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# Deciphering the molecular mechanism of stop codon readthrough

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## 11 ABSTRACT

Recognition of the stop codon by the translation machinery is essential to terminating translation at the right position and to synthesizing a protein of the correct size. Under certain conditions, the stop codon can be recognized as a coding codon promoting translation, which then terminates at a later stop codon. This event, called stop codon readthrough, occurs either by error, due to a dedicated regulatory environment leading to generation of different protein

- 17 isoforms, or through the action of a readthrough compound. This review focuses on the
- 18 mechanisms of stop codon readthrough, the nucleotide and protein environments that
- 19 facilitate or inhibit it, and the therapeutic interest of stop codon readthrough in the treatment
- 20 of genetic diseases caused by nonsense mutations.

21

- 22 Key words: stop codon readthrough, mechanism, translation termination, premature
- 23 termination codon, readthrough activators, molecules, screening.
- 24

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## 46 I. INTRODUCTION

- 47 For cells to function properly, genetic information must be faithfully expressed in RNAs or
- 48 proteins. A key step in the gene expression pathway is translation from messenger RNA
- 49 (mRNA) to protein. Translation obeys very specific rules, such as starting at an initiation
- 50 codon (very often an AUG codon) and stopping at one of the three stop codons UAA, UAG,

or UGA, in order to ensure accurate protein length. Sometimes, however, rules can be 51 bypassed, and translation is no exception. Under specific conditions, ribosomes may ignore 52 stop codons, continuing with translation and extending the C-terminal part of the nascent 53 protein. The C-terminally extended protein may acquire a new functional domain in this way. 54 The absence of termination codon recognition is called stop codon readthrough. Although this 55 can constitute a decoding error, stop codon readthrough can also be a means of expressing 56 57 different protein isoforms and may represent a therapeutic solution for some pathologies. This review discusses the different molecular factors that regulate translation termination and 58 stop codon readthrough, mainly in higher eukaryotes. It also outlines the potential of this 59 60 mechanism in terms of basic science and clinical applications to advance understanding of pathways of gene expression and in the development of therapeutic approaches for nonsense-61 mutation-related genetic diseases. Potential clinical applications of a stop codon readthrough 62 63 strategy have recently been discussed in several reviews (Morais, Adachi & Yu, 2020; Dabrowski, Bukowy-Bieryllo & Zietkiewicz, 2018; Sharma, Keeling & Rowe, 2020; Bezzerri 64 65 et al., 2020), hence we focus here on the molecular mechanisms leading to stop codon readthrough. 66

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#### 3 II. TRANSLATION TERMINATION

Translation is a process that promotes amino acid polymerization leading to a peptide sequence based on an mRNA sequence. The ribosome carries out translation with the help of cofactors, ensuring accurate decoding of the open reading frame (ORF) (Dever, Kinzy & Pavitt, 2016; Merrick, 1992; Kapur, Monaghan & Ackerman, 2017). Misincorporation of an amino acid occurs at a very low rate. For example, misincorporation of a lysine instead of an arginine during translation of protamine mRNA has been estimated at only 0.06% to 0.2% (Mori *et al.*, 1985). Site A of the ribosome is where the transfer RNA (tRNA) carrying an

amino acid hybridizes with a codon *via* its anticodon sequence, thus bringing to the growing 76 77 polypeptide chain the next amino acid to be incorporated (Fig. 1A). tRNAs are subject to numerous post-transcriptional modifications that stabilize their tertiary and quaternary 78 79 structures and also favour codon-anticodon interaction in the ribosome by changing the polarity of the modified base and allowing additional interactions with the ribosome 80 (Grosjean & Westhof, 2016). It is established that post-transcriptional modifications of tRNAs 81 82 play a role in the fidelity of codon recognition, and their absence can lead to increased codon recognition by near-cognate tRNAs (Blanchet et al., 2018). 83 Translation termination occurs when site A of the ribosome reaches one of three stop codons 84 85 (UAA, UAG or UGA) in frame with the translation initiation codon (Fig. 1A). In human cells, the only tRNA to recognize these stop codons is tRNA<sup>[Ser]Sec</sup>, which carries the amino acid 86 selenocysteine and pairs with UGA stop codons in a dedicated environment such as a 87 selenocysteine insertion sequence (SECIS) combined with the presence of SECIS binding-88 protein 2 (SBP2) (Labunskyy, Hatfield & Gladyshev, 2014). When the ribosome reaches a 89 90 stop codon, competition occurs between the translation termination complex and near-cognate 91 tRNAs recognizing two of the three bases constituting the stop codon. Likely because of a lower energetic stability of stop codon recognition by a near-cognate tRNA, the translation 92 termination complex is recruited in more than 99.9% of cases (Floquet et al., 2012; Rajon & 93 Masel, 2011). UAG and UAA stop codons share the same near-cognate tRNAs, which differ 94 from those recognizing UGA stop codons. The amino acids glutamine, tyrosine, and lysine 95 are incorporated during UAG or UAA readthrough, whereas arginine, cysteine, and 96 tryptophan can be incorporated during UGA readthrough, consistent with their positions in the 97 genetic code table (Feng et al., 1990; Roy et al., 2015). Yet our understanding of stop codon 98 misdecoding by near-cognate tRNAs is far from complete, since other amino acids have also 99

100 been found to be incorporated during readthrough, according to the nonsense mutation and its

101 nucleotide context. In particular, leucine is the main amino acid incorporated during

readthrough of the UGA nonsense mutation at position 1282 (mutation W1282X) of the cystic
fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) gene (Xue *et al.*, 2017). It is important
to note that the protein synthesized may or may not be functional according to the amino acid
incorporated at the site of the nonsense mutation, if this position is crucial for the function or
stability of the protein.

107 The translation termination complex is composed of at least two subunits, called eukaryotic 108 release factors (eRFs) 1 and 3 (Fig. 1A). The eRF1 subunit mimics a tRNA and enters the A site of the ribosome to recognize the stop codon (Muramatsu et al., 2001; Song et al., 2000). 109 110 In eukaryotic cells, interestingly, eRF1 recognizes all three stop codons, whereas in prokaryotic cells, two release factors (RFs) are necessary: RF-1 recognizes UAA and UAG 111 stop codons, whereas RF-2 recognizes UAA and UGA stop codons. To understand how eRF1 112 113 recognizes all three stop codons, Brown et al. (2015) used cryo-electron microscopy and a catalytically inactive eRF1 to show that glutamic acid at position 55 and tyrosine at position 114 115 125 of eRF1 discriminate between purines and pyrimidines at the second and third base 116 positions of a codon. They thus play a crucial role in the ability of eRF1 to recognize stop codons (Brown et al., 2015). The eRF3 subunit is a GTPase whose activity is stimulated 117 118 mainly by interaction with either the polyA-binding protein (PABP), when translation termination occurs at the physiological stop codon, or the nonsense-mediated mRNA decay 119 (NMD) factor UPF3X (also called UPF3B), when translation termination occurs at a 120 premature termination codon (PTC) (Neu-Yilik et al., 2017). When eRF3 catalyses 121 conversion of GTP to GDP, it induces a conformational change in the structure of eRF1, 122 promoting translation termination through release of the nascent peptide chain and 123 replacement of eRF3 by the ATPase ABCE1 (ATP Binding Cassette Subfamily E Member 1). 124 ABCE1 will then hydrolyse ATP to ADP to promote recycling of the two ribosomal subunits 125

