Circular RNAs arising from synaptic host genes are modulated by SFPQ RNA-binding protein and increased during human neuronal differentiation

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Abstract

Circular RNAs (circRNAs) are emerging as a key component of the complex neural transcriptome implicated in brain development. However, the specific expression patterns and functions of circRNAs in human neuronal differentiation have not been explored. Using total RNA sequencing analysis, we identified expressed circRNAs during the differentiation of human neuroepithelial stem (NES) cells into developing neurons and discovered that many circRNAs originated from host genes with synaptic functions. Interestingly, when assessing population data and rare *de novo* variants in autism spectrum disorder (ASD) candidate host genes, exons giving rise to circRNAs had a significantly higher frequency of genetic variants. Screening for RNA-binding protein sites identified enrichment of Splicing Factor Proline and Glutamine Rich (SFPQ) motifs in increased circRNAs, several of which we validated as being reduced by SFPQ knockdown and enriched in SFPQ ribonucleoprotein complexes. Our study provides an in-depth characterisation of circRNAs in a human neuronal differentiation model and highlights SFPQ as both a regulator and binding partner of circRNAs elevated during neuronal maturation.

Introduction

CircRNAs represent a unique class of RNA molecules formed following non-canonical back-splicing of exon-exon junctions (Cocquerelle *et al*, 1992; Nigro *et al*, 1991). These covalently closed, circularised RNAs lack 5'cap and 3'poly-A structures resulting in highly stable molecules, resistant to enzymatic degradation (Jeck *et al*, 2013; Memczak *et al*, 2013). Since their initial discovery, the circRNA transcriptome has expanded rapidly with the advent of sequencing approaches and bioinformatic tools designed to detect back-spliced junctions in RNA-sequencing (RNAseq) data (Memczak *et al.*, 2013; Salzman *et al*, 2013; Salzman *et al*, 2012). Although once thought to be non-functional by-products of spurious splicing events, numerous functional roles of circRNAs have now been identified, including microRNA (miRNA) sponging (Memczak *et al.*, 2013), transcriptional regulation (Conn *et al*, 2017; Pandey *et al*, 2020), RNA-binding protein function (Panda *et al*, 2017; Tsitsipatis *et al*, 2021), and modulation of protein interactions (Barbagallo *et al*, 2019; Du *et al*, 2016). These roles highlight the vast diversity of possible functions for circRNAs, most of which are unknown.

As is often observed for mechanisms such as microRNAs or splicing factors that diversify the mammalian transcriptome, circRNA species are highly enriched in the nervous system (Memczak *et al.*, 2013; Rybak-Wolf *et al*, 2015; You *et al*, 2015). Spatio-temporal regulation of circRNA expression within the brain is also dynamic, differing across brain regions and developmental stages (Chen *et al*, 2019; Veno *et al*, 2015; You *et al.*, 2015). Brain and neuronal expressed circRNAs have also been

found to arise from host genes with synaptic functions and display specific enrichment within synaptosomes as well as regulation in response to neuronal activation (Gokool *et al*, 2020; You *et al.*, 2015). Under various circumstances, this regulation appears independent of corresponding host genes and, in some cases, circRNA levels far exceed linear host RNA levels (Rybak-Wolf *et al.*, 2015; You *et al.*, 2015), underscoring the importance of precise modulation of circRNAs during neuronal development.

Accumulating evidence suggests that circRNAs are not only important for neuronal function but also for brain development. Differential expression of circRNAs has been found to occur during neuronal differentiation, both in mice and in cell culture models such as the human neuroblastoma cell line SH-SY5Y, with several specific circRNAs were found to have a regulatory role in this process (Hollensen *et al*, 2020; Li *et al*, 2022b; Suenkel *et al*, 2020; Yang *et al*, 2019; Yang *et al*, 2018). Additionally, a number of circRNAs have been identified as being dysregulated in Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) (Chen *et al*, 2020; Gokool *et al.*, 2020), while a depletion of circRNAs has been observed in individuals with Schizophrenia (SCZ) (Mahmoudi *et al*, 2019). Currently, however, our understanding of circRNA regulation and function in human neurodevelopment remains largely unexplored.

While evaluation of circRNAs in the human brain is limited to post-mortem analyses, derivation of mature neurons from human induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSCs) allows for modelling of neuronal differentiation in a human genetic background (Dolmetsch & Geschwind, 2011). Computational methods to detect back-spliced junctions in total RNAseq data also allow for the discovery of circRNAs without the need for specialised treatment of RNA samples as well as comparison with gene expression from the same data (Hansen, 2018). We combined these methodologies to examine the circRNA landscape of hiPSC-derived neuroepithelial stem (NES) cells and developing neurons, revealing an increase in circRNAs during differentiation, arising from host genes with synaptic functions. CircRNA-forming exons were also found to harbour genetic variants at a higher rate, including rare *de novo* ASD-associated variants, in comparison to exons from the same host gene that were not circularized. In addition, we investigated the potential functionality of elevated circRNAs and identified an enrichment of binding motifs for Splicing Factor Proline and Glutamine Rich (SFPQ). Predicted circRNA targets of SFPQ were found to be depleted during neuronal differentiation following SFPQ knockdown including a novel circRNA from the Regulating Synaptic Membrane Exocytosis 1 (RIMS1) host gene that was specifically enriched by SFPQ immunoprecipitation above its corresponding linear isoform.

Results

Detection of robust circRNA production during NES differentiation from total RNAseq data

To analyse circRNAs in human neuronal differentiation, hiPSC-derived NES cells were differentiated as previously described (Becker *et al*, 2020). Total RNA was collected and sequenced from cells in their proliferative, neural progenitor state (NES) and two time points of differentiation. First, at day five (D5), when a neural identity has been adopted and neurite outgrowth/axon specification is underway, and second at day 28 (D28), when extensive neural networks, but not yet mature active connections, have been established **[Fig 1a]**. To reduce spurious circRNA discovery, three detection programs (CIRCexplorer2, CIRI, MapSplice) with reported low false positive rates were utilised (Hansen, 2018). A total of 60,531 detected circRNAs were filtered for minimum expression, leaving 6,540 circRNAs (~10.8%) for downstream analysis. These were further filtered to include only circRNAs detected by at least two programs, which represented the majority of the expression filtered dataset (6,385; ~97.6%) **[Fig 1b]**. Among these, 66% were known circRNAs reported in circBase (Glazar *et al*, 2014), 34% were novel circRNAs (not yet reported in circBase), and 8.5% of the dataset were '*de novo*' circRNAs that did not annotate to known splice sites. The entire filtered dataset of 6,385 circRNAs was derived from 2,743 unique host genes, with 1,377 genes producing two or more circRNA isoforms and 50 'hotspot' genes that generated over ten circRNAs **[Table S1a]**. All circRNAs analysed and reported in Table S1 have been assigned an ID based on host gene name and back-spliced junction genomic locations. Where available, corresponding circBase IDs are provided. For simplicity, specific circRNAs referenced within this text are referred to only by host gene name with alphabetical indexing for referencing circRNA isoforms.

