

Fmr1-Deficiency Impacts Body Composition, Skeleton, and Bone Microstructure in a Mouse Model of Fragile X Syndrome

Antoine Leboucher, Patricia Bermudez-Martin, Xavier Mouska, Ez-Zoubir Amri, Didier Pisani, Laetitia Davidovic

▶ To cite this version:

Antoine Leboucher, Patricia Bermudez-Martin, Xavier Mouska, Ez-Zoubir Amri, Didier Pisani, et al.. Fmr1-Deficiency Impacts Body Composition, Skeleton, and Bone Microstructure in a Mouse Model of Fragile X Syndrome. Frontiers in Endocrinology, 2019, 10, pp.678. 10.3389/fendo.2019.00678 . hal-02936599

HAL Id: hal-02936599 https://hal.science/hal-02936599

Submitted on 22 Nov 2020

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.





59

60 61

62

63

64 65

66

67

68

⁶⁹ Q14

70

71

72 73

74 75

76

77 78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

88

80

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

¹⁰¹ Q11

102

103

104

105

Q6

Q1 Q3

Q15

Fmr1-Deficiency Impacts Body Composition, Skeleton, and Bone Microstructure in a Mouse Model of Fragile X Syndrome

Antoine Leboucher^{1†}, Patricia Bermudez-Martin¹, Xavier Mouska¹, Ez-Zoubir Amri², Didier F. Pisani³ and Laetitia Davidovic^{1*}

¹ Université Côte d'Azur, CNRS, IPMC, Valbonne, France, ² Université Côte d'Azur, CNRS, Inserm, iBV, Nice, France, ³ Université Côte d'Azur, CNRS, LP2M, Nice, France

OPEN ACCESS

Edited by:

Chandi C. Mandal, Central University of Rajasthan, India

Reviewed by:

Michaël R. Laurent, University Hospitals Leuven, Belgium Stéphane Blouin, Ludwig Boltzmann Institute of Osteology (LBIO), Austria

*Correspondence: Laetitia Davidovic

davidovic@ipmc.cnrs.fr

[†]Present address:

Antoine Leboucher, German Institute of Human Nutrition Potsdam-Rehbruecke (DIfE), Nuthetal, Germany

Specialty section:

This article was submitted to Bone Research, a section of the journal Frontiers in Endocrinology

Received: 27 May 2019 Accepted: 18 September 2019 Published: xx September 2019

Citation:

Leboucher A, Bermudez-Martin P, Mouska X, Amri E-Z, Pisani DF and Davidovic L (2019) Fmr1-Deficiency Impacts Body Composition, Skeleton, and Bone Microstructure in a Mouse Model of Fragile X Syndrome. Front. Endocrinol. 10:678. doi: 10.3389/fendo.2019.00678

Fragile X syndrome (FXS) is a neurodevelopmental disorder associated with intellectual disability, hyperactivity, and autism. FXS is due to the silencing of the X-linked FMR1 gene. Murine models of FXS, knock-out (KO) for the murine homolog Fmr1, have been generated, exhibiting CNS-related behavioral, and neuronal anomalies reminiscent of the human phenotypes. As a reflection of the ubiquitous expression of the FMR1 gene, FXS is also accompanied by physical abnormalities. This suggests that the FMR1-deficiency could impact skeletal ontogenesis. In the present study, we highlight that Fmr1-KO mice display changes in body composition with an increase in body weight, likely due to both increase of skeleton length and muscular mass along with reduced visceral adiposity. We also show that, while Fmr1-deficiency has no overt impact on cortical bone mineral density (BMD), cortical thickness was increased, and cortical eccentricity was decreased in the femurs from Fmr1-KO mice as compared to controls. Also, trabecular pore volume was reduced and trabecular thickness distribution was shifted toward higher ranges in Fmr1-KO femurs. Finally, we show that Fmr1-KO mice display increased physical activity. Although the precise molecular signaling mechanism that produces these skeletal and bone microstructure changes remains to be determined, our study warrants further investigation on the impact of FMR1-deficiency on whole-body composition, as well as skeletal and bone architecture.

Keywords: fragile X syndrome, bone microstructure, skeleton, tomography, trabecula, muscle, physical activity

INTRODUCTION

Fragile X syndrome (FXS) is a neurodevelopmental disorder associated with intellectual disability, 106 attention deficits, and hyperactivity disorders, and autism spectrum disorders (1, 2). FXS affects 107 1/4,000 males and 1/7,000 females worldwide and is caused by the silencing of the X-linked Fragile 108 X Mental Retardation 1 (FMR1) gene located in a fragile chromosomal site in 27q3 (3, 4). In 109 FXS patients, abnormal expansions of CGG trinucleotide repeats in the 5' untranslated region of 110 the FMR1 gene lead to an hypermethylation of the upstream CpG island in the gene promotor 111 and to FMR1 silencing (3-5). Murine Fmr1-knock-out (KO) models of FXS have been generated, 112 exhibiting CNS-related behavioral, and neuronal anomalies reminiscent of the human phenotypes 113 (6, 7). The FMR1 gene is not only expressed in the central nervous system (CNS) but also 114

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

39

174

175

176

177

178

179

182

184

185

186

211

212

213

in a variety of peripheral tissues, including adipose tissue, 115 and liver (8-11). Adult skeletal and cardiac muscle are the 116 only peripheral tissues tested so far not expressing FMRP, 117 while both white adipose tissue (WAT) and brown adipose 118 tissue (BAT) express FMRP (8-12). This suggests that long-119 term pathological consequences of FMR1-deficiency are not 120 solely confined to the central nervous system disorders and 121 more likely extend to physiological dysfunctions in peripheral 122 systems. We have previously demonstrated in FXS mouse model 123 how Fmr1-deficiency increased systemic utilization of lipids, 124 reduced adiposity and provoked significant changes in metabolic 125 homeostasis, some of which were also translatable to FXS 126 patients (11). Besides presenting metabolic phenotypes, FXS is 127 also accompanied by physical abnormalities (13). In subsets of 128 FXS patients, morphometric studies have highlighted increased 129 stature and height (14) and a general overgrowth in prepubertal 130 boys affected by FXS (13, 15). FXS patients present connective 131 tissue dysplasia (16), dental and mandibular anomalies (17), 132 orthopedic anomalies such as scoliosis (18), and abnormal 133 metacarpophalangeal pattern profile (19). In addition, FXS 134 patients display specific craniofacial abnormalities with reduced 135 facial depth, hypoplasticity of the nasal bone-cartilage interface 136 and narrow mid-facial width exaggerating ear prominence 137 (20). This suggests that Fmr1-deficiency could have widespread 138 peripheral effects, including on skeletal ontogenesis. Besides 139 subtle craniofacial anomalies with morphometric changes in 140 the mandible and skull (20), skeletal particularities, and bone 141 microstructure have not yet been studied in FXS mouse model. 142 In this study, we examined in details body composition and bone 143 microstructure of adult Fmr1-KO male mice. 144