(Fig. 1A). In addition to the stop codon and to certain proteins located downstream of the stop 126 127 codon (PABP or UPF3X for instance), the nucleotide environment around the stop codon, and particularly certain post-transcriptional modifications, may influence the translation 128 129 termination process. A transcriptome-wide mRNA methylation analysis has revealed a high level of methylation at position 6 of adenosine (m6A) at the end of the ORF and the beginning 130 of the 3' untranslated region (UTR), in the vicinity of the stop codon. This deserves further 131 132 investigation and clarification, as it suggests a possible role of this mark in translation termination (Meyer et al., 2012; Li et al., 2014). 133

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#### 135 III. DIFFERENT TYPES OF STOP CODON READTHROUGH

Although translation termination must be a very efficient process to ensure the correct protein size, under certain conditions or at a very low rate, a near-cognate tRNA can be recruited to the A site of the ribosome when the latter reaches a stop codon. The consequence of this is that translation continues until a later stop codon that promotes translation termination. This event is called stop codon readthrough (Fig. 1B). Several types of readthrough can occur at stop codons, depending on the presence of regulatory elements or of readthrough-promoting molecules (Fig. 2).

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## 144 (1) Non-programmed translational readthrough

In the absence of any readthrough molecules, readthrough of any physiological stop codon or
PTC can occur at a basal level. This readthrough can be considered a translation error and is
referred to here as non-programmed translational readthrough (Fig. 2A). This type of
readthrough is a rare event, calculated as less than 0.1% in more than 80% of cases (Rajon &
Masel, 2011; Floquet *et al.*, 2012; Fearon *et al.*, 1994). Interestingly, the likelihood of nonprogrammed translational readthrough depends on the identity of the stop codon. It is highest

151 at the UGA stop codon, whereas translation termination is most efficient at the UAA stop

152 codon. In the case of PTCs, this very low readthrough rate is partly due to competition

153 between near-cognate tRNAs and release factors, in favour of the former, but it is also due in

154 part to activation of the surveillance mechanism provided by NMD, which results in silencing

155 of the gene (Gupta & Li, 2018; Lejeune, 2017; Kurosaki & Maquat, 2016; He & Jacobson,

156 2015). Non-programmed translational readthrough thus occurs on the fraction of PTC-

157 carrying mRNAs that escape NMD (Kuzmiak & Maquat, 2006).

Although the amount of protein generated by non-programmed translational readthrough is 158 minute compared to the amount of protein produced without readthrough of a physiological 159 160 stop codon or from the wild-type mRNA in the case of a PTC, the consequences of nonprogrammed translational readthrough can be considerable. For example, the phenotypes of 161 patients suffering from the same pathology and carrying the same nonsense mutation may 162 163 vary even though they should be identical due to silencing of the mutant gene. Some cystic fibrosis patients with a nonsense mutation that one would assume to cause a severe phenotype 164 165 due to the absence of the CFTR protein actually show mild pulmonary damage (Cutting et al., 166 1990; Kerem et al., 1990). The level of non-programmed translational readthrough has been proposed to explain this mild phenotype, allowing some functional full-length CFTR protein 167 168 to be synthesized.

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#### 170 (2) Programmed translational readthrough

The second type of readthrough is called programmed translational readthrough (Fig. 2B). It
targets specific mRNAs (Loughran *et al.*, 2018; Freitag, Ast & Bolker, 2012; Dunn *et al.*,
2013) and is a proteome-expanding mechanism allowing synthesis of specific protein
isoforms with particular functions. It is thus a way to synthesize two isoforms of a protein
from one mRNA. A specific regulatory mechanism intervenes at the physiological stop codon

either to terminate translation at the first stop codon in phase with the initiation codon starting 176 the ORF or to promote its readthrough so as to terminate translation at one of the downstream 177 stop codons in phase with the initiation codon. This type of readthrough has been identified in 178 179 viruses, fungi, *Drosophila* spp., and mammals. In human cells, programmed translational readthrough is thought to be a very rare event, reported to affect the expression of only a 180 dozen genes: the opioid receptor Kappa 1 (OPRK1), opioid related nociceptin receptor 1 181 182 (OPRL1), aquaporin 4 (AOP4), mitogen-activated protein kinase 10 (MAPK10), peroxisomal lactate dehydrogenase B (LDHB), malate dehydrogenase (MDH1), vitamin D receptor (VDR), 183 vascular endothelial growth factor A (VEGFA), myelin protein zero (MPZ), and beta-globin 184 185 genes (Loughran et al., 2014, 2018; Chittum et al., 1998; Yamaguchi et al., 2012; Eswarappa et al., 2014; Schueren et al., 2014; Geller & Rich, 1980). It appears more frequent in other 186 species. In *Drosophila melanogaster*, for example, the expression of several hundred genes is 187 188 regulated via this readthrough process (Lin et al., 2007). Similarly, some 5% of yeast genes appear to be subject to programmed translational readthrough (Kleppe & Bornberg-Bauer, 189 190 2018). An in silico analysis aiming to identify physiological stop codons putatively subject to 191 programmed translational readthrough suggests that this process may actually occur more frequently than previously thought in many species, including humans (Jungreis et al., 2016; 192 193 Dunn et al., 2013). Consistent with these results, ribosome profiling performed on human foreskin fibroblasts revealed 42 genes as potentially subject to programmed translational 194 readthrough. Interestingly, this process has been shown to generate C-terminally extended 195 proteins very efficiently, with the amount of protein formed exceeding the amount of 196 unextended product protein by up to 30% (Loughran et al., 2014; Singh et al., 2019). This 197 suggests that specific translation termination regulation occurs at these physiological stop 198 199 codons and that cis elements and trans-acting factors must be involved in promoting an

exceptionally high rate of readthrough. Some such elements have been identified and aredescribed in Section IV.

