HnRNP L and HnRNP A1 Induce Extended U1 snRNA Interactions with an Exon to Repress Spliceosome Assembly

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SUMMARY

Pre-mRNA splicing is catalyzed through the activity of the spliceosome, a dynamic enzymatic complex. Forcing aberrant interactions within the spliceosome can reduce splicing efficiency and alter splice site choice; however, it is unknown whether such alterations are naturally exploited mechanisms of splicing regulation. Here, we demonstrate that hnRNP L represses CD45 exon 4 by recruiting hnRNP A1 to a sequence upstream of the 5’ splice site. Together, hnRNP L and A1 induce extended contacts between the 5’ splice site-bound U1 snRNA and neighboring exon sequences that, in turn, inhibit stable association of U6 snRNA and subsequent catalysis. Importantly, analysis of several exons regulated by hnRNP L shows a clear relationship between the potential for binding of hnRNP A1 and U1 snRNA and the effect of hnRNP L on splicing. Together, our results demonstrate that conformational perturbations within the spliceosome are a naturally occurring and generalizable mechanism for controlling alternative splicing decisions.

INTRODUCTION

The removal of introns and appropriate joining of exons are essential steps in the biogenesis of eukaryotic mRNAs. In addition to being required for the expression of all intron-containing genes, splicing can be regulated to alter the open reading frame or the presence of cis-regulatory elements in a resultant mRNA. Such alternative splicing occurs in the vast majority of human genes and is a primary determinant of protein diversity and gene expression (Nilsen and Graveley, 2010).

The machinery that accomplishes exon joining, the spliceosome, is one of the largest and most dynamic enzymatic complexes in the cell. The catalytically active form of the spliceosome contains three small nuclear RNAs (snRNAs) and at least 50 proteins; however, an additional two snRNAs and tens to hundreds of additional proteins are required for assembly steps leading up to the final active conformation (Wahl et al., 2009). The general assembly of the spliceosome begins with binding of the U1 snRNA to the 5’ splice site (5′ss). Subsequent ATP-dependent binding of the U2 snRNA to the branchpoint sequence completes initial recognition of the splice sites and results in formation of “A complex.” The U4, U5, and U6 snRNPs are then recruited to the pre-mRNA as a preformed tri-snRNP complex. Stable association of the tri-snRNP and the multiprotein nineteen complex (NTC) with the substrate defines “B complex,” which is then extensively remodeled resulting in the loss of the U1 and U4 snRNPs, rearrangement of RNA interactions, and the formation of catalytically active “C complex.”

The ordered assembly of the spliceosome is driven by interactions between the pre-mRNA substrate and the protein and RNA components of the snRNPs, as well as through protein and/or RNA interactions between the spliceosomal components themselves (Wahl et al., 2009). Importantly, the molecular interactions that pull together the spliceosome also function as decision points to determine which sequences of the pre-mRNA are to be retained in the final message, by first “defining” exons and then bringing specific exons together to be ligated in the final catalytic core. Therefore, understanding the details of the assembly of the spliceosome and how molecular decisions are made and regulated is a critical component of understanding the mechanisms of alternative splicing.

Recent studies have led to a growing appreciation for the role of kinetic effects in spliceosome assembly. Specifically, the current view of spliceosome assembly posits that the molecular interactions that drive transitions between each assembly step are in dynamic equilibrium, such that strengthening one interaction will effectively repress alternative assembly states (Smith et al., 2008; referred to here as the equilibrium model). For example, sequence mutations that hyperstabilize base pairing of U1 with the 5′ss repress the subsequent association of U6 snRNA with the 5′ss (Staley and Guthrie, 1999), whereas hyperstabilizing the U6-5′ss interaction blocks rearrangements required for the exon ligation reaction (Konarska et al., 2006). Because the spliceosome disassembles and releases the mRNA after catalysis, even relatively modest favoring of one assembly pathway over another can lead to irreversible decisions of what sequences are spliced together. Consistent with this prediction, a recent study demonstrated that regulatory sequences that perturb a nonrate-limiting step in spliceosome assembly can shift the relative use of two competing alternative splice sites (Yu et al., 2008). However, despite general acceptance of the potential importance of kinetic traps, we currently lack any examples in which such traps have been
shown to be leveraged as a naturally occurring mechanism of splicing regulation.

