ORIGINAL INVESTIGATION



Copy number variants in patients with intellectual disability affect the regulation of *ARX* transcription factor gene

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Abstract Protein-coding mutations in the transcription factor-encoding gene *ARX* cause various forms of intellectual disability (ID) and epilepsy. In contrast, variations in surrounding non-coding sequences are correlated with milder forms of non-syndromic ID and autism and had suggested the importance of *ARX* gene regulation in the etiology of these disorders. We compile data on several novel and some already identified patients with or without ID that carry duplications of *ARX* genomic region

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and consider likely genetic mechanisms underlying the neurodevelopmental defects. We establish the long-range regulatory domain of *ARX* and identify its brain region-specific autoregulation. We conclude that neurodevelopmental disturbances in the patients may not simply arise from increased dosage due to *ARX* duplication. This is further exemplified by a small duplication involving a non-functional *ARX* copy, but with duplicated enhancers. *ARX* enhancers are located within a 504-kb region and regulate expression specifically in the forebrain in developing and adult zebrafish. Transgenic enhancer-reporter lines were used as in vivo tools to delineate a brain region-specific

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negative and positive autoregulation of *ARX*. We find autorepression of *ARX* in the telencephalon and autoactivation in the ventral thalamus. Fluorescently labeled brain regions in the transgenic lines facilitated the identification of neuronal outgrowth and pathfinding disturbances in the ventral thalamus and telencephalon that occur when *arxa* dosage is diminished. In summary, we have established a model for how breakpoints in long-range gene regulation alter the expression levels of a target gene brain regionspecifically, and how this can cause subtle neuronal phenotypes relating to the etiology of associated neuropsychiatric disease.

Introduction

Approximately 5–10 % of X-chromosome linked intellectual disability (XLID) cases are caused by mutations in *ARX*, encoding the aristaless-related homeobox transcription factor (Bienvenu et al. 2002; Partington et al. 2004). Both polyalanine expansions and coding sequence mutations of *ARX* lead to ID accompanied by other clinical comorbidities including lissencephaly, epilepsy and infantile spasms, and hand dystonia with varying severity (Stromme et al. 2002; Bienvenu et al. 2002; Gecz et al. 2006; Kitamura et al. 2009). Whereas disruptions in *ARX* coding sequence cause developmental defects, polyalanine expansions have been associated with non-syndromic ID as well as epilepsy (Price et al. 2009; Shoubridge et al. 2010).

Mouse models of Arx deficiency as well as polyalanine expansions identified Arx as an important regulator of telencephalic development, showing that defects in tangential migration and differentiation of GABAergic and cholinergic neurons are potentially cardinal developmental defects leading to ID and lissencephaly (Kitamura et al. 2002, 2009). Recent mutation screening in families with ID and/or autism identified three distinct point mutations in ultraconserved non-coding sequences in the vicinity of ARX that were correlated to autism and infantile spasms (Fullston et al. 2011). While the pathogenicity of these mutations was not assessed, their predicted cis-regulatory function suggested functionality in these patients. The transcriptional cascade modulating Arx is connected to Dlx transcription factor function and promotes GABAergic neuron development in the telencephalon and other parts of the forebrain (Colasante et al. 2008). It regulates diverse aspects of neurogenesis such as neuronal stem cell proliferation, migration and differentiation (Colombo et al. 2004, 2007; Friocourt et al. 2006, 2008). Consequently, its target genes function in neuronal differentiation and axonal guidance, but also in synaptic activity (Seufert et al. 2005; Fulp et al. 2008). Many of these are correlated with schizophrenia, intellectual disability, autism(s) and depressive disorders, stressing the importance of Arx-regulated signaling pathways for development and functioning of the forebrain (Quillé et al. 2011).

Arx functions in multiple organs during vertebrate development (Miura et al. 1997; Biressi et al. 2008; Collombat et al. 2009; Djiotsa et al. 2012). Usually, genes with pleiotropic functions have multiple enhancers that orchestrate their regulation in time and space (Komisarczuk et al. 2009). Such regulatory domains can be very large and can encompass several genes of which one is the target gene of the enhancers as this was revealed by testing of human and zebrafish non-coding sequences in transgenic zebrafish (Navratilova et al. 2009, 2010; Fredman et al. 2009). Defined as genomic regulatory block (GRB), this contains the target gene, unrelated non-target genes and/or a gene desert harboring multiple regulatory sequences (Kikuta et al. 2007a, b; Becker and Lenhard 2007). A breakage within this region would disturb the regulation of the target gene and consequently a GRB is evolutionary conserved in all vertebrate genomes. About 300 of such large regulatory domains have been discovered, with the Arx gene locus being one of these (Engstrom et al. 2008).

A 41-kb tandem duplication of ARX and surrounding sequences was discovered in a patient with moderate non-syndromic XLID (Whibley et al. 2010). The upstream breakpoint in this patient is within the 5'untranslated UTR of ARX, leaving the duplicated copy without promoter. In consequence, the only genetic abnormality in this patient is a duplication of enhancers acting on ARX. A similar ARX duplication with a breakpoint within or near the 5'UTR of ARX has recently been described in an affected boy and his normal grandfather (Popovici et al. 2014). We identified four more ID patients with duplications including ARX and describe six cases that are available in DECIPHER database. The duplicated genomic regions vary in sizes and often include or break further genes. In order to shed light on the disturbed genetic mechanisms in these patients, we have analyzed the regulation of ARX in zebrafish.

Zebrafish and mammalian forebrains have many regional anatomical homologies. These were established by expression pattern similarities of evolutionary conserved genes, which function in the production of molecularly defined neural phenotypes both during development and adulthood (Osório et al. 2010; Mueller et al. 2011; Mueller 2012). For instance, regions such as the subpallium, the preoptic region, prethalamus and hypothalamus are defined by the activity of genes important for the production of GABAergic neurons (Mueller and Wullimann 2002; Filippi et al. 2014).

Using zebrafish transgenesis we established the longrange regulatory domain of ARX and identified enhancers to characterize their brain region-specific activity. Three of the enhancers mediate autoregulatory mechanisms that are likely critical to maintain proper expression levels of the gene in specific regions of the developing forebrain. The transgenic GFP lines served as in vivo markers to establish loss of function phenotypes within the labeled regions of Arx activity. Remarkably, inhibition of *arxa* function in embryos of these lines has revealed that *arxa/ARX* disturbances have very subtle effects on neuronal outgrowth and guidance that likely affect the formation of neuronal circuits. Without suitable markers and tools such delicate defects are usually overlooked and will remain mostly undiscovered in patients.

Our nomenclature for human, zebrafish and pan-vertebrate orthologs is *ARX*, *arxa* and *Arx*, respectively.

With this study, we exemplify how genomic rearrangements and duplications can cause brain region-specific expression level changes that result in relatively subtle neurological disturbances finding their appearance in a neuropsychiatric phenotype.