202

#### 203 (3) Induced translational readthrough

The third type of stop codon readthrough is PTC readthrough promoted by certain molecules 204 (Fig. 2C), here termed induced stop codon readthrough. When the ribosome reaches a stop 205 codon, the presence of such molecules favour recruitment of near-cognate tRNAs instead of 206 207 the translation termination complex. In early studies, aminoglycosides were shown to facilitate this type of readthrough process in bacteria and yeast (Singh, Ursic & Davies, 1979). 208 209 The first evidence of induced nonsense mutation readthrough in mammalian cells was reported a few years later in a study of G418 and paromomycin aminoglycosides (Burke & 210 Mogg, 1985). Since then, both aminoglycoside and non-aminoglycoside molecules have been 211 212 identified as readthrough molecules (see Section IV) that might potentially be used to treat nonsense-mutation-related pathologies. 213

214 Several lines of evidence indicate that induced translational readthrough occurs at PTCs and 215 not at physiological stop codons. The nucleotide and protein environments around physiological stop codons have been evolutionarily selected to facilitate translation 216 217 termination. This is not true of PTCs, since they appear through mutation in an environment selected to promote translation and not translation termination. While PTCs do promote 218 translation termination, they are more sensitive to readthrough than physiological stop codons. 219 Although several studies using readthrough molecules have shown the absence of readthrough 220 at physiological stop codons (Benhabiles et al., 2017; Trzaska et al., 2020; Welch et al., 2007), 221 it remains necessary to demonstrate for each new molecule that it does not impact translation 222 termination at physiological stop codons. 223

Interestingly, the efficiency of translational readthrough induced by a molecule may be related
to the level of non-programmed translational readthrough (basal level of readthrough)
occurring at the stop codon in the absence of that molecule: the higher the level of basal
readthrough, the more efficient the readthrough promoted by molecules such as
aminoglycosides (Floquet *et al.*, 2012), which should be taken into account when
implementing a therapeutic approach for a given nonsense mutation.

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### 231 IV. PARAMETERS INFLUENCING STOP CODON READTHROUGH

The basal readthrough level varies from one stop codon to another, as shown in various studies (Fearon *et al.*, 1994; Floquet *et al.*, 2012; Rajon & Masel, 2011). The identity of the stop codon influences this level, but other elements acting in cis or trans can also modulate the efficiency of PTC or physiological stop codon readthrough. Such elements can influence all three types of stop codon readthrough.

237

#### 238 (1) Cis elements activating stop codon readthrough

239 Stop codon readthrough efficiency can be influenced by various factors, including the identity of the stop codon and the nucleotide sequence surrounding it (Bidou et al., 2004; Howard et 240 241 al., 2000). Results from studies where a PTC was introduced into a reporter gene show that the UGA stop codon is the most permissive to readthrough and the UAA stop codon is the 242 least permissive (Bidou et al., 2004; Floquet et al., 2012; Howard et al., 2000; Wangen & 243 Green, 2020; Manuvakhova, Keeling & Bedwell, 2000). However, these properties can be 244 altered by the nucleotide context of the stop codon (Bonetti et al., 1995; McCaughan et al., 245 1995; Cassan & Rousset, 2001). In particular, counting the first nucleotide of the stop codon 246 as position +1, the nucleotide at position +4 strongly influences translation termination 247 efficiency. It appears that a purine at this position, as found in about 90% of the most highly 248

expressed human genes, favours translation termination (Tate & Mannering, 1996), whereas a 249 250 pyrimidine facilitates readthrough (Brown et al., 1990; McCaughan et al., 1995; Tate & Mannering, 1996). In particular, the presence of a cytosine at position +4 has been shown to 251 252 allow, in most cases, the most efficient stop codon suppression (Floquet et al., 2012; Howard et al., 2000; Phillips-Jones, Watson & Martin, 1993; Wangen & Green, 2020), although this is 253 not an absolute rule. The nucleotide environment most favourable to efficient readthrough 254 also depends on the identity of the stop codon. Manuvakhova et al. (2000) found cytosine to 255 256 be the most favourable nucleotide at position +4 for promoting readthrough of UGA and UAA stop codons, but readthrough of UAG stop codons was most efficient when the other 257 258 pyrimidine, uracil, is present at that position.

The nucleotide immediately following the stop codon is not the only nucleotide that can 259 influence readthrough efficiency. Several studies have demonstrated that some downstream 260 261 nucleotides can favour readthrough. Recently, a study measuring stop codon readthrough by ribosome profiling showed that the two nucleotides immediately downstream of the stop 262 263 codon strongly influence readthrough efficiency (Wangen & Green, 2020). The authors concluded that enrichment in adenosines or uridines in the vicinity of the stop codon favours 264 stop codon readthrough, whereas enrichment in guanosines or cytosines favours translation 265 266 termination. Other studies have demonstrated that both upstream and downstream sequences 267 influence the readthrough rate at a stop codon. In particular, CAA sequences upstream and downstream of a UAG stop codon in the ste6 gene in yeast or in a reporter gene have been 268 shown to act synergistically to promote readthrough (Fearon et al., 1994; Manuvakhova et al., 269 270 2000; Bonetti et al., 1995; Xue et al., 2014).

According to the reporter system used to investigate readthrough efficiency, the upstream and downstream consensus sequences favouring stop codon readthrough may differ slightly. For example, the downstream sequences CAR YYA (where R is a purine and Y is a pyrimidine)

and CAR NBA (where N is any of the four nucleotides and B can be U, C or G) seem to 274 275 favour stop codon readthrough (Namy, Hatin & Rousset, 2001; Harrell, Melcher & Atkins, 2002; Beier & Grimm, 2001). These hexanucleotide sequences are found in several virus and 276 277 cell genes associated with the regulation of programmed translational readthrough (Skuzeski et al., 1991). The upstream sequence can also affect readthrough efficiency. For example, one 278 study found that the nucleotide sequence spanning positions -6 to +9 influences readthrough 279 rate. In particular, positions -1 and +4 were crucial for readthrough activation, and the 280 sequence U STOP C has been reported as the consensus sequence for efficient readthrough 281 (Floquet et al., 2012). Supporting the idea of involvement of the upstream sequence in 282 283 promoting readthrough, a recent study on the glycosyltransferase gene B4GALNT1 has demonstrated that the base triplet AGC, immediately upstream and downstream of the PTC, is 284 required for efficient basal readthrough generated by the M4 nonsense mutation at amino acid 285 286 228 (Yesmin et al., 2020). Overall, all these studies indicate that stop codon readthrough efficiency is modulated by cis elements that have not yet been clearly identified and that are 287 288 likely to differ among genes. It remains very difficult to predict with certainty the rate of 289 readthrough of a stop codon without additional experimental data. For instance, when attempting to explain why a given readthrough molecule has variable effects on the same 290 291 nonsense mutation located at different positions in a gene, one must consider the influence of 292 the stop-codon-surrounding sequence on readthrough efficiency. This is especially true when the goal is to develop a therapeutic approach (Martorell et al., 2020). 293 294 Besides the immediate primary sequence surrounding the stop codon, some secondary structures have been shown to facilitate stop codon readthrough. In the Moloney murine 295 leukemia virus, a pseudoknot located eight nucleotides downstream of the stop codon 296 297 separating the gag and pol ORFs promotes readthrough by about 5% of the ribosomes

reaching this stop codon (Wills, Gesteland & Atkins, 1991). Since this discovery, efficient

readthroughs have been found to require other secondary structures (e.g. conserved hairpins)

300 occurring at stop codons from various virus genomes (Firth *et al.*, 2011). The exact

301 mechanism remains obscure, but these results suggest that certain proteins could be recruited

302 by these secondary structures to promote readthrough.