A well-studied example of regulated alternative splicing is variable inclusion of exons 4–6 in the human CD45 gene. These CD45 variable exons (4, 5, and 6) are predominantly skipped in human T cells to regulate the activity of the encoded protein tyrosine phosphatase and maintain T cell homeostasis (Hermiston et al., 2002). In resting T cells, repression of each of the variable exons (4, 5, and 6) is independently regulated through the activity of hnRNP L, which binds to a common exonic silencer motif (ESS1) located in each exon (Rothrock et al., 2005; Tong et al., 2002). In our previous work, we have demonstrated that binding of hnRNP L on splicing. This observation, together with several recent reports demonstrating widespread splicing repression by hnRNP A1 when bound immediately upstream of a 5’ss (Huelga et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2008), suggests that extended interactions of U1 snRNA with exon substrates may be a common mechanism for regulating splicing.

**RESULTS**

**ESS1 Induces Interactions of Both U1 snRNA and hnRNP A1 Upstream of the 5’ss of Exon 4**

In previous studies, we have demonstrated that binding of hnRNP L to the ESS1 exonic silencer sequence within CD45 exon 4 represses exon inclusion both in vivo and in vitro (House and Lynch, 2006; Rothrock et al., 2005). In order to facilitate a more complete characterization of the mechanism of hnRNP L-mediated repression of exon 4, we fused either the wild-type repressed (R) exon, or a derepressed (D) version that contains mutations in ESS1 that abrogate hnRNP L binding and silencer activity (dark-gray box). (B) In vitro splicing of R and D substrates (sub) in JSL1 nuclear extract. Left view shows RT-PCR of splicing reactions using radiolabeled primer, resolved on a denaturing gel, and quantified by phosphorimager as done previously (House and Lynch, 2006; Melton et al., 2007). Percent (%) splicing and SD (in parentheses) here and in following figures are calculated as the average from at least three independent experiments. The asterisk (*) denotes a nonspecific buildup of radiolabel on a salt front not observed on an ethidium bromide (EtBr)-stained gel (right). (C) In-vitro-splicing reactions as in (B) were separated by glycerol gradient and then individual fractions (Frac.) run on a native gel in the presence of heparin. Early (E), middle (M), and late (L) fractions pooled for subsequent experiments are indicated. The migration position of A and B spliceosome assembly intermediates (as defined in the Introduction), and the early hnRNP/U1 complex (H/E), is indicated to the right. All experiments throughout were repeated at least three times with equivalent results. See also Figure S1.

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Figure 1. The ESS1 Represses Formation of a Stable B Complex and Exon Inclusion

(A) Schematic of splicing substrates used in the study; CD45 exon 4 (pink box) and downstream intron (thin line) fused to the AdML exon (light-gray box) and upstream intron (thick line), followed by three copies of the MS2-binding site hairpin. The R construct contains the wild-type exon 4, including the ESS1 element (red box). The D substrate contains three point mutations within ESS1 that abolish hnRNP L binding and silencer activity (dark-gray box). (B) In vitro splicing of R and D substrates (sub) in JSL1 nuclear extract. Left view shows RT-PCR of splicing reactions using radiolabeled primer, resolved on a denaturing gel, and quantified by phosphorimager as done previously (House and Lynch, 2006; Melton et al., 2007). Percent (%) splicing and SD (in parentheses) here and in following figures are calculated as the average from at least three independent experiments. The asterisk (*) denotes a nonspecific buildup of radiolabel on a salt front not observed on an ethidium bromide (EtBr)-stained gel (right). (C) In-vitro-splicing reactions as in (B) were separated by glycerol gradient and then individual fractions (Frac.) run on a native gel in the presence of heparin. Early (E), middle (M), and late (L) fractions pooled for subsequent experiments are indicated. The migration position of A and B spliceosome assembly intermediates (as defined in the Introduction), and the early hnRNP/U1 complex (H/E), is indicated to the right. All experiments throughout were repeated at least three times with equivalent results. See also Figure S1.
ability of the ESS1 repressor element to bind hnRNP L, a requirement for flanking introns, the formation of a stalled A complex, and a lack of B complex formation on the R substrate in the presence of heparin (Figures 1B and 1C; Figure S1 available online; data not shown).

Previous analyses of the stalled A complex simply confirmed the presence of the U1 and U2 snRNP components (House and Lynch, 2006). To better investigate whether the nature of the snRNP interactions within the R versus D complexes differs, we interrogated RNA interactions by psoralen crosslinking. Following glycerol gradient separation, complexes in the middle fractions were pooled and incubated with AMT psoralen and UV light to induce covalent crosslinks between base paired regions of RNA. Sites of crosslinks within the substrate were then visualized as psoralen/UV-dependent stops in a primer extension reaction using three primers to interrogate distinct regions of the substrate (Figure 2A). We focused on the complexes in the middle fractions of the glycerol gradient because these fractions exhibit similar mobility between the R and D substrates (Figure 1C) yet are committed to different fates.