Differentially expressed circRNAs (DEcircs) in NES differentiation were detected using DESeq2 with log fold-change shrinkage estimation (lfc-shrink) for increased stringency. We observed a predominant increase of circRNA expression with pairwise comparisons finding 33 circRNAs up and 8 circRNAs down at D5 compared to NES and 660 circRNAs up and 95 down at D28 compared to NES (p-adjusted <0.05, lfc-shrink ≥l2l) **[Fig 1c; Table S1b-d]**. Almost all circRNAs (32/33) whose expression was increased at the early differentiation time point (D5) also remained significantly increased at D28 **[Fig 1d]**. Clustering results using the likelihood ratio test, which incorporates all time points, similarly highlighted a primary cluster of circRNAs with a pattern of increasing abundance throughout differentiation **[Fig 1e; Table S1e,f]**.

To validate whether detected circRNAs occurred endogenously and are differentially expressed during differentiation, we selected 20 significant DEcircs and designed divergent primer pairs to selectively amplify back-spliced junctions **[Fig S1a]**. PCR amplification and gel

Figure 1. Detection and validation of circRNAs in human neuronal differentiation. **a.** Schematic representation of sample and data collection. **b.** Venn diagram of circRNAs detected from three different circRNA detection programs, numbers highlighted in bold indicated circRNAs included in downstream analysis. **c.** Volcano plots of differentially expressed circRNAs at D5 and D28 of differentiation compared to NES. **d.** Venn diagram of significantly dysregulated circRNAs (padj < 0.05 and lfc-shrink ≥l2l). **e.** Cluster analysis of circRNAs differentially expressed throughout differentiation. **f.** Detection of top differentially

expressed circRNAs by PCR with divergent junction primers. Green = single, expected band, yellow = predominant expected band with additional spurious band/s, orange = expected band not detected. **g.** Example schematic of sanger sequencing validation of circRNA exon retention in *circATRNL1*. Exons are shown in purple, green arrows indicate primer location, and sequencing alignment is shown in orange.

electrophoresis found a clear, predominant band of the expected size for 16/20 primer pairs, three primer pairs also amplified other products in addition to the major product of expected size, while one primer pair, *circRIMS1_b*, was unsuccessful in producing a band of expected size **[Fig 1f]**. While spurious bands may arise from mispriming, they may also originate from multimeric cDNA templates produced by rolling-circle amplification of alternate circRNA isoforms (Das et al, 2019), particularly for *circRIMS1_b* as this host gene is known to produce numerous circRNA isoforms (Rahimi et al, 2021). Using quantitative PCR (qPCR) analysis of replicate samples, similar differential expression of circRNAs was also observed at D28 when compared to NES, particularly for increased circRNAs **[Fig S1b]** and qPCR log fold-changes strongly correlated with RNAseq lfc-shrink values (R = 0.8, p = 1.2e-4). Finally, secondary divergent primer pairs were designed to confirm circRNA annotation and determine internal exon structure in circRNAs with non-consecutive back-spliced exons **[Fig S1c]**. Among primer pairs which amplified enough product, all except *circRIMS1_a*, produced a single band. Sanger sequencing confirmed back-spliced exon identity in all circRNAs as well as internal exon retention, where relevant **[Fig 1g and Fig S2]**. A second larger product of the primer pair for *circRIMS1_a* (*circRIMS1_a2*) was found to contain an additional 88-b sequence which maps to an intronic region between, but not adjacent to, exons 7 and 8 (GRCh37-chr6:72299090-72299177) which is likely to be an as-yet unannotated exon of RIMS1. Finally, as an additional validation, the dataset was compared with circRNAs detected by Gokool *et al*, which represents the largest dataset of human brain circRNAs (197 post-mortem samples), and ~80% of circRNAs in our study were found to be represented. Taken together, these results indicate that our pipeline for circRNA detection from total RNAseq data was successful in identifying genuine circRNAs that are differentially expressed during neuronal differentiation.

CircRNAs increased during NES differentiation arise from synaptic host genes

Given that NES differentiation primarily caused an increase of circRNA expression, functional annotations associated with host genes of this circRNA subset were examined. Gene ontology terms related to synaptic processes, ion transport, and neuron development were found to be most highly enriched among Cluster 1 circRNAs as well as in positive gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of D28 vs NES DEcircs **[Fig 2a,b and Table S2]**. While similar pathways were identified as positively

enriched from GSEA of D5 vs NES, only one reached significance (GO:0051962-Positive regulation

of nervous system development*;* p-adjusted <0.05). Of interest, GSEA of D28 vs D5 found only cell-

cell adhesion as an enriched process, while multiple processes related to early neuronal specification,

such as cell projection and axonogenesis, were negatively enriched **[Fig S3a]**. We also examined the

enrichment of neurodevelopmental disorder (NDD) risk genes since circRNA expression has

previously been found to be disrupted in individuals with ASD and SCZ. The tested genes included

ASD genes from the Simons Foundation Autism Research Initiative (SFARI) database, collated SCZ

risk genes **[Table S3]**, and developmental disorder-related genes covering broader phenotypes (Li *et*

al, 2022a). We found significant enrichment of ASD genes among circRNAs increased at D28 vs NES,

and significant enrichment of SCZ risk genes in Cluster 4 circRNAs **[Fig S3b,c]**.

Employing the same RNAseq dataset, we performed a differential expression analysis of linear

RNAs to identify regulatory patterns and gene ontology terms. The expression of linear RNAs was

found to follow a similar regulatory pattern to that of circRNAs, with a higher proportion of linear RNAs

increased at D28 vs NES (2,904 genes compared to 1,363 decreased; p-adjusted <0.05, lfc-shrink

≥|2|) **[Fig S3d and Table S4a]**. GSEA also revealed enrichment of similar pathways related to

synaptic function among linear RNAs increased by differentiation **[Fig S3e and Table S4b]**. Since

multiple studies have found discordances between the changes in circRNA levels and the changes in

the levels of linear RNAs from the same host gene, we compared changes in circRNA and linear

counterparts. As shown, a moderate but significant positive correlation was detected (R = 0.5, p <2.2e-

16). Plotting of lfc-shrink correlates highlighted this same positive linear association; however, there

was an evident shift from the linear distribution suggesting that highly increased circRNAs had higher

fold-changes than their linear counterparts [**Fig 2c**]. A direct comparison of circRNAs to linear RNA

counterparts found this same trend among the top 20 circRNAs with an average increase of circRNA

expression of ~6.7 fold higher than linear RNAs **[Fig S4]**. Additionally, among circRNAs increased at

D28 vs NES, a large majority (71.6%) were over two-fold higher than the linear counterparts from the

same host genes, supporting a non-linear relationship between the expression of these two RNA

forms.