Materials and methods

Patients

The screening protocols were approved by the appropriate institution review boards and informed consent was obtained from the parents of patients. Genomic DNA from patients and healthy controls was isolated from peripheral blood according to standard procedures and stored at 4 °C.

Array cGH

Genomic DNA from patient and control samples was extracted from blood collected using EDTA as the anticoagulant. High-resolution chromosomal microarray and analysis was conducted by contributing cytogenetic diagnostic laboratories. UCSC Genome Browser (GRCh37/ hg19 build) Human Genome coordinates were used for the annotation of the copy number variants identified.

Zebrafish maintenance and staging

Zebrafish were maintained at 14 h light/10 h dark cycle at 28.7 °C. Embryos and larvae were staged according to established zebrafish protocols (Kimmel et al. 1995). Zebrafish maintenance and experiments had been in accordance with terms and conditions of the University of Sydney Animal Ethics Committee.

Computational analyses

The regulatory domain of ARX was defined by analyzing conserved gene order in vertebrate genomes. Synorth genome browser (Dong et al. 2009) was used to establish an overview, while the actual size and coordinates of the human synteny block was established by a method where smoothened HCNE densities were used to estimate the edges followed by visual inspection on Ancora browser (Engstrom et al. 2008). Conserved non-coding sequences were extracted using the following thresholds: humanmouse >96 % over 50 bp, human-mouse >90 % over 50 bp and human-frog >70 % over 50 bp. In addition, we determined the most conserved sequences in the ARX locus by utilizing blastn search with human (GRCh37) and mouse (mm9, chrX:89473103-91500000) genome sequences (Berman et al. 2000). We also compared to ENCODE data, as DNAse hypersensitive sites (DHS) and ChIP sequencing signals predict enhancers. However, almost all available datasets had been generated in non-neural cell lines, and most elements did not reveal specificities in public datasets other than DHS. Some were identified as enhancers through p300 ChIP sequencing and subsequent validation in the mouse (Vista Enhancer Browser; http://enhancer.lbl. gov/). The coordinates and lengths of all tested elements as well as reference data are listed in Supplement Table 1.

The JASPAR CORE database (http://jaspar.cgb.ki.se/) (Sandelin et al. 2004a) and ConSite (http://consite.genereg. net/cgi-bin/consite) (Sandelin et al. 2004b) were used to identify the putative transcription factor binding sites (TFBSs). The TFBSs were selected using human and mouse matrices with thresholds above 95 %.

Zebrafish reporter gene transgenesis and constructs

Sequences chosen for testing were PCR amplified from human genomic DNA. The fragments were cloned upstream of a gata2 promoter into a Tol2-GFP reporter gene vector and purified construct DNA was injected into fertilized zebrafish eggs. Cloning procedure, microinjection, raising and screening of fish as well as imaging have been described in detail (Ishibashi et al. 2013). For each construct at least four positive founders were isolated to give rise to independent transgenic lines and F1 embryos were used for GFP expression pattern analyses. For the expression of Gal4, the GFP was exchanged with a 'Kal4' (Distel et al. 2009) in the Tol2 reporter gene construct. For overexpression of arxa, a Tol2 reporter gene construct was modified in two steps to co-express the cDNA and a red fluorescent mCherry as a marker. First, a bidirectional $5 \times \text{UAS-E1b}$ promoter sequence was inserted in between

mCherry and a Gateway[®] recombination cassette, second, an SV40 sequence was inserted upstream of the GW cassette. Zebrafish *arxa* cDNA was amplified from a cDNA clone (IMAGE:9038800, gene bank ID: BC163872) with following primer sequences: forward CGAGCACGACT-GAGGACGAT, reverse GGATCAGCACACTTCTTC-CCT and then subcloned into pCR8 plasmid to create an entry vector. A clone containing *arxa* cDNA in reverse orientation was used for Gateway recombination into the Tol2 destination vector. The construct was injected into wildtype TAB fish and fish grown to adulthood were crossed with ARX_enhancer:Kal4 fish to be screened for red expression and to establish a F1 generation. F2 embryos resulting from incrossed F1 fish were used for analysis.

Whole mount anti-GFP staining

Antibody stainings were carried out according to a protocol described previously (Punnamoottil et al. 2008; Turner et al. 2014). Primary antibodies: rabbit polyclonal anti-GFP antibody (AMS Biotechnology cat # TP401) at 1:1000; mouse monoclonal anti acetylated tubulin (Sigma cat # T7451) 1:400. Secondary antibodies were used from Life Technologies: Alexa Fluor[®] 488 goat anti-rabbit (A-11034) and Alexa Fluor[®] 594 Chicken Anti-Mouse (A-21201). Cell nuclei were visualized using DAPI (10 µg/ml in PBT at room temperature for 1 h).

Whole mount in situ hybridization

Embryos were fixed in 4 % paraformaldehyde overnight at 4 °C, then subsequently dehydrated in a series of methanol/PBT (0.1 % Tween-20) and then stored at -20 °C. The hybridization followed a standard zebrafish protocol to be stained by an alkaline phosphatase-mediated NBT/BCIP staining reaction (Oxtoby and Jowett 1993). Sectioning was described in Punnamoottil et al. (2008). The DNA template for *arxa* probe synthesis was kindly provided by the Kitamura laboratory and linearized with *SacI* to be transcribed with T3 polymerase (Miura et al. 1997). DIG-labeled RNA probe was used at a concentration of 1 ng/µl hybridization buffer.

Fluorescent in situ protocol was modified from Machluf and Levkowitz (2011). Hybridization solution contained 2 % dextran sulphate and probe was used at 2-4 ng/ml. Probe was detected using DIG POD antibody (Roche 11207733910) and color was developed using Tyramide Signal Amplification (TSA) kit#25 (Molecular Probes by Life Technologies # T-20935). For co-labeling with GFP antibody, the embryos were washed 5 times for 15 min with PBT (0.15 % Triton-X) and processed according to standard immunostaining protocol as described above. Anatomical nomenclature followed the 'Atlas of early zebrafish brain development' by Mueller and Wullimann (2005).

Morpholino injections

Arxa translation was inhibited using two morpholinos (MOs) that had been described in our previous study (Djiotsa et al. 2012). The first targets the intron 2–exon 2 splice junction (5'GCGTCATATTTACCTGGTGAACACA) and the second targets the ATG (5'TCGTCGTCGTACTGACT-GCTCATGA). The MOs were diluted with 0.05 % phenol red and 2 ng of the splice-MO compared to 3 ng of the ATG-MO were injected into the yolk at the 1-cell stage.

Morpholino information for dlx2 genes is available through zfin.org (MO1-dlx2a, MO1-dlx2b; Jackman and Stock 2006) and target the 5UTR/ATG. dlx2a: 5-TGAG-GCTGTCAAAAACTCCAGTCAT-3; Dlx2b: 5-GCTG-TACTTCCTAACAGTTAATAGT-3. The Morpholinos had been prepared as 250 μ M solution and were co-injected in the amount of 7.6 ng (3.8 ng each).