145 146

147

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals Procedures 148

Fmr1-KO2 mice on the C57Bl/6J background used in this study 149 were originally described in Mientjes et al. (7) and were named 150 Fmr1-KO all throughout the manuscript. Fmr1-heterozygous 151 females and Fmr1-KO male founders were obtained from Rob 152 Willemsem (Erasmus University, Rotterdam, Netherlands) and 153 backcrossed for at least 10 generations on a C57Bl6/J WT 154 background (Janvier Labs, France). All Fmr1-WT and Fmr1-155 KO male used in this study were littermates born to Fmr1 156 heterozygous females mated with Fmr1-KO males. Pups were 157 weaned at 28 days of age, identified by ear tags, and genotyped 158 by PCR as described (7). Pups from various litters were then 159 randomly grouped according to their genotype in cages and had 160 ad libitum access to water and standard chow (reference 4RF25, 161 Mucedola) composed of cereals (53.7%), animal proteins (4.7%), 162 vegetal proteins (30.5%), lipids (soy oil, 1.4%), vitamins and 163 minerals (4.1%), amino acids (0.1%). Animals were housed in 164 a temperature (22–24°C) and hygrometry (70–80%)- controlled 165 room with a 12 h light-dark cycle (lights on at 08:00). Animals 166 were housed in medium-size (up to 5 animals/cage) or large cages 167 (up to 10 animals/cage) filled with wooden bedding, one plastic 168 house and nesting material for enrichment. All the described 169 experiments were performed on male animals at exactly 4-170 months (16 weeks) of age. After cervical dislocation, muscle 171

Tibialis anterior, visceral, and subcutaneous WAT, as well as interscapular BAT were dissected by trained personnel and 173 weighted with a precision balance.

Osteocalcin Measure

Animals were anesthetized and blood was withdrawn by cardiac puncture, incubated for at least 30 min at room temperature (RT) then centrifuged at 2,000 rpm, 10 min, RT. Serum was collected and immediately snapped-frozen in liquid nitrogen 180 prior storage at -80° C until use. Osteocalcin was measured in 181 serum using a dedicated ELISA kits (Takara), according strictly to the manufacturer's instructions. 183

Microcomputerised Tomography Analysis: Skeleton Morphology

For the analysis of whole-body bone morphology (Figure 1), 187 anesthetised animals were introduced in a SkyScan μ CT -1178 188 X-ray tomograph (Bruker) and analyzed as previously described 189 (11, 21). Mice were scanned using the following parameters: 190 104 µm pixel size, 49 kV, 0.5 mm thick aluminum filter and a 191 rotation step of 0.9°. 3D reconstructions and analysis of skeleton, 192 vertebra and femur lengths as well as skeleton volume were 193 performed using NRecon and CTAn software (Skyscan). Skeleton 194 volume was calculated using CTan software by extracting from 195 µCT scans all voxels exceeding a single global CT value, ensuring 196 that differences between study groups are due to experimental 197 effects rather than image-processing effects. The representative 198 skeleton reconstruction from one *Fmr1*-WT animal (Figure 1D) 199 was obtained by further processing of the 3D reconstructed 200 sections using the ImageJ plugin 3D viewer and the BoneJ plugin 201 (22). Bone and skeleton lengths were calculated using the 3D 202 coordinates of the structure extremities specified in Figure 1D. 203 For skeleton length we used the anterior coordinate of the nasal 204 bone and the posterior coordinate of the first caudal vertebra. 205 For femur length, we used the extreme coordinate of the femoral 206 epiphysis and the extreme coordinate of the proximal epiphysis 207 (measured on both femurs and averaged). For L3-L6 vertebra 208 length we used the anterior extreme coordinate of L3 vertebra 209 and the posterior extreme coordinate of L6 vertebra. 210

Microcomputerised Tomography Analysis: **Bone Microstructure**

For measurements of bone mineral density (BMD) and 214 microstructure, we proceeded according to the guidelines for 215 Assessment of Bone Microstructure in Rodents Using Micro-216 Computed Tomography (23). After necropsy, femora were 217 individually scanned with a SkyScan µCT-1173 X-ray tomograph 218 (Bruker) set with the following parameters: 7.76 µm pixel 219 size, 45 kV, 1 mm thick aluminum filter, 0.5° of rotation 220 step, as previously described (21). 3D reconstructions and 221 bone microstructure analysis were performed using NRecon 222 and CTAn software (Skyscan). Bone microstructure was 223 reconstructed using CTan software by extracting from µCT scans 224 all voxels exceeding a single global CT value. 225

The region of interest (ROI) for calculations of femur cortical 226 bone microstructure parameters was defined as a mid-shaft 227 segment of 400 μ m starting at 55% of the total femur length from 228

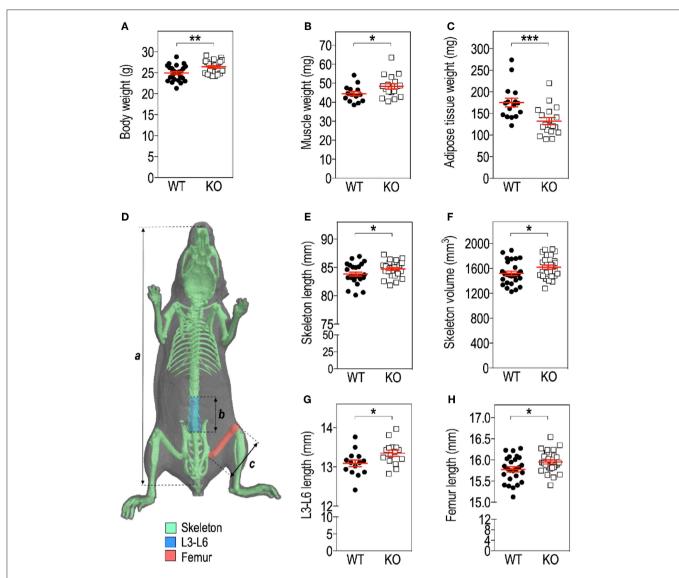


FIGURE 1 | Fmr1-deficiency modifies body mass distribution. Body weight (A), Tibialis anterior muscle (B), as well as visceral white adipose tissue (WAT) (C) weights in Fmr1-KO and WT 4-months old male mice. (D) Anatomical coordinates used for analysis of: a, skeleton length; b, vertebral L3-L6 length; c, maximal femur length. Skeleton length (E), skeleton volume (F), vertebral L3-L6 length (G), and femoral length (H) were measured in 3D reconstructions of skeleton following X-ray tomography. Data are presented as dot-plots featuring means ± SEM in red. Statistical significance of differences was measured using 2-tailed Student's T-test. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001. For (**A,E,F,H**), n = 24-27 animals/group; for (**B,C,G**), n = 15-18 animals/group.

