# Abnormal expression of splicing regulators RBFOX and NOVA is associated with aberrant splicing patterns at the Neurexin-3 gene in a monogenic autism spectrum disorder

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## Abstract

Autism spectrum disorders are diseases characterized by a combination of cognitive, behavioral and neurological symptoms. A complex interplay between environmental factors and a multitude of genetic determinants, most of them composed of low-risk variants, impose difficulties in understanding the molecular and cellular underpinnings of these conditions. In some cases, autistic patients have been shown to display alterations in splicing patterns of several genes, but the extent to which this phenomenon is common in the context of these multifactorial disorders is unknown, nor is it known if monogenic cases of autism also display dysregulation of splicing. Moreover, very few studies have investigated the causal links between splicing alterations in specific genes and the phenotypic characteristics of the neural tissue in autism patients. In this study, we have focused on a monogenic type of autism caused by haploinsufficiency of the Transcription Factor 4 gene, known as Pitt-Hopkins Syndrome. We show that neurons and organoids derived from patients with this disease have altered expression of splicing regulators in the NOVA and RBFOX families, accompanied by aberrant splicing patterns in a substantial number of genes involved in neural tissue development and synapse organization. We focused on a gene encoding a member of the Neurexin Family, the splicing of which normally leads to the production of transcript variants coding for both transmembrane and secreted protein isoforms. In Pitt-Hopkins Syndrome neurons, we detected an aberrant splicing pattern that results in lower expression of the transcript that encodes the secreted isoform, a phenomenon that may explain why the neural tissue in these patients have decreased electrical activity through impaired synapse organization. Our data shed light on the role splicing regulation plays in a monogenic type of autism.

## INTRODUCTION

RNA splicing plays a critical role in regulating transcription and producing the wide diversity of transcripts and protein isoforms that characterize the eukaryotic cell. Alternative splicing results in the joining of exons and exclusion of introns in different configurations, being classified as exon skipping (SE), intron retention (RI), alternative 5' or 3' splice site (A5SS or A3SS), and mutually exclusive exon (MXE) splicing events[1]. RNA splicing is tightly regulated by RNA-binding proteins, several of which are important to neurogenesis, axon guidance, synaptogenesis, and synaptic physiology during neurodevelopment[2].

Alternative splicing is very prevalent in the human brain, particularly during neuronal differentiation[3], affecting events such as synaptic function and stability[4]. Aberrant splicing patterns at genes involved in synaptic plasticity such as *NLGN3*, *NLGN4*, *NRXN1*, *SHANK3*, and *CADPS2* are present in individuals with autism-spectrum disorders[5], which has been taken as a suggestion that several of these genes may have a putative role in the molecular mechanisms driving autism.

Out of the many RNA-binding proteins regulating splicing, two families have been linked to autism in several studies – RNA Binding Fox-1 Homolog (RBFOX) and Neuro-Oncological Ventral Antigen (NOVA) proteins. RBFOX family members RBFOX1, RBFOX2, and RBFOX3 are expressed in neurons[6], regulating alternative splicing patterns particularly during early neurogenesis and for synaptic plasticity (RBFOX1 and RBFOX2) or in mature neurons (RBFOX3)[7]. RBFOX1 controls the skipping of neuron-specific exons in many genes, particularly in those related to synapse formation, like *NRCAM* and *GRIN1*, which are dysregulated in samples of autistic children[8]. Likewise, NOVA1 has been shown to bind introns flanking neuron-specific exons, leading to exon inclusion or skipping[9]. In the brains of autistic children or individuals with other types of neurodevelopmental disorders, some studies have identified downregulation of RBFOX and NOVA family members[1,10], and several direct RBFOX and NOVA target genes are involved in synaptic transmission or ion channel regulation[1,11]. Additionally, RBFOX variants have been associated with several conditions characterized by neuropsychiatric symptoms[12].

Despite recent advances in understanding the role played by the dysregulation of RNA splicing regulators in the pathogenesis of autism, little is known about how mutations in specific genes causing autism-spectrum disorders lead to RBFOX and NOVA alterations and aberrant splicing patterns in downstream genes. This gap of knowledge prompted us to investigate a

monogenic type of autism. Here, we have studied the occurrence of aberrant alternative splicing

patterns in a monogenic autism disease called Pitt-Hopkins Syndrome (PTHS; MIM 610954)[13–

16]. PTHS is caused by de novo heterozygous mutations in the Transcription Factor 4 gene

(*TCF4*; OMIM 602272), which encodes a bHLH transcription factor expressed in the brain[17–20]

and important for neurodevelopment, neural lineage commitment, and neuronal physiology[21–26].

PTHS individuals exhibit severe cognitive deficit, motor delay, hypotonia, respiratory

abnormalities, autistic behaviors, chronic constipation, and distinctive facial features[27,28].

Interestingly, variants of the *TCF4* gene have also been associated with schizophrenia, bipolar

disorder, post-traumatic stress disorder, and major depressive disorder[29–33], suggesting that part

of the underlying molecular mechanisms may be common between these conditions and

autism. Our choice to study aberrant splicing in PTHS is due to its monogenetic nature, which

allows us to dissect its pathological molecular mechanisms and more precisely correlate them

with the cellular abnormalities found in the PTHS neural tissue.

We have previously generated and analyzed neural progenitor cells, neurons, and brain

organoids from patients with PTHS to analyze the molecular phenotypes of the diseased neural

tissue[34,35]. We showed that PTHS neural progenitors cultured using traditional 2D techniques

and neural progenitors in PTHS organoids display a deficit in proliferation and severely

diminished differentiation rate into neurons. Strikingly, we detected that PTHS organoids

representative of the cerebral cortex are aberrant in size and structure, containing a higher

percentage of neural progenitor cells and fewer cortical neurons of many subtypes, including

deep-layer and superficial-layer excitatory neurons; moreover, PTHS organoids representative

of the subpallial region exhibit a deficient content of cortical-type GABAergic interneurons[34].

Importantly, PTHS neurons in 2D culture and the neural network of PTHS organoids are

characterized by severely impaired electrical activity, as judged by patch-clamp and multi-

electrode array assays, respectively. Additionally, assessment of neuronal activity via FOS

expression revealed that FOS+ neurons are fewer in PTHS organoids, concomitant with a lower

expression of excitatory neuron's synaptic markers vGLUT1 and vGLUT2[34], suggesting that

synapse formation is altered in this type of autism.

In this paper, we studied the expression of RBFOX and NOVA splicing regulators in

PTHS neurons, showing that the lower expression of those regulators is accompanied by

distinct splicing profiles in a range of genes, in comparison with neurons of normal genotype.

These aberrant splicing patterns affect several genes coding for proteins important for synapse

physiology, including Neurexin genes. We found that the Neurexin-3 gene (*NRNX3*) displays an

aberrant pattern of splicing involving an exon skipping event, where PTHS neurons have

relatively lower abundance of a transcript variant that includes an exon leading to a premature

stop codon and producing a soluble secreted form of Neurexin. On the other hand, neurons

from donors of normal genotype exhibit lower abundance of the other transcript variant

(excluding the exon), which produces a transmembrane Neurexin thought to be involved in

synapse formation and stability[36]. Our findings show the novel information that a severe form of

autism is accompanied by altered splicing of a gene encoding a synaptic component, leading to

an imbalance between different Neurexin neuronal isoforms, which may contribute to the PTHS

neural tissue's impaired electrical activity.