For injection, zebrafish eggs were collected from a transgenic parent outcrossed against wild-type fish. 100 fertilized eggs were injected with the antisense-morpholino and another 100 with a standard-control-Morpholino, further 100 were kept non-injected. Embryos were analyzed at 2 and 3 dpf by fluorescent microscopy using an inverted microscope (Leica DMIL LED). 15–20 embryos each batch were embedded into 2 % methylcellulose in water and imaged. Ten of these were selected randomly for fluorescent intensity measurements by confocal microscopy on day 3.

Confocal imaging and quantification

Imaging was performed with a Zeiss LSM 710 confocal microscope using Zen software. Embryos were mounted in 1–1.5 % low melting point agarose (Sigma A9414) in a glass-bottom petri dish. For fluorescent intensity measurements each embryo was quickly scanned to define the appropriate parameters, which allowed signal acquisition for all samples without pixel saturation. All embryos (*arxa* inhibited and controls) were then scanned using the same parameters including laser intensity, pinhole, detector gain, scan speed, temperature and objective. An average of 90 slices per embryos were generated. Integrated fluorescent density minus background was then evaluated for each projection using image J and analyzed using Microsoft Excel. Data obtained were compared using a *t* test.

Adult brain analyses

In situ hybridization

3- to 9-month-old wild-type fish (AB strain) were culled in ice-water, decapitated and the dissected brains were fixed in 4 % formaldehyde (wt/vol) overnight at 4 °C. Brains were dehydrated in ascending MeOH series (25–100 %, 5 min each) and kept at -20 °C until use. The brains were rehydrated in descending MeOH series and were permeabilized by a 30-min treatment with proteinase K (10 µg/ml; P6556, Sigma) and prehybridized for 3 h at 65 °C. Hybridization was performed at 65 °C for 18 h in hybridization buffer containing DIG-labeled arxa probe (Miura et al. 1997) at a concentration of 2 ng/ μ l. After hybridization, the brains were embedded in 3 % agarose and 80-µm-thick cross sections were cut using a vibratome. The sections were blocked in blocking buffer (2 % normal goat serum, 2 mg/ ml bovine serum albumin), incubated with anti-DIG AP Fab fragments (sheep, Roche, 1:5000) and the signal was developed with NBT/BCIP. For double in situ hybridization/immunohistochemistry staining on transgenic brains, in situ hybridization was performed first and developed with SIGMAFAST Fast red/TR Naphthol (Sigma), and then the sections were rinsed in PBT and directly processed for immunohistochemistry.

Immunohistochemistry on free-floating sections

50- μ m-thick vibratome sections were blocked in blocking buffer (10 % goat serum, 0.5 % Triton X-100 in phosphate-buffered saline) for 1 h at RT. The following primary antibodies were used: GFP (chicken, 1:500, Aves Laboratories), HuC/D (mouse, 1:600, Invitrogen), S100 β (rabbit, 1:2000, Dako) and TH (mouse, 1:500, Chemicon MAB318, recognizes TH1) diluted in blocking buffer. Secondary antibodies raised in goat coupled to AlexaFluor dyes (Invitrogen) were used in 1:1000 dilutions for 2 h at RT. At least two brains were analyzed for each transgenic line.

Image acquisition

Pictures of the ISH on sections were taken on a Nikon AZ100 microscope equipped with a Nikon DS Ri1 camera. Fluorescent images were taken on a Zeiss LSM700 confocal microscope using $20 \times \text{air}$, $40 \times \text{oil}$ or $63 \times \text{oil}$ immersion objectives. Images were processed using the ZEN software (Zeiss). Composite images were automatically stitched upon acquisition using 'Tilescan' mode on the Zeiss ZEN software. Anatomical nomenclature followed Wullimann et al. 1996 (Neuroanatomy of the Zebrafish brain, A topological atlas).

Results

Genomic dosage imbalances in patients with XLID

Patients with various neurodevelopmental problems, intellectual disability and autism were identified to have duplications encompassing the *ARX* gene locus. Table 1 lists the

patients (P) in the order as they appear in Fig. 1 and provides specificities. P505 is a previously reported patient, who displays moderate non-syndromic intellectual disability and has a 41-kb tandem duplication that includes ARX and part of POLA1 (Whibley et al. 2010). P1 presents with speech delay mild intellectual disability and hypotonia, but has a 400-kb duplication with breakage of POLA1. P2, the mother of P1 has only mild learning difficulties. P3 and his sister P4 have poor growth and delayed speech. Their maternally inherited duplication encompasses all of POLA1 and 19 kb sequence upstream of ARX, which is in antisense direction. DECIPHER has recorded six further male patients (DP1-5), who presented with phenotypes including intellectual disability with speech and/or language delay. Other comorbidities include autism, ADHD and poor growth. All duplications encompass ARX and have breakpoints in POLA1, except DP1 and DP2, with a full duplication of POLA1 and disruption of PCYT1B.

One more case was mapped, P5, who presented with autism and mild developmental delay. The 0.549 Mb duplication is approximately 100 kb downstream of *ARX* and includes *PCYT1B*, *PDK3*, while *POLA1* appears disrupted. In contrast, DECIPHER patient DP6, who inherited from a normal parent a 9-kb small deletion 70 kb upstream of *ARX*, does not present any particular phenotype.

Although some of the duplications are larger and include duplications of *POLA1* (P3, P4, DP1, DP2) as well as breakage of *POLA1* (P1/P2, DP3, DP4, DP5) and *PCYT1B* (DP1, DP2), these genes are not associated with central nervous system disorders.

The long-range regulatory domain of *ARX* and search for enhancers

Conserved synteny of human ARX and surrounding HCNEs with the zebrafish genome was used as criterion to identify the regulatory domain of the gene. ARX is in conserved gene order with PDK3-PCYT1B-POLA1 in most vertebrates. In zebrafish the synteny block is split into pdk3apcyt1ba and pola1-arxa [illustrated in Synorth genome browser (Dong et al. 2009)], suggesting that the majority of the enhancers regulating ARX are within the POLA1-ARX region. This locus contains 88 sequences with more than 96 % conservation over 50 bp between human and mouse (red bars in Fig. 2a). The density of such highly conserved non-coding sequences (HCNEs) is highest around ARX and extends into POLA1. Fourteen of these sequences with highest conservation score in blastn searches and a further 12 sequences conserved more than 70 % over 50 bp between human and frog genomes (green bars in Fig. 2a) were tested for enhancer function by reporter gene transgenesis in zebrafish (hs1-hs26, coordinates and primers listed in Suppl. Table 1). In addition, we chose