Primer extension of psoralen-crosslinked R and D RNAs did not detect any differences in RNA base pairing across most regions of the substrates, including the 3′ss region upstream of either exon 4 or the AdML exon, and the intron downstream of exon 4 (Figure S2A, R1 and R3). Moreover, the crosslinking pattern at the 5′ss itself is unchanged between the R and D substrates (Figure 2B, R2, 5′ss). Therefore, the splice sites of exon 4 are themselves appropriately engaged by their cognate snRNAs in the presence of the ESS1, consistent with our earlier studies (House and Lynch, 2006).

Surprisingly, however, we detect ESS1-dependent RNA interactions upstream of the 5′ss in the R but not D substrates (Figure 2B, R2, C-15). By running sequencing reactions with primer R2 in parallel with the crosslink analysis, we were able to precisely map the prominent repression-specific crosslink to a cytosine residue 15 nt upstream of the exon 4 5′ss (Figure S2B; Figures 2A and 2B, C-15). Importantly, the C-15 crosslink falls within a region of exon 4 that we have previously shown to influence the efficiency of repression. Specifically, mutation of residues −24 to −13 reduces exon skipping in vivo, although not quite to the extent of mutations within the ESS1 (Lynch and Weiss, 2001; see below).

The repression-specific C-15 crosslink is dependent on the presence of nuclear extract (Figure 2B), suggesting an intermolecular interaction with a distinct RNA species. Given the proximity of the C-15 residue to the 5′ss, which binds U1 snRNA, we considered this snRNA to be a likely cause of the crosslink at C-15. Consistent with this prediction, using a truncated version of the exon 4 5′ss substrate, we find that depletion of the U1 snRNA by RNase H cleavage (Figure 2C) or blocking
with an antisense oligo (Figure S2C) abolishes the C-15 crosslink, whereas depletion of U2 snRNAs has no effect (Figure 2C). We also observe a psoralen-induced supershift of radiolabeled substrate that is dependent on the C-15 region of the substrate and U1 snRNA (Figure S2D). Importantly, migration of this supershift is altered by RNase H-mediated cleavage of an internal region of U1, but not U2 snRNA, confirming that this species is indeed comprised of the U1 snRNA crosslinked to the substrate (Figure 2D). The fact that we observe little change in the supershifted species when the first 11 nt of U1 are cleaved is consistent with the notion that this particular supershift is not reporting on the standard U1:5’ss interaction (Figures 2D and S2D).

Sequence analysis reveals a potential base pairing interaction between the U1 snRNA and the 3’ end of exon 4 that could coexist with the standard U1 snRNA-5’ss interaction and extend into the exon, providing sufficient base pairing at C-15 to confer psoralen reactivity (Figure 2E). Importantly, the previously identified functionally defective mutation in the –24 to –13 region reduces this potential base pairing interaction (Figures 2F and S2E, QC9) and disrupts the psoralen-induced U1-dependent supershift of the substrate (Figure S2D). We also mutated several residues downstream of C-15 to increase the base pairing in the potential interface between the U1 snRNA and exon 4 (Figures 2F and S2E, U1Up). Consistent with the predicted interaction model, the U1Up mutation greatly increases the C-15 crosslink, whereas the QC9 mutation markedly reduces it (Figure 2G).

Notably, neither of these mutations significantly impacts crosslinking of U1 to the 5’ss itself, demonstrating that interaction of U1 with the exon does not impact the standard base pairing between U1 and the intron sequences at the 5’ss.

As a complementary approach, we attempted to map the psoralen crosslinks within the U1 snRNA itself. Unfortunately, the nucleotides that we predict to pair with exon 4 in the extended conformation are normally predicted to be paired in an intramolecular stem in the free U1 snRNP (helix H; Pomeranz Krummel et al., 2009). Therefore, whereas we do observe psoralen crosslinks at the appropriate nucleotides in the U1 snRNA, we cannot distinguish intra- versus intermolecular binding. However, the 5’ portion of helix H is predicted to be less base paired in the extended conformation than in the canonical helical form (Figure 2E). Consistent with our model, we observe that the psoralen crosslinking of the 5’ portion of helix H is reduced in U1 snRNA bound to the wild-type C-15 substrate relative to the U1 snRNA bound to the QC9 control, in which helix H should be in the canonical form (Figure S2F). Therefore, whereas we cannot fully rule out that other regions of U1 may interact with the C-15 region, the model in Figure 2E of extended pairing between U1 and the 3’ end of exon 4 is consistent with all of our data.