303

### 304 (2) Trans elements activating readthrough

305 When the ribosome reaches a stop codon, it must terminate translation or ignore this translation termination signal by incorporating an amino acid and continuing translation of the 306 ORF to a downstream stop codon. To understand the mechanisms underlying the 'decision' to 307 308 stop translation or to continue, specific factors dedicated to stop codon readthrough have been sought. Some endogenous trans elements have been identified as proteins or RNAs required 309 310 either for readthrough of specific stop codons or for the general readthrough mechanism. 311 Molecules with the capacity to promote readthrough are of particular interest because of their potential in treating nonsense-mutation-related pathologies. Finally, the cell environment has 312 been shown to influence readthrough efficiency, suggesting that regulation of the readthrough 313 314 process may occur according to culture conditions.

315

316 (a) Proteins and RNAs

To date, only a few factors have been implicated in the readthrough process, some affecting all stop codon readthroughs and some that are specific to readthrough of one particular stop codon.

320

321 (i) Factors involved in the general process of stop codon readthrough

322 As readthrough opposes translation termination and *vice versa*, it is not surprising that loss of

323 function of proteins involved in translation termination leads to increased levels of stop codon

readthrough. For example, the proteins termination and polyadenylation 1 (TPA1) and Ccr4 324 325 associated factor 1 (CAF1 also called POP2) involved in regulating the length of the poly(A) tail also participate in the translation termination process. In experiments using the firefly 326 327 luciferase reporter gene carrying a PTC, loss of TPA1 or POP2 function in yeast resulted in increased basal readthrough levels (Keeling et al., 2006). These proteins can thus be viewed 328 as inhibitors of stop codon readthrough. However, in both yeast and human cells, the 329 330 nucleotide context appears to determine whether TPA1 exerts a positive or a negative influence on stop codon readthrough (Loenarz et al., 2014). In yeast, the balance between 331 translation termination efficiency and stop codon readthrough efficiency can be altered by the 332 333 expression levels of the inhibitor of translation termination 1 (ITT1) gene. This was demonstrated in experiments using a PGK1-STOP-LacZ reporter construct, in which 334 overexpression of ITT1 caused increased basal levels of readthrough (Urakov et al., 2001). 335 336 Another example of the antagonism between translation termination efficiency and stop codon readthrough activation is illustrated by the dead-box RNA helicase Dbp5/DDX19, which is 337 338 involved in translation termination. Dbp5/DDX19 interacts with eRF1, bringing it into contact 339 with eRF3 so as to promote translation termination (Fig. 1). If the function of Dbp5/DDX19 is impaired, eRF1 interacts prematurely with eRF3 leading to failure of the translation 340 341 termination process, thus allowing near-cognate tRNAs to enter the A site of the ribosome, recognize the stop codon, and promote readthrough (Gross et al., 2007; Mikhailova et al., 342 2017; Beissel et al., 2019). 343 344 Although it makes sense that proteins involved in the translation termination process can interfere with stop codon readthrough, it is surprising to note the presence of translation 345 initiation factors among the proteins that modulate stop codon readthrough. In both yeast and 346

347 human cells, the eukaryotic initiation translation factor 3 (eIF3) seems to play a general role

in programmed translational readthrough. The absence of functional eIF3 reduces the basal

level of readthrough of all three stop codons, provided they are in a readthrough-favourable
nucleotide context (Beznoskova *et al.*, 2015). To promote readthrough, eIF3 appears to act as
an inhibitor of eRF1 by interacting with the pre-termination complex and interfering with
pairing between eRF1 and the third base of the codon. By preventing recognition of the stop
codon by eRF1, eIF3 favours recognition of the stop codon by a near-cognate tRNA, thus
promoting stop codon readthrough.

355 It is also possible to modulate the efficiency of stop codon readthrough by acting on the 356 fidelity of the translation process. tRNAs are subject to various post-transcriptional modifications that prevent erroneous codon recognition by the tRNA. For example, the 357 358 wobble effect, proposed to explain recognition of the first two bases of a codon by a nearcognate tRNA independently of the third nucleotide (Crick, 1966), is strongly increased when 359 360 these post-transcriptional modifications are not present (Duechler *et al.*, 2016; Hagervall *et al.*, 361 1990; Bednarova et al., 2017; Agris et al., 2017). Interestingly, the rules governing recognition of a stop codon by a near-cognate tRNA appear less restrictive than proposed by 362 the wobble effect, as more tRNAs than expected can recognize a stop codon (Roy et al., 2015). 363 Not only can codon recognition by a near-cognate tRNA occur via the first two bases of the 364 codon independently of the third nucleotide, but it can also occur via the last two bases of the 365 366 codon independently of the first. Similarly, the discovery that leucine is the amino acid most 367 abundantly incorporated at the nonsense mutation W1282X in the CFTR gene suggests that a tRNA may recognize a stop codon with a mismatch at the central base of the triplet forming 368 369 the codon (Xue et al., 2017).

Note also that, before being substrates of stop codon readthrough, PTC-carrying mRNAs are
substrates of NMD. It is therefore tempting to connect these two mechanisms and to
hypothesize that they share factors in common. In humans at least, this is indeed the case for
some NMD factors: downregulation of the NMD factors Up frameshift (UPF) 1, 2, or 3X/3B

impairs readthrough, indicating that these factors are necessary for this process (Jia *et al.*, 374 375 2017; Ivanov et al., 2008). The exact roles of these NMD proteins in readthrough remain to be clarified, especially because contradictory reports have been published on this role of UPF 376 377 proteins in other organisms such as yeast. It has notably been claimed that UPF proteins inhibit readthrough, since knockout of one UPF gene in yeast results in an increased 378 readthrough rate (Salas-Marco & Bedwell, 2005; Wang et al., 2001). However, another study 379 failed to observe any effect of UPF gene knockout on the readthrough rate, suggesting that 380 these proteins are not involved in readthrough (Harger & Dinman, 2004). The role of the UPF 381 proteins in stop codon readthrough thus may differ between yeast and humans. This warrants 382 383 in-depth investigations into the connection between NMD and stop codon readthrough. Translation takes place a priori throughout the cytoplasm, and since stop codon readthrough 384 shares the same translation machinery, it can be expected also to occur in the cytoplasm, 385 386 without any dedicated sites. Yet a recent study demonstrated that the cytoskeleton influences PTC readthrough (Jia et al., 2017). In particular, basal readthrough is activated when 387 388 formation of actin filaments is impaired. It thus seems that actin filaments are neither required 389 for readthrough nor favourable to it, meaning that they may participate in some form of readthrough inhibition. The same study showed that non-programmed translational 390 readthrough occurs at specific cytoplasmic foci different from P-bodies and named 391 392 readthrough bodies (Jia et al., 2017). Their results suggest that PTC-containing mRNAs are actively targeted either to degradation by NMD or to undergo PTC readthrough. Although 393 UPF proteins have been found in readthrough bodies (unlike the P-body marker decapping 394 protein 1a (DCP1a), which is involved in NMD), readthrough body characterization remains 395 poor and no specific proteins have been identified. 396