the proximal epiphysis extremity (corresponding on average to a distance of 8.68 mm for WT animals and 8.77 mm for KO animals) and extending up to 400 µm distally. The ROI for calculations of femur trabecular bone microstructure parameters was defined as a 900 µm-segment of the distal metaphysis, located on average 450 µm away from the epiphyseal line and excluding cortical bone. The segment started at a distance equivalent to 13.5% of the total femur length measured from the distal extremity of the femur, corresponding on average to a distance of 2.13 mm in the WT and 2.15 mm in the KO.

For volumetric cortical BMD calculation, a BMD phantom rod pair supplied by the manufacturer and suitable for mouse bone analysis (2 mm of diameter) with different known densities (0.25 and 0.75 g.cm^{-3} calcium hydroxyapatite) was scanned along with the samples, using scan settings identical to those for acquisitions on femurs. Individual cortical (total cross-sectional object area, object area per slice, cortical area fraction, cortical thickness, mean polar moment of inertia (MMI), eccentricity) and trabecular (bone volume fraction, trabecular number, trabecular thickness, trabecular separation, total volume of trabecular pores) bone microstructure parameters were extracted on each section of the corresponding 3D ROI, using the CTAn software and then averaged as recommended in Bouxsein et al. (23). Their means and standard deviations (SD) for each group

O5 343

357

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

301

392

393

TABLE 1 Comparison analysis of variables for cortical bone morphology in *Fmr1*-KO and WT femurs.

Abbreviation	Variable description	Unit	Mean WT	SD WT	Mean KO	SD KO	<i>p</i> -value
vBMD	Volumetric bone mineral density	mg/cm ³	1.2310	0.0593	1.2190	0.0334	0.5403 ^a
Tt.Ar	Mean total cross-sectional object area	mm ²	0.9402	0.1002	1.0010	0.1179	0.1548 ^a
Ct.Ar	Average object area per slice	mm ²	0.4788	0.0729	0.3885	0.1812	0.1214 ^a
Ct.Ar/Tt.Ar	Cortical area fraction	%	53.62	12.28	40.31	20.61	0.0574 ^a
Ct.Th	Average cortical thickness	mm	0.1748	0.0106	0.1856	0.0098	0.0128 ª
MMI	Mean polar moment of inertia	mm ⁴	0.526	0.102	0.544	0.113	0.6613 ^a
Ecc	Eccentricity	A. U.	0.7056	0.0717	0.6338	0.0680	0.0148 ^b

354 Mean and standard deviations (SD) to the mean are reported for Fmr1-WT and KO animals, as well as p-value for the Student's T-test (^a) or the Mann & Whitney U-test (^b), Significant p-values (p < 0.05) are bolded. n = 13-15 animals/group. 355

TABLE 2 Comparison analysis of variables for trabecular bone microarchitecture in *Fmr1*-KO and WT femure.

358									415
359	Abbreviation	Variable description	Unit	Mean WT	SD WT	Mean KO	SD KO	p-value	416
360 361	BV/TV	Bone volume fraction	%	18.6300	5.1660	22.3700	5.5000	0.0469 ^b	417 418
362	Tb.N	Trabecular number	nb/mm	1.1110	0.5512	1.1160	0.9092	0.5164 ^b	419
363	Tb.Th	Trabecular thickness	mm	0.06106	0.007229	0.06624	0.00632	0.0619 ^a	420
364	Tb.Sp	Trabecular separation	mm	0.2140	0.0257	0.2005	0.0292	0.2295 ^a	421
365	Tb.Po	Total volume of trabecular pores	mm ³	1.7320	0.1008	1.5510	0.1443	0.0007 a	422
366									423

Mean and standard deviations (SD) are reported for Fmr1-WT and KO animals, as well as p-value for the Student's T-test (ª) or the Mann & Whitney U-test (^b). Significant p-values (p < 0.05) are bolded. n = 12-15 animals/group.

are reported in Tables 1, 2. Representative cortical and trabecular ROI from one Fmr1-WT and one Fmr1-KO animal were obtained by further processing of the 3D reconstructed segments using the ImageJ plugin 3D viewer and the BoneJ plugin (22).

Locomotor Activity Recordings

Gross locomotor activity was determined in an open-field arena. Animals were placed in a brightly illuminated arena (200 Lux) and their movements were recorded for 10 min. An automated tracking system (Anymaze) was used to determine total distance moved, rotations number and number of center entries. The measurement of individual spontaneous activity was made using actimetry chambers (Imetronic) consisting of cages equipped with infrared beams able to detect in real time horizontal and vertical movements (rearings). Animals were individually placed in actimetry chambers under a 12-h light/dark cycle, with free access to food and drinking water. To avoid biases in measurements due to stress possibly inducing hyperlocomotion in a novel environment, an habituation period (Day 0: 11:00 p.m. to Day 1: 8:00 a.m.) preceded the 24 h-recording of horizontal and vertical activity (Day 1: 8:00 a.m. to Day 2: 8:00 a.m.).

Statistics

Normality of data was assessed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test 394 and outliers removed using the robust regression and outlier 395 removal (ROUT) method (24). To compare 2 groups, 2-tailed 396 unpaired Student's T-test was used. For non-normal data, raw 397 data were log-transformed to meet normality criteria prior 398 399

to Student's T-test. If normality was not reached after logtransformation, data were analyzed using Mann & Whitney's non-parametrical U-test. Multiple group comparisons were performed using 2-way ANOVA, followed by post-hoc tests as indicated in figures legends. Statistical significance was set according to a two-tailed p-value (p)<0.05. Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism version 6.00 for iOS (GraphPad Software, USA).