To further explore the relationship between linear RNA and circRNA regulation, we analysed

differential exon usage in our dataset using DEXseq. All exon bins detected by DEXseq were analysed

as exons, including those corresponding to circRNA-forming exons. Comparing cells differentiated to

D28 with NES cells we identified a large number of differentially used exons (19,502 exons; p-adjusted

<0.05, lfc ≥|2|). Among these, the number of exons with eleveated expression was over three times

higher than exons with reduced expression (4,680 down:14,822 up), implying substantially increased

exon inclusion at D28. This corresponds with alternative splicing of 4,904 RNAs with an average of

~31 exons. When enrichment of gene ontology terms among alternatively spliced RNAs were
examined, pathways related to the ribosome and spliceosome were most significantly enriched **[Fig**
S3f].

To establish if alternative splicing is associated with circRNA biogenesis and/or increased
abundance of circRNAs at D28, the rate of alternate splicing (based on differential exon usage at D28
vs. NES) was compared among three groups: all linear RNAs, linear RNAs sharing host RNAs with
circRNAs, and linear RNAs sharing host RNAs with circRNAs increased at D28. While alternative
splicing was ~3-fold higher among RNAs which host circRNAs (p < 0.0001) compared to all RNAs,
there was no difference in alternate splicing rate between all host RNAs and hosts of circRNAs

Figure 2. CircRNAs increased during NES differentiation arise from host genes with synaptic function. **a.**
GSEA of gene ontology – biological process terms among the genes that host circRNAs increased at D28
of differentiation compared to NES. **b.** Most highly enriched gene ontology – biological process terms
among host genes of Cluster 1 circRNAs. **c.** Correlation of log fold-changes for circRNAs and their
corresponding linear counterparts. **d.** Alternative splicing comparison between all RNAs, RNA which host
circRNAs and RNAs that host circRNAs increased at D28 vs. NES. **** = p <0.0001, hypergeometric p-
value test.

 increased at D28 (p = 0.153) **[Fig 2d]**. Similarly, we found no correlation between circRNA fold-
198 changes and estimated exon fold-changes (R = -0.018), suggesting that increased abundance of
199 circRNAs during NES differentiation is independent of general splicing of host precursor RNAs.
200
201

Figure 3. Genetic variant frequency in circRNA-forming exons**. A.** Schematic depicting how exons were
subdivided for comparative analysis. BSJ = back-spliced junctions. **B.** Frequency of GnomAD exon
variants for circRNAs detected in this study, normalised for exon size (Kb). **C.** Proportion of GnomAD exon
variants annotated as having either low, medium, or high impact. **D.** Frequency of GnomAD splice-region
exon variants/Kb. **E.** Frequency of rare *de novo* ASD variants/Kb. **F.** Frequency of rare *de novo* ASD
variants/Kb in exons of circRNAs arising from ASD-associated SFARI host genes. Two sample Z-
test/Wilcox test, **** = p < 0.0001, *** = p < 0.001 * = p < 0.05. DNVs = *de novo* variants.

Variant frequency is increased in circRNA-forming exons

To further assess the role of circRNAs in human health and disorders, we examined genetic variant
burden in circRNA-forming exons. Exons were classified into circ and nonCirc groups based on all
exons of the longest annotated transcript containing the back-spliced exon(s). CircRNA exons were

further differentiated as exons that either form BSJs or do not form BSJs (nonBSJ exons) **[Fig 3a]**.

Genetic variants included in the Genome Aggregation Database (gnomAD) were initially utilised to

examine the frequency of circRNA exon variation in the general population. Rates of genetic variation

were found to be slightly higher in both circ (p = 2.2e-16) and BSJ (p = 1.4e-5) exons when compared

with nonCirc and nonBSJ exons, respectively **[Fig 3b]**. However, no shift was observed in the

annotation of variant impact among exon groups **[Fig 3c]** or in the proportion of missense variants or

the proportion of missense variants identified as deleterious **[Fig S5a,b]**. When we limited the analysis

to splice variants, a higher rate among circRNA-forming exons in comparison to nonCirc exons was

detected (p < 2.2e-16). Furthermore, among circRNA-forming exons, the rate of splice variants was

significantly lower in BSJ exons compared with nonBSJ exons (p = 1.1e-4) **[Fig 3d]**. These

observations suggest circRNA-forming and BSJ exons are subject to increased variation while

splicing variants are less frequent among back-spliced exons.

Next, we examined the frequency of rare *de novo* variants found in ASD from a large exome

sequencing study from 21,219 family-based samples, including 12,166 variants in 6,430 individuals

with ASD (Satterstrom *et al*, 2020). We identified similar results as for gnomAD variants in that *de*

novo ASD variants occurred at a slightly higher rate in circ and BSJ exons **[Fig 3e]**. This increase in

circ exon variants was significant specifically when examining circRNAs formed from ASD-associated

SFARI host genes (p = 0.0384) **[Fig 3f]**. Among circ exons, 72 ASD variants were found to occur

within host genes for circRNAs increased by differentiation (86 exons from 64 genes). Of these, the

majority (56/64) had only one circ exon variant while eight genes carried two, including genes from

SFARI, namely *HECTD4, MYT1L*, *NRXN1* and *RAB2A*. An additional 3,633 rare *de novo* variants in

2,179 unaffected sibling controls from the same cohort were also examined for frequency in circRNA

exons. No significant differences in variant frequency were observed across exon groups, although a

trend for increased variants in BSJ above non-BSJ exons was detected (p = 0.06017) **[Fig S5c,d]**.

Due to a lack of a comparable large resource for SCZ, we collated SCZ variants reported from

several sources **[Table S5]**. In total, 2,035 rare *de novo* variants identified in individuals diagnosed

with either Schizophrenia or schizoaffective disorder were included. When comparing the frequency

of SCZ variants, we found no differences across exon groups either among all transcripts or when

comparing variants specifically in SCZ risk genes **[Fig S5e,f]**. However, within host genes of circRNAs

increased by differentiation, 15 SCZ variants were identified (15 exons from 14 genes), three of which

are SCZ risk genes (*RERE, EPHB2* and *MAN2A1*).

Binding site enrichment in circRNAs differentially expressed during NES differentiation

Given that circRNA functionality remains largely unknown, differentially expressed circRNAs were
screened *en masse* for potential function by searching for binding sites among circRNA sequences.
The discovery that the highly abundant circRNA, *CDR1as,* functions in sequestering miR-7 through
numerous seed sites (Memczak *et al.*, 2013; Piwecka *et al*, 2017) has since led to frequent reporting
of predicted circRNA:miRNA:mRNA interactions (Chen *et al.*, 2020; Dell'Orco *et al*, 2021; Liu *et al*,
2021; Ma *et al*, 2019). We, therefore, first investigated miRNA sponging by exploring possible
interactions between miRNAs and DEcircs. We limited our search to 125 human miRNAs previously
associated with neurodevelopment or NDDs, which were most of interest to our study **[Table S6a,b]**.
To construct putative circRNA:miRNA:mRNA interaction axes, binding sites for these miRNAs were
predicted in both DEcircs as well as 3'UTRs of differentially expressed RNAs **[Table S6c,d]**. Based
on canonical miRNA regulation where miRNAs repress gene expression and circRNA sponges
alleviate target repression, circRNAs with predicted miRNA binding sites were matched to mRNAs
containing binding sites for the same miRNA and with the same pattern of regulation. We found no
circRNAs to have a high number of binding sites for any particular miRNA, with a maximum of three
sites identified in any single circRNA. This is consistent with other reports that enrichment of miR-7
sites in CDR1as is a unique phenomenon among circRNAs (Guo *et al*, 2014; You *et al.*, 2015).
Therefore, while we report identified circRNA:miRNA:mRNA interactions in **Table S6e,** we do not
expect that these circRNAs function in miR-sponging.

