Functional genetic characterization by CRISPR-Cas9 of two enhancers of FOXP2 in a child with

speech and language impairment

Torres-Ruiz, R.1, Benítez-Burraco, A.2,3, Martínez-Lage, M.1, Rodríguez-Perales, S.1,*, and García-Bellido,

P.3,4,*

1. Molecular Cytogenetics Group. Centro Nacional Investigaciones Oncológicas (CNIO), Madrid, Spain.

2. Department of Philology, University of Huelva, Huelva, Spain.

3. Faculty of Modern Languages, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom.

4. Faculty of Linguistics, Philology and Phonetics, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom.

* Corresponding authors: Sandra Rodriguez-Perales: srodriguezp@cnio.es; Phone: (+34) 912 246 900; Fax:

(+34) 912 246 911. Paloma Garcia-Bellido: paloma.garcia-bellido@mod-langs.ox.ac.uk

Phone (+44) 1865 27049; Fax: (+44) 1865 270757.

ABSTRACT

Mutations in the coding region of FOXP2 are known to cause speech and language impairment.

Microdeletions involving the region downstream the gene have been also associated to speech and cognitive

deficits. We recently described a girl harbouring a complex chromosomal rearrangement with one

breakpoint downstream the gene that might affect her speech and cognitive abilities via physical separation

of distant regulatory DNA elements. In this study, we have used highly efficient targeted chromosomal

deletions induced by the CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing tool to demonstrate the functionality of two

enhancers, FOXP2-E^{proximal} and FOXP2-E^{distal}, located in the intergenic region between FOXP2 and its

adjacent MDFIC gene. Deletion of any of these two functional enhancers in the neuroblastomic cell line

SK-N-MC downregulates FOXP2 and decreases FOXP2 protein levels, conversely it upregulates MDFIC

and increases MDFIC protein levels. This suggests that both regulatory elements may be shared between

FOXP2 and MDFIC. We expect these findings contribute to a deeper understanding of how FOXP2 and

MDFIC are regulated to pace neuronal development supporting speech and language.

KEYWORDS

FOXP2, MDFIC, speech and language impairment, Spanish, CRISP-genome editing, functional enhancer

1

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This project was supported by funds from The University of Oxford John Fell OUP Research Grant [121/435] awarded to its Principal Investigator Paloma Garcia-Bellido. This study was supported in part by funds from the Spanish National Research and Development Plan, Instituto de Salud Carlos III, and FEDER (FIS project no. PI14/01884 to Sandra Rodriguez-Perales), and in part by funds from the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (grant numbers FFI2014-61888-EXP and FFI-2013-43823-P to Antonio Benítez-Burraco). The funders had no role in the study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. We thank Daniela Moralli, Dianne Newbury and Sonja C. Vernes for their helpful comments.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

ETHICS

Ethics approval for this research was granted by the University of Oxford [MSD-IDREC-C1-2012-95, SSD/CUREC2/09-23].

AUTHORS CONTRIBUTION

P G-B conceived the project, participated in the design and coordination of experiments, analysed results, and wrote the paper.

2

A B-B analysed results and wrote the paper.

R T-R did the experiments, analysed results, and wrote the paper.

M M-L did the experiments.

S R-P participated in the design, coordinated experiments, analysed results, and wrote the paper.

All authors read and approved the final manuscript

INTRODUCTION

Mutations in the gene FOXP2, encoding a transcription factor, are known to cause speech and language impairment (Vargha-Khadem et al. 2005; Zhao et al. 2010). Polymorphisms of the gene have been also associated to schizophrenia (Tolosa et al. 2010) and frontotemporal lobar degeneration (Padovani et al. 2010). FOXP2 has been hypothesised to regulate the development and function of brain areas involved in human language processing (Lai et al., 2003; Fisher and Scharff 2009), because of its known role in neurogenesis, neuron differentiation and migration patterns in the developing telencephalon in mice (Tsui et al. 2013; Chiu et al. 2014; Garcia-Calero et al. 2016). Pathogenic mutations in humans have proven to impair auditory-motor association learning in mice (Kurt et al. 2012). Nonetheless, the exact role of FOXP2 in normal development is unknown. Common variants of the gene do not contribute appreciably to individual differences in language development (Mueller et al. 2016), nor in brain structure (Hoogman et al. 2014), although a FOXP2 polymorphism has been associated with enhanced procedural learning of nonnative speech sound categories (Chandrasekaran et al. 2015). Less is known about how the expression of the gene is modulated. The promoter of FOXP2 contains four transcription start sites (Schroeder and Myers 2008), with multiple alternative splicing sites (Bruce and Margolis 2002). FOXP2 also contains six ultraconserved regions in its introns (Bejerano et al. 2004, Schroeder and Myers 2008), as well as six predicted enhancers for Lef1 (Hallikas et al 2006). Lef1 is a transcription factor that drives expression of the Foxp2 gene in the central nervous system during zebrafish embryogenesis (Bonkowsky et al. 2008). Interestingly, several microRNAS bind the 3'UTR of the gene and regulate the expression of FOXP2 (Clovis et al. 2012; Shi et al. 2013; Fu et al. 2014a; Cuiffo et al. 2014).

Apart from gene mutations, microdeletions involving *FOXP2* and/or *MDFIC*, the adjacent gene downstream *FOXP2*, and the region between these two genes have been found in subjects with speech delay and cognitive impairment (DECIPHER patients 262086, 292652, and 301696). We have recently reported on a young female harbouring a genomic complex rearrangement involving chromosomes 7 and 11, who presents with severe expressive and receptive speech and language impairment in both Castilian Spanish and Valencian (Moralli et al. 2015). Although the *FOXP2* coding region is intact, the breakpoint in 7q31.1 is located 205.5 kb downstream the 3' end of *FOXP2* and 22.8 kb upstream the 5' region of *MDFIC*. Becker et al. (2015) found and characterized a functional enhancer located 2.5 kb downstream the breakpoint and hypothesized that rearrangement of this enhancer by chromosomal translocation may contribute to the

observed language phenotype by disturbing FOXP2 gene expression. In our proband this element was

hypothesized to be in derivative chromosome 7q separated from FOXP2. While FOXP2 was shown to

have been rearranged to derivative chromosome 11p, MDFIC had been located in derivative chromosome

7q, based on the FISH results from the RP11-243D16 BAC (Moralli et al 2015). A more robust approach,

aimed at looking for changes in the expression levels of the gene seems desirable in order to know if this

enhancer regulates FOXP2 expression.