## RESULTS

**Altered expression of splicing regulators *RBFOX1/2/3* and *NOVA1* in Pitt-Hopkins Syndrome neurons in 2D culture**

We have previously shown that the neural tissue in Pitt-Hopkins Syndrome (PTHS) is characterized by poor proliferation of neural progenitor cells and impaired differentiation of cortical neurons, in both traditional 2D neuronal cultures and in patient-derived cortical organoids[34]. We also detected lower neural activity in PTHS neurons, which could be in part due to impaired synaptogenesis. Importantly, we analyzed the gene expression profiles of both PTHS neurons and organoids via bulk RNA sequencing followed by differential gene expression analysis[34] to identify dysregulated genes and pathways that could potentially be causally implicated with these phenotypes. These transcriptomic data were obtained from 4 PTHS patients harboring heterozygous mutations in the *TCF4* gene, causally related to the disease[34].

Interestingly, we noticed that several entries in the list of differentially expressed genes between PTHS samples and same-sex parental controls code for RNA splicing regulators, such as RNA Binding Fox-1 Homolog 1 (RBFOX1), RBFOX2, and RBFOX3, as well as Neuro-Oncological Ventral Antigen 1 (NOVA1) and NOVA2 (Supplementary Table S1)[34]. Even though *NOVA2* is also downregulated in PTHS neurons in 2D culture, its overall expression levels across parental controls and patients are lower than *NOVA1* (Supplementary Table S1). Therefore, we decided to focus our efforts on understanding the role played by *NOVA1* and *RBFOX1/2/3* in triggering aberrant splicing patterns in PTHS.

In fact, several patient-parent pairs exhibited lower expression of *RBFOX1/2/3* and *NOVA1* genes in PTHS neurons. For *RBFOX1*, the fold-changes (in log base 2) of expression in the comparison between patient-control pairs #1, #2, and #3 are -4.95, -2.03, and -5.1, respectively (Fig. 1a-d); for patient #4, the expression is low, comparable to the levels displayed by the other 3 patients, although a matching parental control was unavailable in this case (Supplementary Table S1). For *RBFOX2*, the fold-changes between patient-control pairs #1, #2, and #3 are -2,26, -1.79, and -1,61, respectively (Fig. 1a-d and Supplementary Table S1). *RBFOX3,* the most studied splicing regulator in neurons, coding for the neuronal marker NeuN, exhibits fold-changes of -10.9, -2,93, and -5,14, for pairs #1, #2, and #3, respectively (Fig. 1a-d and Supplementary Table S1). Finally, *NOVA1* is also significantly less expressed in PTHS samples as compared to parental controls for patient-control pairs #1, #2, and #3 (Fig. 1a-d), and its expression is low in patient #4 (Supplementary Table S1).

The impaired expression of *RBFOX1/2/3* and *NOVA1* in PTHS neurons seems to be specific to

this neural cell category, as PTHS neural progenitor cells do not show a diminishment in the

expression levels of such genes: only the expression of *RBFOX1* is lower in patient-parent pairs

#1 to #4, while the other genes show average fold-changes close to zero (Fig. 1e-i). Importantly,

the overall expression abundance of these genes is somewhat lower in neural progenitor cells

as compared to neurons, as judged by the metric of expression abundance TPM (transcripts per

million reads) (Supplementary Table S1).

Next, we performed independent neuronal differentiation experiments to quantify the expression

of *NOVA1* and *RBFOX1/2/3* in PTHS neurons via reverse transcriptase-coupled quantitative

PCR (RT-qPCR) in comparison with two controls of normal genotype. Similar to the

transcriptomic data obtained from bulk RNA-Seq experiments in 2D cultured neurons, *RBFOX1*

expression levels were -1.9, -1.5, and -0.9-fold lower in patients #1, #2, and #3 in the

comparison with control #1, or -1.8, -1.5, and -0.8-fold lower in patients #1, #2, and #3 in the

comparison with control #3 (Fig. 1j). Similarly, *RBFOX2* expression levels were also lower in

patients #1, #2, and #3 in the comparison with control #1 and in patient #2 in the comparison

with control #3 (Fig. 1j). On the other hand, *RBFOX3* expression was only found to be lower in

patient #2, and NOVA1 expression was lower in patients #1 and #2 in the comparison with

patient #1 (Fig. 1j).

In combination, the RNA-Seq and qPCR results indicate that splicing regulators in the NOVA

and RBFOX families have lower expression levels in neurons of certain PTHS individuals

cultured using traditional 2D techniques. It is noteworthy that *RBFOX1* is consistently

downregulated in PTHS neurons across all subjects in our cohort.

**Complex dysregulation in the expression of *RBFOX1/2/3* and *NOVA1* in Pitt-Hopkins**

**Syndrome cortical and subpallial organoids**

Because there was a difference in expression abundances for *RBFOX1/2/3* and *NOVA1*

between two different neural cell types in our bulk RNA-Seq data, we sought to explore the

expression of these genes in single-cell transcriptomic data from PTHS patient-derived cortical

and subpallial organoids, which are complex 3D structures able to model the events that

happen during early neurodevelopment in vivo and. These models are more representative of

the molecular characteristics of neuronal cells than traditional 2D cultures[34,37,38]. Because the

organoids contain a more diverse set of neurons and the interactions between different cell

types may influence the dysregulation of *NOVA* and *RBFOX* expression, we reasoned that the

organoids would more faithfully recapitulate the changes in expression occurring in vivo. In

organoid single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-Seq) libraries previously described by our

group[34], we could annotate six neural cell subpopulations, including progenitor cells,

intermediate progenitors, and neurons[34] in two distinct differentiation lineages that produce

either glutamatergic or GABAergic neurons (Fig. 2a). In cortical organoids (CtOs), the

predominant differentiation lineage leads to glutamatergic neurons (Fig. 2b), while subpallial

organoids (sPOs) generate mostly GABAergic cells (Fig. 2b), matching the differentiation profile

found in the cortex and subpallial brain regions in vivo[39,40].

The fractions of cells expressing *NOVA1* are substantial in control CtO and sPO subpopulations

(Fig. 2c,d) – 80.3% of CtO progenitor cells (Pr-Glut), 67.6% of CtO intermediate progenitor cells

(IP-Glut), 49.1% of CtO glutamatergic neurons (N-Glut), 96.2% of sPO progenitor cells (Pr-

GABA), 97.1% of sPO intermediate progenitor cells (IP-GABA), and 98.4% of sPO GABAergic

neurons (N-GABA) express *NOVA1* above a threshold level of 0.5. Curiously, *NOVA1*

expression remains stable along the differentiation trajectory from progenitor cells to neurons in

the glutamatergic lineage of control CtOs (Fig. 2c) (mean expression of 1.77, 1.26, and 1.3 in

Pr-Glut, IP-Glut, and N-Glut, respectively), whereas expression increases from progenitors to

neurons in the GABAergic lineage of control sPOs (Fig. 2d) (mean expression of 5.7, 5.6, and

12.0 in Pr-GABA, IP-GABA, and N-GABA, respectively).

In contrast, the numbers of cells expressing *RBFOX1* are much lower than those expressing

*NOVA1,* across all CtO and sPO subpopulations (Fig. 2e,f) – 1.56% of CtO progenitor cells (Pr-

Glut), 3.21% of CtO intermediate progenitor cells (IP-Glut), 10.7% of CtO glutamatergic neurons

(N-Glut), 0.6% of sPO progenitor cells (Pr-GABA), 2.0% of sPO intermediate progenitor cells

(IP-GABA), and 8.8% of sPO GABAergic neurons (N-GABA) express *RBFOX1* above a

threshold level of 0.5. *RBFOX1* expression increases dramatically along the differentiation

trajectory from progenitor cells to neurons in both the glutamatergic and GABAergic lineages of

control CtOs and sPOs, respectively (Fig. 2e,f) (mean expression of 0.04, 0.06, 0.23, 0.001,

0.03, and 0.2 in Pr-Glut, IP-Glut, N-Glut, Pr-GABA, IP-GABA, and N-GABA, respectively).