Next, we examined the enrichment of RNA-binding protein (RBP) motifs among DEcirc
sequences. A number of motifs were found to be enriched among different subsets of DEcircs,
including two motifs enriched among increased circRNAs **[Table S7a]**. These two motifs were
associated with two splicing factor RBPs, namely, TIA1 Cytotoxic Granule Associated RNA Binding
Protein Like 1 (TIAL1) and Splicing Factor Proline and Glutamine Rich (SFPQ) **[Fig 4a,b]**. These
results highlighted a possible functional link between TIAL1 and SFPQ RBPs and the increased
abundance of circRNAs in neuronal differentiation.

SFPQ regulates expression of circRNAs in NES differentiation

To further test the relationship between increased circRNAs and enriched RBP motifs, expression of
SFPQ and TIAL1 mRNA in NES differentiation was first established. Normalised counts from RNAseq
analysis indicated that both RBPs were expressed at all time points albeit both with reduced
expression at D28 and with SFPQ levels around tenfold higher than TIAL1 **[Fig 4c,d]**. From motif
analysis of circRNA sequences, a number of 'top' putative targets for SFPQ and TIAL1 were
subsequently chosen based on motif frequency, base mean expression and log fold-change values

Figure 4. RNA-binding protein SFPQ regulates and binds to subsets of circRNAs during neuronal differentiation. **a.** SFPQ motif enriched among circRNAs increased at D28 v D5. **b.** TIAL1 motif enriched among circRNAs increased at D28 v NES. **c.** Normalised counts of SFPQ RNA during NES differentiation. **d.** Normalised counts of SFPQ RNA during NES differentiation. **e.** Detection of SFPQ and TIAL1 mRNA following siRNA treatment (*n* = 3). **f.** Relative expression of SFPQ targets following SFPQ knockdown (*n* = 3)**. g-j.** *In situ* detection of *circERC2* and its linear isoform in undifferentiated NES cells (**g**), and cells at D5 (**h**) and D28 (**i,j**) of differentiation. Blue = Hoescht nuclear counter stain, magenta = linear ERC2 probe,

green = *circERC2* probe. Scale bar in g = 25 µm, applies to g-j. images are representative of staining from
biological replicates (*n* = 3). **k.** SFPQ RIP followed by RT-qPCR analysis to identify SFPQ targets and *5S*
rRNA control, normalised to IgG RIP samples from D28 differentiated neurons (*n* = 2). **** = $p < 0.0001$,
*** = $p < 0.001$, ** = $p < 0.01$, * = $p < 0.05$, one-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc analysis, Bonferroni adjusted.
Error bars represent standard error.

[Table S7b,c]. Elevated expression of all selected circRNA targets during NES differentiation was
confirmed using qPCR with divergent primers with all targets increased ~4 fold or greater as early as
day eight of differentiation (D8) **[Fig S6a]**. To determine if these RBPs affected target circRNA
expression, we knocked down SFPQ and TIAL1 during NES differentiation with cells treated with
siRNA on days zero (NES) and eight (D8) and RNA collected on D8 and D16. For quantification of
protein levels, cell lysates were also collected four days after each siRNA treatment **[Fig S6b]**. TIAL1
expression was too low to be detected in any samples, however, SFPQ protein was found to be
reduced ~50% at day four compared to non-targeting control siRNA (siNTC) **[Fig S6c,d]**. Similarly,
from mRNA quantification, *SFPQ* mRNA was robustly reduced by siRNA treatment while *TIAL1*
mRNA levels remained unchanged **[Fig 4e]**. As TIAL1 mRNA levels appeared to be too low during
differentiation and unaffected by siRNA treatment, TIAL1, and its targets were excluded from further
analyses.

Following siRNA-SFPQ treatment, we quantified the relative expression of select circRNA
targets alongside their corresponding linear mRNA form. Knockdown of SFPQ resulted in depletion
of all circRNA targets at both D8 and D16 with an apparent greater decrease of circRNAs compared
to linear counterparts. This effect was especially pronounced at D16 of differentiation **[Fig 4f]**. Next,
two circRNAs that exhibited the greatest decrease following SFPQ knockdown, *circERC2* and
circMYT1L were selected for *in situ* hybridisation analysis. circRNA probes were designed to hybridise
to the back-spliced junction along with a control probe designed to a linear splice junction of one back-
spliced exon. No specific signal was seen with a negative scrambledCirc *in situ* probe or for
circMYT1L, likely due to low expression as linear MYT1L was only detected at low levels **[Fig S7a,b]**.
However, *circERC2* was detected with a clear increase in expression observed following
differentiation **[Fig 4g-j]**. *In situ* detection of *circERC2* showed outspread co-localised with linear
ERC2 and expression throughout the neuronal soma **[Fig 4g-j]**. This localisation pattern also
appeared unchanged by siRNA-SFPQ treatment **[Fig S7c-f].** Finally, to determine if SFPQ can bind
to the predicted circRNA targets, RNA immunoprecipitation followed by qPCR analysis (RIP-qPCR)
was performed on neurons at D28 of differentiation. We found that SFPQ immunoprecipitation
enriched all circRNA targets greater than four-fold and, in the case of *circRIMS1_d*, specific
enrichment of the circRNA exceeded that of the linear isoform **[Fig 4k]**. Collectively, this suggests a

role for SFPQ not only in the regulation of circRNAs during neuronal differentiation but also as a potential binding partner of increased circRNAs.

CircRNAs increased during differentiation are flanked by long introns

While the SFPQ targets examined were selected based on enrichment for a singular SFPQ motif, additional motifs for SFPQ are known and could be involved in the effects of SFPQ knockdown. Additionally, SFPQ has previously been shown to have an important role in circRNA biogenesis through interactions with circRNA flanking introns, specifically regulating circRNAs with long flanking introns that contain distal inverted Alu repeat elements (IAE) (Stagsted *et al*, 2021). The observed decrease of circRNA targets following SFPQ knockdown could be due to a more general effect of SFPQ promoting circRNA formation through flanking intronic regions. We, therefore, tested flanking introns of increased circRNAs for enrichment of RBP motifs. Although four motifs for SFPQ were found to be enriched in flanking introns, this represented a small minority among a total of 349 enriched motifs from 76 RBPs, the majority of which were motifs corresponding to members of the HNRNP (93) and SRSF (91) protein families **[Table S7d]**. Previously, SFPQ binding sites have been identified as enriched both in close proximity (+/- 2000 bp) to BSJ sites of circRNAs (Stagsted *et al*., 2021) as well at 5' ends of long introns from SFPQ-bound genes (Takeuchi *et al*, 2018). The frequency of SFPQ motifs in flanking introns of circRNA subsets was consequently examined to determine if any position-based pattern was evident. We observed that the frequency of SFPQ motifs among flanking introns of DEcircs is highest at intron ends distal to the BSJ and lowest in regions closest to the BSJ **[Fig 5a]**. Analysing motif position relative to the 5' site of both upstream and downstream flanking introns indicated that this pattern was driven by an enrichment of SFPQ binding sites at 5' intronic sites **[Fig 5b]**. While this indicates that 5' SFPQ motif may be important for biogenesis of circRNAs differentially expressed in this dataset, this pattern was not unique to increased circRNAs and, in fact, circRNAs decreased during differentiation appear to have the highest frequency of 5' SFPQ motifs in their downstream flanking introns.