We next engineered a single radiolabeled phosphate at position G-16 within the R and D substrates to investigate the presence of proteins in the vicinity of the U1-exon interaction. Spliceosomal complexes assembled on these substrates were subject to UV crosslinking, in which proteins are crosslinked to RNA by shortwave UV light followed by RNase digestion. Interestingly, we observe an ~35 kDa protein that crosslinks to the radiolabeled G-16 in the R substrate but not the D version (Figure 3A). We also observe weak crosslinking to a species of ~65 kDa that is likewise dependent on the ESS1 element (Figure 3A). Immunoprecipitation with antibodies to candidate proteins indicates that HnRNP A1 is present in the complex (Figure 3B).
proteins of 35 and 65 kDa demonstrates the 35 kDa protein to be hnRNP A1, whereas the 65 kDa protein is hnRNP L (Figures 3B and S3A). Immunoprecipitation also revealed that the ~75 kDa species that crosslinks with variable intensity to the D construct is hnRNP M (Figures 3A, 3C, and 3E; data not shown), a protein known to bind GU-rich sequences (Huelga et al., 2012). However, the presence of this species does not correlate with increased splicing efficiency (see Figure S4). Thus, we conclude that hnRNP M binds the 5’ss region when vacated by hnRNP A1 and the U1 snRNP, but does not impact splicing, and have not pursued this observation further.

Analysis of the sequence at the 3’ end of exon 4 reveals a weak match to the hnRNP A1 consensus binding site spanning nt –20 to –16 (UAGUG, consensus site is UAGGR; Martinez-Contreras et al., 2007; Figure 3C). We note that this sequence was disrupted in the QC9, but not the U1Up, mutant. Consistently, we find a decrease in hnRNP A1 crosslinking in the QC9 substrate relative to the wild-type or U1Up constructs (Figure S3B). To investigate the interplay between recruitment of hnRNP A1 and the psoralen-detected RNA interactions, we additionally made a substrate containing a single A-to-C change that is predicted to abolish the weak hnRNP A1-binding site but not alter the putative base pairing with U1 snRNA (Figures 3C and S3C). Strikingly, this mutation not only disrupts crosslinking of hnRNP A1 to G-16 (Figure 3C) but also eliminates the U1 interaction after psoralen crosslinking (Figures 3D and S3D). Conversely, depletion of U1 snRNA from the reaction results in decreased UV crosslinking of hnRNP A1 at G-16, whereas depletion of U2 snRNA has no effect (Figures 3E and S3E). Taken together, these results demonstrate that hnRNP A1 and the U1 snRNA associate cooperatively with the 3’ end of exon 4 in a manner that is dependent on the ESS1.

Promoting extraneous interactions between the spliceosome and the pre-mRNA substrate. Remarkably, the extended interactions between the 3’ end of exon 4 and the U1 snRNA and hnRNP A1 are required for the repressive activity of ESS1 because both the QC9 and A-to-C mutations disrupt exon 4 repression by 2- to 3-fold (Figure 4A). This loss of repression is directly linked to hnRNP L activity because the splicing of the QC9 mutant is essentially unaffected by excess hnRNP L, even at a concentration sufficient to hyperrepress the wild-type substrate, and marginally represses the ESS1 mutant D substrate that has significantly decreased affinity for hnRNP L (Figure 4B). Finally, blocking association of both the U1 snRNA and hnRNP A1 with the 3’ end of exon 4 using an antisense 2’OMe oligonucleotide complementary to nt –24 to –13 also results in a loss of ESS1-dependent exon silencing (anti-3’E4, Figures S4A–S4C). Therefore, interactions of hnRNP A1 and U1 with the 3’ end of exon 4 are required for both hnRNP L and ESS1-dependent exon repression.

Importantly, the hnRNP A1 and U1 interactions with exon 4 are also required for maximal repression in vivo. Specifically, the QC9 and A-to-C mutations reduce skipping of CD45 exon 4 from a minigene that we have previously shown to recapitulate all aspects of regulation of the endogenous gene (Figure 4C). Furthermore, consistent with the in vitro studies, knockdown of both the ESS1 and hnRNP A1 in 293 cells using siRNAs to hnRNP L (L), hnRNP A1 (A1), or GFP as control. See also Figure S4.
enhancing and inhibitory influences on exon 4 (typical of regulated exons) enforces a maximum limit on how much hnRNP L can repress the exon.