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Global	Gender	Clinical description	Inheritance	Gain	Variant coordinates (hg19) and size	Genes involved	Duplicated enhanc- ers	Other chromosomal abnormalities/com- ments	References
P505	Male	Moderate non- syndromic intel- lectual disability	Familial	GAIN of 41 kb	chrX:24992914- 25033979	ARX	hs8a, hs8b, hs9		Whibley et al. (2010)
Id	Male	Mild intellectual disability, speech delay and hypo- tonia	Familial	GAIN of 0.4 Mb	chrX:24887676- 25325777	ARX, POLA1	hs2, hs8a, hs8b, hs9	I	This study
P2	Female	Learning difficulties	Familial (mother of P1)	GAIN of 0.4 Mb	chrX:24887676– 25325777	ARX, POLA1	hs2, hs8a, hs8b, hs9	I	This study
P3	Male	Developmental delay, growth retardation, delayed speech	Familial	GAIN of 0.377 Mb	chrX: 24677441– 25054698	ARX , POLA1,	hs2, hs8a, hs8b, hs9	GAIN of Xp11.4 region span- ning a min 0.071 Mb and max 0.161 Mb. Duplicates part of TSPAN7 gene, familial, unclear clinical signifi- cance	This study
P4	Female	Short stature and speech delay	Familial (sister of P3)	Gain of 0.377 Mb	chrX: 24677441– 25054698	ARX, POLA1,	hs2, hs8a, hs8b, hs9	I	This study
Decipher 253498 DP1	Male	Severe intellec- tual disability, microphthalmia, growth retarda- tion, bisuspic aortic valve No phenotype reported in Decipher	Familial	Gain of 0.45 Mb	chrX:24593306- 25033815	ARX, POLAI, PCYTIB	hs2, hs8a, hs8b, hs9		Popovici et al. (2014) (P2)
Decipher P265145 DP2 DP2	Male	Autism, hyperactivity, delayed speech and language development, ADHD, other physical abnormalities	Unknown	Gain of 0.58 Mb	chrX:24650157- 25230368	ARX , POLA1, PCYTB1	hs2, hs8a, hs8b, hs9	I	Popovici et al. (2014) (P4)

Table 1 cont	tinued								
Global	Gender	Clinical description	Inheritance	Gain	Variant coordinates (hg19) and size	Genes involved	Duplicated enhanc- ers	Other chromosomal abnormalities/com- ments	References
Decipher 266096 DP3	Male	Generalized hypotonia, microcephaly, other physical abnormalities	Unknown	Gain of 0.81 Mb	chrX:24741372- 25554818	ARX , POLA1	hs2, hs8a, hs8b, hs9, hs13	1	
Decipher P250183 DP4	Male	Delayed speech and language development, psychiatric abnormalities, hyperactivity, intellectual dis- ability, dysarthria	De novo	Gain of 0.72 Mb	chrX:24815107– 25542728	ARX , POLAI	hs2, hs8a, hs8b, hs9, hs13	Gain of Xq25 of 0.41 Mb includ- ing STAG2 and XIAP—inherited from normal par- ent—unknown pathogenicity	Popovici et al. (2014) (P5)
Decipher P277835 DP5	Male	Moderate intellectual disability	Familial	Gain of 0.3 Mb	chrX:24861601– 25163763	ARX , POLA1	hs2, hs8a, hs8b, hs9	I	
52	Male	Autism and mild developmental delay	Unknown	Gain of 0.549 Mb	ChrX:24351258– 24900393	POLAI, PCYTIB, PDK3	hs2	GAIN of 3q11.1q11.2 of 0.929, incl. PROS1 and ARL13B. No clear clinical relevance for duplication of these genes. GAIN 4q35.2 of 0.597 Mb; GAIN 11.2q12 of 0.439 Mb. No disease associated with gains	This study
Decipher P267095 DP6	Male	No phenotype recorded in Decipher	Familial	Loss of 0.09 Mb	Xp21.3	I	1	I	

Patients (P) are listed in the order as they appear in Fig. 1. Clinical description, duplication details and other specificities are provided

two sequences that were identified as poised enhancers in human embryonic stem cells with the prediction that these would be active in differentiated cells and tissues (Rada-Iglesias et al. 2011). hs8 was separated into hs8a and hs8b.

Mouse orthologous sequences of hs2, hs3, hs8a and hs8b were found to bind enhancer-associated protein p300 in the developing forebrain (Visel et al. 2009).

In our assay 19 sequences drove GFP expression in defined tissues in at least two out of four independent transgenic zebrafish lines (Fig. 2b, c; Suppl. Table 1). As defined by the major *arxa* expression domains in zebrafish (telencephalon, diencephalon and floor plate), we further established if these regulate *ARX* specifically (Fig. 2c). Sequences hs2, hs8a, hs8b, hs9 and hs13 had specific activity and were identified as enhancers of *ARX* (Fig. 2d, e). The other sequences may influence *ARX* gene regulation, but were not conclusive.

Brain region-specific enhancer activity of ARX

We found that zebrafish *arxa* is strongly expressed in GABAergic forebrain regions, i.e., the subpallium, the preoptic region, the ventral thalamus, the (caudal) hypothalamus and the ventral posterior tubercular region (Fig. 2e; Suppl. Figure 1). Weak expression was also detected in the developing dorsal telencephalon (pallium) and the thalamic eminence, both of which at this stage are thought to consist of primarily glutamatergic neurons. These expression domains are highly consistent with findings in mice (Colombo et al. 2004), suggesting that *arxa* and *Arx* have a conserved role in GABAergic neuron specification and migration from fish to mammals. In addition *arxa* and *Arx* may function in the development of glutamatergic territories such as the thalamic eminence and pallium. Figure 2f illustrates the gross similarities between the zebrafish and Fig. 2 Mapping of ARX cis-regulatory activity in the developing ▶ zebrafish brain. a Custom-modified UCSC genome browser window comprising 1.86 Mb of the human X-chromosome (hg19). The ARX transcription factor gene is located downstream of POLA1 and transcribed in antisense direction. The colored little bars represent non-coding sequences conserved in the genomes of mouse (dark and bright red), opossum (blue), frog (green), and zebrafish (dark blue). The red hill above reflects their density. Highly conserved non-coding element (HCNE) density is highest around ARX and POLA1. The grey bars at the bottom show elements that we tested in zebrafish. b The expanded window of 623 kb shows detailed location of tested sequences (excluding hs16, which lies almost 300 kb downstream of hs13) that were taken into analysis. Elements were categorized according to their regulatory activity. Red-colored enhancers acted highly consistent in isolation from the genomic locus, whereas greencolored sequences expressed variable activity. c Percentage of recurrence of GFP reporter gene expression in arx transcript positive tissues in at least four different transgenic zebrafish lines for each of the tested sequence. d Representative images of transgenic 2.5 dpf embryos with ARX brain enhancers regulated GFP. Arrows point to the expression domains in a color code that corresponds to the anatomical descriptions in e. e Simplified zones of arx expression in 2-3 dpf zebrafish embryos in lateral view. f The telencephalon compared between zebrafish and mammals in illustrations of transverse sections. The red-colored lines point to different morphogenesis (eversion in zebrafish versus evagination in mammals). These schematics are modified after Folgueira et al. (2012)

the mammalian telencephalon (modified from Folgueira et al. (2012).