The development of nuclease mediated genome editing tools, specially, of those based on clustering

regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats (CRISPR) (Sakuma and Woltjen 2014; Torres-Ruiz and

Rodriguez-Perales 2016), has emerged as a highly efficient way of inducing targeted chromosomal

deletions and an accurate method to validate the functionality of enhancers (Cong et al. 2013; Mali et al.

2013). Here we report a detailed study of the intergenic region between the FOXP2 and MDFIC genes. We

have found that this region contains, apart from the enhancer reported in Becker et al. (2015), a second

functional enhancer, FOXP2-E proximal. We performed targeted deletions of each regulatory element by

CRISPR-Cas9 and found that both affect the expression levels of FOXP2 and MDFIC in an opposite

manner, increasing FOXP2 and reducing MDFIC mRNA and protein levels. We hypothesise therefore that

the breakpoint in this case would cause FOXP2 to be anomalously downregulated by the separation of

FOXP2-distal from FOXP2, while MDFIC to be anomalously upregulated by the separation of FOXP2-proximal

from MDFIC. These changes in the expression levels of these two genes may account for the observed

language deficits in this case. We expect these findings contribute to a better understanding of how FOXP2

is regulated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell culture and electroporation

Cells of the human non neuronal cell-line HEK293A (CRL-1573, ATCC, USA) and the neuroblastomic

cell-line SK-N-MC (HTB-10, ATCC, USA) were maintained under standard conditions in Dulbecco's

modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (Lonza), supplemented with 10% foetal bovine serum (FBS) (Life

Technologies), 1% GlutaMAX (Life Technologies), and 10mg/ml penicillin/streptomycin (Life

Technologies). The neuroblstomic cell-line SK-SY-5Y (CRL-2266, ATCC, USA) was cultured in a 1:1

mixture of Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (Lonza) and F12 medium (Lonza) supplemented

with 10% FBS (Life Technologies), 1% GlutaMAX (Life Technologies), and 10mg/ml

penicillin/streptomycin (Life Technologies). Cells were cultured at 37°C in a humidified incubator in a 5%

 $CO_2 + 20\% O_2$ atmosphere.

For electroporation, we used the Neon Transfection System (Life Technologies). The manufacturer's

protocols for HEK293A, SK-N-MC and SH-SY5Y cells were modified as follows. The three cell types

were electroporated at 80% confluence. Cells were trypsinized and resuspended in R solution (Life

Technologies). For SK-N-MC and SH-SY5Y, 10-ul tips were used to electroporate 2.5×10⁶ cells with a

single 50-ms pulse of 900 V. For HEK293A cells, 4×10^5 cells were electroporated with 10- μ l tips using

5

three 10-ms pulses of 1245 V. After electroporation, cells were seeded in a 24-well plate containing pre-

warmed medium. When required, cells were sorted 72 h post-transfection.

Construction of Double-Guide Cas9-Encoding Plasmids

The parental pLV-U6^{#1}H1^{#2}-C9G vector has been described elsewhere (Torres et al. 2014a). Two gBlocks

gene fragments were synthesized to clone sgRNA#1 and sgRNA#2 flanking the FOXP2-Eproximal and

FOXP2-Edistal enhancer regions in the backbone vector using BsrGI and SpeI target sites.

Flow Cytometry and Cell Sorting

72 hours after electroporation, cells were trypsinized and washed with DPBS twice, counted, and

resuspended in an appropriate volume of sorting buffer (PBS containing 1% FBS and antibiotics) for flow

cytometry analysis. Immediately before cell sorting, samples were filtered through a 70-µm filter to remove

any clumps or aggregates. Cell sorting was carried out in a Synergy 2L instrument (Sony Biotechnology

Inc.); flow cytometry was performed in a BD LSR Fortessa analyzer (BD Biosciences). Cells were sorted

and seeded individually per well in a 96 well-plate.

Genomic DNA Extraction and PCR Analysis

Genomic DNA was extracted using standard procedures (Torres et al. 2014b). Briefly, 5-10×10⁶ cells were

either trypsinized or scraped, washed in PBS, pelleted, and lysed in 100mM NaCl, Tris (pH 8.0) 50mM,

EDTA 100mM, and 1% SDS. After overnight digestion at 56°C with 0.5 mg/ml of proteinase K (Roche

Diagnostics), the DNA was cleaned by precipitation with saturated NaCl, and the clear supernatant was

precipitated with isopropanol, washed with 70% ethanol, air-dried, and resuspended overnight at room

temperature in 1xTE buffer. Serial DNA dilutions were quantified with a NanoDrop ND 1000

Spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies).

Standard PCR was performed in a Veriti 96-well Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems) under the following

conditions: template denaturation at 95°C for 1 min followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 s,

annealing at 62.5°C for 30 s, extension at 72°C for 60 s, and a final extension of 5 min at 72°C. Primers

used are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

RNA extraction and PCR

Total RNA was extracted from tissues and cell cultures using Trizol (Sigma-Aldrich), followed by

treatment with RNase-free DNAse (Roche Applied Science). cDNA was synthesized from 500 ng of total

RNA using the Superscript III First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Life Technologies). Specific mRNAs were

quantified by qRT-PCR using an ABI Prism 7900 HT Detection System (Applied Biosystems) and TaqMan

detection. PCR was performed in 96-well plate microtest plates with TaqMan master mix (Thermo Fisher)

for 40 cycles. In all experiments, mRNA amounts were normalized to the total amount of cDNA by using

amplification signals for hGUSB. Each sample was determined in triplicate, and at least three independent

samples were analysed for each experimental condition.