397

398 (ii) Factors involved in specific stop codon readthrough events

To explain programmed translational readthrough on an mRNA, cis elements have been 399 identified (see Section IV.1). Often these cis elements work together with or recruit factors to 400 promote readthrough of a specific stop codon. For example, heterogeneous nuclear 401 402 ribonucleoprotein (hnRNP) A2/B1, an RNA-binding protein involved in primary microRNA (pri-miRNA) processing and in the trafficking and assembly of the human immunodeficiency 403 virus (HIV) genome (Alarcon et al., 2015; Beriault et al., 2004; Levesque et al., 2006), is 404 405 involved in programmed translational readthrough on VEGFA mRNA (Eswarappa et al., 406 2014; Houck-Loomis et al., 2011). HnRNP A2/B1 interacts with an A2 response element (A2RE) located downstream of the physiological stop codon to promote stop codon 407 408 readthrough. Mutating the A2RE sequence or downregulating hnRNP A2/B1 impairs readthrough of the physiological stop codon of VEGFA mRNA. Whether hnRNP A2/B1 409 410 interacts with VEGFA pre-messenger RNA (pre-mRNA) or mRNA only has not yet been 411 investigated, but given the nuclear localization of this protein, it could be an early mark for specific programmed translational readthrough. 412 413 More recently, Lethal 7a (Let7a) microRNA (miRNA) has been shown to promote 414 programmed translational readthrough on Argonaute 1 (Ago1) mRNA, generating a longer isoform called Ago1x. The miRNA binds a sequence downstream of the physiological stop 415 416 codon and upstream of the subsequent in-phase downstream stop codon. This sequence is sufficient to promote readthrough when introduced into a heterologous 3' UTR (Singh et al., 417 2019). This indicates that the mechanism is independent of the identity of the stop codon or of 418 419 the mRNA, as long as a Let7a miRNA binding site is present downstream of the stop codon to 420 be read through.

Both hnRNP A2/B1 and Let7a miRNA bind an RNA sequence located about 10 nucleotides

422 downstream of the stop codon whose readthrough they promote. This suggests a possible

423 interaction with the translation machinery pausing on the stop codon. In both cases,

interestingly, the rate of translational readthrough of the canonical stop codon reaches at least
20%, which can be considered very efficient stop codon readthrough (Eswarappa *et al.*, 2014;
Singh *et al.*, 2019). Unfortunately, the precise mechanism remains to be determined in order
to understand how these trans elements impair translation termination and efficiently promote
synthesis of a C-terminally extended protein.

429 All factors involved in translation termination or stop codon readthrough constitute targets for 430 the development of therapeutic approaches to treating genetic diseases caused by nonsense mutations. By inhibiting the synthesis of these factors or in some cases by overproducing 431 them, stop codon readthrough is activated. Readthrough activation could thus represent a 432 433 potential way to correct a nonsense mutation responsible for a pathology. Molecules capable of targeting the trans factors described in this section could be sought in the framework of 434 developing a therapeutic approach. Yet to date, as discussed in Section V, this is not yet a 435 436 common approach to identify readthrough molecules. The strategy used focuses on searching for molecules that target the readthrough mechanism as a whole, rather than targeting a 437 438 specific factor.

439

440 (b) Small molecules

441 Because of their potential therapeutic interest, molecules activating PTC readthrough have been the focus of many studies. Historically, some members of the aminoglycoside family 442 have shown the capacity to promote PTC readthrough (Burke & Mogg, 1985). This family of 443 444 molecules is composed of a sugar substituted with one amino group. However, not all members of this family promote significant stop codon readthrough: gentamicin, geneticin 445 (G418), paromomycin, neomycin, and lividomycin do have this effect (Table 1), but 446 hygromycin, streptomycin, kanamycin, tobramycin, and amikacin do not (Manuvakhova et al., 447 2000). Aminoglycosides promote stop codon readthrough by interacting with the 16S 448

ribosomal RNA located in the decoding centre of the ribosome (Carter et al., 2000; Ogle, 449 450 Carter & Ramakrishnan, 2003; Prokhorova et al., 2017; Zingman et al., 2007). Besides aminoglycosides, several non-aminoglycoside molecules have also been shown to promote 451 452 PTC readthrough (Table 2). PTC124/ataluren/translarna, an oxadiazole derivative, is the only molecule to have reached clinical phase II/III trials for the treatment of genetic diseases 453 caused by nonsense mutations (Welch et al., 2007; Kerem et al., 2014). This molecule, which 454 can rescue expression of genes carrying UGA, UAG, or UAA nonsense mutations, has a 455 mode of action that remains to be clarified, but might either target the A site of the ribosome 456 as do aminoglycosides or interact directly with the stop codon to promote readthrough (Roy et 457 458 al., 2016; Tutone et al., 2019). Even though the efficacy of this molecule seems too low for clinical development aimed at treating, for example, cystic fibrosis or Duchenne muscular 459 dystrophy (Haas et al., 2015; Kerem et al., 2014), it does illustrate the need to identify 460 461 readthrough molecules that might enhance the treatment of nonsense-mutation-related genetic diseases (Kong et al., 2019). Among other readthrough molecules, a dipeptide-like hydrazide 462 antibiotic negamycin, originally purified from Streptomyces purpeofuscus, appears more 463 potent than aminoglycosides and less toxic, as do negamycin derivatives (Arakawa et al., 464 2003; Taguchi et al., 2014; Hamada et al., 2019) (Table 2). 465 466 For more than 10 years, various screening systems have been used to identify compounds more potent than aminoglycosides and ataluren (Fig. 3). The readthrough compounds (RTCs) 467 RTC13, RTC14, RTC204, RTC219, GJ071, GJ072, NV2907, NV2909, NV2899 and NV2913 468 (Du et al., 2009, 2013; Tutone et al., 2020) (Table 2) have been identified and tested on 469 470 different constructs and cell models of nonsense-mutation-related genetic diseases. In most cases, these molecules have shown a readthrough activity similar to that of ataluren or 471 aminoglycosides such as gentamicin (G418) (Du et al., 2009; Tutone et al., 2020; Gomez-472 Grau et al., 2015). 473

