was also inhibited by TDP43 and hnRNP H (Figure 6B, lanes 13–16 and lanes 19–21), while only a weak inhibition was observed with hnRNP A1 (lanes 17 and 22). We concluded that TDP-43 and hnRNP H inhibit terminal SC35 intron splicing in vitro in a sequence-specific manner.

In this last experiment using the Sp1-IIB transcript, the level of inhibition by TDP-43 and hnRNP H (about 25%) was lower than with the Sp1-ter-ex transcript, most likely because less potential binding sites were available, in agreement with the results of footprinting experiments using the RNA-binding domains of hnRNP H (Figure 4). Finally, it is also interesting to note that unlike for SC35-RI transcripts, we did not observe any cooperative effect of TDP-43 and hnRNP H with Sp1-derived substrates (Figure 6B, lanes 3–5 and 14–16), suggesting that...
inhibition of terminal intron splicing is more complex in the original sequence environment and may involve other binding sites within the regulated intron or in the upstream exon.

**TDP-43 and hnRNP H repress the terminal SC35 3′ splice site in cellulo**

To confirm our results in a cellular context, we designed a minigene that recapitulated SC35-dependent activation of terminal SC35 3′ splice site. We introduced a fragment of the SC35 gene, spanning the 3′ part of terminal intron and the regulatory exonic region, into the β-globin intron of a CMV promoter-driven plasmid. The resulting minigene (pSC35-βGlo, Figure 7A) had two alternative 3′ splice sites and its splicing in HeLa cells, as analysed by RT-PCR, resulted in the formation of two main products, corresponding to mRNAs spliced at the β-globin (lower band) or SC35 (upper band) 3′ splice site (Figure 7B, lane 1). As expected, co-transfection of GFP-tagged SC35 stimulated the use of the SC35 3′ splice site by over 3-fold (lane 2). A similar result was obtained when endogenous SC35 expression was increased upon treatment of cells with caffeine (34) (Figure 7B, lanes 9–10, Figure 7C). In contrast, targeting the SC35 gene with small-interfering RNAs (siRNA), even though the global level of SC35 protein was reduced only by about a half, resulted in a strong inhibition of the SC35 3′ splice site (Supplementary Figure S7). These results indicated that our substrate responded specifically to changes in endogenous SC35 levels.

We next tested the effect of hnRNP H or TDP-43 on the minigene. Unlike what we observed in vitro, over-expression of hnRNP H did not repress the use of the SC35 3′ splice site, and even had a moderate opposite effect (Figure 7B, lane 3). However, silencing of hnRNP H expression led to an increase in ‘SC35′ mRNA relative to β-globin mRNA (Figure 7E and 7D, compare lanes 1 and 3), indicating that hnRNP H has a direct or an indirect negative effect on the SC35 3′ splice site. We obtained the same result with two different siRNAs, targeting both hnRNP H and F, confirming that splicing modulation was due to the specific depletion of these two proteins. Similarly, over-expression and depletion of TDP-43 did not provide fully consistent results: nearly complete silencing of TDP-43 gene using two distinct siRNA (Figure 7E and data not shown) had no significant effect on splicing (Figure 7D, lane 4). Yet, over-expression of TDP-43 led to a dramatic inhibition of the SC35 3′ splice site (Figure 7B, lane 4). Interestingly, TDP-43 overcame the GFP-SC35-mediated activation of splicing.

![Figure 7](https://example.com/figure7.png)

**Figure 7.** (A) Schematic structure of the pSC35-βGlo minigene. A fragment of the SC35 gene including the 3′ part of the retained terminal intron (thick black line) and the 5′ part of the terminal exon (white box) was inserted in the rabbit β-globin intron 2, creating a reporter with alternative 3′ splice sites (splicing is represented by broken filled lines). When the SC35 3′ splice site was used, a cryptic 5′ splice site located downstream from the insert, within the 3′ part of the β-globin intron, was systematically activated (broken dotted line), creating an ‘SC35’ alternative exon. (B) and (C) RNA and protein analysis after transfection of HeLa cells. Cells were cotransfected with the pSC35-βGlo minigene and plasmids carrying various cDNAs as indicated above the gels. RNA and protein samples were extracted and analysed respectively by RT-PCR (B) or western blotting (C) with specific antibodies, as indicated. Anti-GFP was used to monitor the amount of GFP-SC35 protein, which could not be detected using anti-SC35 antibodies due to its low level of expression. AS gave rise to two major mRNA products depending on the use of the β-globin (lower band) or SC35 (upper band) 3′ splice site. (D) and (E) RNA and protein analysis after siRNA-mediated knockdown of hnRNP H/F or TDP-43. RT-PCR analysis and quantification of mRNA products (D) was as in panel B. Efficiency of silencing and endogenous level of SC35 protein were monitored by western-blotting (E) as in panel C.
in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 7B, lanes 7–8 compared to lane 6, and Figure 7C), indicating a competition between the two proteins for regulating the SC35 3′ splice site. No further inhibition was observed when we co-expressed TDP-43 and hnRNP H (data not shown). Importantly, the level of endogenous SC35 remained constant in all experiments (Figure 7C and E), indicating that the effects were primarily due to the over-expression/depletion of the corresponding proteins, although we could not exclude the contribution of uncharacterized secondary effects. Altogether, our results confirmed our in vitro data and showed that hnRNP H and TDP-43 both repress the SC35 3′ splice site in cellulo in a manner antagonistic to SC35.