The Linker Region of hnRNP L Recruits hnRNP A1 and Is Required for Exon Repression

The simplest explanation for the ESS1 dependence of the hnRNP A1 and U1 association with the 3' end of exon 4 is that hnRNP L promotes the recruitment of these components to otherwise weak binding sites. Consistent with this, addition of excess recombinant hnRNP L promotes association of hnRNP A1 with G-16 in the UV crosslinking assay (Figure 5A). Furthermore, epitope-tagged hnRNP L efficiently precipitates hnRNP A1 (Figure 5B). Interestingly, the ability of hnRNP L to coprecipitate hnRNP A1 depends on a proline-rich linker sequence within hnRNP L (Figures 5B and 5C). This coprecipitation is lost in the presence of RNase, suggesting that RNA stabilizes the association of these proteins (data not shown).

To more fully probe the nature of the interaction between hnRNP L and hnRNP A1, we turned to an MS2-tethering system in which the ESS1 of exon 4 minigene is replaced by a MS2-binding sequence, and hnRNP L is expressed as an MS2 fusion protein (Figure S5). Importantly, repression of the MS2 hairpin-containing exon by MS2-hnRNP L is dependent on both the integrity of the 3' end of exon 4 and on hnRNP A1, indicating that MS2-hnRNP L causes repression by the same mechanism as does hnRNP L bound to the ESS1 (Figures S5B and S5C). Moreover, the linker sequence that is required for recruitment of hnRNP A1 to RNA by hnRNP L is required for MS2-hnRNP L-mediated exon repression (Figure 5D). By contrast, deletion of other domains of hnRNP L that are not required for repression activity in the MS2-tethering assay does not reduce coprecipitation of hnRNP A1 with hnRNP L (Figures 5B–5D). Therefore, the ability of hnRNP L to interact with hnRNP A1 correlates with the ability of hnRNP L to promote exon repression, although we have not determined whether this interaction is direct or indirect. Given the cooperative binding of hnRNP A1 with the U1 snRNP at the 3' end of exon 4 (Figure 3), the observed recruitment of hnRNP A1 by hnRNP L is sufficient to explain the requirement for hnRNP L/ESS1 for the C-15 crosslink of U1; although we cannot rule out additional direct contacts between hnRNP L and U1. In sum, we show that the ability of hnRNP L to recruit hnRNP A1, and the ability of hnRNP A1 and U1 snRNA to interact with the 3' end of exon 4, are all required for repression of exon 4.

Interaction of U1 with the 3' End of Exon 4 Inhibits Exchange with U6 and NTC Recruitment to Regulate Splicing

Previous studies in yeast have demonstrated that artificially hyperstabilizing the association of U1 with the 5'ss blocked the replacement of U1 by U6 at the 5'ss, thereby blocking subsequent spliceosome assembly and catalysis (Staley and Guthrie, 1999). To investigate if the hnRNP L-induced interaction of U1 snRNA with the 3' end of exon 4 might likewise inhibit proper loading of U6 and subsequent spliceosome assembly, we isolated the R and D spliceosomes by pooling fractions from the glycerol gradient, followed by purification via the MS2-MBP tag (see Experimental Procedures). Analysis of the purified spliceosomes is consistent with a stall of the R substrate at an early precursor to B complex that has been described by...
others (Maroney et al., 2000; Roybal and Jurica, 2010; Schneider et al., 2010a, 2010b). Specifically, the tri-snRNP is associated with the stalled spliceosome, but in a heparin-sensitive manner (Figure S6B, and compare Figure S6A with Figure 1C), and there is a block in subsequent NTC recruitment and splicing (Figures 6A and S6C). Therefore, we conclude that ESS1 represses spliceosome assembly by blocking the transition from weak to strong association of the tri-snRNP, precluding further assembly of spliceosomal components.

To confirm the significance of the U1 snRNA and hnRNP A1 interaction in this pre-B complex block, we first used recruitment of the NTC as a convenient readout of B complex. Consistent with the prediction that extended U1 snRNA and hnRNP A1 interactions with exon 4 inhibit progression to B complex, mutations in the 3’ end of exon 4 that disrupt the association of hnRNP A1 and U1 exhibit an increased association of the NTC relative to wild-type (Figure 6B). Similarly, addition of anti-3’E4 to the spliceosome purification assay substantially increases recruitment of the NTC components to the ESS1 (Figure S6D).