On the other hand, *RBFOX2* is expressed in a large fraction of cells in CtO and sPO

subpopulations (Fig. 2g,h) – 55.4% of CtO progenitor cells (Pr-Glut), 84.9% of CtO intermediate

progenitor cells (IP-Glut), 73.6% of CtO glutamatergic neurons (N-Glut), 28.9% of sPO

progenitor cells (Pr-GABA), 50.3% of sPO intermediate progenitor cells (IP-GABA), and 88.5%

of sPO GABAergic neurons (N-GABA) express *RBFOX2* above a threshold level of 0.5. It is

very clear that *RBFOX2* expression increases markedly along the differentiation trajectory from progenitor cells to neurons in both the glutamatergic lineage of control CtOs (Fig. 2g) (mean expression of 0.98, 2.1, and 2.6 in Pr-Glut, IP-Glut, and N-Glut, respectively) and the GABAergic lineage of control sPOs (Fig. 2h) (mean expression of 0.46, 0.96, and 3.39 in Pr-GABA, IP-GABA, and N-GABA, respectively).

Although *RBFOX3* is a widely recognized neuronal marker, it is expressed in a significant fraction of progenitor cells and intermediate progenitors in CtO and sPO subpopulations (Fig. 2i,j) – 11.7% of CtO progenitor cells (Pr-Glut), 49.4% of CtO intermediate progenitor cells (IP-Glut), and 28.5% of CtO glutamatergic neurons (N-Glut), whereas the fractions of sPO cells expressing *RBFOX3* are less prominent – 0% of sPO progenitor cells (Pr-GABA), 4.4% of sPO intermediate progenitor cells (IP-GABA), and 14% of sPO GABAergic neurons (N-GABA) express *RBFOX2* above a threshold level of 0.5. Different than *RBFOX1* and *RBFOX2*, *RBFOX3* expression peaks at the intermediate progenitor stage in the glutamatergic lineage of control CtOs (Fig. 2i) (mean expression of 0.21, 1.0, and 0.53 in Pr-Glut, IP-Glut, and N-Glut, respectively) and increases marginally along the GABAergic lineage of control sPOs (Fig. 2j) (mean expression of 0.007, 0.08, and 0.25 in Pr-GABA, IP-GABA, and N-GABA, respectively).

In the comparison between PTHS and control organoids, we verified that the percentage of N-Glut neurons expressing *NOVA1* is higher in PTHS CtOs in contrast to control organoids (left panels in Fig. 3a) and that the percentage of *NOVA1*+ N-GABA neurons remains practically unchanged in PTHS sPOs (right panels in Fig. 3a). Although the mean levels of *NOVA1* expression are statistically significantly different in the comparison between PTHS and control N-Glut neurons in CtOs, being higher in the patient-derived organoids, the effect size is not large (2.0 expression abundance in PTHS versus 1.3 in control; Fig. 2c). Likewise, *NOVA1* expression is statistically significantly higher in PTHS N-GABA neurons of sPOs, and the effect size is similarly not large (14.8 expression abundance in PTHS versus 12.0 in controls; Fig. 2d).

Similar to *NOVA1*, the percentages of N-Glut neurons expressing *RBFOX1* and *RBFOX2* are practically unchanged in PTHS CtOs in contrast to control organoids (left panels in Fig. 3b,c), the percentage of N-GABA neurons expressing *RBFOX1* is slightly higher in PTHS sPOs, and the percentage of N-GABA neurons expressing *RBFOX2* is lower in PTHS sPOs (right panels in Fig. 3b,c). Interestingly, the percentages of cells expressing RBFOX3 are higher in both CtOs and sPOs (Fig. 3d). Finally, the mean expression levels of *RBFOX1*, *RBFOX2*, or *RBFOX3* are statistically significantly dysregulated in PTHS N-Glut neurons in CtOs, with small effect sizes (0.19, 3.14, and 1.0 expression abundances in PTHS versus 0.23, 2.6, and 0.53 in control,

respectively; Fig. 2e,g,i), being higher in PTHS N-GABA neurons of sPOs, with equally small

effect sizes (0.74, 3.6, and 0.61 expression abundances in PTHS versus 0.2, 3.4, and 0.25 in

control, respectively; Fig. 2f,h,j).

The higher expression of *NOVA1* in PTHS CtO and sPO organoids (Fig. 2c,d) as well the higher

expression of *RBFOX1/2/3* in PTHS sPO organoids (Fig. 2f,h,j) contrasts with their lower

expression in PTHS neurons grown in traditional 2D culture (Fig. 1d). As stated above, this

difference may be due to the much wider diversity of cell types and connectivity found in the

organoids. Regardless, the bulk and single-cell RNA-Seq results described here and in the

previous section indicate alterations in the expression of *NOVA1* and *RBFOX1/2/3* splicing

regulators in Pitt-Hopkins Syndrome. These findings prompted us to further investigate possible

changes in the RNA splicing process in the patient-derived neural tissue.

**Aberrant splicing patterns in neurons derived from Pitt-Hopkins Syndrome patients**

The consistent finding of altered expression of RBFOX and NOVA splicing regulators in

neuronal cultures derived from PTHS patients led us to hypothesize that such dysregulated

expression may have led to aberrant splicing. To investigate this, we conducted a computational

analysis of the RNA-Seq data from neuronal cultures derived from 5 patient-control pairs using

the software rMATS-turbo[41], a computational tool for analyzing alternative splicing using short-

read RNA-seq data. In short, rMATS-turbo works by initially using fastq input files to produce

splicing graphs for each RNA-seq sample, followed by integration across samples and

replicates to quantify alternative splicing events of five basic types: skipped exon (SE),

alternative 5′ splice sites (A5SS), alternative 3′ splice sites (A3SS), mutually exclusive exons

(MXE) and retained intron (RI). rMATS-turbo adopts the widely used PSI metric to quantify

splicing, which represents the percentage of transcripts that include a specific exon or splice

site, as calculated from the read counts supporting those specific exons or splice junctions,

normalized by the effective lengths of the gene's transcripts[41]. Differences between PSI values

in the control and PTHS samples were then computed as ΔPSI, which can be used to infer the

existence of different splicing patterns in one or another condition (for example, in PTHS

neurons). Positive ΔPSI values imply that the splicing event under analysis is more prevalent in

the control samples, while negative ΔPSI values indicate stronger usage in the PTHS samples.

After filtering for PSI values (averaged across biological replicates for PTHS or control

conditions) smaller than 5% or greater than 95% in both samples, for a false discovery rate

smaller than 5% and for |ΔPSI| greater than 5%, we could detect a significant number of splicing

events with different PSI in the comparison between neurons derived from each PTHS patient

against respective control, in all five categories of splicing (Supplementary Files 1-25). As an

example, we could detect 3695 alternative SE events, where one exon of a gene is excluded

from a transcript at a higher rate in one sample versus the other, with |ΔPSI| greater than 5% in

the comparison between patient and parent #2 (Fig. 4a; Supplementary Table S2). These

events were related to transcripts from 2137 different genes (Supplementary Table S2). The

numbers of differential splicing events and the numbers of genes in which these events happen,

in the 5 patient-control pairs, can be found in Supplementary Table S2. It should be noted that

SE events are more numerous than the other types, and RI or A5SS events are the rarest (Fig.