The specific regulatory activities of the brain enhancers were analyzed in more detail by confocal imaging of transgenic embryos (Fig. 3a–e) and colocalization of the GFP with *arxa* mRNA transcripts was confirmed (Suppl. Figure 2). hs2 regulates a broad pattern within the GFP expression domain covering clusters of neurons in the dorsomedial and ventral telencephalon, the dorsolateral ventral thalamus, the preoptic region, the caudal hypothalamus, the midbrain basal plate and hindbrain floorplate (Fig. 3a). In contrast to hs2, hs8b regulates expression in



Fig. 1 Duplications of *ARX* and its regulatory domain in patients with ID. UCSC browser (hg19) window with view on *ARX*, flanking UCSC genes and genomic rearrangements in patients (P) 505 and one to five and six additional cases identified from DECIPHER (DP1-6).

The *blue bars* indicate the extent of the duplications in males, and *teal bar* in a female, with the *red bar* indicating a deletion in a male. The location of *ARX* enhancers as identified in this study are indicated below





Fig. 3 *ARX*-enhancer regulated reporter expression in the brain. Confocal microscopy images of representative *ARX*-enhancer regulated fluorescent reporter expression. Horizontal sections of 2 and 3 dpf embryos are shown if not labeled otherwise. **a** hs2:GFP embryos at 2 dpf in three orientations. The horizontal optical section is comparable to the horizontal section in **b** and shows that hs2 regulated GFP is only in the dorsolateral region of the VT, whereas hs8b labels all VT. The series of transverse sections leads from anterior to posterior through the forebrain and provides a frontal view. **b** hs8b regulated GFP in the ventral thalamus (VT) at 2 dpf. *White arrows* point to the habenular commissure, the *green arrow* marks fibers that project ventrally. **c** Enhancers hs8a and hs13 drive very similar expression in the dorsal telencephalon at 3 dpf, images of a double transgenic embryo.

the whole ventral thalamus and the GFP distributes in projections leading into the habenular commissure (Fig. 3b) (Wilson et al. 1990; Barresi et al. 2005). hs8a has

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hs13 regulated Gal4-UAS:Kaede shown as 3D image with 90° rotation below, visualizes projections between the telencephalon and the ventral diencephalon. **d** Co-regulated hs8a:mCherry and hs8b:GFP at 3 dpf shows almost complementary activity. *Orange arrows point* to neuronal projections originating dorsolateral and projecting posterior, and *grey arrows* mark fibers originating medial and projecting dorsolateral. **e** Combined activity of hs8a and hs8b in element hs8. Transverse optical sections through the forebrain are at two levels with the *upper image* being further dorsal. *AC* anterior commissure, *F* floor plate, *H* hypothalamus, *Hc* caudate hypothalamus, *Hi* intermediate hypothalamus, *OT* optic tectum, *P* pallium, *Po* preoptic region, *S* subpallium, *Tel* telencephalon (dorsal), *VT* ventral thalamus

regulatory functions in the dorsomedial telencephalon, the anterodorsal ventral thalamus, the ventral posterior tuberculum and the caudal hypothalamus (Fig. 3c). The strong activity of hs8a in the dorsal telencephalon (i.e., pallium) was found in contrast to arxa expression, which is normally only weak in this region (compare to Fig. 2f; Suppl. Figure 1). Despite the small overlap in the anterodorsal ventral thalamus, hs8a and hs8b fragments have almost mutually exclusive regulatory activity (see double labeling image in Fig. 3d), which is combined when both sequences are tested together in one construct (Fig. 3e). Neuronal projections in hs8a and hs8b:GFP transgenic larvae were strongly labeled and were analyzed in detail (Suppl. Figure 3). hs13 drove GFP in a very similar pattern to hs8a in the dorsal telencephalon, posterior tuberculum and caudal hypothalamus at 3 dpf (Fig. 3c); however, at 1 dpf and at later stages the activity of the enhancers differed (Suppl. Figure 4). In summary, all enhancers have distinct, but also overlapping functions in regulating ARX expression in the developing forebrain.

ARX enhancer activity in the adult brain

arxa expression pattern was established in the adult zebrafish brain and the activity of the identified enhancers was compared. Only hs2 was found to act specifically in adults. arxa transcripts were detected in the dorsal nucleus of the ventral telencephalon (Fig. 4a, Vd), which corresponds to the dorsal subpallium and is equivalent to the striatum in mammals (Rink and Wullimann 2004). hs2 was found to be active in this region, but the expression was mosaic (Fig. 4a). Posterior of the Vd, arxa transcripts were detected in the supracommissural nucleus of the ventral telencephalic area and in the ventromedial thalamic nucleus (data not shown). arxa mRNA was further identified in the caudo-ventral diencephalon, including in the periventricular nucleus of the posterior tuberculum (TPp), where a small subpopulation of neurons was positive for tyrosine hydroxylase 1 (TH) (Fig. 4b). The posterior tuberculum contains dopaminergic neurons and its axonal projections into the dorsal subpallium had identified both structures as the equivalent of the nigro-striatal system in mammals (Rink and Wullimann 2001; Wullimann and Mueller 2004; Forlano and Bass 2011). hs2-driven GFP overlapped arxa mRNA in the TPp, but again was mosaic (Fig. 4b). GFP was also seen in areas where arxa transcripts were either below detection levels or absent: in the ventral nucleus of the ventral telencephalon (Vv), dorsally to neurons of the medial zone of dorsal telencephalon (Dm) and in the posterior zone of the dorsal telencephalon (Dp) (Fig. 4a).

Since hs2 extends its regulatory function into adult stages, it might be possible that this enhancer may control expression of *ARX* in processes relating to neuronal function or maintenance.

Negative autoregulation of ARX in the developing brain

Arx gene regulation is known to respond to Dlx2 (Colasante et al. 2008) and we wondered if ARX-transgenic lines would function as sensors to establish which of the enhancers would respond to dlx2. Morpholino antisense oligonucleotides (MO) were used to inhibit dlx2a and dlx2b translation and it was subsequently established whether the enhancers had altered activity as evaluated by increased or decreased GFP expression. No significant changes in GFP expression and on arxa transcript level could be detected. We next asked if identified ARX enhancers would mediate autoregulatory functions in the brain (Fig. 5a). The knockdown of arxa in hs9:GFP and hs13:GFP embryos had no significant effect on enhancer activity (Suppl. Figure 5a), while the GFP in hs2 and hs8a transgenic embryos was significantly upregulated and indicated that Arxa normally has a suppressive effect on these enhancers (Suppl. Figures 5b, c). Knockdown of arxa in line hs8b:GFP altered the GFP expression domain. The GFP disappeared from the medial ventral thalamus, while expression in the lateral ventral thalamus became stronger (red asterisks in Fig. 5a, d).

We next asked if a negative autoregulation was reflected at the *arxa* transcript level. In situ hybridization analysis of arxa morphants compared to controls revealed an accumulation of *arxa* transcripts in the developing brain (Fig. 5b). This identified domains of low-level transcription in wild-type embryos (Fig. 5b). One example is the normally very weak expression of *arxa* in the pallium of wild-type embryos (compare section 1 in Fig. 5c to section 1 in Suppl. Figure 1). Another example is the telencephalic migrated area that normally had only very faint staining (compare section 2 in Fig. 5c to sections 2, 3 in Suppl. Figure 1).