Western Blot

Proteins were extracted by standard procedures as previously described (Rodriguez-Perales et al. 2015) in

the presence of Complete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail Tables (Roche Applied Science). Proteins were

transferred to PVDF using TransFi (Invitrogen; Life Technologies), and membranes were probed for

FOXP2 or MDFIC with monoclonal mouse anti-human FOXP2 or MDFIC antibodies (1/1000 or 1/500;

BD Pharmigen) or for GAPDH (AbCam), with antibodies diluted 1/2500 in PBS/0.1% Tween-20 (PBS-T).

Secondary antibodies were HRP-conjugated with goat anti-mouse IgG (1/1000) and goat anti-Rabbit

(1/500; Dako, Barcelona, Spain), and blots were developed with ECL (GE Healthcare).

Statistical Analysis

Data from three or more independent experiments were analysed by two-tailed unpaired t-test. NS, non-

6

significant; * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001; and **** p<0.0001.

RESULTS

In silico search of enhancer regions

We first hypothesised that the breakpoint in 7q31.1 (114,888,284 hg38) affected the expression of *FOXP2* by physically separating some cis-acting distant element with an enhancer role. Accordingly, we searched in silico for putative enhancers in the intergenic region between *FOXP2* and *MDIFC* looking for the following hallmarks: DNase I hypersensitive sites, presence of histones with specific post-translational modifications (specifically histone H3, lysine 4 monomethylation (H3K4me1) and H3 lysine 27 acetylation (H3K27ac)), and ChIP-seq data provided by ENCODE of regions recruiting co-activators and co-repressors as revealed by chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by deep sequencing. We found two putative enhancers located at 120kb and 203.5kb downstream the stop codon of *FOXP2*, respectively (Figure 1A and 1B). These putative enhancers (referred as FOXP2-E^{proximal} and FOXP2-E^{distal}) span 6264bp (chr7:114,817,431-114,823,694 hg38) and 2300bp (chr7:114,900,989-114,903,302 hg38 equivalent to 114,541,370-114,542,201 hg19), respectively. FOXP2-E^{distal} is the one previously validated by luciferase assay by Becker et al. (2015); FOXP2-E^{proximal} is a new putative regulatory element.

CRISPR deletion of FOXP2-Eproximal and FOXP2-Edistal

We then tested in vitro the functionality of FOXP2-E^{proximal} and FOXP2-E^{distal}. Since both putative enhancers are located in an intergenic region, we aimed at characterizing that both of them are functional with respect to *FOXP2* or/and *MDFIC*. We relied on a CRISPR genome editing approach to delete the entire predicted sequence of each enhancer. Accordingly, we designed two couples of sgRNAs targeting the flanking regions of either FOXP2-E^{proximal} or FOXP2-E^{distal} (Figure 1C). Each sgRNA pair was cloned in the pLV-U6^{#1}H1^{#2}-C9G (Torres et al. 2014b) in order to couple the expression of the sgRNAs to the expression of Cas9 and a GFP reporter. Subsequently, we tested if the sgRNAs were able to induce the expected deletions. HEK293A cells were nucleofected with 2ug of pLV-U6^{#1}H1^{#2}-C9G plasmid targeting either FOXP2-E^{proximal} or FOXP2-E^{distal}. After 72 h, the DNA was isolated and analyzed. After designing PCR oligos that span the deleted regions (Supplementary Table 1), PCR assays were performed. They revealed efficient targeted deletions of the 6.2kb or the 2.3kb regions containing the entire sequence of FOXP2-E^{proximal} and FOXP2-E^{distal}, respectively (data not shown).

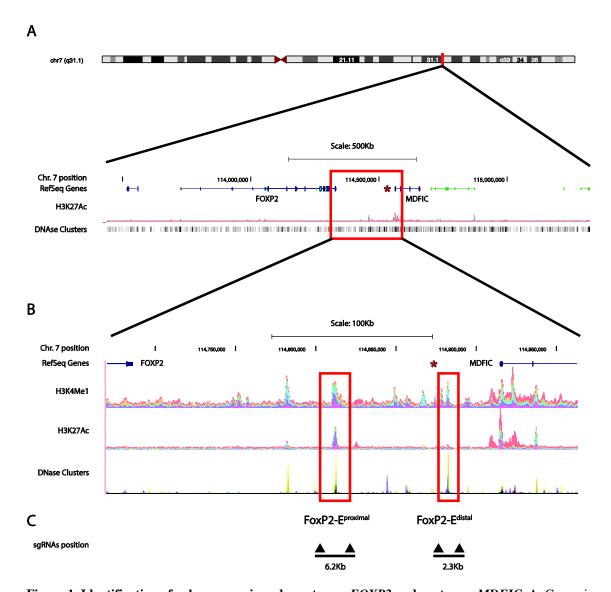


Figure 1. Identification of enhancer regions downstream *FOXP2* and upstream *MDFIC*. A. Genomic location of human *FOXP2* and *MDFIC* genes. Genes are depicted in blue. B. Detailed view of an Encode UCSC genome-browser snapshot showing bar graphs with a detailed representation of the locations of H3K4Me1 and H3K27Ac histone marks in human neurological cell lines. The squared regions in red show the locations of FOXP2-E^{proximal} and FOXP2-E^{distal}. The red asterisk shows the position of the 7q breakpoint in the proband harbouring a genomic complex rearrangement and with severe expressive and receptive speech and language impairment. C. Schematic representation of the location of the four sgRNAs flanking the 6.2kb region including FOXP2-E^{proximal} and the 2.3kb region including FOXP2-E^{distal}.