4a). When we intersected the splicing events across the five patient-control pairs, we found 492

SE events that are common to all pairs (Fig. 4b), in 365 genes (Fig. 4c; Supplementary Table

S3). The numbers of common splicing events of the other 4 types are found in Fig. 4b,c and

Supplementary Table S3.

To better understand the scope of changes in PTHS neurons due to aberrant splicing patterns,

we conducted Over-Representation Analysis (ORA) followed by Gene Ontology (GO) and

KEGG Pathway analyses, using a list of unique genes for which rMATS-turbo detected splicing

events in the comparison between each PTHS patient and a control neuronal cell line. This

analysis was performed using the web-based WebGestalt tool[42], which results in an over-

representation *z*-score and enrichment *p*-value for each GO term. Interestingly, for SE events,

when we analyzed the set of genes from the comparison between patient #2 and its control, we

detected a significant enrichment of genes in Gene Ontology-Biological Processes (GO-BP) and

KEGG-Pathway categories linked to synapse physiology, axon projection, and cell adhesion

(Fig. 4d,e). GO and Pathway analyses results for other patient-control pairs yielded similar

results (Supplementary Figure S1), highlighting the possibly relevant role of aberrant splicing

patterns in the neural tissue cellular and molecular abnormalities that accompany PTHS.

Likewise, we conducted Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) followed by Gene Ontology

(GO) and KEGG Pathway analyses, using the same list of unique genes for which rMATS-turbo

detected splicing events in the comparison between each PTHS patient and a control neuronal

cell line. For these analyses, the list of genes was ordered according to the |ΔPSI| values of the

corresponding splicing events from rMATS-turbo. GSEA results indicate that, among the genes

at the top of the list (meaning genes with splicing events that are more dissimilarly frequent in

the comparison between PTHS and control), there are genes related to synapse formation,

synapse physiology, and ion transport (Fig. 4f,g). It is interesting to note that the GO and

Pathway enrichment analyses described above show the presence of aberrant splicing patterns

in genes related to synapse formation, which may be responsible for the lower electrical activity

found in PTHS organoids[34].

The finding of a substantial number of splicing events that seem to occur differentially between

PTHS and control neuronal cell lines led us to hypothesize that the alterations found in the

expression levels of *NOVA1* and *RBFOX1/2/3* in PTHS neurons are causally related to the

aberrant splicing patterns observed.

**NOVA1 and RBFOX1/2/3 RNA binding sites are enriched in transcripts predicted to have**

**aberrant alternative splicing patterns in PTHS**

To further study the relationship between the aberrant splicing patterns observed in PTHS

neurons and the dysregulation of expression of NOVA and RBFOX splicing regulators, we

investigated the occurrence of NOVA1 and RBFOX1/2/3 binding sites in the genes detected by

rMATS-turbo described in the previous section. First, we extracted the genomic sequences

containing the exons involved in the SE splicing events detected by rMATS-turbo, plus

additional sequences of 200 bp in the neighboring introns. The resulting collection of exon

sequences flanked by adjacent introns was then analyzed for RBP (RNA binding protein)

binding site enrichment using the SEA program in the MEME suite[43]. Our reasoning was that, if

NOVA1 or RBFOX regulators were involved in the aberrant splicing patterns observed in PTHS,

then we would expect to see an enrichment in binding sites near the splicing events relative to

the occurrence of RBP binding sites in a random collection of genomic sequences. Two NOVA1

recognition motifs were analyzed[44] and both were found to be significantly enriched in the

genomic sequences near the SE events detected by rMATS-turbo (*E*-values of $9.2 \times 10^{-8}$ and

$3.0 \times 10^{-8}$; Fisher's exact test; Fig. 5a), with a lower *E*-value than those calculated for a set of

genes known to be regulated by NOVA1 (positive control; *E*-values of $2.9 \times 10^{-1}$ and $1.6 \times 10^{-6}$,

respectively; Fig. 5a; Supplementary File S4). The same type of analysis was conducted for

binding site motifs recognized by RBFOX1 and RBFOX2/3 splicing regulators[44], indicating that

both are significantly enriched in the genomic sequences near the SE events detected by

rMATS-turbo (*E*-values of $5.8 \times 10^{-4}$ and $4.1 \times 10^{-7}$, respectively; Fisher's exact test; Fig. 5a);

although these values are larger than those calculated for a set of genes known to be regulated

by RBFOX1/2/3 (positive control; *E*-values of $8.4 \times 10^{-8}$ and $9.2 \times 10^{-16}$, respectively; Fig. 5a;

Supplementary File S4), the *E*-values are still much smaller than when the enrichment analysis
was performed by comparing two randomly chosen sets of genomic sequences (Fig. 5a).

Next, we conducted an experiment to detect putative RBP binding sites across the entire
genomic sequence of the genes whose splicing patterns were found to be dysregulated by
rMATS-turbo. This analysis was performed using the RNA-binding protein motif detection
software FIMO in the MEME suite[45]. Examples of genes shown to have enrichment of NOVA1
and RBFOX1/2/3 sites are shown in Fig. 5b,c, in comparison with the lower abundance of
binding motifs in genes in the random set (negative control; Fig. 5d). We observed a difference
in site count which is statistically significant for NOVA1 (Fig. 5e) when considering the genes for
the top splicing pattern alterations, as measured by the absolute value of ΔPSI (larger than
30%).

These enrichment analyses suggest that NOVA1 and RBFOX splicing regulators may be
involved in dictating the aberrant splicing patterns observed in PTHS neurons. Direct evidence
for this relationship was further pursued by the analysis of published CLiP-Seq (HITS-CLiP)
experimental datasets, from studies that performed transcriptome-wide determination of NOVA
and RBFOX binding sites[1,11,46]. Considering the 1634 genes harboring aberrant SE splicing
events with absolute ΔPSI values larger than 0.1 (larger splicing usage either in the parent or
the patient), there is a substantial overlap with the hundreds of genes whose transcripts were
shown to be directly bound to NOVA1 (Fig. 5f,g; Supplementary File S5), including genes
coding for synapse organization and neuronal physiology. Likewise, there is a very substantial
overlap with the thousands of genes whose transcripts have been shown to be directly bound to
RBFOX1/2/3 splicing regulators (Fig. 5h; Supplementary File S5).

In combination, these results suggest that the altered splicing patterns detected in the
transcriptomes of PTHS neurons may be caused by the dysregulation of NOVA1 and
RBFOX1/2/3 splicing regulators.

**The Neurexin-3 gene (*NRXN3*) exhibits an exon skipping event that leads to a transcript**
**encoding a soluble protein isoform**

Considering that the list of skipped exon (SE) splicing events detected by rMATS-turbo is longer
than the lists for the other types of differential splicing events (Fig. 4a), we decided to further
investigate this category to better understand the types of events and genes affected by

aberrant splicing patterns. GO and Pathway analyses conducted on the list of genes for which

rMATS-turbo detected splicing events revealed the presence of genes in enriched categories

related to synapse formation and physiology, axonal projection, and cell adhesion (Fig. 4d-g).

Curiously, we detected a significant number of splicing events that occur in genes in the

Neurexin family, which are traditionally regarded as critical components of synapse

physiology[47].