Among the compounds identified as promoting induced translational readthrough, some have 474 475 remarkable characteristics. The anti-allergy and anti-asthma drug Amlexanox, for example, has shown the capacity to both inhibit NMD and activate readthrough of UGA, UAG, and 476 UAA nonsense mutations (Atanasova et al., 2017; Banning, Schiff & Tikkanen, 2017; 477 Gonzalez-Hilarion et al., 2012). The clinically approved molecule Escin has also been shown 478 479 to exert this dual action (Mutyam et al., 2016). In theory, such molecules should be more 480 effective than molecules that only activate readthrough, since inhibiting NMD leads to an increased amount of RNA substrates for readthrough (Linde et al., 2007; Gonzalez-Hilarion et 481 al., 2012). It seems, however, that this is not an absolute rule, as some readthrough activators 482 483 with no NMD-inhibiting action promote greater synthesis of full-length proteins than do dualaction molecules. For instance, the readthrough activators Lepista flaccida extract H7 and 2,6-484 diaminopurine, which do not inhibit NMD, correct UGA and UAA (extract H7) or UGA only 485 486 (2,6-diaminopurine) more effectively than dual-action G418 (Benhabiles et al., 2017; Trzaska et al., 2020; Correa-Cerro et al., 2005). 487

Clitocine is another molecule with a high readthrough-promoting capacity. However, this
molecule, found in various mushroom species (including *Leucopaxillus giganteus* and *Lepista*

490 *flaccida*) (Trzaska *et al.*, 2020; Kubo *et al.*, 1986; Wilde *et al.*, 2007; Ren *et al.*, 2008;

Benhabiles *et al.*, 2017; Fortin *et al.*, 2006) unfortunately shows high toxicity, which limits its

potential therapeutic development (Fortin *et al.*, 2006; Sun *et al.*, 2012). The mode of action

493 of clitocine has been studied. Interestingly, this molecule, whose structure resembles that of a

494 nucleoside, is incorporated into RNA molecules during transcription, substituting for

adenosines. Like adenosine, clitocine can preferentially pair with uracil, but it has been

496 proposed that the translation termination factor eRF1 weakly recognizes stop codons

497 containing clitocine, increasing the chance of near-cognate tRNA recruitment (Friesen *et al.*,

498 2017).

499

#### 500 (c) Cell environment

Cell culture conditions can also influence readthrough efficiency. In ribosome profiling 501 502 experiments performed on the neural cell line PC12, oxygen and glucose deprivation were shown to inhibit programmed translational readthrough of 18 mRNAs with a UGA 503 physiological stop codon followed by a cytosine: Fkbp1a, Hadhb, Hs1bp3, Klc1, 504 505 LOC102554884, Mdh1, Mrto4, Nedd8, Nudcd2, Plat, Polr2l, Ppp4c, Rfc2, Rnf111, Sec13, 506 Slc7a1, Ssna1 and Thy1 (Andreev et al., 2015). Interestingly, this regulation occurs very rapidly: less than 20 min after starting hypoxia and low glucose, programmed translational 507 508 readthrough was strongly reduced. Although the mode of action is not clear, it could be related to the loss of protein hydroxylation at the decoding centre of the ribosome. 509 510 Other cell culture conditions that seem to potentiate PTC readthrough notably include serum 511 starvation. In a medium containing 1% serum, the PTC-readthrough efficacy of aminoglycosides can increase two- to threefold without modifying the translation activity on 512 513 the mRNA substrates, as demonstrated using a dual-reporter green fluorescent protein (GFP)-514 blue fluorescent protein (BFP) construct (Wittenstein et al., 2019). How serum starvation potentiates the readthrough activity of aminoglycosides is not yet understood, but given the 515 516 influence of serum on gene expression, it seems likely that specific gene products acting as 517 cofactors are overexpressed or repressed.

518

## 519 V. THERAPEUTIC INTEREST OF STOP CODON READTHROUGH

Favouring stop codon readthrough to correct a nonsense mutation represents an attractive
approach to the treatment of certain genetic diseases. About 11% of patients with a genetic
disease carry a nonsense mutation responsible for its pathology (Mort *et al.*, 2008). The use of
readthrough molecules was first tested in patients with cystic fibrosis caused by a nonsense

mutation in the CFTR gene. The aminoglycoside gentamicin was administered intravenously, 524 at 2.5 mg/kg every 8 h for seven days, to five patients carrying nonsense mutations and five 525 patients without nonsense mutation in CFTR (Clancy et al., 2001). The results showed a mild 526 527 but encouraging rescue of CFTR expression and function. Another study on cystic fibrosis patients demonstrated that rescue of CFTR function depends strongly on the nonsense 528 mutation: patients with the Y122X nonsense mutation seemed to respond better than patients 529 carrying G542X, R1162X, or W1282X (Sermet-Gaudelus et al., 2007). Aminoglycosides 530 (particularly gentamicin) have also been tested in patients with Duchenne muscular dystrophy 531 (DMD) carrying a nonsense mutation in the DMD gene encoding dystrophin. Gentamicin has 532 533 been tested in several studies with different protocols. In one study, four DMD patients with a nonsense mutation in the DMD gene were treated daily for 14 days with gentamicin at 7.5 534 mg/kg (Wagner *et al.*, 2001). This study concluded that the administered gentamicin treatment 535 536 was unable to promote the synthesis of full-length dystrophin protein. In another study, positive results were obtained by intravenous administration of 7.5 mg/kg gentamicin, once or 537 538 twice a week for 6 months, to patients carrying a nonsense mutation in the DMD gene, as 539 compared to control patients carrying a frameshift mutation in the DMD gene (Malik et al., 2010). The treatment was well tolerated by patients, without any sign of toxicity. The level of 540 541 dystrophin protein increased in gentamicin-treated patients carrying a nonsense mutation, indicating that readthrough of the nonsense mutation occurred. However, the physical strength 542 of these patients was unaffected by the treatment, implying that dystrophin rescue was 543 insufficient. 544 The non-aminoglycoside molecule ataluren has also been tested on cystic fibrosis and DMD 545 patients carrying nonsense mutations. This molecule was well tolerated by patients. DMD 546 patients received ataluren orally three times daily at 4-4-8 mg/kg, 10-10-20 mg/kg, or 20-547

548 20–40 mg/kg for 28 days. At the end of the study, dystrophin was detected in patients at the

lowest and middle doses but not in patients at the highest dose (Namgoong & Bertoni, 2016). 549 550 After a 48-week exposure to ataluren or placebo, drug-treated patients showed no significant improvement in a 6-min walking-distance test as compared to the placebo group (Finkel et al., 551 552 2013; Bushby et al., 2014). For patients with cystic fibrosis caused by nonsense mutations, several phase II and III clinical trials have been completed. Physical improvement was 553 observed in patients having received ataluren versus placebo, although this improvement 554 555 remained modest (Kerem et al., 2008; Sermet-Gaudelus et al., 2010; Lee & Dougherty, 2012). 556 The results of the clinical trials performed with gentamicin or ataluren clearly demonstrate that it is possible to correct nonsense mutations by inducing PTC readthrough in patients. 557 558 Although no cure for patients with nonsense-mutation-related genetic diseases is yet available, these encouraging results warrant both optimization of the tested protocols and a search for 559 560 new therapeutic approaches.