We further compared both flanking intron length and the location of inverted Alu repeats in all circRNAs and circRNAs increased at D28 as potential features of SFPQ-regulated circRNAs. Based on grouping of introns by length and presence of proximal IAEs, the proportion of intronic types was unchanged in the subset of increased circRNAs **[Fig 5c]**. A comparison of mean length, however, found that flanking introns were significantly longer in increased circRNAs (p = 2.6e-11) whereas distance to Alu elements in circRNAs that contained IAEs did not differ significantly (p = 0.1615) **[Fig 5d-g]**. These results suggest that intronic length, but not IAE distance, may be an important factor in the increased abundance of circRNAs during NES differentiation.

Figure 5. Long introns flank circRNAs increased by NES differentiation. **a.** Frequency of SFPQ motifs in circRNA flanking introns by position relative to intron splice site distal from the BSJ. **b.** Frequency of SFPQ motifs in circRNA flanking introns by position relative to the 5' intron end. Scale in b applies to a and b. **c.** Proportion of flanking intron types among all circRNAs compared to increased circRNAs. Intron types were defined as either, short/long introns with a proximal IAE (pIAE-short/pIAE-long) or short/long introns without proximal IAE (Short/Long). **d.** Mean intron length of flanking introns. **e.** Mean distance to IAE from BSJ. **f.** Density plot of intron length totalled from both flanking introns. **g.** Density plot of IAE distance totalled from Alu element distance on both flanking introns. Error bars in d and e represent standard error, dashed lines in g and f indicate median values. Two sample Z-test, **** = p < 0.0001.

Discussion

Despite mounting evidence highlighting an important role for circRNA regulation in normal brain function, our understanding of circRNA generation and function during neurodevelopment remains poorly understood. Our study provides a comprehensive profile of circRNA expression in a human model of neuronal differentiation. Although previous reports have suggested high conservation of circRNAs, more recent evidence indicates that circRNA exons exhibit similar conservation to neighbouring linear exons and that the majority of circRNAs are species-specific with only ~20% of mouse circRNAs having human homologs (Gruhl *et al*, 2021; Guo *et al.*, 2014; Santos-Rodriguez *et al*, 2021). Exploring circRNA expression and function within a human-genetic context is therefore critical to understanding the role of circRNAs in both disease and normal brain development.

Recent expansions of the human circRNAome also coincide with the creation of various bioinformatic tools for the detection of circRNAs from sequencing of either total RNA or RNA enriched for circRNA by RNase treatment (Hansen, 2018; Sharma *et al*, 2019). Sequencing of circRNA enriched samples offers improvements in detecting lowly expressed circRNAs and the advantage of reconstructing complete circRNA sequences (Rybak-Wolf *et al.*, 2015). By contrast, lowly expressed circRNAs are unlikely to be captured in total RNAseq data, and detection of circRNAs, which relies only on BSJ reads, is prone to false positives. However, the pipeline employed in our study, demonstrates that the identity and expression levels of endogenous circRNAs can be reliably determined from total RNAseq by intersecting results of multiple tools, at least for abundant circRNA species that are most likely to be biologically relevant.

An overall pattern of increased circRNA expression following neuronal differentiation has previously been observed in studies of rodent neuronal development, with elevation of circRNAs occurring following neuronal maturation *in vitro* and within the developing mouse hippocampus (Rybak-Wolf *et al.*, 2015; You *et al.*, 2015). Enrichment of GO terms related to neuronal and synaptic functions among hosts of increased circRNAs in our dataset is also consistent with several reports highlighting neuronal genes, and especially synaptic factors, as hosts for numerous circRNAs (Ashwal-Fluss *et al*, 2014; You *et al.*, 2015). Identification of negatively enriched GO terms related to early, but not late differentiation (cell projection/axonogenesis) at D28 vs D5, however, indicates that circRNAs with altered expression arise from host RNAs functioning in biological pathways relevant to the stage of neuronal maturation. We also observed greater relative increases in the levels of circRNAs than in the levels of linear counterparts, supporting prior evidence of specific circRNA regulation during neuronal development. Non-specific accumulation of circRNAs, however, has been reported in non-proliferating cells and with aging in *C. elegans* (Bachmayr-Heyda *et al*, 2015; Cortes-Lopez *et al*, 2018) while brain-specific circRNAs accumulate during aging in more complex organisms

like *Drosophila* and mouse (Gruner *et al*, 2016; Westholm *et al*, 2014). Dissecting the mechanisms of

both specific circRNA regulation as well as circRNA accumulation will therefore be crucial for

understanding circRNA functions in the developing and aging brain.

Although mechanisms of circRNA biogenesis are still poorly understood, BSJ formation has

been shown to occur co-transcriptionally and appears closely linked to linear mRNA splicing (Ashwal-

Fluss *et al.*, 2014). Differential exon usage has been reported to be in competition with exon

circularisation (Ashwal-Fluss *et al.*, 2014), whereas other studies identified circRNAs formed primarily

from exons with high inclusion rates (Gokool *et al.*, 2020). While we observed a significant increase

of alternative splicing among transcripts that host circRNAs, alternative splicing was comparable

among host RNAs of increased circRNAs, and no correlation was found between circRNA fold-

changes and fold-changes of circularised exons. Pathways enriched among differentially spliced

RNAs also diverged from those pathways enriched among host precursors giving rise to circRNAs,

the latter featuring processes associated with the ribosome and the spliceosome.

Since the majority of individual circRNAs remain unstudied, examining variants occurring in

circRNA exons could provide insight into their function and possible roles in evolutionary brain

development and disorders. Based on gnomAD data, circRNA exons had slightly higher variant

frequency while splice site variant frequency in BSJ exons was significantly lower than nonBSJ exons.

We also found that SFARI genes have an increased frequency of rare *de novo* ASD variants in

circularised exons. A separate study found a significant enrichment of ASD GWAS SNPs among all

circBase circRNAs as well as enrichment of GWAS SNPs for four other traits out of ten tested in total

(Rajcsanyi *et al*, 2022). Additionally, numerous SNPs which effect circRNA abundance (circQTLs)

have been identified in humans with the majority found to be independent, linked only to circRNA not

mRNA expression (Ahmed *et al*, 2019). Further, over 600 independent circQTLs have recently been

associated with 389 circRNAs specifically in the ASD brain (Mai *et al*, 2022). Taken together, this

indicates that circRNA-forming exons in human may be subject to increased genetic variation, while

splice sites of BSJ exons are more constrained. Circularised exons may also be enriched for both

common and rare ASD-associated variants and alterations of circRNA function and/or circRNA

expression linked to circQTLs may be an important consideration when determining variant effects in

ASD.