In the list of SE splicing events in the comparison between patient-control pairs #1, #2, and #3,

we could detect 6, 12, and 1 events, respectively, in genes in the Neurexin family (*NRXN1,*

*NRXN2,* and *NRXN3*) (Supplementary File S2). Because some qPCR experiments described

below were conducted comparing patient #2 with the parent #1 control (due to non-availability of

parent #2 samples), we also conducted the parent #1/patient #2 comparison using rMATS-

turbo, which yielded 9 differential SE events linked to *NRXN1/2/3* genes. Finally, in the

comparison between parent #2 and patient #4, for whom there is no associated parent in our

cohort, we could also detect 2 SE events linked to *NRXN2* and *NRXN3* genes (Supplementary

File S2).

The numerous events related to *NRXN* genes are further highlighted by the presence of 2

events associated with *NRNX2* and *NRXN3* among the top 20 SE splicing events with positive

ΔPSI (higher usage in control samples) in the patient #2-parent #2 comparison (Supplementary

File S2). The event in the *NRXN2* gene has a ΔPSI equal to 0.681 (Fig. 6a,b), with a higher

splicing event usage (ranging from 0.797 to 0.86) in the parent #2 biological replicate libraries,

while the PSI values range from 0.117 to 0.196 in the patient #2 samples (Supplementary File

S2). It is interesting to note that the exon preferentially included in the transcripts of the *NRXN2*

gene in the control sample (SE-NRXN2-i splicing event) is very short (24 nt; Fig. 6b,e) and is

equivalent to exon 7 in the *NRXN2* Ensembl transcript ENST00000409571.6. In the PTHS

patient, exon 7 is preferentially excluded (SE-NRXN2-e splicing event (Fig. 6b). Interestingly,

there exists a 45-bp annotated exon in the same genomic region for the canonical *NRNX2*

Ensembl transcript (accession ENST00000265459.11) (Fig. 6c). The only difference between

these two annotated transcripts is the 21-bp difference in this exon. The exon skipping event

does not lead to a change in the coding sequence reading frame and results in a loss of a few

amino acid residues relative to the protein encoded by the canonical transcript (Fig. 6c);

therefore, we decided not to pursue this splicing event further.

On the other hand, the SE event in the *NRXN3* gene has a ΔPSI equal to 0.608 (Fig. 6d,e), with

splicing event inclusion levels ranging from 0.579 to 1.00 in the parent #2 biological replicate

libraries, while the PSI values range from 0.167 to 0.185 in patient #2 samples (Supplementary File S2). For ease of reference, we will name the SE event that includes the exon as SE-NRXN3-i, while the splicing configuration that does not include the exon will be called SE-NRXN3-e. Moreover, we chose to call the included exon as E20.5, thus named because it is included between exons 20 and 21 of the canonical *NRXN3* Ensembl transcript ENST00000335750.7 (this exon is also equivalent to exon 19 in the *NRXN3* Ensembl transcript ENST00000554738.5). The exon that is preferentially included in the control samples has a size of 679 nt (Fig. 6e,f). This sequence is found in only 2 out of 14 *NRNX3* Ensembl transcripts with recognized coding sequences (ENST00000554738.5 and ENST00000555387.1); on the other hand, this is not an annotated exon in the canonical *NRXN3* Ensembl transcript (ENST00000335750.7) (Fig. 6f). Additionally, this included exon has been described before in the context of *NRXN3* transcripts expressed in post-mortem human cerebral cortex samples of individuals harboring a SNP near a splicing site in the *NRXN3* gene (rs8019381)[48]. As will be described in detail below, this included exon creates a premature stop codon and the resulting protein truncating transcript variant (PTV) leads to a significantly shorter NRNX3 protein isoform.

Interestingly, when we analyzed the sequences of *NRXN2* and *NRXN3* genes using the RNA binding protein binding site motif detection software FIMO[45] (MEME suite), we could detect 4 and 223 NOVA1 binding sites in *NRXN2* and *NRXN3* (Fig. 6g,h), respectively. Of these, 1 site falls into adjacent introns and none falls inside the skipped exon for the *NRXN2* event (Fig. 6g), whereas 9 sites fall inside the flanking introns and none falls in the skipped exon for the *NRXN3* splicing event (Fig. 6h). Likewise, we could detect 13 and 156 RBFOX1/2/3 binding sites in the *NRXN2* and *NRNX3* genes (Fig. 6g,h), respectively. Of these, none falls into neighboring introns or inside the skipped exon for the *NRXN2* event (Fig. 6g), while one falls inside the flanking introns and none falls inside the skipped exon for the *NRXN3* splicing event (Fig. 6h).

In combination, these results argue in favor of the *NRNX2* and *NRXN3* events under analysis are controlled by NOVA and RBFOX splicing regulators. To confirm the differential splicing in the *NRXN3* gene that creates the SE events mentioned in the previous paragraphs, we decided to conduct reverse-transcription-coupled real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) as well as standard PCR amplification, using gene-specific primers able to discriminate between those splicing events. To detect the SE-NRXN3-i variant, we placed the forward oligo (p5) in exon 19 of the canonical transcript and the reverse oligo (p4) in the splice junction between exons 20 and 20.5 (Fig. 7a, right panel). To detect the SE-NRNX3-e variant, we used another forward

oligo (p1) in exon 19, and the reverse oligo (p3) was placed in the splice junction between exons 20 and 21 of the canonical *NRXN3* Ensembl transcript ENST00000335750.7. To detect both variants (and the vast majority of transcripts, according to the *NRXN3* Ensembl entry), we used forward and reverse oligos (p1 and p2) in exons 19 and 20, respectively (Fig. 7a, left panel).

The mean overall levels of *NRXN3* expression are lower in PTHS individuals, as judged by qPCR with the oligos to globally detect the gene's transcripts (Fig. 7b), which is in keeping with the lower transcriptomic expression found in samples from two PTHS subjects in RNA sequencing experiments (Fig. 7c)[34]. Additionally, the combinations of oligos to detect the SE-NRXN3-i and SE-NRXN3-e splicing variants showed that both have lower expression in PTHS samples (Fig. 7d). Importantly, we calculated the ratio between the expression abundances detected via qPCR for the SE-NRXN3-i versus the SE-NRXN3-e events; compared with the ratios found in patients #1 and #2, controls #1 and #3 have a higher ratio, indicating that the SE-NRXN3-i event is proportionally more abundant than the SE-NRXN3-e event in the control samples in the comparison with the ratio found in those PTHS patient neurons (Fig. 7e). Likewise, these numbers allow us to conclude that the difference in abundances for NRXN3-i and SE-NRXN3-e events is less prominent in patients #1 and #2 than in parents #1 and #3. Curiously, patient #3 also presents an imbalance between both variants, in this case in the opposite direction, which also represents an aberrant splicing pattern with potential functional consequences.

To further investigate the SE-NRXN3-i and SE-NRXN3-e splicing events, we used oligos for regular PCR amplification, designed to discriminate between variants based on amplicon size. One pair of primers was placed in exons 20 and 21 (Fig. 7f, top panel); the expected band size for the PCR performed on the SE-NRXN3-e event with this primer pair (p6 and p7) is 334 bp (Fig. 7f), although we could rule out the possibility that other band sizes would exist for other configurations of spliced sites involving exons 20 and 21. Another primer pair (p6 and p8) was placed in exons 20 and 20.5, which is expected to lead to band of size 252 bp only from the SE-NRXN3-i event (Fig. 7f, bottom panel). The PCR results confirm the expected amplicons for these primer pair/splicing event combinations (Fig. 7g), providing experimental evidence that confirms the in silico analyses executed by rMATS-turbo on our PTHS neuron RNA-Seq data, which predicted the existence of the SE-NRXN3-i and SE-NRXN3-e splicing variants.