561

#### 562 VI. NEW DEVELOPMENTS AND THERAPEUTIC TARGETS

As described below, aminoglycosides have high potential to correct nonsense mutations. Yet
because of their oto- and nephrotoxicity, their clinical development has been limited (Hock &
Anderson, 1995; Mingeot-Leclercq & Tulkens, 1999; Swan, 1997; Greenwood, 1959; Heck,
Hinshaw & Parsons, 1963; Matz, 1993; Wu *et al.*, 2001). To address this issue,

aminoglycoside derivatives have been synthesized and tested for the capacity to correct

568 nonsense mutations while showing lower toxicity. Several molecules meeting these criteria

appear to be good candidates for treating genetic diseases caused by nonsense mutations, their

- efficacy having been demonstrated on cell lines and *in vivo* mouse models (Goldmann *et al.*,
- 571 2012; Nudelman *et al.*, 2009, 2006; Shulman *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2012; Xue *et al.*, 2014).
- 572 One of these molecules, named ELX-02 (from Eloxx Pharmaceuticals), has already
- 573 successfully passed clinical phase I (Leubitz *et al.*, 2019), and clinical phase II is ongoing.

ELX-02 is much less toxic than gentamicin or G418, and no nephrotoxicity has been detected.
Its readthrough efficiency is similar to that of G418, making this molecule an excellent drug
candidate (Brasell *et al.*, 2019).

Regarding ataluren (from PTC Therapeutics), the quest to identify derivative molecules with
higher efficacy has already begun. Molecules such as NV2445 and PTC414 seem to offer a
slightly higher readthrough efficiency. Provided their toxicity is no higher than that of
ataluren, they could represent optimized versions of this drug (Pibiri *et al.*, 2018; Moosajee *et al.*, 2016).

One of the biggest challenges is to identify low-toxicity molecules with a significantly higher 582 readthrough efficiency than reference molecules such as G418. To identify readthrough 583 molecules, many screening systems have been devised (Fig. 3). They are based on the use of 584 either (i) one cDNA encoding a fluorescent protein or enzyme, in which a stop codon has 585 586 been introduced to interrupt the ORF and prevent synthesis of the functional protein (Fig. 3A) (Du et al., 2009; Manuvakhova et al., 2000; Welch et al., 2007; Burke & Mogg, 1985; 587 588 Sogaard, Jakobsen & Justesen, 1999) or (ii) two cDNAs encoding fluorescent proteins or 589 enzymes, separated by a stop codon (Fig. 3B) (Bidou et al., 2004; Xue et al., 2014; Cardno et al., 2009). In the latter case, the level of protein produced from the first cDNA is used to 590 591 normalize measurements between samples, and the level of protein produced from the second ORF reflects the readthrough efficiency. The advantage of these constructs is that they are not 592 spliced downstream of the premature termination codon, so that the corresponding mRNA is 593 594 not subject to NMD (Lejeune & Maquat, 2005). This makes it possible to identify molecules on the sole basis of their readthrough-promoting activity. However, with such constructs there 595 is a risk of selecting molecules with low readthrough efficiency (and hence low therapeutic 596 597 efficacy), as testing is done on mRNAs present in huge copy numbers. In addition, as the premRNAs of more than 90% of human genes are subject to splicing, the corresponding PTC-598

carrying mRNAs will be substrates for NMD, which will strongly reduce the copy number of 599 600 substrates for readthrough. It is important to bear in mind that this is the prevailing situation in patient cells. To identify molecules capable of correcting nonsense mutations in these cells, 601 602 screening systems should be designed with constructs subject to NMD. Such a screening system has been described: it consists of a cDNA encoding the firefly luciferase interrupted 603 604 by an intron and an upstream PTC (Fig. 3C) (Benhabiles et al., 2017). It has been shown that 605 the firefly luciferase pre-mRNA is spliced and the mRNA degraded by NMD. The luciferase 606 activity measured in this screening system thus depends on the efficiency of readthrough occurring on the number of firefly luciferase mRNAs that have escaped NMD. This screening 607 608 system has been used successfully to identify Lepista flaccida fungus extract H7 and 2,6diaminopurine as two highly potent correctors of nonsense mutations in human cells 609

610 (Benhabiles *et al.*, 2017; Trzaska *et al.*, 2020).

611 Studies aiming to increase the effectiveness of readthrough compounds have identified some molecules that potentiate the readthrough activity of aminoglycosides (Table 3). Interestingly, 612 613 these molecules do not promote readthrough by themselves. For example, the phthalimide 614 derivative CDX5-1 increases about 180-fold the readthrough efficiency of G418 in both yeast and human cells (Baradaran-Heravi et al., 2016). More recently discovered potentiators of 615 616 aminoglycosides include the antimalarial mefloquine (Ferguson et al., 2019) and 2-617 aminothiazole-4-carboxamides (Rabea et al., 2019). How these molecules improve the readthrough efficiency of aminoglycosides is unclear, but by making it possible to administer 618 lower doses of aminoglycosides, they should reduce aminoglycoside-linked toxic effects. 619 620 As the use of screening systems to identify molecules with readthrough activity takes time and money, new targeted approaches are being or could be developed to promote efficient 621 622 readthrough. One such approach is based on the mechanism of action of 2,6-diaminopurine, recently shown to promote readthrough of UGA premature stop codons by interfering with the 623

function of filamentous temperature sensitive J1 (FTSJ1). This enzyme is a methyltransferase 624 targeting position C34 of the tRNA carrying tryptophan and recognizing the UGG codon 625 (Trzaska et al., 2020). Decreased C34 methylation allows this tRNA to recognize also the 626 627 UGA stop codon (Trzaska et al., 2020). Hence, tRNA-modifying enzymes appear as interesting targets. This readthrough-activating strategy seems more effective than targeting 628 the ribosome, but it remains to be validated through identification of new molecules targeting 629 630 other tRNA-modification enzymes. Another potential target in the search for readthroughpromoting molecules is the ATP-binding domain 3/cytosolic thiouridylase subunit 1 631 (ATPBD3/CTU1) protein. This tRNA-modifying enzyme notably acts at the anticodon loop 632 633 of near-cognate tRNAs, enabling them to recognize a UAG or UAA stop codon (Blanchet et al., 2018). 634

Pseudouridylation is another post-transcriptional modification occurring on RNA molecules
that might be used to activate stop codon readthrough. Interestingly, pseudouridylation
converts a uridine to a pseudouridine, which can pair with all four conventional bases
(Kierzek *et al.*, 2014). Protocols have been designed to induce site-directed pseudouridylation
at the uridine constituting the first base of all three stop codons (Wu, Huang & Yu, 2015). The
idea is that the presence of a pseudouridine at this position will stabilize near-cognate tRNAs
and increase basal readthrough of this stop codon.