RESULTS

Fmr1-Deficiency Impacts Skeleton and **Body Mass Distribution**

We assessed several basic parameters in 4-months old Fmr1-KO and WT male littermates (Figure 1). Fmr1-KO mice display a significant increase in total body weight as compared to WT (Figure 1A). Furthermore, we weighed *Tibialis anterior* muscle 444 and epididymal fat depots and showed that muscle weight 445 was significantly increased in Fmr1-KO mice, to the expense 446 of visceral adipose tissue that was reduced (Figures 1B,C). In 447 contrast, subcutaneous or BAT weights were similar in Fmr1-WT 448 and KO animals (Supplementary Figure 1). This agreed with the 449 reduction of visceral adipose tissue volume and lack of variation 450 in subcutaneous adipose tissue volume observed in a previous study in *Fmr1*-KO animals (11).

To precisely study the skeleton, we measured a number of skeletal parameters on 3D reconstructions of skeleton from 454 micro-computerized X-ray tomography data (Figure 1D). We 455

400

411

412

413

414

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

451 452 453

546

547

548

found that *Fmr1*-deficiency is accompanied by a significant increase in total mouse length, as well as in skeletal volume (**Figures 1E,F**). Femur maximal length and L3-L6 vertebral length, which are reliable indicators of general skeleton length, were also both significantly increased in *Fmr1*-deficient animals (**Figures 1G,H**).

Finally, the ratios: muscle weight/body weight, femur length/body length, L4-L6 length/body length were not significantly different between *Fmr1*-KO and WT animals (**Supplementary Table 1**), indicating that *Fmr1*-KO animals exhibited similar proportions to WT animals.

467 468

463

464

465

466

Fmr1-Deficiency Determines Changes in Bone Microstructure

To further resolve the microstructure of bone in Fmr1-WT 472 and KO mice, we analyzed BMD and structure of femurs at 473 the level of the mid-shaft cortical bone, using high resolution 474 micro-computerized X-ray tomography (Figure 2A, Table 1). 475 Volumetric BMD measured in the mid-shaft was not significantly 476 affected by *Fmr1*-deficiency (Table 1, Figure 2B). We did not 477 observe changes in the mean total crossectional object area, 478 the mean object area per slice or the mean cortical area 479 fraction (Table 1). 480

Qualitative analysis of transversal sections of mid-shaft 481 cortical bone showed that Fmr1-deficiency impact the cortical 482 pattern and skews toward higher ranges the cortical thickness 483 distribution (Figure 2C). Quantitative analysis over a 400 µm 484 mid-shaft block revealed that Fmr1-KO mice exhibit a significant 485 increase in average cortical thickness as compared to WT 486 (Table 1, Figure 2D). Furthermore, the mean polar MMI, an 487 estimator of bone strength was not significantly impacted in 488 Fmr1-KO mice (Table 1). 489

We also assessed cortical eccentricity, a measure of bone cross-sectional geometry, which is known to influence biomechanical response of the bone during habitual loading. Cortical eccentricity appeared significantly shifted toward lower values in *Fmr1*-KO femurs (**Table 1**, **Figure 2E**). This is indicative of a rounder shape of the bone at the mid-shaft level in *Fmr1*-KO animals as compared to WT.

We then studied bone trabecular microstructure by analyzing 497 transversal sections of a 900 µm segment located in the distal 498 femoral metaphysis (Figure 3A). Fmr1-KO mice displayed a 499 significant increase in the bone volume fraction as compared 500 to WT littermates (Table 2, Figure 3B). The average trabecular 501 numbers, average trabecular separation, and average trabecular 502 thickness were not significantly impacted by Fmr1-deficiency 503 (Table 2). However, when looking in closer details at the 504 trabecular thickness distributions over the 900 µm segment, we 505 observed that Fmr1-deficiency significantly shifted to higher 506 ranges the trabecular thickness (Figure 3C), and this shift 507 was significant (Figure 3D). Furthermore, the total volume of 508 trabecular pores was significantly decreased in Fmr1-KO animals 509 (Table 2), in line with the increase in bone volume fraction. 510

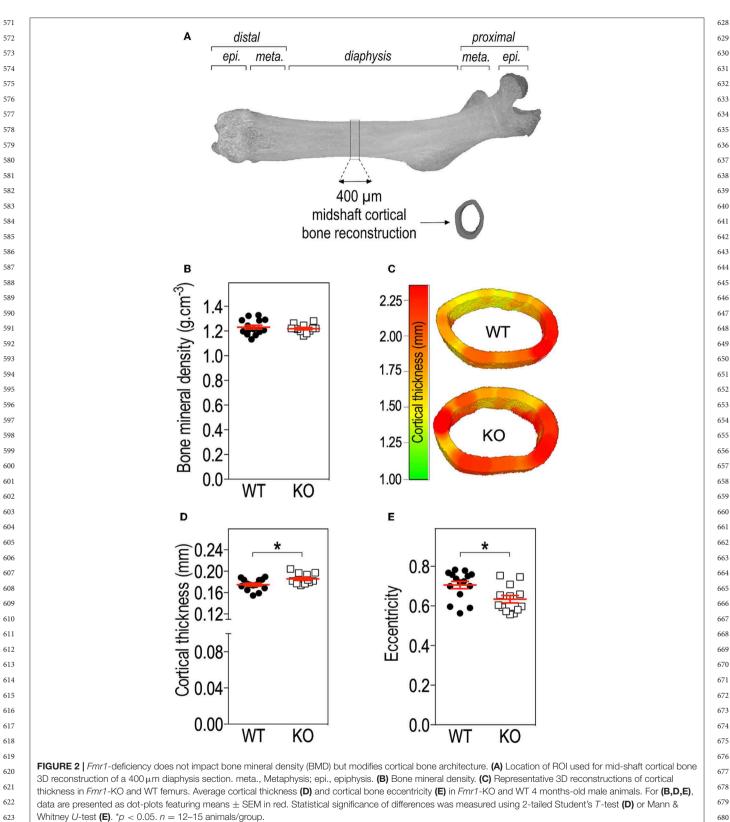
Finally, we measured circulating osteocalcin, a bone-hormone exclusively secreted by osteoblasts with roles in bone formation, metabolism, and adaptation to exercise (25). In *Fmr1*-KO animals, serum osteocalcin levels were similar to *Fmr1*-WT levels (**Supplementary Figure 2**).