Neuronal cell lines defective in FOXP2-E^{proximal} or FOXP2-E^{distal}

We next used CRISPR to delete FOXP2-E^{proximal} or FOXP2-E^{distal} in two cell lines: SK-N-MC, a neuroblastomic cell line derived from the supra-orbital area, which expresses *FOXP2* constitutively (although it does not express *MDFIC* at the same level), and SH-SY5Y, a neuroblastomic cell line which expresses neither *FOXP2* nor *MDFIC*. The SH-SY5Y cell line was used as a negative control to confirm that changes produced by CRISPR-Cas9 were not due to unspecific effects. Cells were electroporated with 2ug of either pLV-U6^{#1}H1^{#2}-C9G- E^{proximal}, pLV-U6^{#1}H1^{#2}-C9G- E^{distal}, or with empty plasmids. After 72h the DNA was extracted and analysed. PCR and Sanger sequencing analyses confirmed the deletion of the 6.2kb or the 2.3kb fragment (Figures 2A and 2B). We then generated two clonal cell lines (one for each putative enhancer) by sorting GFP positive cells into 96-well plates for single cell colony expansion. We confirmed by PCR that each expanded cellular clone harbours a deletion containing either the FOXP2-E^{proximal} or the FOXP2-E^{distal} regions (data not shown). These two cell lines were used for further expression analyses.

FOXP2 and MDFIC expression analyses

We next aimed to characterize in more detail the functionality of FOXP2-E^{proximal} and FOXP2-E^{distal}. We used RT-qPCR to determine the amount of *FOXP2* mRNA in the SK-N-MC cells transduced with either pLV-U6^{#1}H1^{#2}-C9G-E^{distal}, or an empty plasmid as a control. The expression of *FOXP2* was significantly reduced (2.9 fold change) compared to that of the control when FOXP2-E^{proximal} was deleted (Figure 2C, left). Likewise, *FOXP2* expression was decreased (2 fold change) when FOXP2-E^{distal} was deleted (Figure 2C left). We then measured the levels of expression of *MDFIC* after deletion of each enhancer. As shown in Figure 2C right, the expression of *MDFIC* was significantly increased when either FOXP2-E^{proximal} or FOXP2-E^{distal} were deleted (8.6 and 7.5 fold change, respectively). The experiment was replicated in SH-SY5Y cells, but no change of expression of *FOXP2* or *MDFIC* was detected (data not shown).

We next analysed by Western blot the amount of FOXP2 and MDFIC proteins in the SK-N-MC cell clones harbouring the FOXP2-E^{proximal} or FOXP2-E^{distal} deletions or control cells transduced with an empty plasmid (Figure 2D). In line with our mRNA data, the deletion of FOXP2-E^{proximal} or FOXP2-E^{distal} was found to reduce the level of FOXP2 (Figure 2D top) and to increase the level of MDFIC (Figure 2D bottom).

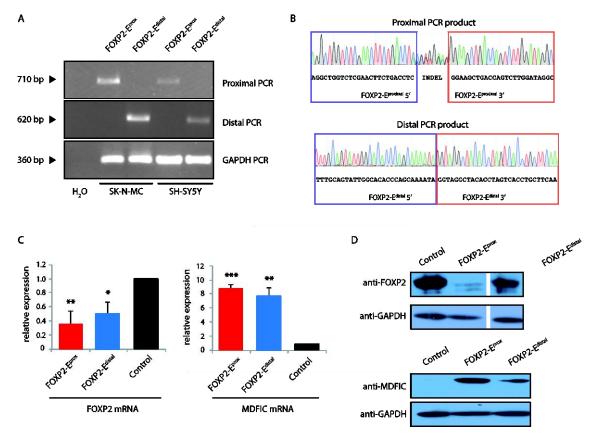


Figure 2. Molecular characterization of FOXP2-E^{proximal} **and FOXP2-E**^{distal}. **A.** PCR analysis. Two oligos flanking the deleted regions were used to amplify the genomic DNA from mutant SK-N-MC and SH-SY-5Y clones. GAPDH genomic oligos were used to amplify a positive control region. Black triangles show the size of the PCR products. **B.** Representative Sanger sequencing chromatogram showing the boundaries of the FOXP2-E^{proximal} and FOXP2-E^{distal} deleted regions in SK-N-MC cells. **C.** RT-qPCR analysis of SK-N-MC cells with FOXP2-E^{proximal} or FOXP2-E^{distal} deletions. Samples are normalized to the average *FOXP2* (left) or *MDFIC* (right) signal between three SK-N-MC wild type replicates. Levels of expression of *FOXP2* and *MDFIC* are represented by the fold change relative to that of parental control cell line, which were normalized to 1. **D.** Western blot analysis of cell lysates of SK-N-MC with FOXP2-E^{proximal} deleted, with FOXP2-E^{distal} deleted, and of control cells immunoblotted for FOXP2 (top) or MDFIC (bottom).

DISCUSSION

In this paper we have characterised in detail the role of two functional regulatory elements located downstream *FOXP2*. One of these enhancers, FOXP2-E^{distal}, had been previously found to be functional in

a luciferase assay (Becker et al. 2015). We have been able to prove that if deleted, *FOXP2* becomes downregulated and the levels of FOXP2 protein are reduced in the SK-N-MC neuroblastomic cell-line. We have further proved that it also affects the adjacent gene, *MDFIC*. Its deletion upregulates *MDFIC* and increases the levels of MDFIC protein. The second enhancer, FOXP2-E^{proximal} was previously unknown. We have found that its deletion also downregulates *FOXP2* and upregulates *MDFIC*. These findings are coherent with previous studies reporting pairs of genes being governed by the same regulatory regions (Gould et al. 1997; Tsujimura et al. 2010), which in some cases have proven to regulate recruitment of RNA polymerase II to promoters of both genes (Collins et al. 2012).