While there is mixed evidence of RBP binding site enrichment in circRNAs (Guo *et al.*, 2014;

You *et al.*, 2015), we identified significant enrichment of limited motifs among subsets of DEcircs.

SFPQ, found enriched among increased circRNAs, is associated with various aspects of gene

regulation and mRNA processing (Heyd & Lynch, 2010; Kaneko *et al*, 2007; Peng *et al*, 2002;

Rosonina *et al*, 2005). Though typically localised to nuclear paraspeckles (Passon *et al,* 2012) non-

nuclear SFPQ pools, linked to distal axonal transport of RNA granules, have been identified in
neuronal cells (Fukuda *et al*, 2021; Furukawa *et al*, 2015; Thomas-Jinu *et al*, 2017). Analogously,
SFPQ has been associated with multiple neurodegenerative disorders (Ishigaki *et al*, 2020; Younas
et al, 2020) and loss of SFPQ causes gross defects in mouse brain development (Takeuchi *et al.*,
2018). These effects are associated with defective transcription of long genes, many of which are
selectively expressed in the brain, enriched for synaptic functions, and associated with
neurodevelopmental disorders (Gabel *et al*, 2015; King *et al*, 2013; Takeuchi *et al.*, 2018). A recent
analysis in human cell lines also found that SFPQ knockdown primarily depleted circRNAs with long
flanking introns containing distal Alu elements, instead of short introns with proximal Alu elements
(Stagsted *et al.*, 2021). Although complementary sequences such as Alu repeats can facilitate
circRNA production (Jeck *et al.*, 2013; Westholm *et al.*, 2014), long flanking introns rather than flanking
proximal inverted repeats have been shown to be more important in biogenesis of the most abundant
and conserved human circRNAs (Stagsted *et al*, 2019; Westholm *et al.*, 2014).

We observed that SFPQ appears to be an important player in regulation of circRNAs and,
consistent with previously examined SFPQ targets (Stagsted *et al.*, 2021), introns flanking circRNAs
increased by NES differentiation were significantly longer than introns flanking all detected circRNAs,
while Alu element distance did not appear to be a defining characteristic. Depletion of circRNAs
following SFPQ knockdown during differentiation indicates that SFPQ is involved circRNA biogenesis
in our model, possibly through previously described mechanisms such as 5' end enriched SFPQ
binding in long flanking introns. However, motif enrichment in increased circRNA flanking introns
indicates many other RBPs were enriched to a greater extent, and patterns of intronic SFPQ motif
enrichment appeared relatively uniform across all DEcircs. This finding indicates that, while SFPQ is
likely a critical factor in circRNA biogenesis, additional factors other than intronic SFPQ binding must
be involved in directing specific circRNA regulation. Given that SFPQ was uniquely enriched within
increased circRNA sequences, we speculate that these exonic binding sites may also play a role in
circRNA regulation. Previously, in addition to intronic sites, exonic sites were shown to contribute to
circRNA biogenesis from *musclebind like splicing regulator 1* (*MBLN1*) pre-mRNA through binding of
its own protein product, MBLN1, thereby regulating its own expression (Ashwal-Fluss *et al.*, 2014).
Here, we show that multiple circRNA targets were also enriched by SFPQ immunoprecipitation,
suggesting SFPQ binding sites in these circRNAs are occupied and could function in sequestering
SFPQ. Further research is needed to untangle the functional significance of SFPQ binding in
circRNAs elevated during differentiation either in regulating their own biogenesis, altering host gene
splicing and/or sequestering of SFPQ protein.

As increasing evidence points to a significant role for circRNAs in neurodevelopment, our data
provides an important resource for future studies. We evaluate alternative splicing and differential
abundance of linear RNAs and circRNAs and scrutinise genetic variation as well as RBP binding sites,
providing an in-depth characterisation of circRNAs in human neuronal differentiation. We also
discerned further correlates between circRNAs and neurodevelopmental disorders and identified the
splicing factor SFPQ as an important player in neuronal maturation, as both a regulator of circRNA
levels and possibly a target itself of circRNA regulation. We note, however, that these mechanisms
are not mutually exclusive and a more complex regulatory picture, encompassing splicing modulation,
circRNA biogenesis and SFPQ:circRNA binding, is likely yet to be resolved.

Materials and methods

NES cell culture and differentiation

Established neuroepithelial stem (NES) cells, previously derived from a male neurotypical donor
(Uhlin *et al*, 2017), were seeded on tissue culture flasks coated with 20 µg/ml poly-L-ornithine (Sigma-
Aldrich P3655),   and   1   µg/ml   laminin   (Sigma-Aldrich L2020).   Cells   were   grown   in
DMEM/F12+GlutaMAX   medium   (ThermoFisher 31331093)   supplemented   with   0.05X   B27
(ThermoFisher 17504044), 1X N2 (ThermoFisher 17502001), 10 ng/ml bFGF (fisher scientific
CTP0261), 10 ng/ml EGF (PeproTech AF-100-15) and 10 U/ml penicillin/streptomycin (ThermoFisher
15140122). Medium was exchanged 50% daily and cells maintained in 5% CO_2 at 37°C, passaging
once 100% confluent and seeding at a density of $5x10^4$ cells/cm². Neural differentiation was induced
by growth factor withdrawal the day after plating with media B27 concentration increased to 0.5X.
Media was exchanged 50% every second day up until D15, after which media was supplemented with
0.4 ug/ml laminin and exchanged 50% every three days.

RNA extraction and RNA sequencing

Cells were lysed in TRIzol reagent (ThermoFischer 15596026) before separating with chloroform and
mixing the aqueous phase with isopropanol as per manufacturer directions. RNA was then isolated
from the isopropanol/chloroform solution using the ReliaPrep RNA Cell Miniprep kit (Promega Z6010).
Three to five biological replicates were extracted for each cell line and time point. Libraries were
prepared with Illumina Truseq Stranded total RNA RiboZero GOLD kit and sequenced on the
NovaSeq6000 platform with a 2x151 setup using NovaSeqXp workflow in S4 mode flowcell. Raw
reads were processed using cutadapt v3.2 to trim adaptor sequences and low-quality base pairs and

discard short reads (options: -m 20 -e 0.1 -q 20 -O 1). The GRCh37 genome assembly was used for

all alignment, annotation, and downstream analysis steps.