Fmr1-Deficiency Leads to Increased Physical Activity in Mouse

519 Physical activity is a strong contributor to adaptations in bone architecture (26) and the changes we observed in Fmr1-KO 521 mouse in terms of body composition and bone microstructure 522 recapitulate the ones observed in mice subjected to exercise 523 (27). We therefore monitored the impact of Fmr1-deficiency on 524 spontaneous locomotor activity. In the open-field test, Fmr1-525 KO mice were significantly more active than WT littermates 526 in total distance traveled (Figure 4A), number of rotations 527 (Figure 4B) and showed a higher number of center entries 528 (Figure 4C). As open-field recordings are performed over a 529 short period of time (10 min.), we then monitored continuous 530 locomotor activity in Fmr1-KO and WT littermates in actimetry 531 chambers over 24 h in a standard dark-light cycle. Independently 532 of genotypes, horizontal (Figures 4D,E) and vertical activities 533 (rearings, Figures 4F,G) display a characteristic nychthemeral 534 rhythm, with two nocturnal peaks and reduced movements 535 during the light phase. There was a significant effect of genotype 536 over time on horizontal activity (Figure 4D). Cumulative 537 horizontal activity was significantly increased in the nocturnal 538 phase for Fmr1-KO animals as compared to their WT littermates 539 (Figure 4E). Similarly, there was a significant effect of genotype 540 over time on vertical activity (Figure 4F). Cumulative vertical 541 activity was significantly increased in the nocturnal phase 542 for Fmr1-KO animals as compared to their WT littermates 543 (Figure 4G). These results indicate that Fmr1-deficient mice 544 display a sustained hyperactivity as compared to wildtype mice. 545

DISCUSSION

In the present study, we show that Fmr1-deficiency in mice, as a 549 model of FXS pathology, translates into increased body weight, 550 skeleton length, and volume. Some studies report a general 551 overgrowth in boys affected by FXS (13, 15) and increased stature 552 and height (14), which is in line with our observations in *Fmr1*-553 KO mice. In Fmr1-KO mice, overweight, and overgrowth is 554 accompanied by an increase in muscular mass and a reduction 555 of intra-abdominal adiposity. The later result corroborates our 556 previous observations of reduced WAT, decreased circulating 557 leptin and increased lipid catabolism in Fmr1-KO mice (11) and 558 previous findings of reduced lipid storage in FXS Drosophila 559 model (28). This suggests that Fmr1-deficiency provokes fat mass 560 redistribution impacting visceral WAT and sparing subcutaneous 561 WAT and BAT. Whole-body energy expenditure, that is critically 562 regulated by BAT, was also not impacted by Fmr1-deficiency, 563 as we have previously shown using indirect calorimetry (11). 564 Also, body temperature of *Fmr1*-KO mice was similar to WT 565 (Leboucher & Davidovic, unpublished observations). All these 566 data confirm the lack of overt phenotype related to BAT in Fmr1-567 KO animals and suggest that this tissue is unlikely involved in 568 the described phenotypes. No epidemiological study on the FXS 569 population is available to-date regarding the adiposity in typical 570



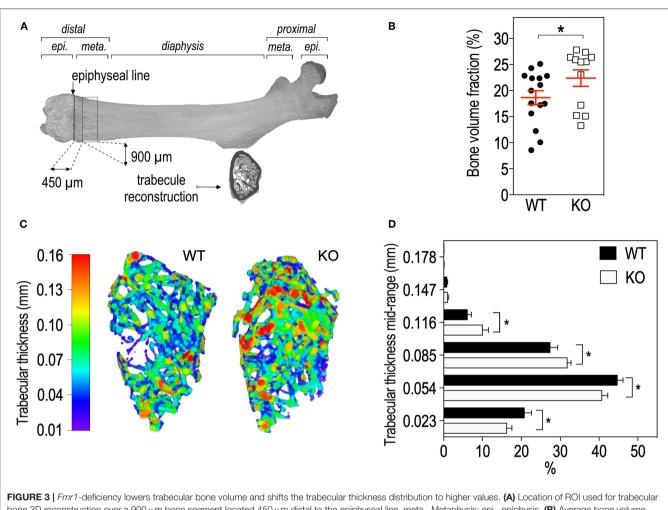
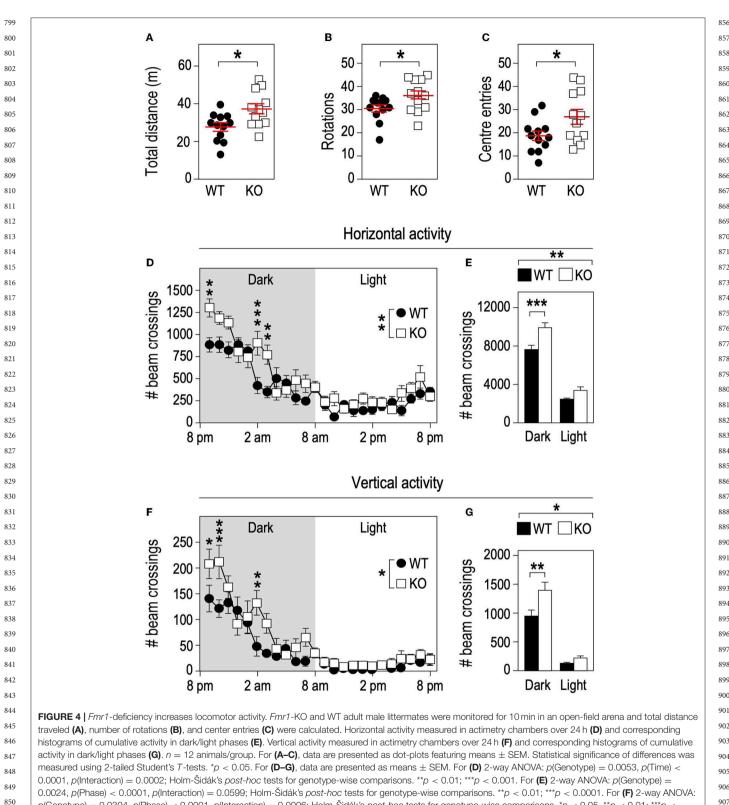


FIGURE 3 [*Fmr1*-deticiency lowers trabecular bone volume and shifts the trabecular thickness distribution to higher values. (A) Location of ROI used for trabecular bone 3D reconstruction over a 900 μ m bone segment located 450 μ m distal to the epiphyseal line. meta., Metaphysis; epi., epiphysis. (B) Average bone volume fraction in *Fmr1*-KO and WT femurs. (C) Representative 3D reconstructions of trabecular thickness in *Fmr1*-KO and WT femurs. (D) Trabecular thickness distribution in reconstructed *Fmr1*-KO and WT ROI. Data are presented as means ± SEM. For (B), statistical significance of differences was measured using 2-tailed Student's *T*-test: *p < 0.05). For (D) 2-way ANOVA: p(Genotype) = 0.3103, p(Range) < 0.0001, p(Interaction) = 0.0037; Fisher's LSD *post-hoc* tests for genotype-wise comparisons. *p < 0.05. n = 12-15 animals/group.