**DISCUSSION**

**Splicing activation by SC35**

In a previous report, we showed that SC35 regulates its own expression by promoting specific AS reactions within the 3′ UTR of its pre-mRNA, resulting mostly in the formation of 1.6 and 1.7 kb mRNA isoforms in which the terminal intron has been spliced out (8). The instability of these isoforms is due to the activation of NMD (8,11–13), confirming the existence of a negative feedback loop for SC35. In the present study, we identified a 60-nt sequence within the terminal SC35 exon, which is required for SC35-mediated splicing of the retained intron. The most active elements are located within overlapping segments IIB-5′ and IIB-M of the 20-nt sequence IIB (Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure S2). Systematic mutagenesis of this sequence suggested that the core motif GUUGCAGU is essential for ESE activity, but that flanking sequences are also important (Supplementary Figure S2). We also found some highly conserved regulatory elements within the 3′ part of the SC35 cassette exon, which present some homology with the ESE IIB (data not shown). A comparison of the IIB element to other SC35-specific ESEs (Supplementary Table S1) showed a large variety of motifs, and no unique consensus sequence could be defined. Some motifs found in the ESE IIB, the SELEX S-94 sequence (see an alignment of these 2 sequences in Figure 3B) and the β-globin gene (35) are similarly rich in pyrimidines. In contrast, other ESEs are more purine-rich (Supplementary Table S1), whereas a C-rich consensus sequence was identified by functional selection of SC35-responsive ESEs (36). As the ESEfinder program was based on this last consensus sequence (37), it only predicted low-score SC35 motifs within the 60-nt ESE of SC35 terminal exon (Supplementary Figure S8).

Unlike high-affinity SC35 SELEX sequences which have poor ESE activity, the potent ESE IIB and other SC35-binding sites within the 60-nt ESE were recognized only weakly by the SC35 RRM or by endogenous SC35 within a nuclear extract (Figure 3). Several hypotheses can be raised to explain this discrepancy. It is possible that a strong interaction between the SC35 RRM and RNA does not confer enough mobility to the protein to develop other interactions that are necessary for splicing activation. Alternatively, efficient activation by SC35 might require the binding of a cofactor(s) near low-affinity SC35 binding sites. This may be required to assemble an active SC35 enhancer complex, similarly to the assembly of enhancer complexes to *Drosophila doublesex* purine-rich elements (38). Sequences selected by SELEX using purified SC35 would not contain the cofactor binding site and would therefore be inactive in splicing assays. The factors which we found to bind specifically to the SC35-responsive ESE are potential cofactors. However, the over-expression or knockdown of several candidates (such as DAZAP1 and p68/DDX5) did not affect SC35-dependent use of terminal 3′ splice site in cellulo (data not shown).

Interestingly, our footprinting experiments indicated that the most active SC35-responsive motif (IIB) overlaps with the most accessible SC35-binding site in a 14-nt single-stranded loop that caps a long stem-loop region (Figure 4). However, in agreement with results from Figure 3, which suggested the existence of several SC35 binding sites in the regulatory region, it became entirely protected from enzymatic degradation at higher SC35 concentration (Figure 4). It is possible that the apical loop represents a primary binding site for the protein, which would promote the binding of SC35 molecules to other sites along the 60-nt region. Similar mechanisms have been described for hnRNP A1 or SC35 binding on HIV-1 transcripts (31,32). Our footprinting experiments suggest that hnRNP H may modify the RNA structure upon binding and might alter the binding and/or the effect of other splicing regulators. The fact that p68 binds to the regulatory region also raised the hypothesis that this RNA helicase may have a similar effect. Remodeling of an RNA structure by p68 was recently proposed to regulate the inclusion of H-Ras exon IDX by decreasing the binding of hnRNP H (39). However, our experiments did not support a direct effect of p68 on the splicing of the pSC35-βGlo minigene in cellulo (data not shown).