In summary, we have discovered a negative autoregulatory feedback mechanism of *ARX* that is mediated through hs2, hs8a and hs8b enhancers. In addition, hs8b may require activation through ARX in the medial ventral thalamus.

Brain region-specific positive autoregulation of ARX

In order to test a putative positive feedback mechanism in *ARX* regulation, we overexpressed zebrafish *arxa* cDNA using hs8a, hs8b and hs13 enhancers. In this experimental design increased fluorescent expression should be seen when Arxa transcription factor would signal back to the enhancer (either directly or indirectly). Transgenic lines in which hs8a, hs8b and hs13 drive a Gal4 were crossed into transgenic lines carrying a bidirectional UAS:arxa/:mCherry cassette. F2 larvae expressed mCherry and *arxa* cDNA in enhancer-specific brain regions and were compared to specimen not overexpressing *arxa* (Fig. 6).

A definitive effect of Arxa on hs13 could not be established (data not shown). hs8a-driven overexpression of *arxa* increased activation of the enhancer in the medial ventral thalamus (Fig. 6a), which is a strong regulatory domain only at 1 dpf (Suppl. Figure 4). This was in contrast to hs8a activity in the telencephalon, which appeared unaltered or perhaps weaker. hs8b responded to increased Arxa with enhanced activity in the medial part of the ventral thalamus where neurons projecting laterally were strongly labeled (Fig. 6b). The complex positive and negative autoregulation through hs8a and hs8b is illustrated in Fig. 6c. Of note, hs8a-driven overexpression of *arxa* in the telencephalon caused variable malformations becoming obvious by displacement of the eyes towards the midline (Suppl. Figure 6).

We concluded from our experiments that *ARX* is positively autoregulated in the ventral thalamus, which occurs at sequences that are within hs8a and hs8b enhancers.

Knockdown of *arxa* disturbs ventral thalamic and telencephalic development

Abrogated arxa function led to disturbances in ventral forebrain development as visualized by hs8a and hs8b-driven GFP. GFP served as marker for neurons with arxa identity and since this distributes uniformly in the cell, neuronal projections are also visible as described in Suppl. Figure 3a-d. Arxa antisense morpholinos were injected into fertilized eggs of hs8a and hs8b transgenic lines and GFP-labeled neuronal projections were analyzed at 3 and 6 dpf and compared to those of control embryos (Fig. 7a, b). Prominently and as described above (Fig. 4), hs8b driven GFP was missing from the medial domain of the ventral thalamus (marked by the red asterisk in Fig. 7a). In contrast, the lateral expression domain was slightly expanded, which resulted in a more prominent fiber bundle originating in this region (orange arrows in Fig. 7a). Neuronal projections that originate in the medial ventral thalamus and that project into the tectum (blue arrows in Fig. 7a) were strongly reduced (blue asterisks). In addition to the phenotype observed in the ventral thalamus at 3 dpf, we detected increased fiber outgrowth towards the telencephalon in the morphants at 6 dpf (pink arrows in Fig. 7b) and caudally directed projections (orange arrows) appeared disorganized at that stage.

hs8a:GFP specimen label the anterior commissure, which connects the left and right hemispheres and crosses in the ventral telencephalon (Suppl. Figure 3). This appeared diffuse and with fewer projections in arxa knockdown specimen as shown in representative horizontal optical sections in Fig. 7c (yellow arrows). Using GFPlabeled anterior commissure and ventral posterior tuberculum as markers, the horizontal views also illustrate that Fig. 4 Adult brain analysis. Expression of arxa as revealed by chromogenic in situ hybridization and expression of hs2-enhancer-regulated GFP in the adult zebrafish brain. Representative transverse sections document arxa mRNA distribution and are compared to confocal optical sections of immunostained hs2:GFP brains. The levels of sections are indicated in the schematics. a The yellow arrow points to arxa mRNA transcripts in the Vd. A corresponding section labels GFP (green) with a DAPI counterstain in hs2 transgenic line and indicates the localization of four nuclei that carry abbreviations (see below). The rectangle in the schematic indicates the photographed area shown in the magnified images below: First row an overlap of fluorescent arxa hybridization signal and hs2:GFP in Vd is marked by the yellow arrows; second row triple immunostaining for GFP (green), HuC/D (labeling neurons, magenta) and S100β (labeling radial glial cells, blue) shows that GFP mostly labels neurons (red arrows) and occasional radial glial cells (blue arrows). b Focus is on arxa expression domain in the periventricular posterior tuberculum. The *rectangle* indicates the region that is magnified in the images below. Images of a single confocal optical section show co-expression of hs2:GFP and arxa mRNA (marked by the yellow arrows). A small subpopulation of arxa-positive cells also expressed TH1 (white arrows). Dm medial zone of the dorsal telencephalon, Dp posterior zone of the dorsal telencephalon, PTv ventral posterior tuberculum, TPp periventricular nucleus of the posterior tuberculum, Vd dorsal nucleus of the ventral telencephalon, Vv ventral nucleus of the ventral telencephalon

the anterior-posterior axis of the ventral telencephalon and diencephalon was shortened (red and yellow bars in Fig. 7c). This points to more severe disturbances in the ventral forebrain after knockdown of *arxa*.

In conclusion, the specific reporter lines facilitated the detection of morphological and neuronal wiring defects in the ventral forebrain when *arxa* function is disturbed and will provide useful in vivo tools for future functional studies on *arxa*.

Discussion

This study has identified several novel patients and collected information on existing patients with moderate intellectual disability presenting delay of speech development as their common symptoms, with all of them having genomic duplications that include the transcription factor gene *ARX*. The duplications vary in sizes and include further genes, of which none are correlated with brain diseases.

Having mapped the regulatory domain of *ARX* the duplicated genomic fragments, breakpoints and cis-regulation can now be put into context (for overview see Fig. 1 and Table 1 lists duplicated enhancers). Five *ARX* brain enhancers are located within 504 kb around the gene and reveal that this genomic region is highly functional and interactive and that duplications, dependent on the specific breakpoints, will disturb gene regulatory mechanisms by enhancer displacement. The identified enhancers are specifically active in the telencephalon, ventral thalamus, preoptic region, posterior tuberculum, caudal hypothalamus and floorplate with partially overlapping



functions. Overlapping enhancer functions are known to regulate genes with complex spatio-temporal expression patterns and it is thought that these are critical to fine tune transcript dose (Komisarczuk et al. 2009; McBride et al. 2011). The function of redundant enhancers is also to

provide robust buffering in differing environmental conditions (Hong et al. 2008; Frankel et al. 2010; Perry et al. 2010).

