

7.1 INTRODUCTION ①

Post-transcriptional gene regulation involves controlling gene expression after RNA is transcribed from DNA but before it is translated into protein, affecting mRNA localisation, and translation efficiency. Although we have already discussed one component of post transcriptional regulation in previous chapter in the topic, small regulatory RNA-mediated regulation, yet there are several other key mechanisms which may not be directly related to epigenetic modifications discussed previously. Hence, we will discuss those remaining post-transcriptional regulations here in this chapter. In particular our focus will be on RNA splicing, RNA stability, RNA editing and RNA surveillance. Among the common types of post-transcriptional mechanisms are include RNA splicing, RNA editing, RNA stability regulation and control of RNA localisation. **RNA splicing** (the term was already introduced in molecular biology, chapter transcription), where alternative splicing generates multiple mRNA variants from a single gene, increasing protein diversity. For example, the *Drosophila* Dscam gene can produce thousands of protein isoforms through alternative splicing. **mRNA stability** is regulated by elements like AU-rich regions in the 3' UTR, influencing mRNA degradation rates; for instance, the rapid degradation of cytokine mRNAs allows tight control of inflammatory responses. Yet another component of RNA stability is the regulation through regulatory RNAs such as the action of microRNAs (miRNAs), like miR-21, which downregulates tumor suppressor genes in cancer. **mRNA localisation** ensures proteins are synthesized where needed, such as β -actin mRNA localisation to the leading edge of fibroblasts for cell motility and hence also controls the spatial regulation of gene expression. **RNA editing** such as the A-to-I editing in the glutamate receptor gene, alters RNA sequences, impacting mRNA stability and protein function. Additionally, **mRNA surveillance** mechanisms prevent the production of faulty proteins by degrading mRNAs with premature stop codons or inability to stop translation. Post-transcriptional regulation of gene expression plays a critical role in maintaining cellular homeostasis, responding to environmental changes, and ensuring proper development and function in organisms. These processes are essential for the precise control of gene expression and protein production, and their dysregulation can lead to numerous diseases and metabolic disorders. In cancer, aberrant alternative splicing can produce oncogenic protein variants or result in the loss of tumor suppressor functions, with mutations in splicing factors being common in several cancers. Alterations in RNA stability and turnover can also lead to the overexpression or under expression of critical genes, and dysregulated microRNAs (miRNAs) frequently influence tumor growth. In neurodegenerative diseases, misregulation of RNA splicing and editing is implicated in conditions like amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) and frontotemporal dementia, where mutations in RNA-binding proteins can cause widespread splicing defects. RNA surveillance mechanisms, such as nonsense-mediated decay (NMD), are vital for eliminating faulty mRNAs; failures in these pathways can result in toxic protein accumulation, contributing to diseases like Huntington's and Alzheimer's. In metabolic

disorders, post-transcriptional regulation is crucial for metabolic control, with RNA editing of apolipoprotein B (Apo B) mRNA affecting lipid metabolism, and disruptions in RNA binding proteins and miRNAs linked to insulin resistance and diabetes. In this chapter we will discuss these well-established post-transcriptional regulatory mechanisms in greater detail.

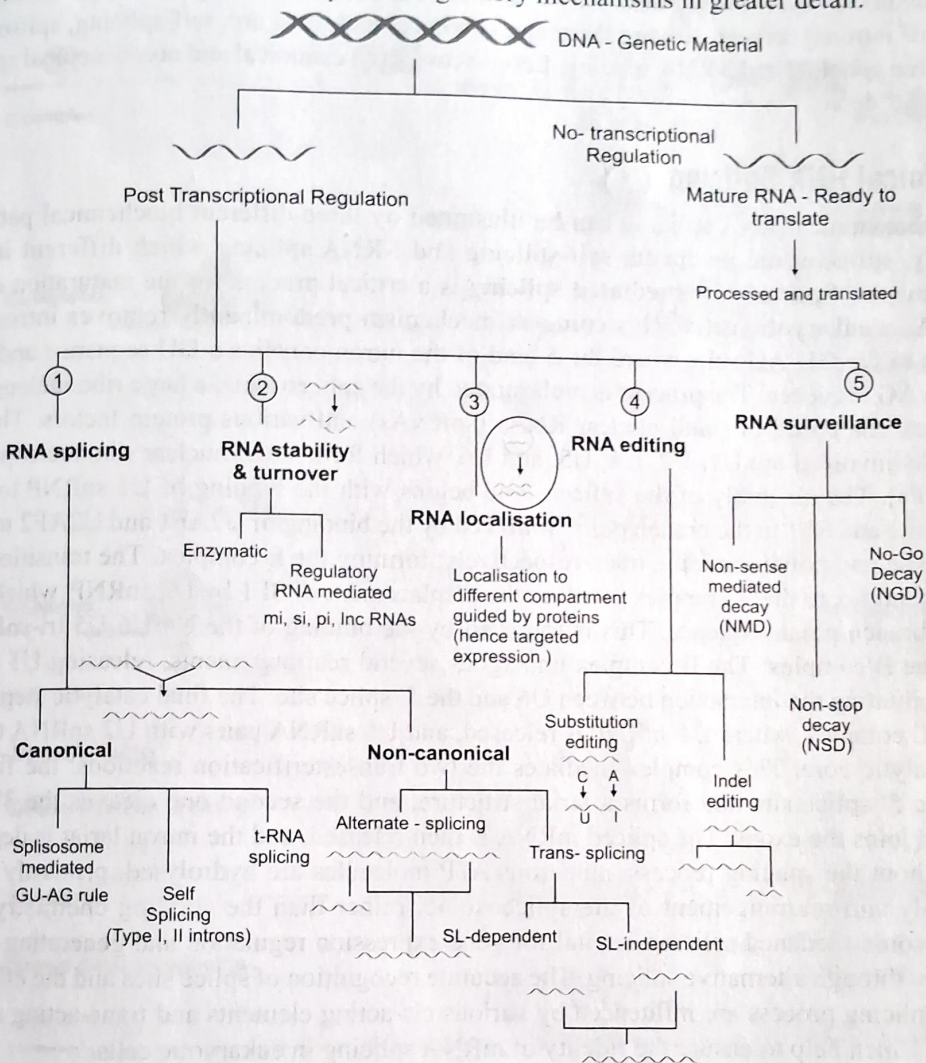


Fig. 7.1. General outline of various of post-transcriptional regulatory mechanisms.

7.2 RNA SPLICING ②

As we learnt in previous unit, during our discussion on transcription, that most of the RNA in eukaryotes is processed after its formation. One of the prominent features of RNA processing, especially for those RNAs which contain intervening sequences (introns) is called **RNA splicing**. The literaric meaning of splicing is to join two pieces of rope, film, etc. together at their ends in order to form one long piece. Likewise, the RNA with intervening sequence is first cut to remove those sequences (or introns) and join together into a final product called mature RNA. There are several mechanisms of RNA splicing known to us till date, some of which lead to a single final product from a single precursor or unprocessed RNA, is called simple or **canonical splicing**, while the another one called, **non-canonical splicing**, is less common and

does not apply to all RNAs. Here, more than one precursor RNAs may be involved from different genes (**trans-splicing**) or there can be single precursor RNA which can splice in more than one way and lead to different transcripts from same pre-mRNA called **alternate splicing**. The canonical RNA splicing also, may follow various paths depending upon types of RNAs (types of introns) present. Among the major canonical pathways are, self-splicing, spliceosome-mediated splicing, and t-RNA splicing. Let's discuss, both canonical and non-canonical splicing in greater detail.