**Repression by TDP-43 and hnRNP H**

About a dozen of RNA-binding proteins bound specifically to the regulatory region downstream from the retained SC35 intron. At least two of them, TDP-43 and hnRNP H, but not hnRNP A1, repressed splicing in a sequence-specific manner in vitro and in cellulo. Both TDP-43 and hnRNP H, which respectively recognize UG repeats and GGG-containing motifs, are well-known AS regulators (4,40). We could not carry out footprinting analysis using the full-length recombinant proteins, due to their poor solubility. Interestingly however, the 60-nt regulatory region of the SC35 terminal exon contains a few potential TDP-43 binding sites, whereas it does not contain any G triplet. In fact, the major binding site for the hnRNP H RNA binding domains is a UAGGG motif located in the apical stem-loop, which overlaps an SC35-binding site and which likely explains the direct competition that we observed between the two antagonistic factors (Figure 5). However, only TDP-43, but not hnRNP H, competed the effect of SC35 and repressed
Consequences for the regulation of SC35 expression in vivo

Our cross-linking and titration experiments (Figure 5 and Supplementary Figure S4) indicate that repressors have a stronger affinity than SC35 for the regulatory region. This suggests that SC35 could activate splicing only when a threshold concentration is reached to overcome the binding of repressors and to occupy most binding sites along the 60-nt region. This model is functionally sound since it would provide a finely tuned negative control of SC35 expression: splicing of terminal intron and NMD-mediated degradation of mRNAs would only occur when SC35 concentration becomes too elevated. Although the proper regulation of AS in cells likely tolerates some variations in the concentration of SC35, such a safeguard mechanism might be essential since SC35 plays important roles in the control of cell proliferation (9,10).

In fact, the treatment of cultured HeLa or nasal epithelial cells with NMD inhibitors revealed the presence of significant amounts of SC35 1.6/1.7 kb mRNA isoforms, which result from splicing activation by SC35 (8,11–13). This indicates that terminal intron can be spliced out in standard cell growing conditions. Similarly, transfection of HeLa cells with our minigene also showed a significant basal use of terminal SC35 3' splice site (Figure 7). A prediction from those results is that SC35 concentration should not increase strongly when SC35 gene transcription is increased. Yet, a 3–4-fold increase of SC35 concentration has been reported in several well-defined biological conditions, in apparent contradiction with the concept of feedback regulatory loop. For example, caffeine treatment of various cells, including HeLa cells, induced an increase of SC35 protein level (34) (Figure 7), through a mechanism which is not well understood. However, the same caffeine concentration can also inhibit NMD (42), so it cannot be ruled out that the 1.6/1.7 kb mRNA isoforms were stabilized, increasing the overall concentration of SC35 mRNA and protein.

Another recent study showed that over-expression of the transcription factor E2F1 directly stimulated the transcription of the SC35 gene and the synthesis of SC35 protein in human lung carcinoma cells (43). The basal SC35 concentration seemed weaker in this cell line than in mouse embryonic fibroblasts, suggesting that SC35 was present in suboptimal amounts and that its increased concentration was tolerated as being below the critical threshold level that triggers the feedback loop. Moreover, E2F1 stimulates cell cycle progression, and a recent study reported that proliferating cells tend to express mRNAs with shorter 3' UTR regions compared to nonactivated cells (44). E2F1 may induce the synthesis of specific SC35 transcripts using the proximal poly-A site, which is located in the terminal intron (Figure 1), leading to the accumulation of the 1.3 kb, NMD-insensitive mRNA isoform and to an increase in SC35 protein synthesis.

The presence of important splicing regulatory elements in the 3' UTR of the SC35 gene, that we demonstrated for the first time in this study, gives one explanation for the extreme conservation of this region in vertebrates (the regulatory 60-nt region is nearly 100% conserved from human to xenopus). Even though this extreme conservation could also reflect, for example, the presence of binding sites for microRNAs or for factors regulating the stability of the mRNAs, our findings support the hypothesis that was raised following the identification of similar highly conserved or ultraconserved elements associated to AS-NMD events in the pre-mRNAs of many splicing factors (12,21,23). One can anticipate that the expression of a large proportion of splicing regulators is controlled in similar ways as that of SC35, through an intricate interplay of self- and cross-regulatory mechanisms. This may provide the cells with a way to maintain the homeostasis of those factors to ensure that splicing does not escape control. It also offers multiple ways of modifying transiently the relative expression of specific factors, which is one of the keys for controlling AS choices.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary Data are available at NAR Online.

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