FXS patients. The reduced adiposity we observed in *Fmr1*-KO mice could at first sight be contradictory with the reports of hyperphagia and obesity in a rare subset of Fragile X patients displaying Prader Willi-like (PWL) phenotypes (29). However, these traits are not observed in typical FXS patients (11, 13, 30). Our results warrant further clinical studies to characterize body composition in FXS patients.

When looking closer at bone microstructure parameters, we observed that BMD was not significantly affected by *Fmr1*-deficiency, indicating that the bone mineralization process is unlikely affected in *Fmr1*-KO animals. However, bone architecture of *Fmr1*-KO mice is impacted, with decreased volume of trabecular pore, increased trabecular bone volume fraction and a shift toward higher trabecular thickness ranges, accompanied by increased cortical thickness, and eccentricity. The changes in bone microstructure which we highlight in *Fmr1*-KO animals resemble the ones observed in humans (31) or animals (27) subjected to long-term physical exercise. Indeed,

physical activity is not only a strong contributor to adaptations in bone architecture but it also provokes body mass redistribution, notably a decrease in fat mass and an increase in the lean mass (26), which is what we observe in Fmr1-KO mice as compared to control mice. Also, the changes in shape of the proximal femur with an increased eccentricity could reflect the changing loading pattern during growth due to increased physical activity. Indeed, changes in bone morphology and strength can be enhanced through functional loading as shown in human studies (32, 33). As bone architecture reflects the history load originating both from muscle contractions as well as from the effect of gravity, the increased cortical thickness and the shift toward higher trabecular thickness in Fmr1-KO animals could correspond to a functional adaptation to the mechanical stress induced by increased physical activity and body weight. We therefore hypothesize that the increased physical activity observed in Fmr1-KO mice could indirectly participate to changes in body composition. Importantly, physical activity



p(Genotype) = 0.0394, p(Phase) < 0.0001, p(Interaction) = 0.0006; Holm-Šidák's *post-hoc* tests for genotype-wise comparisons. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001. For (G) 2-way ANOVA: p(Genotype) = 0.0348, p(Phase) < 0.0001, p(Interaction) = 0.042; Holm-Šidák's post-hoc tests for genotype-wise comparisons. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01.

behavior is mostly centrally regulated and thus could be a 913 possible consequence of Fmr1-deficiency in the CNS. Increased 914 daily locomotor activity alterations had been previously well-915 documented in Drosophila FXS model (34) and in younger 8 916 weeks-old male Fmr1-KO animals (35). Our results indicate that 917 4-months old *Fmr1*-deficient mice display a sustained increase in 918 physical activity as compared to wildtype mice, suggesting that 919 hyperactivity-related phenotypes are not transient and persist in 920 adulthood. This agrees with attention deficits and hyperactivity 921 disorder (ADHD) being a frequent comorbidity diagnosed in 922 FXS patients (13). Furthermore, physical activity is known 923 to trigger beneficial metabolic changes, notably reduction in 924 circulating triglycerides and cholesterol and better response to 925 insulin, which are phenotypes we have recently described in the 926 Fmr1-KO mice (11). All these data point toward important roles 927 for FMR1 gene at multiple levels in the organism: both central 928 and peripheral. 929

FMRP, the protein encoded by the FMR1 gene is a RNA-930 binding protein which controls mRNA translation. FMRP is 931 widely expressed in the organism, including in adipose tissue, 932 however, FMRP is absent from the adult muscle (8-12). 933 It is therefore unlikely that FMRP will directly participate 934 to muscle remodeling. In addition to increased physical 935 activity, dysregulated translation regulation in bone tissue in 936 the absence of FMRP could also participate to the skeletal 937 and bone microstructure changes we observed here. Also, 938 craniofacial abnormalities have been previously identified in 939 both FXS patients and FXS mouse model (20), and this occurs 940 independently of physical activity, suggesting that FMRP could 941 have a direct role on bone formation/resorption processes. 942 Further molecular studies would be required to identify FMRP 943 mRNA targets in bone and its contribution to the shaping of 944 bone microstructure. 945

Our study has some limitations. First, we have assessed bone 946 phenotypes at a single age (4-month-old) and only in male 947 animals. The stability of these phenotypes over time (during 948 growth and aging) and the impact of sex should be further 949 investigated. Circulating bone hormones, including osteocalcin 950 levels, could also be assessed during growth. Second, detailed 951 histo-morphometric studies of bone coupled to in vitro studies 952 in osteoblasts and osteoclasts derived from Fmr1-KO and WT 953 mice could contribute to identify the mechanism by which 954 Fmr1-deficiency regulates bone morphology. Third, to estimate 955 whether the changes in body composition are accompanied with 956 improved physical capacities, Fmr1-KO mice could be subjected 957 to forced exercise training in a treadmill combined with indirect 958 calorimetry. Finally, further studies in FXS patients are warranted 959 to assess the translationality of our findings in FXS mouse model. 960 In this context, the use of Dual Energy X-Ray Absorptiometry 961 (DEXA) technology, easily amenable both to mice, and humans 962 to study visceral fat mass and lean body mass would enable an 963 in-depth characterization of body mass distribution in FXS. 964

To our knowledge, this study is the first to document changes 965 in body mass composition, skeleton, and bone architecture 966 induced by Fmr1-deficiency in mice. These changes may result 967 in part from adaptations to the hyperactivity and increased 968 body weight that we highlight in Fmr1-KO mice or from the 969

loss of the translational regulator FMRP in bone or adipose 970 tissue. We have previously shown that Fmr1-KO mice present 971 a variety of metabolic changes, notably increased glucose, and 972 insulin tolerance as well as a metabolic shift toward increased 973 lipid catabolism, this being likely mediated by the loss of 974 FMRP-mediated hepatic translation repression (11). To which 975 extend these metabolic abnormalities could also be linked to 976 increased physical activity remains to be investigated. Given that 977 recent studies have shown that a dynamic crosstalk between 978 peripheral organs is required for the optimal control of metabolic 979 homeostasis (36, 37), our study further paves the way for further 980 investigation of skeletal and metabolic changes in FXS patients. 981

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding author.