To more directly assess the state of tri-snRNP recruitment, we utilized an oligo complementary to the U6 snRNA to interrogate the accessibility of this sequence to oligo-directed RNase H cleavage. Consistent with an ESS1-dependent block in U1-to-U6 exchange, we indeed observe less U6 protection in the R versus...
D complexes at all concentrations of oligo tested (Figure 6C). Importantly, the ability of U1 to make contact with the 3′ end of exon 4 is required for this differential U6 accessibility because the QC9 mutation also increases the relative protection of U6, indicative of increased association of U6 with the 5′ ss (Figure 6C).

Extending the base pairing between U6 and the substrate has previously been shown to suppress the splicing defect caused by hyperstabilizing the U1:5′ ss interaction (Staley and Guthrie, 1999), suggesting that the exchange of U6 for U1 is controlled by competing binding energy. If the hnRNP L-dependent alteration of U1 is indeed causing a similar energetic block to U6 recruitment as in the synthetic hyperstabilization experiments, we would predict that increasing the base pairing potential of U6 would likewise alleviate repression and increase splicing (Figure 6D). Remarkably, using mutations similar to the previous study, we indeed observe that increasing the base pairing of U6 with the 5′ ss region increases the efficiency of splicing of exon 4 (Figures 6D and 6E). By contrast, control mutations have no effect on exon 4 splicing, and increasing the base pairing potential of U6 has no effect on the D construct (Figures 6D and 6E). Taken together, we conclude that hnRNP L/ESS1 blocks splicing of CD45 exon 4 by trapping the 5′ ss-bound U1 snRNP in a stabilized conformation that inhibits proper association of chimeric test exons. Moreover, we recently reported that exon-bound hnRNP L can function as an enhancer in cases in which the 5′ ss is especially weak. Importantly, in each of the cases, we have observed hnRNP L function, the 3′ end of the exon contains a UGCU sequence (similar to the sequence surrounding the C-15 crosslink) within 20 nt upstream of the 5′ ss, as well as an upstream AG dinucleotide that could serve as a binding site for hnRNP A1 (Figures 7B and S7A).

We therefore calculated the predicted minimal free energy (MFE) of binding of the U1 snRNA with the 3′ end of each of the aforementioned exons and 5′ ss, making the assumption that U1 associates in the canonical fashion with nt −3 to +6 (relative to the 5′ ss) in the absence of hnRNP L, but in an extended fashion in the presence of hnRNP L (Figures 7B and S7B). Strikingly, we find a Gaussian-like relationship between the predicted MFE of U1 binding and the in vivo splicing of these exons that can account for the observed hnRNP L activity (Figures 7C and S7B). In all cases, the presence of hnRNP L is predicted to shift the MFE to tighter binding (Figure 7C, open red shapes), the extended pairing results in repression (Figure 7C, filled red shapes). By contrast, if the binding of U1 is too weak...
in the absence of hnRNP L to observe any splicing (high MFE; Figure 7C, open green shapes), the extended pairing brings the MFE to a range at which splicing is at least detectable (Figure 7C, filled green shapes). An implication of this analysis is that maximal splicing occurs in an intermediate window of U1-binding energy, whereas excessively high- or low-binding energy results in exon repression. This “goldilocks effect” is entirely consistent the equilibrium model put forth by others (Smith et al., 2008), the U1 hyperstabilization studies in yeast (Staley and Guthrie, 1999), and data from our earlier work (Motta-Mena et al., 2010).

**DISCUSSION**

Emerging studies of the spliceosome indicate that conformational dynamics play a critical role in maintaining splicing fidelity, and transitions between mutually exclusive RNA interactions both within the snRNAs and between snRNAs and the substrate often serve as checkpoints in assembly (Smith et al., 2008; Wahl et al., 2009). Remarkably, we demonstrate here that such spliceosomal dynamics are also naturally usurped by regulatory factors to induce alternative splicing. Specifically, we find that hnRNP L, together with hnRNP A1, effectively holds the U1 snRNA in an extended base paired conformation that precludes the normal exchange of U1 for U6 at the 5′ss.

As shown in Figure 2, we propose that the interaction between the U1 snRNA and the 3′ end of exon 4 involves unwinding of the short intramolecular helix H within the U1 snRNA to form the intermolecular interactions with the exon. This putative conformation is consistent with all of our data and with previous reports demonstrating the ability of exogenous RNAs to make intermolecular base pairs with residues of helix H (Abad et al., 2008; Kaida et al., 2010). However, we cannot fully exclude other possible modes of interaction between U1 snRNA and exon 4. Indeed, a direct implication of our results is that any method of stalling the normal transition checkpoints in spliceosome assembly is likely to result in alternative splicing.