The PCR results showed that we could amplify most of the expected bands that would support the existence of alternative splicing of exon 20.5. However, other bands were also amplified

(Fig. 7g), therefore, we decided to clone the amplicons in bulk in a PCR cloning vector, followed

by Sanger sequencing of several clones. With the primer pair positioned in exons 20 and 21, we

detected amplicons with an exon configuration that matches the expected joining of exons 20

and 21 without the intervening exon 20.5 in both the control and PTHS samples (Supplementary

Fig. S4a-c), and the percentage of clones supporting the existence of this exon configuration is

larger in PTHS than in control samples (Supplementary Fig. S4c), which concurs with the

results from rMATS-turbo showing that transcripts with SE-NRXN3-e events are more prevalent

than SE-NRXN3-i in PTHS samples. Importantly, the combination of oligos pairing with exons

20 and 20.5, which is expected to amplify only the SE-NRXN3-i event-related amplicons,

resulted in sequences that match this expected exon configuration in the control samples

(Supplementary Fig. S4a-c); moreover, we could only find clones matching this exon

configuration in control samples (Supplementary Fig. S4c), which concurs with the positive ΔPSI

for the SE-NRXN3-i event in the controls (Fig. 6e). It is also curious to note that, although this

type of experiment is not quantitative, the intensity of the 334-bp band with oligos in exons 20

and 21 as well as the 252-bp band with oligos in exons 20 and 20.5 are stronger in the control

samples (Fig. 7g), which is in keeping with the lower global expression levels for the *NRXN3*

gene in PTHS samples revealed by the qPCR experiments (Fig. 7b,c).

Although other bands were detected in these PCR experiments, some larger than the predicted

size for the corresponding amplicons, they did not yield sequence reads in the Sanger

sequencing experiments performed later. The significance of these bands remains to be

investigated. In combination, the PCR results presented above confirm the existence of a

transcript containing an SE exon in the *NRXN3* gene (SE-NRXN3-i event) identified in silico in

our RNA-Seq data and that this splicing event has a lower usage in PTHS neurons, as

compared to the transcript without exon 20.5 (SE-NRXN3-e event).

**The PTHS-depleted alternatively spliced *NRXN3* transcript leads to a prematurely**

**stopped soluble Neurexin-3 protein isoform**

Next, we investigated the Neurexin-3 protein isoforms coded for by transcripts containing the

SE-NRXN3-i and SE-NRXN3-e events. The alternative *NRXN3* Ensembl transcript

ENST00000554738.5, containing the splicing configuration with exon 20.5 (SE-NRXN3-i event),

which is depleted in PTHS, results in a protein isoform with 6 laminin G domains and 3 EGF-like

domains (Fig. 8a), as judged by protein domain prediction with the InterPro tool[49].

Comparatively, the canonical *NRXN3* Ensembl transcript ENST00000335750.7 encodes a

protein with the same number of protein domains, but shorter C-terminus (Fig. 7A). The shorter

protein encoded when exon 20.5 is included results from a premature stop codon in this exon

(Fig. 8b). Because Neurexin proteins are transmembrane (TM) cellular components involved in

synapse organization[47], with the TM domain positioned near the C-terminus, we reasoned that

the shorter Neurexin isoform encoded by the transcript including exon 20.5 might be lacking part

of or all the TM domain. Therefore, we conducted a prediction of TM domains using the

DeepTMHMM tool[50], which showed that the shorter isoform completely lacks the TM domain

and may represent a soluble form of Neurexin (Fig. 8c). Because the balance between a

transmembrane and a secreted soluble form of Neurexin may have important functional

implications, we checked whether the protein isoforms from the canonical and the alternative

*NRNX3* transcripts are predicted to be secreted, using the SignalP (v 6.0) tool[51]. Both the

complete Neurexin isoform including exon 20.5 and the shorter isoform encoded by the

transcript including exon 20.5 are predicted to be secreted, because they contain a signal

peptide (Fig. 8d).

In combination, these results point to the higher prevalence of a distinct Neurexin protein

isoform due to abnormal splicing patterns, potentially dictated by the dysregulated expression of

RBFOX and NOVA1 splicing regulators in neurons derived from Pitt-Hopkins Syndrome

patients.

## DISCUSSION

RNA splicing plays a major role in producing the incredible variety of transcripts and their encoded protein products found in human cells. Yet, how the dysregulation of splicing events lead to disease is a topic that has only recently emerged. Over the last two decades, several studies have sought to elucidate how splicing can go from an important regulatory phenomenon able to regulate human gene expression and generate diverse mature mRNAs to pathogenic altered processes that can contribute to disease onset and progression. Of particular interest are splicing events that lead to exon skipping (ES), intron retention (IR), alternative 5' or 3' splice site usage (A5SS or A3SS), or the use of mutually exclusive exon[7]. Many of these alternative splicing events lead to frameshifts and premature stop codons that result in protein truncation (protein truncating variants; PTV), whose role in neurodevelopmental disorders are becoming increasingly clear[2].

Even though the several recognized types of autism are the result of a complex interplay between genetic factors and environmental influences, their pathophysiology is still mostly unknown, and the disease mechanisms remain to be determined in most cases. It is becoming apparent that, among the many molecular features of this complex set of disorders, dysregulation of splicing is a more common phenomenon than initially anticipated[2]. A theme that is starting to be a topic of intense research in the field of autism molecular neurobiology is the decipherment of how altered splicing events or aberrant splicing patterns contribute to the cellular characteristics of the neural tissue in autistic children.

In this study, we determined that several genes exhibit aberrant splicing patterns in neurons derived from patients with a monogenic form of autism known as Pitt-Hopkins Syndrome (Figs. 3 and 4). We also showed that these altered splicing events are concomitant with the dysregulated expression of NOVA1 and RBFOX1/2/3 splicing regulators (Figs. 1 and 2). These are well known RNA binding proteins (RBPs) that facilitate spliceosome assembly and ensure accurate recognition of splice sites to lead to appropriate intron excision[52,53]. Extensive RBP-RNA interaction experiments have unveiled the participation of NOVA and RBFOX family members in splicing regulation, determining that they are prominently expressed in neurons and crucial to neurogenesis, axon guidance, and synapse formation[2]. An example of a neuronal gene regulated by alternative splicing is *DLG4* (encoding PSD-95), which may generate transcripts via the inclusion of specific exons that result in the incorporation of a domain lacking palmitoylation sites, thereby reducing membrane localization and enhancing excitatory synaptic transmission[54].

Importantly, altered splicing in neurons of autistic patients impacts genes involved in

neurodevelopment and synaptic plasticity, including synapse-related genes known to be risk

factors for autism, such as *NLGN3*, *NLGN4*, *NRXN1*, *SHANK3*, and *CADPS*[55]. Our data showed

that one of the aberrant splicing patterns observed in PTHS affect the *NRXN2* and *NRXN3*

genes (Fig. 6), which encode Neurexin protein family members. It is interesting to note that

altered splicing has been shown to affect the *NRXN1* gene in other forms of autism: these

studies have pinpointed the existence of region-specific splicing of *NRXN1* in the prefrontal

cortex, potentially influencing synapse formation[56]. Although this splicing event also involves a

gene in the Neurexin family, our data show a different case in which a monogenic form of

autism, caused by haploinsufficient heterozygous mutations in the *TCF4* gene, lead to changes

in RBFOX and NOVA splicing regulators, potentially in turn leading to aberrant splicing patterns

involving exon skipping events (Figs. 6 and 7), thereby producing a change in Neurexin 3

transcripts that modifies the balance between transmembrane and secreted forms of this

synapse-related protein (Figs. 7 and 8).