FOXP2 is a well-known gene, important for speech and language (Fisher and Scharff 2009, Graham and Fisher 2013). Less is known about the role of MDFIC in cognitive development and disease. There is evidence that the gene might be associated to language development and cognitive impairment (DECIPHER patients 262086, 292652, and 301696). MDFIC is a MyoD family inhibitor domain containing protein that acts as an activator or repressor of transcription (Thebault et al. 2000, Gautier et al. 2005). Similarly to FOXP2, it interacts with LEF1, as part of beta-catenin regulation (Kusano et al. 2002). In chicken MDFIC is targeted by miR-130a (Han et al. 2016), known to regulate neurite outgrowth and dendritic spine density by targeting MeCP2, the main candidate for Rett syndrome, a condition involving language deficits (Zhang et al. 2016). MDFIC is highly expressed in the cerebellum during human embryonic development and in the thalamus after birth (Human Brain Transcriptome http://hbatlas.org/). These two brain regions, interacting in a dopaminergic cortico-striato-thalamic loop, seem to play an important role in timing sensorimotor control, needed for auditory-motor language processing (Alcock et al. 2000, Vargha-Khadem et al. 2005). The cerebellum and thalamus of those bearing the R553H mutation in FOXP2, associated to speech and language impairment, exhibit volumetric changes of their grey matter (Watkins et al. 2002 a). This suggests that the modulation of the size of neural populations in particular regions in the loop may impact in sensorimotor performance.

Our findings in a human neuronal cell line give support to the view that the breakpoint in our proband, which separated each of these two intergenic enhancers from each other and consequently from one of the two genes they regulate, may have altered the expression levels of both *FOXP2* and *MDFIC* contributing to the observed speech and language deficits (Moralli et al 2015). Whereas *MDFIC* remained in

chromosome 7q with, predictably, FOXP2-E distal, FOXP2 was rearranged to chromosome 11p with, predictably, FOXP2-E^{proximal}. Accordingly, we expect the expression of FOXP2 to be down-regulated and the expression of MDFIC to be up-regulated. The knockdown of FoxP2 in zebra finch results in a shorter window for song learning and in less accurate and shorter song imitation (Haesler et al., 2007). This is coherent with the inability that those carrying the R553H mutation of FOXP2 show in repeating words and pseudowords (Watkins et al., 2002b). Further confirmation of our hypothesis would need to be supported in a specific neuronal brain cell line grown from stem cells of the proband, as well as in songbirds in which these enhancers have been deleted.

We expect that our findings also contribute to a better understanding of the role that this region may have played in the evolution of language. Differences in the expression levels of both *FOXP2* and *MDFIC* are expected between extinct hominins and modern humans, plausibly accounting for some of the presumed differences in their language abilities. Neanderthals bear the ancestral allele of a binding site for POU3F2 within intron 8 of *FOXP2*, which is more efficient in activating transcription (Maricic et al. 2013). Accordingly, higher levels of FOXP2 are expected in this hominin species. Likewise, the *MDFIC* locus is among the top five percent S score regions in modern humans (Green et al. 2010, table S37). Finally, both genes are functionally related to *RUNX2*, which encodes an osteogenic factor that controls the closure of cranial sutures and several aspects of brain growth, and that has been related to the changes that brought about our more globular brain (case) and our species-specific mode of cognition, including language (Boeckx and Benítez-Burraco 2014; Benítez-Burraco and Boeckx 2015). Further confirmation of this hypothesis would need to be supported by the analysis of the enhancers' sequences in extinct hominins and by mimicking the attested changes (if any) in a human cell line.

It is expected that our study, together with new available data about seed sequences of miRs in the 3'UTR region of *FOXP2* (Clovis et al. 2012; Shi et al. 2013; Fu et al. 2014a; Cuiffo et al. 2014), contributes to a deeper understanding of how *FOXP2* is regulated. Since we have found that both adjacent genes, *FOXP2* and *MDFIC*, are sharing a regulatory region downstream the 3' end of *FOXP2* which modulates their expression, it is expected that these results will contribute as well to a better understanding of how each gene participates in the development of subcellular and sensorimotor neural function underlying language.