CircRNA detection from RNAseq

Back-spliced junctions were detected from paired end reads using three separate programs;

CIRCexplorer2 v2.3.8 (Zhang *et al*, 2016), MapSplice2 v2.1.8 (Wang *et al*, 2010) and CIRI2 v2.0.6

(Gao *et al*, 2018). For CIRCexplorer2, modules were run with default options, reads were pre-aligned

with TopHat v2.0.9 tophat_fusion (with Bowtie v1.1.2 and Samtools v0.1.19) using –fusion-min-dist

200. MapSplice was run using python v2.7.6 and options –fusion-non-canonical –min-fusion-dist 200.

CIRI2 was run using Perl v5.26.2 with default settings after aligning reads with BWA v0.7.17 (with

Samtools v1.9). The R package circRNAprofiler v1.4.2 (Aufiero *et al*, 2020) was used as described in

the manual to merge and filter back-spliced junction reads from all three detection programs as well

as for circRNA annotation and extraction of circRNA sequences.

Differential expression and gene ontology analyses

Based on clustering analysis, two outlier samples (1xNES/1xD5) were initially removed before

differential expression analysis of both circRNAs and genes using DESeq2 v1.30.1 and applying the

ashr method of log fold-change shrinkage (lfc-shrink) (Stephens, 2017). Thresholds of lfc-shrink

values ≥ |2| and p-adjusted <0.05 were used for sub-setting circRNAs and genes as differentially

expressed. For analysis of expression over all three time points, results from DESeq2 likelihood ratio

test were analysed with DEGreport v1.26.0. Analysis of differential exon usage was performed using

the DEXSeq package (v1.40.0) (Anders *et al*, 2012) using provided python scripts to generate a

flattened annotation file of exon bins, with aggregation disabled, and to count reads within exon bins.

The standard analysis pipeline described in the tutorial was followed, defining exon bins as

differentially used if estimated log fold-change was ≥|2|, padj <0.05 and exon base mean >10 and

classifying genes as differentially spliced if at least one exon of a gene was differentially used. As

some exon bins defined by DEXSeq differed from annotated exon regions, differential exon usage

data was compared with circRNA exons based on position information and using the intersect function

of bedtools software v2.29.2. For annotated exons which contained multiple exon bins, exon fold-

changes were calculated as the mean estimated exon bin fold-change. The clusterProfiler package

v3.18.1 was used for all gene ontology analyses using either biological process terms annotated in

org.Hs.eg.db v3.12.0 or user input annotations for analysis of NDD-associated gene enrichment. As

GSEA requires only one entry per gene and numerous host genes had multiple circRNAs, data were

split into negatively and positively regulated circRNAs and the minimum and maximum circRNA lfc-
shrink values were assigned to host genes with duplicate entries.

PCR, quantitative PCR and Sanger sequencing validation of circRNAs

For all experiments, cDNA was generated using the iScript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad). To validate
circRNA detection, divergent primers **[Fig S1b]** were designed as previously described (Panda &
Gorospe, 2018). PCR was performed using HotStarTaq (Qiagen) and bands visualized by gel
electrophoresis. For Sanger sequencing, sequences were amplified using HotStarTaq and circular
primers **[Fig S1b]**. Products were isolated using DNA Clean and Concentrator-5 kit (Zymo Research)
or, if multiple products, bands were separated using gel electrophoresis and extracted using
Zymoclean Gel DNA Recovery Kit (Zymo Research). Samples were sequenced by Eurofins Scientific
before comparing alignments to predicted annotations with nucleotide BLAST and visualizing
alignments with ApE v2.0.49.0. Divergent primers and SYBR green (Bio-Rad) were used for
quantitative PCR (qPCR) analyses. For differential expression validation, ciRNA expression was
normalised to two reference circRNAs, *circRTN4* and *circCASK1G3,* found to have high and
consistent expression throughout NES differentiation. For siRNA experiments, all circRNAs were
normalized to *U6* snRNA and all genes/linear RNAs were normalised to *GAPDH* mRNA. For known
circRNAs, divergent BSJ primers were designed using circInteractome (Dudekula *et al*, 2016). For
novel circRNA divergent BSJ junctions and for all circRNA primers, circRNA sequences were
recreated in SnapGene Viewer v5.1.1 based on annotations from circRNAprofiler and exon
sequences in Ensembl GRCh37 and primers designed using NCBI primer blast. All primer sequences
are listed in **Table S8**.

Variant Analysis

For circRNAs which annotated to known splice sites, exon regions were extracted based on the
longest transcript containing the upstream and downstream back-spliced exons and sub-grouped as
in **Fig 3a**, with the assumption that no exons were spliced out of circRNAs. GnomAD GRCh37 exomes
files v2.1.1 were downloaded for each chromosome and converted into bed format. *De novo* variants
associated with ASD cases and controls were sourced from Satterstrom *et al.* (2020) and SCZ
variants were pooled from various sources listed in **Table S5**. All variants were intersected with exon
subgroups using bedtools and all downstream analysis was performed in R, normalising all exon
variant frequencies by exon length. SIFT annotations for gnomAD exon variants were predicted using
Ensembl VEP v104.

miRNA and RBP binding site prediction

A list of 125 miRNAs associated with neurodevelopment or NDDs **[Table S6a,b]** was collated from

literature review and pubmed searches for miRNA/microRNA with terms such as

neurodevelopment/neuronal/neuron differentiation etc. Ensembl biomart was used to extract 3'UTR

sequences for DEGs and, if multiple 3'UTR sequences were annotated to a single gene, the longest

3'UTR sequence was used. miRNA binding sites in circRNA and 3'UTR sequences were predicted

using remote RNA22 v2 with the following parameters: seedmismatchesallowed = 0; seedsize = 8;

minpairmatchs = 12; minenergy = -12; maxguwobbles = 1; threshold = 7000000. To examine

enrichment of RNA-binding motifs in circRNAs, separate fasta files of DEcircs were generated for

circRNAs decreased or increased at D28vNES / D28vD5 and D5vNES as well as all 4 LRT clusters.

RNA-binding protein motifs were downloaded from the ATtRACT database v0.99β. Motif enrichment

was tested using the AME function of MEME-suite v5.3.0 with default settings and a background

dataset of all annotated (5839/6385) circRNAs. For individual motif site detection, the MEME-suite

FIMO function was used with a threshold p-value of 0.001.

siRNA mediated silencing and protein detection

For siRNA mediated knockdown, Accell Human SMARTpool siRNAs targeting SFPQ (E-006455-00-

0010) or TIAL1 (E-011405-00-0010) were added to cell media at a final concentration of 0.3 μM.

Accell non-targeting control pool (D-001910-10-20), transfected at the same concentration was used

as a control treatment (siNTC). Protein samples were collected 96 hr after siRNA treatment. After

removing media and washing once with PBS cells collected with a cell scraper in a lysis buffer of 50

nM Tris-HCl, 100 mM 100 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA and 1X HALT protease inhibitor

cocktail (PIC; Fischer Scientific) and samples sonicated at 36% amplitude for 6X 1 sec. The Qubit

Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific) was used to measure protein concentration. Protein was

detected using the Simple-Western-JESS capillary western blot system (Bio Techne) multiplexed for

total protein and chemiluminescence detection of mouse αSFPQ (1:2000; Sigma-Aldrich

WH0006421M2) or mouse αTIAL1 (1:10; Santa Cruz sc-398372). The Compass for S.W. software

v5.0.1 was used to analyse data and calculate peak area normalised to total protein area.