642 A final approach worth mentioning is direct modification of tRNA anticodon sequences,

enabling them to pair with stop codons. Such tRNAs, called suppressor tRNAs, have been

644 investigated as potential therapeutics for almost 40 years (Temple *et al.*, 1982), and research

645 is still ongoing. Very recently, investigators have described a high-throughput cloning system

646 for identifying tRNAs that suppress nonsense mutations with high efficiency (Lueck et al.,

647 2019). Interestingly, a comparative study of suppressor tRNAs and readthrough molecules

such as gentamicin and G418 demonstrated a superior nonsense-mutation-correcting

efficiency of the tested tRNAs. A legitimate question is whether such molecules affect
translation termination at physiological stop codons. Lueck *et al.* (2019), using ribosome
profiling, showed that suppressor tRNAs do read through physiological stop codons in rare
cases, but that this readthrough is much less efficient than PTC readthrough. A limitation of
this very promising approach remains delivery of the suppressor tRNA to the cells of patients
liable to benefit from correction of a nonsense mutation responsible for a genetic disease.

655

#### 656 VII. CONCLUSIONS

(1) Stop codon readthrough is a natural process resulting in continuation of translation beyond
the first stop codon encountered in phase with the translation initiation codon. The mechanism
determining whether the translation machinery recruits a tRNA to promote translational
readthrough, or the translation termination complex to the stop codon remains poorly
understood.

(2) Several types of stop codon readthrough can be identified. Non-programmed translational 662 readthrough or basal stop codon readthrough arises as a translational error without any cis 663 and/or trans facilitator elements and at a very low rate. Programmed translational readthrough 664 involves cis and/or trans activator elements, and often reaches more than 20% efficiency. The 665 666 cis and trans elements described herein constitute first steps in understanding of the molecular mechanisms involved. Induced translational readthrough involves small molecules that 667 increase the recruitment of near-cognate tRNAs when the ribosome pauses at a stop codon. 668 669 (3) Several regulator elements have been reported to modulate stop codon readthrough. The 670 nucleotide sequence in the vicinity of the stop codon has been reported strongly to influence the stop codon readthrough rate. RNAs, proteins and small molecules also play a role in stop 671 672 codon readthrough efficacy. Given the therapeutic potential of activators of PTC-readthrough, regulator elements responsible for high efficiency of readthrough deserve in-depth study. It is 673

essential to fill the gaps in our knowledge of the molecular events leading to stop codon

675 readthrough and its regulation. This should be accomplished by studying the molecular

676 mechanism of stop codon recognition and the mode of action of readthrough molecules.

677 (4) None of the therapeutic approaches under development to correct nonsense mutations

responsible for genetic diseases has yet come to fruition. However, the diversity of strategies

explored makes the field of nonsense mutation correction highly dynamic. Step by step,

680 personalized therapeutic strategies based on stop codon readthrough are taking form. They

should, in the near future, yield treatments for genetic diseases caused by nonsense mutations.

682

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- 1159
- 1160 Figure Legends
- 1161 Fig. 1. Comparison of translation termination and stop codon readthrough mechanisms. (A)
- 1162 Translation termination. When the ribosome reaches a stop codon, in most cases the
- translation termination complex is recruited. When the A site of the ribosome covers a stop

codon, eRF3 and ABCE1 interact with the ribosome. ABCE1 recruits the Dbp5/DDX19-eRF1 1164 1165 complex, likely with the help of PABPC1. Dbp5/DDX19 then hydrolyses ATP to ADP, promoting its own departure. The energy supplied by eRF3-driven GTP hydrolysis favours a 1166 1167 change in the conformational structure of eRF1, with subsequent dissociation of the synthesised peptide. ABCE1-driven ATP hydrolysis supplies energy for the release of the 1168 ribosome, which is then recycled. (B) Stop codon readthrough. At a very low rate or under 1169 certain conditions (drugs, eIF3, regulatory elements), a near-cognate tRNA, rather than the 1170 translation termination complex, is recruited when the ribosome reaches a stop codon. The 1171 elongation factor EF-Tu allows polymerization of the peptide, with GTP hydrolysis leading to 1172 continuation of translation to the next stop codon. ABCE1, ATP-binding cassette sub-family 1173 E member 1; DDX19, DEAD-box helicase 19B; EF-Tu, elongation factor thermo unstable; 1174 eIF3, eukaryotic initiation factor 3; eRF, eukaryotic release factor; GGQ, glycine-glycine-1175 1176 glutamine motif; mRNA, messenger RNA; PABP, polyA-binding protein; tRNA, transfer RNA. 1177

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1179 Fig. 2. Different types of stop codon readthrough. (A) Non-programmed translational readthrough. This type of readthrough occurs at a basal level without any regulatory elements 1180 1181 and without the presence of readthrough molecules. This readthrough happens at premature termination codons (PTCs) and physiological stop codons at a very low rate. (B) Programmed 1182 translational readthrough. Some mRNAs are subject to readthrough of the physiological stop 1183 1184 codon, due to the presence of regulatory elements. This type of readthrough is more efficient than that shown in A. (C) Induced translational readthrough. The presence of molecules 1185 (aminoglycosides or non-aminoglycosides) promotes activation of readthrough. This type of 1186 1187 readthrough is more efficient than that shown in A. DDX19, DEAD-box helicase 19B; eRF,

1188	eukaryotic release factor; GGQ, glycine-glycine-glutamine motif; mRNA, messenger RNA;
1189	PABP, polyA-binding protein; tRNA, transfer RNA; UTR, untranslated region.

Fig. 3. Strategies used to screen molecules for readthrough-promoting activity. (A) A premature termination codon (PTC) is introduced into a cDNA encoding an enzyme or a fluorescent protein. Measurement of the enzymatic activity or fluorescence related to this protein will indicate that readthrough has occurred. (B) Use of two cDNAs encoding an enzymatic activity or a fluorescence separated by a stop codon. The product of the first cDNA is used to normalize the signal. Measurement of the product of the second cDNA will indicate that readthrough has occurred. (C) Screening system with an intron introduced into a cDNA to promote a splicing event. The PTC is introduced more than 55 nucleotides upstream of the intronic sequence to activate nonsense-mediated mRNA decay (NMD) of the corresponding mRNA. Table 1. Aminoglycoside molecules with known readthrough activity. Table 2. Non-aminoglycoside molecules with known readthrough activity. Table 3. Readthrough potentiator molecules.