The duplication of patient 505, which displays a nonsyndromic intellectual disability, exemplifies critical ARX



arx wildtype

Fig. 5 *ARX* negative autoregulation in the forebrain. arxa function was inhibited in ARX_enhancer:GFP lines by injection of antisense morpholino oligonucleotides (MO). GFP intensity was used as a measure to assess the activity of the enhancers (**a**). **a** 2 dpf embryos are shown in different orientations. hs2 and hs8a regulated GFP was significantly enhanced in arxa-inhibited embryos. hs8b-regulated domain missed GFP in the medial part of the ventral thalamus (marked by a *red asterisk*). Differences in hs9 and hs13-regulated GFP expression could not be established. See also Suppl. Figures 5 and 6. **b** *arxa* in situ hybridizations of 3 dpf embryos. The regions expressing *arxa* are labeled with *arrows* in a color-code described in Figs. 1f and 7c. *Fine lines* carry further descriptions that use nomenclature established in the 'Atlas of the developing zebrafish brain', Mueller and Wullimann (2005) (Elsevier). arxa MO injected

gene regulatory functions (Fig. 8). P505 has a relatively small tandem duplication including ARX and downstream enhancers (except hs2). We found the breakpoint in 5'untranslated UTR, which implicates that the promoter is missing from the duplicated copy. Consequently, the additional coding sequence cannot be transcribed, but the duplicated enhancers, in proximity to the original promoter, have most likely additional regulatory influence on ARX. In contrast, hs2, normally

and control embryos (control MO and non-injected, NI) had same staining times, but the morphants developed much quicker a very strong signal indicating increased *arxa* transcript levels. A wild-type embryo with longer staining time was added to the panel for proper expression pattern comparison. Black arrows point to the medial ventral thalamus (VT) where transcripts were missing in the morphants. **c** Two transverse sections through arxa morphants provide further details. **d** The area in the medial VT that missed transcripts (around the proliferative zone flanking the 3rd ventricle, see in **c**) also missed hs8b regulated GFP (horizontal and transverse confocal optical sections). *DT* dorsal thalamus, *M4* telencephalic migrated area, *Sd* dorsal division of subpallium, *Sv* ventral division of subpallium, *TeO* tectum opticum

located 112 kb downstream of *ARX*, is brought further away and its regulatory influence is likely diminished. The gene regulatory deficits in this patient could be exacerbated by disturbed autoregulatory mechanisms as enhancers hs2, hs8a and hs8b respond differentially to decreased and increased Arxa levels in the zebrafish model (Figs. 5, 6; Suppl. Figure 5).

Decipher patient 1 (DP1), presenting with severe intellectual disability, could be exemplary for a duplicated

a hs8a:Gal4-UAS:arxa/mCherry



b hs8b:Gal4-UAS:arxa/mCherry





Fig. 6 *ARX* positive autoregulation in the ventral thalamus. Confocal imaging of larvae expressing *arxa* cDNA and co-regulated mCherry. Shown are representative transverse optical sections at two different levels from dorsal to further ventral. Control images are from UAS:Kaede expressing larvae and carry morphological descriptions. **a** hs8a-regulated overexpression of *arxa* in the dorsomedial telencephalon as well as weakly in the medial region of the ventral thalamus (VT). The weak activity of hs8a in the VT triggered a positive autoregulation that led to activation of the enhancer as indicated by strong expression of the mCherry (marked by the *green arrows*).

ARX copy that may also lack the promoter (the inner breakpoint of the 14 kb mapped interval is in exon 1 at chrX:25,033,815), but since the breakpoint downstream of *ARX* is far beyond hs2, the gene regulatory domain of the original gene (as defined through the location of the five brain enhancers) appears non-disturbed. This patient was described in Popovici et al. (2014) as Patient 2, whereas his grandfather (Patient 3—duplication of unknown inheritance pattern) from whom he had inherited the duplication appeared normal. Another patient presented in this study (Patient 1) with a de novo *ARX* duplication covering a region 32 kb downstream of hs2 to 1.7 kb downstream of hs13 (chrX:24,861,402-25,398,496) also presented without

b hs8b activated overexpression of *arxa* in the ventral thalamus. Neuronal projections leading dorsolateral (*grey arrows*) appeared increased. The expression domain appeared widened and changed the triangle into a square shape. This is due to increased labeling of fibers growing from medially located neurons towards lateral in the ventral half of the expression domain (pointed out by the *green arrows*). **c** Summary of *ARX* positive and negative autoregulatory mechanisms through hs8a and hs8b enhancers as established through overexpression of *arxa* and arxa morpholino inhibition. Basically, *ARX* enhancers respond brain region-specific to Arxa

ID. It has to be mentioned that the two patients presenting without ID were not tested for mosaicism (Popovici et al. 2014). Somatic mosaicism for CNVs has been underappreciated (Campbell et al. 2015), and in these individuals it could potentially explain why they are not affected. The absence of *ARX* duplications in the Database of Genomic Variants and subcellular mislocalization of overexpressed *ARX* (Shoubridge et al. 2010) as well as the effect of *ARX* overexpression on its known targets, *LMO1* and *SHOX2* (Shoubridge et al. 2012), suggest that high ARX protein dosage is likely detrimental to the cell. Alternatively, the non-ID phenotypes of patients with *ARX* duplications may point to a variable phenotype penetrance, which may also



Fig. 7 Morphological changes as visualized by hs8b and hs8a regulated GFP. **a** hs8b regulated GFP-labeled VT. Transverse optical sections of anti-GFP/anti-acetylated tubulin co-stained embryos provide frontal views and show that the habenular commissure (*white arrows*) developed normal. Horizontal z-stack images lead through the dorsal and medial VT expression domain in live imaged specimen. Projections from VT into OT (*blue arrows*) were reduced and missing (*blue asterisks*). GFP appeared enhanced and expanded in the lateral domain with originating axonal projections leading posteriorly appearing stronger (*orange arrows*). Grey asterisks mark the area where VT projections towards dorsolateral were strongly reduced. **b** Horizontal z-stack images of live imaged larvae on two different lev-

be reflected in variable physical abnormalities that often accompany the ID ('syndromic ID'). In this study, we focus on ID to relate disturbances in a gene regulatory domain to a neuronal phenotype, but it has to be kept in mind that *ARX* is also active outside the nervous system. Expression studies in zebrafish and mouse show that *arxa/Arx* is for example expressed in the myotome, notochord/backbone, limbs and craniofacial skeleton (Miura et al. 1997; Collombat et al. 2003; Norton et al. 2005; Eurexpress Transcriptome Atlas, http://www.eurexpress.org). Since we have tested many more elements than we present here as

els of the VT expression domain. *Pink arrows* point to fine neuronal projections growing towards the telencephalon—these were increased as well as disorganized in the morphants, while neuronal projections projecting dorsolateral (*blue* and *grey arrows*) were reduced. Fiber bundles projecting posteriorly (*orange arrows*) had stronger label in the morphants and appeared misrouted. **c** hs8a regulated GFP labeled the telencephalon, posterior tuberculum and hypothalamus. Representative horizontal optical sections of 6 dpf larvae show that the anterior commissure appeared diffuse and weakened (marked by *yellow arrows*). Also the length of the ventral telencephalon (*red bars*) and the distance between the anterior commissure and the ventral posterior tuberculum (*yellow bars*) appeared reduced

enhancers, with many of these having activity for example in the fins and notochord, we included the screening results of the transgenic zebrafish lines in Suppl. Table 1 (for interpretation of screening results see Ishibashi et al. 2013). It would be too speculative at this point to invoke putatively disturbed cis-regulatory mechanisms in different 'syndromic' patients.