Changes in NOVA and RBFOX expression have been studied by many groups over the last

years, showing that these events disrupt neuronal development, leading to neurodevelopmental

and neurodegenerative diseases[57]. Other studies further sought to understand how such

dysregulation leads to pathological changes in splicing patterns. For example, RBFOX

expression was shown to be downregulated in autism, a characteristic that leads to aberrant

splicing in several ASD-associated genes in the SFARI database, including *SHANK3*,

*CACNA1C*, and *TSC2*[1] and synapse-related genes *NRCAM* and *GRIN1*[58,59]. Moreover,

mutations in *NOVA2* have been associated with autism and other neurodevelopmental

disorders, impairing neurite outgrowth and axonal pathfinding[60,61]. Thousands of NOVA2 binding

sites have been located in the mouse genome, particularly in genes involved in synapse and

axon guidance such as *Dcc*, *Robo2*, *Slit2*, and *Epha5*[62,63]. Our study significantly expands these

studies by describing that NOVA1 and RBFOX1/2/3 expression are impaired in a monogenic

form of autism, PTHS, and by detecting thousands of genes in which splicing patterns are

altered (Figs. 3 and 4).

It is noteworthy that many genes characterized by aberrant splicing patterns in PTHS are

involved in synapse formation and organization (Fig. 4), which prompted us to focus on one

particular splicing event (exon skipping) that affects the synapse-related *NRNX3* gene (Fig. 6).

This finding may explain the impaired electrical activity we observed in the PTHS neural

tissue[34], as judged by the analysis of neurons in traditional 2D culture and in patient-derived

brain organoids. These findings concur with our detection of transcript variants derived from

alternative splicing in genes in the Neurexin family, which are known to control synapse

formation during normal brain development[36,47]. In particular, the *NRXN3* gene encodes two

major types of Neurexin, a large isoform encoded by longest isoform including most exons ($\alpha$

Neurexin-3 type) and a short isoform derived from transcription from an internal promoter ($\beta$

type), both transmembrane-bound proteins[47]. Neurexins interact with Neuroligin proteins to

control the rate at which synapses are formed in maturing neurons[64,65].

Our study detected a change in the abundances of two transcripts derived from alternative

splicing: in neurons of normal genotype, there seems to be an alternative splicing transcript that

results from exon exclusion, leading to a $\alpha$-type Neurexin lacking the transmembrane domain

which is expected to be secreted[66]; in contrast, in PTHS neurons, the abundance of this

secreted form is diminished relative to the transmembrane form (Fig. 8). Although the transcript

with exon exclusion (SE-NRXN3-e) has already been described in the literature[66,67], its

involvement in the context of a neurodevelopmental disorder is novel and may open new

avenues of investigation to understand how such splicing dysregulation leads to aberrant

synapses and altered electrical activity in the neural tissue of autistic children. In the context of a

neurodegenerative disorder (Alzheimer's disease), the ratio between the Neurexin-3

transmembrane and soluble isoforms was found to be reduced[67], which is exactly in opposition

to what we observed in the context of autism. Further studies will illuminate the functional

contribution of these ratio alterations in both diseases.

Another interesting possibility is that the changes in ratio between the transmembrane and

secreted isoforms of Neurexin-3 may lead to differences in the content of GABAergic and

glutamatergic synapses in PTHS. We raised this possibility based on the observation that

deletion of the *Nrxn3* gene in mice led to a decrease in GABA-mediated inhibitory responses[65].

Outstandingly, we observed an augmentation of GABAergic neurons in PTHS cortical

organoids, while these cells are mostly lacking in control cortical organoids (Fig. 2b,c,e,g,i), a

piece of observation that may explain why PTHS cortical organoids have lower electrical

activity[34].

In conclusion, our study described alterations in the expression of splicing regulators in PTHS

and how this is accompanied by aberrant splicing patterns affecting hundreds of genes involved

in neurodevelopment. Further studies are needed to unravel how these alterations contribute to

the pathology in autistic brains and to result in the identification of molecular therapeutic targets,

eventually leading to the development of strategies to correct abnormalities in splicing regulation

in autism.

## METHODS

**Patient-derived neural progenitor cell lines and neuronal differentiation**

Our studies are based on RNA-Seq and single-cell RNA-Seq from our previous publication using neurons and brain organoids derived from patients with PTHS[34]. This study included subjects from volunteering families recruited through the University of Campinas (Supplementary Table 6) harboring heterozygous mutations in *TCF4* mutation. Details on the patients' PTHS clinical symptoms are reported in Supplementary Table 6. Control subjects were the patients' same-sex parents, with no prior history of psychiatric or genetic disorders. The participation of all subjects was approved by the Human Subjects Ethics Committees of the University of Campinas, under CAAE number 86136925.6.0000.5404. Written informed consent was obtained from all participating families after receiving a thorough description of the study and no compensation was provided to participants.

In our previous study, neural progenitor cells were obtained from reprogrammed iPSCs derived from skin fibroblasts subjected to cellular reprogramming via over-expression of the Yamanaka factors *OCT4*, *SOX2*, *KLF4*, and *MYC* (Cytotune iPS 2.0 Sendai reprogramming kit; Thermo Fisher Scientific)[34]. All iPSC lines were validated via immunostaining and SNP mapping to rule out the presence of unwanted chromosomal abnormalities and mutations. Results reported in this paper are from experiments conducted with one P15 iPSC clone per subject. Cultures were tested every two weeks for mycoplasma.

iPSC colonies maintained in mTeSR1 Plus medium (Stem Cell Technologies), followed by addition of 10 mM SB431542 and 1 mM dorsomorphin to form embryoid bodies. After 2 weeks of culturing, the embryoid bodies were plated onto Matrigel-coated plates with DMEM/F12 medium plus N2 and SM1 supplements (Stem Cell Technologies) and 20 ng/mL FGF-2. Neural rosettes were then picked and replated onto Matrigel-coated dishes, and the resulting NPCs were dissociated with Accutase and re-seeded onto plates coated with 10 μg/mL poly-ornithine (Sigma-Aldrich) and 5 μg/mL laminin (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

For neuronal differentiation, NPCs were seeded onto plates coated with poly-ornithine and laminin. At 90% confluency, medium was replaced with DMEM/F12 containing N2 and B27 supplements (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin, with media changes occurring every 3 to 4 days.

**RNA sequencing from NPCs and neuronal cultures and single-cell RNA sequencing data from organoids.**

Our study employed bulk RNA sequencing data from NPCs and neurons derived from PTHS syndrome, which have been previously published by our group[34]. Briefly, these libraries were produced from NPCs of 4 subjects and 4 respective parental controls at passage 15 and from differentiating neuronal cultures of 3 parent-patient pairs and an additional patient line at 2 months in vitro. RNA was extracted from 3 independently prepared biological replicates, followed by Illumina library preparation using the stranded TruSeq kit (Illumina) and sequencing on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 S4 instrument with 150 bp paired-end reads. Transcript-level expression abundance was estimated using Salmon (version 0.14.1) software[68], with selective mapping ('--validateMappings') and correction for sequence-specific biases ('--seqBias'), GC-content biases ('--seqBias'), and fragment position bias ('--posBias'). Reference transcripts for read mapping were obtained from the GENCODE 32 basic annotation[69]. MA plots of specific genes in RNA-Seq data was produced from dataframes containing the expression abundances in each individual library, using the 'ggplot' package for *R* language.