The simplest model for how hnRNP L-induced U1 interaction with exon 4 blocks U6 association is that increasing the binding energy of U1 snRNA to the substrate favors binding of the 5′ss to U1 relative to U6. This mechanism is consistent with previous studies in yeast by Staley and Guthrie (1999) and with the fact the U6 hyperstabilization can overcome hnRNP L-induced repression (Figure 6E). A more recent study has questioned the relevance of the hyperstabilization model in mammals; however, base pairing of U1 snRNA in that study was not extended beyond the canonical –3 position of the exon, and strength of pairing was measured by hydrogen bonds (Freund et al., 2005). By contrast, the hnRNP L-induced interactions between U1 and exon 4 extend to at least position –15, and we find hydrogen bond number to be poorly predictive of splicing efficiency (Figure S7). Instead, we find that the predicted MFE of base pairing of U1 snRNA and the substrate is sufficient to account for previously observed regulatory effects of hnRNP L, including our finding that hnRNP L promotes E complex formation on weak exons (Motta-Mena et al., 2010) and blocks stable recruitment of U6 snRNA and the NTC on stronger exons (Figures 6 and 7). However, we cannot exclude the possibility that conformational changes in the U1 snRNP are also induced by its interaction with the exon and contribute to hnRNP L-mediated exon repression. For example, it is possible that opening of helix H has allosteric consequences within the snRNP, resulting in conformational changes or disruption of protein-RNA interactions within the snRNP that preclude recruitment of the U6 snRNP.

An additional layer of complexity in the mechanism of exon 4 repression is that binding of hnRNP A1 is required at the 3′ end of the exon, in addition to base pairing with U1 snRNA, in order to achieve regulation by hnRNP L. Interestingly, one of the first activities ascribed to hnRNP A1 was that of an RNA chaperone. Specifically, hnRNP A1 was shown to have both helix destabilizing and RNA-anneling activities, such that hnRNP A1 promotes interconversion of RNA base pairing interactions (Kumar and Wilson, 1990; Pontius and Berg, 1990; Portman and Dreyfuss, 1994). However, no specific substrate of hnRNP A1 RNA chaperone activity has yet been identified in the spliceosome.

Recent work from the group of Tim Nilsen demonstrated that the presence of a high-affinity binding site for hnRNP A1 7–18 nt upstream of a weak 5′ss alters the footprint of the U1 snRNP and reduces splicing efficiency in the presence of competing splice sites (Yu et al., 2008). In these studies, hnRNP A1 was shown to bind together with the U1 snRNP on the region around the 5′ss (Yu et al., 2008). These data, together with the annealing activity described above, suggest that direct interactions between A1 and the U1 snRNP might aid in the remodeling of the U1:substrate interaction. Notably, hnRNP A1 was proposed to play a general role in the silencing of pseudo-splice sites because high-affinity A1-binding sites were found to be enriched immediately upstream of pseudo 5′ss (Yu et al., 2008). Consistently, global analysis of hnRNP A1 binding and function on bona fide exons has revealed that this protein typically binds within the terminal 50 nt of exons it represses (Huelga et al., 2012). Such biased localization of hnRNP A1 suggests that fostering extended interactions of the 5′ss-bound U1 snRNP with neighboring exonic sequences may be a widespread mode of hnRNP A1 action. Our data here further suggest that the presence of hnRNP L can induce hnRNP A1 to evoke its effect on U1 snRNP association in a “regulatable” manner so as to induce alternative use of bona fide splice sites based on the occupancy of hnRNP L.

Significantly, we note that we do detect some weak binding of hnRNP A1 and the U1 snRNA to the 3′ end of CD45 exon 4, even in the absence of hnRNP L (e.g., in the D constructs). This weak binding suggests that hnRNP L is not absolutely required for the extended contacts between the spliceosome and the substrate but rather promotes interactions that exon 4 is inherently poised to make. This raises the intriguing possibility that at least a subset of exons may have evolved to contain sequences inherently capable of forming interactions with snRNAs beyond those that are considered essential (e.g., the contacts at the 5′ss and branchpoint sequence). Such sequences may in some cases promote exon inclusion, whereas in others, such as the CD45 exons, may predispose the exon to regulation. We also note that the regulation of U1 binding to exon 4 does not account for all of the repression observed. Specifically, the intron upstream of exon 4 is not required for altered contacts at the
3’ end of the exon but is required for maximal repression (House and Lynch, 2006). We have preliminary data that this upstream intron contributes an independent level of repression that functions in conjunction with the hnRNP L-induced mechanisms described here. Although outside the scope of this study, such a multilayered mechanism of repression is consistent with the splicing of exon 4 being under extensive combinatorial control (Motta-Mena et al., 2011).