REFERENCES

- Alcock KJ, Passingham RE, Watkins KE, Vargha-Khadem F. (2000) Pitch and timing abilities in inherited speech and language impairment. Brain Lang 75 (1): 34-46. doi: 10.1006/brin.2000.2323
- Becker M, Devanna P, Fisher SE, Vernes SC (2015) A chromosomal rearrangement in a child with severe speech and language disorder separates FOXP2 from a functional enhancer. Mol Cytogenet 8:69. doi: 10.1186/s13039-015-0173-0
- Bejerano, G., et al., 2004. Ultraconserved elements in the human genome. Science 304: 1321–1325. doi: 10.1126/science.1098119
- Benítez-Burraco A, Boeckx C (2015) Approaching motor and language deficits in autism from below: a biolinguistic perspective. Front Integr Neurosci 9:25. doi: 10.3389/fnint.2015.00025
- Boeckx C, Benítez-Burraco A (2014) The shape of the human language-ready brain. Front Psychol 5:282. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2014.00282
- Bonkowsky JL, Wang X, Fujimoto E, et al. (2008) Domain-specific regulation of foxP2 CNS expression by lef1. BMC Dev Biol 8:103. doi: 10.1186/1471-213X-8-103
- Bruce HA, Margolis RL (2002) FOXP2: novel exons, splice variants, and CAG repeat length stability. Hum Genet 111:136–144. doi: 10.1007/s00439-002-0768-5
- Chandrasekaran B, Yi H-G, Blanco NJ, et al. (2015) Enhanced procedural learning of speech sound categories in a genetic variant of FOXP2. J Neurosci 35:7808–7812. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4706-14.2015
- Chiu Y-C, Li M-Y, Liu Y-H, et al. (2014) Foxp2 regulates neuronal differentiation and neuronal subtype specification. Dev Neurobiol 74:723–738. doi: 10.1002/dneu.22166
- Clovis YM, Enard W, Marinaro F, et al. (2012) Convergent repression of Foxp2 3'UTR by miR-9 and miR-132 in embryonic mouse neocortex: implications for radial migration of neurons. Development 139:3332–3342. doi: 10.1242/dev.078063
- Collins PL, Henderson MA, Aune TM. (2012) Lineage-specific adjacent IFNG and IL26 genes share a common distal enhancer element. Genes Immun. 13:481-488. doi: 10.1038/gene.2012.22.
- Cong L, Ran FA, Cox D, et al. (2013) Multiplex genome engineering using CRISPR/Cas systems. Science 339:819–823. doi: 10.1126/science.1231143
- Cuiffo BG, Campagne A, Bell GW, et al. (2014) MSC-regulated microRNAs converge on the transcription factor FOXP2 and promote breast cancer metastasis. Cell Stem Cell 15:762–774. doi: 10.1016/j.stem.2014.10.001
- Fisher SE, Scharff C (2009) FOXP2 as a molecular window into speech and language. Trends Genet 25:166–177. doi: 10.1016/j.tig.2009.03.002
- Fu Y, Sander JD, Reyon D, et al. (2014a) Improving CRISPR-Cas nuclease specificity using truncated guide RNAs. Nat Biotechnol 32:279–284. doi: 10.1038/nbt.2808
- Fu L, Shi Z, Luo G, et al. (2014b) Multiple microRNAs regulate human FOXP2 gene expression by targeting sequences in its 3' untranslated region. Mol Brain 7:71. doi: 10.1186/s13041-014-0071-0
- Garcia-Calero E, Botella-Lopez A, Bahamonde O, et al. (2016) FoxP2 protein levels regulate cell morphology changes and migration patterns in the vertebrate developing telencephalon. Brain Struct Funct 221:2905–2917. doi: 10.1007/s00429-015-1079-7
- Gautier VW, Sheehy N, Duffy M., et al. (2005) Direct interaction of the Human I-mfa domain- containing

- protein, HIC, with HIV-1 TAT results in cytoplasmic sequestration and control of Tat activity. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 102:16362-16367
- Gould A, Morrison A, Sproat G, et al. (1997) Positive cross-regulation and enhancer sharing: two mechanisms for specifying overlapping Hox expression patterns. Genes Dev. 11:900-913. doi 10.1101/gad.11.7.900. doi: 10.1073/pnas.0503519102
- Graham SA, Fisher SE (2013) Decoding the genetics of speech and language. Curr Opin Neurobiol 23:43–51. doi: 10.1016/j.conb.2012.11.006
- Green RE, Krause J, Briggs AW, et al. (2010) A draft sequence of the Neandertal genome. Science 328:710–722. doi: 10.1126/science.1188021
- Haesler S, Rochefort C, Georgi B, et al. (2007) Incomplete and inaccurate vocal imitation after knockdown of FoxP2 in songbird basal ganglia nucleus area X. PLoS Biol. 5:e321. doi: 10.1371/journal.pbio.0050321
- Hallikas O, Palin K, Sinjushina N, Rautiainen R, Partanen J, Ukkonen E, Taipale J: Genome-wide prediction of mammalian enhancers based on analysis of transcription-factor binding affinity. Cell. 2006, 124: 47-59.
- Han B, Lian L, Li X, et al. (2016) Chicken gga-miR-130a targets HOXA3 and MDFIC and inhibits Marek's disease lymphoma cell proliferation and migration. Mol Biol Rep 43:667-76. doi: 10.1007/s11033-016-4002-2.
- Hoogman M, Guadalupe T, Zwiers MP, et al. (2014) Assessing the effects of common variation in the FOXP2 gene on human brain structure. Front Hum Neurosci 8:473. doi: 10.3389/fnhum.2014.00473
- Kurt S, Fisher SE, Ehret G (2012) Foxp2 mutations impair auditory-motor association learning. PLoS ONE 7:e33130. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0033130
- Kusano S, Raab-Traub N. (2002) I-mfa domain proteins interact with Axin and affect its regulation of the Wnt and c-Jun N-terminal kinase signaling pathways. Mol Cell Biol 22:6393-405. doi: 10.1128/MCB.22.18.6393-6405.2002
- Lai CS, Gerrelli D, Monaco AP, et al. (2003) FOXP2 expression during brain development coincides with adult sites of pathology in a severe speech and language disorder. Brain 126:2455-62. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/brain/awg247 2455-2462
- Mali P, Yang L, Esvelt KM, et al. (2013) RNA-guided human genome engineering via Cas9. Science 339:823–826. doi: 10.1126/science.1232033
- Maricic T, Günther V, Georgiev O, et al. (2013) A recent evolutionary change affects a regulatory element in the human FOXP2 gene. Mol Biol Evol 30:844–852. doi: 10.1093/molbev/mss271
- Moralli D, Nudel R, Chan MTM, et al. (2015) Language impairment in a case of a complex chromosomal rearrangement with a breakpoint downstream of FOXP2. Mol Cytogenet 8:36. doi: 10.1186/s13039-015-0148-1
- Mueller KL, Murray JC, Michaelson JJ, et al. (2016) Common genetic variants in FOXP2 are not associated with individual differences in language development. PLoS ONE 11:e0152576. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0152576
- Padovani A, Cosseddu M, Premi E, et al. (2010) The speech and language FOXP2 gene modulates the phenotype of frontotemporal lobar degeneration. J Alzheimers Dis 22:923–931. doi: 10.3233/JAD-2010-101206
- Rodriguez-Perales S, Torres-Ruiz R, Suela J, et al. (2015) Truncated RUNX1 protein generated by a novel t(1;21)(p32;q22) chromosomal translocation impairs the proliferation and differentiation of human