ETHICS STATEMENT

All animal studies were conducted in facilities accredited by French legal authorities (Direction Départementale de Protection des Populations des Alpes-Maritimes, accreditation #C-06-152-5). Procedures involving animal experimentation were approved by the local animal experimentation ethics committee and the French Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche (agreement #00788.01 and #05224.01).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

LD designed the project and wrote the manuscript. AL, PB-M, DP, and LD carried out the experiments. AL, DP, and LD analyzed the data. XM provided advices for tomography acquisition and 3D reconstruction. AL performed 2D analyses and 3D modelisation. E-ZA interpreted the tomography data. AL, PB-M, E-ZA, XM, and DP revised the manuscript.

FUNDING

LD thanks the generous support of FRAXA Research Foundation and Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR JCJC SVE6 MetaboXFra).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank the IPMC animal facility for expert animal care, in particular N. Guy, V. Thieffin, and B. Donay. We are greatly indebted to MD Dr. Sattonet (Polyclinique Saint-Jean, Cagnessur-Mer) for providing access to the high energy µCT Skyscan and for helpful advices for its use.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fendo. 2019.00678/full#supplementary-material

1021

1022

1023

1024

1025 Q9

1026

982

983

984

985

986

987

988

989

990

1088

1095

1098

1099

REFERENCES 1027

- 1028 1. Chelly J, Khelfaoui M, Francis F, Cherif B, Bienvenu T. Genetics and 1029 pathophysiology of mental retardation. Eur J Hum Genet. (2006) 14:701-1030 13. doi: 10.1038/si.eihg.5201595
- 1031 2. Gecz J, Shoubridge C, Corbett M. The genetic landscape of intellectual disability arising from chromosome X. Trends Genet. (2009) 25:308-1032 16. doi: 10.1016/j.tig.2009.05.002 1033
- 3. Hagerman PJ. The fragile X prevalence paradox. J Med Genet. (2008) 45:498-1034 9. doi: 10.1136/jmg.2008.059055
- 1035 4. Oberle I, Rousseau F, Heitz D, Kretz C, Devys D, Hanauer A, et al. Instability of a 550-base pair DNA segment and abnormal methylation in fragile X 1036 syndrome. Science. (1991) 252:1097-102. doi: 10.1126/science.252.5009.1097 1037
- 5. Penagarikano O, Mulle JG, Warren ST. The pathophysiology 1038 of fragile x syndrome. Annu Rev Genom Hum Genet. (2007) 1039 8:109-29. doi: 10.1146/annurev.genom.8.080706.092249
- 1040 6. Consortium FX TDB. Fmr1 knockout mice: a model to study fragile X mental retardation. Cell. (1994) 78:23-33. doi: 10.1016/0092-8674. (94)90569-X 1041
- 7. Mientjes EJ, Nieuwenhuizen I, Kirkpatrick L, Zu T, Hoogeveen-Westerveld 1042 M, Severijnen L, et al. The generation of a conditional Fmr1 knock out 1043 mouse model to study Fmrp function in vivo. Neurobiol Dis. (2006) 21:549-1044 55. doi: 10.1016/j.nbd.2005.08.019
- 1045 8. Devys D, Lutz Y, Rouyer N, Bellocq JP, Mandel JL. The FMR-1 protein is cytoplasmic, most abundant in neurons and appears normal in carriers of a 1046 fragile X premutation. Nat Genet. (1993) 4:335-40. doi: 10.1038/ng0893-335 1047
- 9. Khandjian EW, Fortin A, Thibodeau A, Tremblay S, Cote F, Devys D, 1048 et al. A heterogeneous set of FMR1 proteins is widely distributed in mouse 1049 tissues and is modulated in cell culture. Hum Mol Genet. (1995) 4:783-1050 9. doi: 10.1093/hmg/4.5.783
- 10. Davidovic L, Tremblay S, Gravel M, De Koninck P, Khandjian EW. [The 1051 fragile X syndrome: one protein missing and 1001 disoriented mRNAs]. Med 1052 Sci. (2006) 22:41-6. doi: 10.1051/medsci/200622141
- 1053 11. Leboucher A, Pisani DF, Martinez-Gili L, Chilloux J, Bermudez-Martin 1054 P, Van Dijck A, et al. The translational regulator FMRP controls lipid and glucose metabolism in mice and humans. Mol Metab. (2019) 21:22-1055 35. doi: 10.1016/i.molmet.2019.01.002 1056
- 12. Davidovic L, Sacconi S, Bechara EG, Delplace S, Allegra M, Desnuelle C, et al. 1057 Alteration of expression of muscle specific isoforms of the fragile X related 1058 protein 1. (FXR1P) in facioscapulohumeral muscular dystrophy patients. J 1059 Med Genet. (2008) 45:679-85. doi: 10.1136/jmg.2008.060541
- 1060 13. Kidd SA, Lachiewicz A, Barbouth D, Blitz RK, Delahunty C, McBrien D, et al. Fragile X syndrome: a review of associated medical problems. *Pediatrics*. 1061 (2014) 134:995-1005. doi: 10.1542/peds.2013-4301 1062
- 14. Butler MG, Pratesi R, Watson MS, Breg WR, Singh DN. 1063 Anthropometric and craniofacial patterns in mentally retarded males with emphasis on the fragile X syndrome. Clin Genet. (1993) 1064 44:129-38. doi: 10.1111/j.1399-0004.1993.tb03863.x 1065
- 15. de Vries BB, Robinson H, Stolte-Dijkstra I, Tjon Pian Gi CV, Dijkstra PF, van 1066 Doorn J, et al. General overgrowth in the fragile X syndrome: variability in 1067 the phenotypic expression of the FMR1 gene mutation. J Med Genet. (1995) 1068 32:764-9. doi: 10.1136/jmg.32.10.764
- 16. Hagerman RJ, Van Housen K, Smith AC, McGavran L. Consideration of 1069 connective tissue dysfunction in the fragile X syndrome. Am J Med Genet. 1070 (1984) 17:111-21. doi: 10.1002/ajmg.1320170106 1071
- 17. Sabbagh-Haddad A, Haddad DS, Michel-Crosato E, Arita ES. Fragile X 1072 syndrome: panoramic radiographic evaluation of dental anomalies, dental 1073 mineralization stage, and mandibular angle. J Appl Oral Sci. (2016) 24:518-1074 23. doi: 10.1590/1678-775720160170
- 18. Davids JR, Hagerman RJ, Eilert RE. Orthopaedic aspects of 1075 fragile-X syndrome. J Bone Joint Surg Am. (1990) 72:889-1076 96. doi: 10.2106/00004623-199072060-00015
- 1077 Butler MG, Fletcher M, Gale DD, Meaney FJ, McLeod DR, Fagan J, et al. 19. 1078 Metacarpophalangeal pattern profile analysis in fragile X syndrome. Am J Med Genet. (1988) 31:767-73. doi: 10.1002/ajmg.1320310406 1079
- 20. Heulens I, Suttie M, Postnov A, De Clerck N, Perrotta CS, Mattina T, et al. 1080 Craniofacial characteristics of fragile X syndrome in mouse and man. Eur J 1081 Hum Genet. (2013) 21:816-23. doi: 10.1038/ejhg.2012.265 1082
- 1083