In sum, our demonstration here that hnRNP L blocks inclusion of CD45 exon 4 by altering the interaction of U1 snRNA with the substrate highlights the finely balanced nature of spliceosome assembly and the potential for relatively subtle perturbations in snRNA interactions to dramatically alter the assembly pathway. We suggest that induction of extended U1 pairing with substrate may be responsible for the regulation of several exons for which aberrant U1 interactions have been observed, including the aforementioned studies with hnRNP A1 (Huelga et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2008) as well as regulation of P element splicing by PSI (Labourier et al., 2001). Interestingly, blocking U1 interactions with other spliceosomal components has also been demonstrated as a mechanism of exon repression (Sharma et al., 2011), suggesting that appropriate binding of U1 within the spliceosome may broadly serve as a sensitive fidelity checkpoint in spliceosome assembly. Whether there are instances of alternative splicing occurring through extended interactions of other snRNPs remains to be shown; however, our data here strongly suggest that any interaction that functions as a checkpoint in assembly is likely also used as a point of control of alternative splicing in nature. Indeed, our findings here provide a compelling example of how the complexity inherent to the spliceosome is of benefit to higher organisms by offering a vast repertoire of regulatory opportunities.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

**In Vitro Splicing and Spliceosome Assembly**

R and D RNA and the RNA substrates containing various mutations (Q, A, and U) at the 3’ end of exon 4 were transcribed from PCR products that contain a T7 promoter sequence. Construction of the templates is described in Supplemental Experimental Procedures. In vitro splicing reactions and spliceosome assembly were carried out as described previously (House and Lynch, 2006), with some modifications as described in Supplemental Experimental Procedures.

**Isolation and Analysis of Splicing Complexes**

Gradient separation of early (E), middle (M), and late (L) fractions (Figures 1C and 6A) is described in Supplemental Experimental Procedures. The RNA recovered from the purified complexes was separated on 8% urea-PAGE followed by silver staining (Bio-Rad) or analyzed by phosphorimager. The proteins from ~0.02 pmol of purified complexes were separated by SDS-PAGE and analyzed by western blot. The antibodies against hnRNP L, hnRNP A1, Php19, CDC5L, and SAP130 were all from Bethyl Laboratories, and U2AF65 and MBP antibodies were from Sigma-Aldrich.

**Psoralen and UV Crosslinking**

After assembly of splicing reactions for 30 min at 30°C or gradient fractionation of splicing reactions, the reactions or collected M fractions were plated on ice. AMT-psoralen was added to a final concentration of 24 μg/μl, and the reactions were irradiated with 365 nm light for 10 min on ice (Sharma et al., 2005). The R2 primer is complementary to nt 56–76 of the downstream intron. UV crosslinking was done as previously described by Rothrock et al. (2005) using RNA substrates containing a single 32P label, constructed as described by Sharma et al. (2011).

**Oligonucleotide-Directed RNase H Cleavage**

Depletion of snRNAs from JSL1 nuclear extract by RNase H, and analysis by primer extension, was done as previously described (House and Lynch, 2006). Probing accessibility of U6 snRNA in the purified complexes was done with oligo U6f (Kontolf and Konarska, 1994). “U1internal” oligo targets residues 7–21 and 113–127 of the U1 snRNA.

**Cell Culture, Transfections, and RNAi**

All cell-based assays were done in HEK293 cells using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen) for transfection. The CD2 and CD24 minigenes, as well as the Flag-MS2-hnRNP L expression construct, were described previously by Motta-Mena et al. (2010). siRNA knockdown was done using the Dharmaco SmartPool against hnRNP L or A1. RNA was isolated from cells using RNA-Bee (Tel-Test), and semiquantitative RT-PCR was conducted as described previously by Rothrock et al. (2003). Construction of the Flag-MS2-hnRNP L deletion constructs and co-immunoprecipitation with hnRNP A1 are described in Supplemental Experimental Procedures.

**SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

Supplemental Information includes seven figures and Supplemental Experimental Procedures and can be found with this article online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.molcel.2012.12.025.

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