- hematopoietic progenitors. Oncogene. doi: 10.1038/onc.2015.70
- Sakuma T, Woltjen K (2014) Nuclease-mediated genome editing: At the front-line of functional genomics technology. Dev Growth Differ 56:2–13. doi: 10.1111/dgd.12111
- Schroeder DI, Myers RM (2008) Multiple transcription start sites for FOXP2 with varying cellular specificities. Gene 413:42–48. doi: 10.1016/j.gene.2008.01.015
- Shi Z, Luo G, Fu L, et al. (2013) miR-9 and miR-140-5p target FoxP2 and are regulated as a function of the social context of singing behavior in zebra finches. J Neurosci 33:16510–16521. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0838-13.2013
- Thebault, S., Gachon, F., Lemasson, I., et al. (2000) Molecular cloning of a novel human I-mfa domain-containing protein that differently regulates human T-cell leukemia virus type I and HIV-1 expression. J Biol Chem 275: 4848-4857]. doi: 10.1074/jbc.275.7.4848
- Tolosa A, Sanjuán J, Dagnall AM, et al. (2010) FOXP2 gene and language impairment in schizophrenia: association and epigenetic studies. BMC Med Genet 11:114. doi: 10.1186/1471-2350-11-114
- Torres R, Martin MC, Garcia A, et al. (2014a) Engineering human tumour-associated chromosomal translocations with the RNA-guided CRISPR-Cas9 system. Nature Communications. doi: 10.1038/ncomms4964
- Torres R, Garcia A, Jimenez M, et al. (2014b) An integration-defective lentivirus-based resource for site-specific targeting of an edited safe-harbour locus in the human genome. Gene Ther 21:343–352. doi: 10.1038/gt.2014.1
- Torres-Ruiz R, Rodriguez-Perales S (2016) CRISPR-Cas9 technology: applications and human disease modelling. Brief Funct Genomics elw025. doi: 10.1093/bfgp/elw025
- Tsui D, Vessey JP, Tomita H, et al. (2013) FoxP2 regulates neurogenesis during embryonic cortical development. J Neurosci 33:244–258. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1665-12.2013
- Tsujimura Tl, HosoyaT, Kawamara S (2010) A single enhancer regulating the differential expression of duplicated red-sensitive opsine genes in zebra-fish. PLoS Genet. 2010 Dec 16;6 (12):e1001245. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1001245
- Vargha-Khadem F, Gadian DG, Copp A, Mishkin M (2005) FOXP2 and the neuroanatomy of speech and language. Nat Rev Neurosci 6:131–138. doi: 10.1038/nrn1605.
- Watkins KE, Vargha-Khadem F, Ashburner J, et al. (2002a) MRI analysis of an inherited speech and language disorder: structural brain abnormalities. Brain 125:465–478.
- Watkins KE, Dronkers NF, Vargha-Khadem F (2002b) Behavioural analysis of an inherited speech and language disorder: comparison with acquired aphasia. Brain 125:452–464.
- Zhang Y, Chen M, Qiu Z, et al. (2016) MiR-130a regulates neurite outgrowth and dendritic spine density by targeting MeCP2. Protein Cell 7:489-500. doi: 10.1007/s13238-016-0272-7.
- Zhao Y, Ma H, Wang Y, et al. (2010) Association between FOXP2 gene and speech sound disorder in Chinese population. Psychiatry Clin Neurosci 64:565–573. doi: 10.1111/j.1440-1819.2010.02123.x

Supplementary Table 1. Oligonucleotide and sgRNA sequences used in this study.

sgRNA sequences (IDT gblocks) sgRNA FOXP2 Edistal 1 5:

ccataACGCGTTGTACACGAACGCTGACGTCATCAACCCGCTCCAAGGAATCGCGGGCC
CAGTGTCACTAGGCGGGAACACCCAGCGCGCGCGCGCCCTGGCAGGAAGATGGCTGTGA
GGGACAGGGGAGTGGCGCCCTGCAATATTTGCATGTCGCTATGTGTTCTGGGAAATCAC
CATAAACGTGAAATGTCTTTGGATTTGGGAATCTTATAAGTTCTGTATGAGACCACTCT
TTCCCGcacacccagcaaaatacatGTTTTAGAGCTATGCTGGAAACAGCATAGCAAGT
TAAAATAAGGCTAGTCCGTTATCAACTTGAAAAAAGTGGCACCGAGTCGGTGCTTTTTTA
CTAGTcgcta

sgRNA FOXP2 Edistal 2 5:

ccataACGCGTTGTACACGAACGCTGACGTCATCAACCCGCTCCAAGGAATCGCGGGCC
CAGTGTCACTAGGCGGGAACACCCAGCGCGCGCGCGCCCTGGCAGGAAGATGGCTGTGA
GGGACAGGGGAGTGGCCCCTGCAATATTTGCATGTCGCTATGTGTTCTGGGAAATCAC
CATAAACGTGAAATGTCTTTGGATTTGGGAATCTTATAAGTTCTGTATGAGACCACTCT
TTCCCGgcaaggtatattctctgagGTTTTAGAGCTATGCTGGAAACAGCATAGCAAGT
TAAAATAAGGCTAGTCCGTTATCAACTTGAAAAAAGTGGCACCGAGTCGGTGCTTTTTTA
CTAGTcqcta

sgRNA_FOXP2_Edistal_1_3:

ccataCAATTGGGGCAGGAAGAGGGCCTATTTCCCATGATTCCTTCATATTTGCATATA
CGATACAAGGCTGTTAGAGAGATAATTAGAATTAATTTGACTGTAAACACAAAGATATT
AGTACAAAATACGTGACGTAGAAAGTAATAATTTCTTGGGTAGTTTGCAGTTTTAAAAT
TATGTTTTAAAATGGACTATCATGTACACTTACCGTAACTTGAAAGTATTTCGATTTCT
TGGCTTTATATATCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAGGTACCGatctcttctttagggt
TAGAGCTATGCTGGAAACAGCATAGCAAGTTAAAATAAGGCTAGTCCGTTATCAACTTG
AAAAAGTGGCACCGAGTCGGTGCTTTTTTACGCGTACTAGTcqcta

sgRNA_FOXP2_Edistal_2_3:

CCATACAATTGGGGCAGGAAGAGGGCCTATTTCCCATGATTCCTTCATATTTGCATATA
CGATACAAGGCTGTTAGAGAGATAATTAGAATTAATTTGACTGTAAACACAAAGATATT
AGTACAAAATACGTGACGTAGAAAGTAATAATTTCTTGGGTAGTTTGCAGTTTTAAAAT
TATGTTTTAAAATGGACTATCATGTACACTTACCGTAACTTGAAAGTATTTCGATTTCT
TGGCTTTATATATCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAGGTACCGgaagagtagatcgcatgag
GTTT
TAGAGCTATGCTGGAAACAGCATAGCAAGTTAAAATAAGGCTAGTCCGTTATCAACTTG
AAAAAGTGGCACCGAGTCGGTGCTTTTTTACGCGTACTAGTcqcta

sgRNA_FOXP2_Eproximal_1_5:

 $\label{eq:ccataacgcgttatacacgaacgctgacgtcatcaacccgctccaaggaatcgcgggcccagtgtcactaggcggaacacccagcgcgcgtgcgccctggcaggaagatggctgtgaacacacgaacatatttgcatgtcgctatgtgttctggaaatcaccatataaacgtgaaatgtcttttggaatttggaaatctttataagttctgtatgagaccactctttccc<math>\mathbf{G}_{\mathbf{gtgatctcagctactcggg}}$ Gttttagagctatgcgcacagaaacagcatatttttaaaataaggctagtccgttatcaacttgaaaaagtggcaccgagtcggtgcttttttaaaaataaggctagtccgttatcaacttgaaaaaagtggcaccgagtcggtgctttttttacagtagtcgcta

sgRNA_FOXP2_Eproximal_2_5:

ccataACGCGTTGTACACGAACGCTGACGTCATCAACCCGCTCCAAGGAATCGCGGGCC
CAGTGTCACTAGGCGGGAACACCCAGCGCGCGCGCGCCCTGGCAGGAAGATGGCTGTGA
GGGACAGGGGAGTGGCGCCCTGCAATATTTGCATGTCGCTATGTGTTCTGGGAAATCAC
CATAAACGTGAAATGTCTTTGGATTTGGGAATCTTATAAGTTCTGTATGAGACCACTCT
TTCCCGctcgaacttctgacctcagGTTTTAGAGCTATGCTGGAAACAGCATAGCAAGT
TAAAATAAGGCTAGTCCGTTATCAACTTGAAAAAAGTGGCACCGAGTCGGTGCTTTTTTA
CTAGTcgcta

sgRNA_FOXP2_Eproximal_1_3:

CCATACAATTGGGGCAGGAAGAGGGCCTATTTCCCATGATTCCTTCATATTTGCATATA
CGATACAAGGCTGTTAGAGAGATAATTAGAATTAATTTGACTGTAAACACAAAGATATT
AGTACAAAATACGTGACGTAGAAAGTAATAATTTCTTGGGTAGTTTGCAGTTTTAAAAT
TATGTTTTAAAATGGACTATCATGTACACTTACCGTAACTTGAAAGTATTTCGATTTCT
TGGCTTTATATATCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAGGTACCGctgtaataagatagcagggGTTT
TAGAGCTATGCTGGAAACAGCATAGCAAGTTAAAATAAGGCTAGTCCGTTATCAACTTG
AAAAAGTGGCACCGAGTCGGTGCTTTTTTACGCGTACTAGTcgcta

sgRNA FOXP2 Eproximal 2 3:

CCATACAATTGGGGCAGAAGAGGGCCTATTTCCCATGATTCCTTCATATTTGCATATA
CGATACAAGGCTGTTAGAGAGATAATTAGAATTAATTTGACTGTAAACACAAAGATATT
AGTACAAAATACGTGACGTAGAAAGTAATAATTTCTTGGGTAGTTTGCAGTTTTAAAAT
TATGTTTTAAAATGGACTATCATGTACACTTACCGTAACTTGAAAGTATTTCT
TGGCTTTATATATCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAGGTACCGtatggctgccacattccgt
GTTT
TAGAGCTATGCTGGAAACAGCATAGCAAGTTAAAATAAGGCTAGTCCGTTATCAACTTG
AAAAAGTGGCACCGAGTCGGTGCTTTTTTACGCGTACTAGTcqcta

Primers qPCR

> qFoxP2_Fw GCAGCAGAGATGGAAGATCA

> qFoxP2_Rv AGTTGTCTTGCTGCCTGGAG

cDNA amplicon size:103

Estimated genomic amplicon size:108040

> qMDFIC_Fw GTCCATTTGGGGAAATCCTT

> qMDFIC_Rv CATTGCTCAGACCTGTGTGG

cDNA amplicon size:140

Estimated genomic amplicon size:37248

Primers Surveyor & deletion detection

sMDFIC Fw2
TGATCTCAGTGCAGGCAAA
sMDFIC Rv2
GTTGGACTAAGGTGCCAGTT

2314pb (deletion FOXP2 Distal)

sMDFIC Fw

TACTGTTTCATGGATGCTGACT SMDFIC RV CCTTTGGCCACAGACTGAA

sFOXP2 Fw

GGGATAGCACTGGGAGAAATAC sFOXP2 Rv GCGGTGGCTCATTTCTGTA

6264 pb (deletion FOXP2 Proximal)

sFOXP2 Fw2 TTCTGCACCTTGGGTTAGG

sFOXP2 Rv2

AGGGTTGATTGATTGCCAGAG