- 21. Beranger GE, Pisani DF, Castel J, Djedaini M, Battaglia S, Amiaud J, 1084 et al. Oxytocin reverses ovariectomy-induced osteopenia and body fat gain. 1085 Endocrinology. (2014) 155:1340-52. doi: 10.1210/en.2013-1688 1086
- 22. Doube M, Klosowski MM, Arganda-Carreras I, Cordelieres FP, Dougherty RP, Jackson JS, et al. BoneJ: free and extensible bone image analysis in ImageJ. Bone. (2010) 47:1076-9. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2010.08.023
- Bouxsein ML, Boyd SK, Christiansen BA, Guldberg RE, Jepsen KJ, 23. 1089 Müller R. Guidelines for assessment of bone microstructure in rodents 1090 using micro-computed tomography. J Bone Miner Res. (2010) 25:1468-1091 86. doi: 10.1002/jbmr.141
- 1092 24. Motulsky HJ, Brown RE. Detecting outliers when fitting data with nonlinear regression - a new method based on robust nonlinear regression and the 1093 false discovery rate. BMC Bioinform. (2006) 7:123. doi: 10.1186/1471-2105-1094 7 - 123
- 25. Moser SC, van der Eerden BCJ. Osteocalcin-A versatile bone-derived 1096 hormone. Front Endocrinol. (2018) 9:794. doi: 10.3389/fendo.2018.00794 1097
- Thompson D, Karpe F, Lafontan M, Frayn K. Physical activity and exercise 26. in the regulation of human adipose tissue physiology. Physiol Rev. (2012) 92:157-91. doi: 10.1152/physrev.00012.2011
- 27. Dominguez JM II, Prisby RD, Muller-Delp JM, Allen MR, Delp MD. Increased 1100 nitric oxide-mediated vasodilation of bone resistance arteries is associated 1101 with increased trabecular bone volume after endurance training in rats. Bone. (2010) 46:813-9. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2009.10.029 1102
- Weisz ED, Towheed A, Monyak RE, Toth MS, Wallace DC, Jongens 28 1103 TA. Loss of Drosophila FMRP leads to alterations in energy 1104 metabolism and mitochondrial function. Hum Mol Genet. (2018) 1105 27:95-106. doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddx387
- 29. Nowicki ST, Tassone F, Ono MY, Ferranti J, Croquette MF, Goodlin-Jones B, 1106 et al. The prader-Willi phenotype of fragile X syndrome. J Dev Behav Pediatr. 1107 (2007) 28:133-8. doi: 10.1097/01.DBP.0000267563.18952.c9 1108
- 30. Hagerman RJ, Berry-Kravis E, Hazlett HC, Bailey DB Jr, Moine H, 1109 Kooy RF, et al. Fragile X syndrome. Nat Rev Dis Primers. (2017) 1110 3:17065. doi: 10.1038/nrdp.2017.66
- 1111 Best A, Holt B, Troy L, Hamill J. Trabecular bone in the calcaneus of runners. 31 PLoS ONE. (2017) 12:e0188200. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0188200 1112
- 32. Sugiyama T, Price JS, Lanyon LE. Functional adaptation to mechanical loading 1113 in both cortical and cancellous bone is controlled locally and is confined 1114 to the loaded bones. Bone. (2010) 46:314-21. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2009. 1115 08 054
- 1116 Travison TG, Araujo AB, Esche GR, Beck TJ, McKinlay JB. Lean mass and not 33. fat mass is associated with male proximal femur strength. J Bone Miner Res. 1117 (2008) 23:189-98. doi: 10.1359/ibmr.071016 1118
- 34. McBride SM, Bell AJ, Jongens TA. Behavior in a drosophila 1119 model of fragile X. Results Probl Cell Differ. (2012) 54:83-1120 117. doi: 10.1007/978-3-642-21649-7_6
- Gaudissard J, Ginger M, Premoli M, Memo M, Frick A, Pietropaolo S. 1121 Behavioral abnormalities in the Fmr1-KO2 mouse model of fragile X 1122 syndrome: the relevance of early life phases. Autism Res. (2017) 10:1584-1123 96. doi: 10.1002/aur.1814 1124
- 36. Wei J, Ferron M, Clarke CJ, Hannun YA, Jiang H, Blaner WS, 1125 et al. Bone-specific insulin resistance disrupts whole-body glucose homeostasis via decreased osteocalcin activation. J Clin Invest. (2014) 1126 124.1-13 doi: 10 1172/ICI72323 1127
- 37. Karsenty G, Mera P. Molecular bases of the crosstalk between bone and 1128 muscle. Bone. (2018) 115:43-9. doi: 10.1016/j.bone.2017.04.006

1130 Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a 1131 potential conflict of interest. 1132

1133 Copyright © 2019 Leboucher, Bermudez-Martin, Mouska, Amri, Pisani and 1134 Davidovic. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative 1135 Commons Attribution License (CC BY). The use, distribution or reproduction in other forums is permitted, provided the original author(s) and the copyright owner(s) 1136 are credited and that the original publication in this journal is cited, in accordance 1137 with accepted academic practice. No use, distribution or reproduction is permitted 1138 which does not comply with these terms.

1139 1140