In Situ Hybridisation

Locked nucleic acid (LNA) probes for *in situ* were designed to be 45-55 bps in length with a melting

temperature of ~70-75°C. Probes were designed to be complementary to the BSJ for circRNA

detection while linear control probes were designed to target a linear splice junction, within the same

transcript, containing one of the BSJ exons. CircRNA probes plus a negative control scrambled

circRNA probe labelled with 5'FAM and linear probes labelled with 5'Cy3 were ordered from

Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT) as HPLC purified, Affinity Plus DNA oligos and resuspended in

TE buffer. Details of all probe sequences are listed in **Table S9**. Cells were plated on glass coverslips

coated with 100 µg/ml poly-L-ornithine and 2 µg/ml laminin. *In situ* hybridisation was performed as

described previously with some modifications (Zirkel & Papantonis, 2018). Cells were washed with

PBS before incubation in fresh fixative (4% PFA, 0.9% NaCl and 5% Glacial acetic acid in UltraPure

H_2O) for 17 min at room temp. Coverslips were washed for 5 min with PBS before adding ice-cold

70% ethanol and storing at least overnight or up to a few weeks at -20°C. After removing from -20°C

cells were recovered for 5 min at room temp in PBS, permeabilised for 10 min in 0.5% Triton X-

100/0.5% saponin (Sigma-Aldrich S7900) and washed in PBS. Cells were then treated with 1%

formaldehyde in PBS for 10 min and washed once in PBS for 10 min. Cells were dehydrated with

ethanol at 70, 90 and 100% for 3 min each and air-dried. For each coverslip 15 ng of labelled probe

was diluted in 50 µL of hybridisation buffer consisting of 10% Dextran sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich 265152),

0.1% Sodium dodecyl sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich 71736), 30% Ethylene carbonate (Sigma-Aldrich

E26258), 20 µg/mL Yeast tRNA (Thermo Fischer AM7119) and 2X SSC. Probes were denatured at

83°C for 5 min and hybridised overnight at 37°C in a box humidified with 2X SSC. Coverslips were

washed 3 times in 2X SSC for 10 min at 42°C, followed by two 3-min PBS washes at room temp.

Cells were blocked for 30 min in 0.1% Triton X/5% Donkey serum/PBS and counterstained with

1:1000 Hoechst. After two 3-min washes in PBS, coverslips were air-dried for 3-5 min and mounted

onto glass slides using Prolong Diamond Antifade Mountant (Thermo Fischer). Images were acquired

using an LSM 700 Zeiss Confocal Microscope and contrast was enhanced uniformly.

Formaldehyde RNA immunoprecipitation

Formaldehyde RNA immunoprecipitation (fRIP) was performed as previously described (Hendrickson

et al, 2016) with some modifications. NES cells were differentiated until D28 in a T75 flask. To collect,

cells were washed with PBS, rinsed with 6 mL Accutase for 10 sec and incubated in 4 mL TrypLE

select for 2 min/37°C before addition of 200 µL of Neuronal isolation enzyme (Thermo Scientific,

88285) and further incubating 1 min/37°C. Dissociation was stopped with 6 mL of Trypsin inhibitor

and solution collected, any remaining cells were collected by rinsing flasks with 6 mL of Wash Medium

(DMEM/F12+GlutaMAX, 5% FBS, 10 U/ml penicillin/streptomycin). Clumps were broken up by gentle

pipetting and cells spun at 400 x g for 3 min and resuspended in Wash Medium at 5×10^6 cells/mL.

Crosslinking was performed by addition of formaldehyde to a final concentration of 0.1% and

incubation for 10 min with rotation. Glycine was added at a concentration of 125 mM, incubating for 5

min with rotation to stop the reaction. Cells were pelleted, washed twice in cold PBS and once in PIC,

and stored at -80°C. For immunoprecipitation, cell pellets were resuspended and lysed by incubation

for 10 min at 4 °C with rotation in RIPA lysis buffer (50 mM TRIS [pH 8], 150 mM KCL, 0.1% SDS, 1%

Triton-X, 5 mM EDTA, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.5 mM DTT, 1X PIC, 100 U/mL RNaseOUT). The

lysate was sonicated 15 times (0.7s on, 1.3s off, Vibra-Cell VCX-600, Sonics) at an amplitude of 10%

and centrifuged at max speed for 10 min at 4°C. Supernatant was collected and diluted with an equal

volume of Binding buffer (150 mM KCl, 25 mM Tris [pH 7.5], 5 mM EDTA, 0.5 % IGEPAL) with 0.5

mM DTT, 1X PIC and 100 U/mL RNaseOUT added. Cells were incubated 2 hr at 4°C with rotation

after addition of either 6 µg mouse αSFPQ (Sigma-Aldrich WH0006421M2) or 6 µg normal mouse

αIgG (Santa Cruz sc-2025). To each immunoprecipitation, 50 µL of Dynabeads Protein G (Thermo

Fischer 10004D), pre-washed 2X in Binding buffer, was added before incubating 1 hr/4°C with

rotation. Beads were washed 2X 10 min/4°C with rotation in 1 mL Binding buffer/PIC/RNaseOUT. To

reverse cross-linking, beads were resuspended in 56 µL UltraPure water and 33 µL reverse

crosslinking buffer (PBS (without Mg or Ca), 6% N-lauroyl sarcosine, 30 mM EDTA, 15 mM DTT), 2

mg/mL Proteinase K and 400 U/mL RNaseOUT were added to each reaction, before incubating 1

hr/42°C followed by 1 hr/55°C. Bead/buffer mix was added to 1 mL TRIzol and RNA extraction

performed as described above. For each fRIP, 5 ng of RNA was used for cDNA synthesis and targets

were analysed by qPCR, normalizing SFPQ-fRIP to IgG-fRIP.

Intron Analysis

Sequences for introns flanking circRNA back-spliced exons were extracted using BSgenome v1.58.0

and Biostrings v2.58.0 based on annotations output by circRNAprofiler. RBP binding sites were

predicted using MEME-suite as described above and SFPQ motif frequency for each subset of

circRNAs normalised by the number of circRNAs. All GRCh37 repeat elements were downloaded

from UCSC table browser RepeatMasker track and Alu elements extracted using grep. Bedtools

intersect was used to subset Alu elements that overlapped with intronic regions by at least 50% of the

repeat element length and bedtools closest tool used to find Alu elements closest to the BSJ site.

CircRNAs were classified as having inverted Alu elements when the closest Alu elements in the

downstream and upstream flanking introns were in opposite orientation (on opposite strands).

CircRNAs were classified as having proximal IAE flanking introns based on a total Alu distance from

the BSJ less than the median for all circRNAs with IAEs. Classification of circRNAs with short or long

flanking introns was also classified based on median length, totalled from both flanking introns.

Statistics and Data Visualisation

All statistics and data visualisation were performed in R v4.0.4. Specific statistical tests performed are
described within the relevant results section. Various R packages were used for visualisation of data
including ggplot2 v3.3.3, EnhancedVolcano v1.8.0 and VennDiagram v1.6.20

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Competing Interests

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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