Morpholino antisense oligonucleotide-mediated inhibition of *arxa* translation served to identify autoregulatory mechanisms of the gene (Fig. 5). While morpholinos partially loose their activity starting at 3 dpf and sometimes



Fig. 8 Illustration of *ARX* gene regulatory abnormalities in P505. A zoom into the *POLA-ARX* region with focus on the 41 kb sequence that is tandem duplicated in P505, modified from Fig. 1. *ARX* coding sequence is in reverse orientation mirroring the genomic arrangement. Tested sequences appear in *red* (enhancers) and *green* (inconclusive cis-regulatory activity). hs7, approximately 9 kb distant of hs8a, was added to the illustration because this harbors an ultraconserved sequence carrying a mutation in a patient with autism and was identified as specific enhancer in a mouse model (Colasante et al. 2008; Fullston et al. 2011). Upstream breakpoint is at the transcription start site of *ARX* indicating that the duplicated copy misses a

cause unspecific effects, we have compared arxa morpholino injected specimen to specimens injected with control morpholinos in all experiments. Hs8a and hs8b enhancers act negatively autoregulatory in the pallium and in the lateral ventral thalamus (summarized in Fig. 6c). While hs8a has strong GFP regulatory activity in the pallium, Arxa suppresses the activity of this enhancer, which could be a mechanism to reduce arxa transcript levels in this brain region (compare Fig. 5b, c and Suppl. Figure 1). From prevented transcription of arxa (Fig. 5c) and missing activation of hs8b-regulated GFP in the medial ventral thalamus of arxa morpholino injected specimen (Fig. 5d) we concluded that autoactivation of hs8b enhancer might be essential for ARX expression in the medial region of the ventral thalamus. This positive autoregulatory feedback loop was confirmed through hs8b enhancer_Gal4-UAS mediated overexpression of arxa in the zebrafish model (Fig. 6a, b).

To identify potential upstream factors and signaling pathways that regulate the enhancers, we have used transcription factor binding site (TFBS) prediction tools ConSite and Jasper (Sandelin et al. 2004a, b; see method section). Selected TFBSs that bind transcription factors with expression

functional promoter. *Numbers in grey* give the distances between the breakpoint 3' of the gene and hs2, hs7 respectively. Abnormal regulatory influences are indicated by *grey arrows with numbers in red* giving distances between enhancers and functional *ARX* promoter. Autoregulatory mechanisms in the telencephalon and ventral thalamus are not emphasized in this illustration. In essence, with the duplicated copy being non-functional, hs2 enhancer moved further away from the gene (170 kb instead of 112 kb) subsequently loosing influence on *ARX*, while duplicated enhancers hs7–hs9 have increased regulatory influence. Since DNA folding is unknown for this region, the model remains hypothetical

domains (Allen Brain Atlas, www.brain-map.org) overlapping that of *Arx* are presented in Suppl. Figure 7. For example, Sox5 and Sox17 signaling may act on hs2, hs9 and hs13 enhancers. While Sox5 is highly expressed in the developing cortex and the dorsomedial diencephalon, *Sox17* is not, but was found to control cell cycle exit of oligodendrocyte progenitor cells in the ventricular zone in the ventral telencephalon (ganglionic eminences; Sohn et al. 2006).

The autoregulatory mechanisms identified in this study suggest that an overall transcript increase, as expected in patients having the whole *ARX* regulatory region duplicated, would lead to brain region-specific imbalances in *ARX* expression. DECIPHER patients DP3 and DP4 have such duplications, while duplicated regions in the other patients lack hs13. Our experiments in the zebrafish model suggest that this would result in enhanced activation of *ARX* in the ventral thalamus, while expression in the cortex would be expected to decrease. In general, dependent on the distance of the enhancers to the breakpoints and the orientation of the duplicated fragments in the genome, enhancers could act on both gene copies thereby 'over'regulating *ARX* brain region-specifically.

The autoregulatory mechanisms explain how a general increase of ARX transcripts would exacerbate expression level imbalances in the critical brain areas, including the ventral thalamus, which was previously not associated with ID. The ventral thalamus functions in memory processing and thus may have a role in speech learning, which is a major deficit in all described patients (Table 1) (Cholvin et al. 2013). Using the transparency of the zebrafish model and in vivo labeling of arxa neurons, we have shown that diminished arxa function results in disturbances in neuronal projections in the ventral thalamus and in the ventral telencephalon (Fig. 7). Since most of the ID patients exhibit only a delay, but not the inability, of speech learning, underdeveloped neuronal circuits may provide a reasonable explanation for the rather subtle phenotype in patients carrying ARX genomic rearrangements.

So far, ARX mutations have been mostly associated with a reduced number of GABAergic and cholinergic neurons in the cortex, occurring through inhibited proliferation of intermediate progenitor cells and disturbed migration of GABAergic neurons in the ganglionic eminences (Colasante et al. 2009, 2013; Kitamura et al. 2009). This ventral telencephalic expression domain is controlled by hs2, not only during development but also in the adult brain, where ARX may modulate neuronal function (Beguin et al. 2013). An orthologous sequence of hs7, which had only inconclusive activity in our assay (Fig. 2b/c; Suppl. Table 1), was previously identified to have enhancer function in this area (Suppl. Table 1; Colasante et al. 2008). This is of special interest since an hs7 core-conserved sequence has a single base pair change in a family with ID and had been correlated to infantile spasm [uc467, (Fullston et al. 2011)]. The same study reported another conserved sequence (uc466) with single nucleotide exchanges in two patients with autism, which is included in hs4. This sequence had also only variable activity in zebrafish (Suppl. Table 1) and a similar fragment was inconclusive in the mouse (Visel et al. 2009, 2013). The observed abnormalities in axon outgrowth and pathfinding in specimen with diminished Arxa function may provide an explanation for the spectrum of neuropsychiatric phenotypes observed in patients with copy number variations and ARX gene regulatory abnormalities.

Conclusions

We have shown that enhancers of *ARX* are located far upstream and downstream of the gene, in a 504-kb regulatory domain, which makes the regulation of the gene vulnerable to genomic rearrangements. A complex autoregulation of *ARX* further implies that increased expression levels due to duplicated coding regions will feed back into brain regionspecific transcriptional control and will amplify the effects of genome dosage. Genomic rearrangements as observed in patients with ID would therefore alter *ARX* transcript levels brain region-specifically. In addition to formerly reported disturbances in the ventral telencephalon, this would also affect neurons and neuronal circuits of the ventral thalamus.

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