Single-cell RNA-Seq data used in this study was also previously published by our team (REF our paper), with samples from cortical organoids (CtOs) and subpallial organoids (sPOs). Briefly, CtOs were produced from iPSC colonies dissociated using Accutase (Thermo Fisher Scientific), followed by neural induction in mTeSR1 Plus medium (Stem Cell Technologies) supplemented with 10 mM SB431542 (Stemgent) and 1 mM dorsomorphin (R&D Systems). Embryoid bodies formed were transferred to Neurobasal medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific) containing GlutaMAX, 1% B27 supplement (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 1% N2 NeuroPlex supplement (Gemini Bio-Products), 1% NEAA (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 10 mM SB431542, and 1 mM dorsomorphin, for 7 days. NPC proliferation medium was then used, consisting of Neurobasal medium containing GlutaMAX, 1% B27, 1% NEAA, 20 ng/mL FGF-2 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 7 days, followed by 7 additional days with 20 ng/mL EGF (PeproTech). Neuronal differentiation was achieved in Neurobasal medium containing 1% GlutaMAX, 1% Gem21, 1% NEAA, 10 ng/mL of BDNF, 10 ng/mL of GDNF, 10 ng/mL of NT-3 (all from PeproTech), 200 mM L-ascorbic acid, and 1 mM dibutyryl-cAMP (Sigma-Aldrich), for 7 days. GABAergic-enriched subpallial organoids (sPOs) were producing using a similar protocol, with neural induction medium containing 5 μM IWP-2 (SelleckChem), from day 4 until day 10, followed by incubation in proliferation medium (Neurobasal medium containing 1% GlutaMAX, 1% Gem21, 1% NEAA,

20 ng/mL FGF-2, and 100 nM SAG (SelleckChem) for 7 days, followed by 2 additional days in

the same medium supplemented with 20 ng/mL EGF (PeproTech).

Single cell RNA-Seq was performed on dissociated CtOs and GbOs at 8 weeks in vitro, with 15

organoids per library (5 organoids from each of three wells from independent experiments)

dissociated with forceps and enzymatic digestion with Accutase. Libraries were prepared using

the Chromium Single Cell 3' v3 Library kit (10× Genomics) according to the manufacturer's

protocol, with a target of 20,000 cells per sample on the Chromium chip and PCR-amplification

for a total of 10 cycles. Sequencing was performed on a NovaSeq 6000 S4 sequencer (Illumina)

to produce 20,000 reads per single cell. Feature count matrices for each single-cell RNA-Seq

library were generated separately using the 'cellranger count' command in the Cell Ranger

software (version 4.0.0) and the GRCh38 2020-A reference dataset of human transcripts,

yielding an estimated number of cells across all libraries in the range 2,944 to 6,466 per library,

with a mean number of reads per cell ranging from 58,501 to 169,931. Cell type subpopulations

were demarcated via automated annotation and refinement after manual inspection. Seurat

(version 3.2.2)[70] was used for producing UMAP and violin plots in this study, after normalization

to 10,000 counts per cell and log-transformation with the 'NormalizeData' function, finding of

variable features with the 'FindVariableFunctions' function, scaling with the 'ScaleData' function,

and linear dimensional reduction (PCA) with the 'RunPCA' function. Non-linear reduction was

done using the UMAP algorithm in the 'RunUMAP' function. For statistical comparisons of gene

expression levels, we used Mann-Whitney U test.

**rMATS-turbo analysis of splicing events**

rMATS-turbo analysis was conducted using control and patient RNA-seq data previously

published by our group (GEO accession numbers GSE159392 and GSE189121)[34]. For

alternative splicing analysis conducted with libraries with different read sequence lengths,

sequences were trimmed down to the shortest length across all libraries (101 bp) using

Trimmomatic software[71]. rMATS-turbo was run using the following arguments: end-pairing ('-t')

equal to 'paired', read length ('—readLength') equal to 101 or 151, depending on the library, as

well as a function to find novel splice-sites ('—novelSS'). The raw output data was then filtered

using rMATS-turbo specific in-built filtering script 'rmats_filtering.py'[72], with parameters set to

filter events with a minimum average number of 10 read counts per sample, to filter out events

with PSI < 0.05 or > 0.95, to filter events with FDR < 0.05, and to filter events with absolute

values of IncLevelDifference ($\Delta$PSI) > 0.05. Over-representation (ORA) and Gene-Set

Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) were performed using the lists of genes for which SE events had

absolute values of ΔPSI > 0.3, for each patient-control pair, using the WebGestalt software[73]

and Gene Ontology - Biological Process and KEGG pathway functional databases, with the

'genome protein-coding' reference set. For GSEA, the list of genes was ordered according to

the absolute values of IncLevelDifference, with GO-Biological Process and KEGG pathway

functional databases.

**RBP binding site recognition and enrichment analyses**

For the analysis of motif enrichment for RBFOX and NOVA regulators, we recovered the

genomic coordinates for the list of SE events that had absolute values of ΔPSI > 0.1, for patient-

control pair #2. To recover the sequences of the exons involved in these SE events plus 200 bp

of the neighboring introns, we subtracted 199 from the value of the initial exonic genomic

coordinate ('exonStart_0base' column in the rMATS-turbo output table) and added 200 to the

value of the final exonic genomic coordinate ('exonEnd' column). Sequences were recovered in

fasta format using the 'faidx' function in samtools[74] from the GRCh38 human genome database.

RBP motif enrichment was conducted using the SEA software in the MEME suite[43], with RNA

motif database 'Ray2013_rbp_Homo_sapiens.dna_encoded.meme', which was modified to

include motifs for NOVA1, RBFOX2, and RBFOX3. A position-specific scoring matrix (PSSM)

for NOVA1 was obtained from the RBPmap developing team[75,76]; PSSM for RBFOX2 and

RBFOX3 were produced using the 'matrix2meme' script in the MEME suite using published

motif sequences from RNA Bind-n-Seq (RBNS) results (Supplementary Table S3 in ref[44]). SEA

was run using default parameters plus arguments to avoid trimming ('--notrim') and the '--

hofract' parameter set to 0.5. As a negative control sequence set, we started with a random

selection of 5,000 exons collected across all genes in the GRCh38 database using 'awk', 'sort',

and 'head', to produce a FASTA file with exonic and neighboring intronic (200 bp) sequences.

As positive control sequences for RBFOX1/2/3 and NOVA1, we selected genes whose splicing

is known to regulated by these proteins[2,77] and recovered all exonic plus neighboring intronic

(200 bp) sequences.

For the detection of binding sites of NOVA1 and RBFOX1/2/3 in specific genes (including

*NRXN3*), we first obtained the FASTA files for the target genes from Ensembl (genome

assembly GRCh38.p14; GCA_000001405.29) and then run the motif search using Find

Individual Motif Occurrences (FIMO) software in the MEME suite[45], with the '--norc' argument to

prevent motif scanning in the reverse complement strand. We ran this analysis for 50 genes at

the top of the SE event list from rMATS-turbo, ordered according to the absolute values of ΔPSI.

In parallel, we ran FIMO scanning for 50 random genes that were not found in the rMATS-turbo

output SE event list. The frequencies of RBP binding sites were then normalized to 100,000 bp,

followed by enrichment analysis using unpaired *t*-test in GraphPad Prism.

**PCR and sequencing of cloned bands**

PCR was conducted using GoTaq DNA polymerase (Promega; cat# M3001) with primers p6 (5'

TCTGCTGAATGTTCAAGTG 3') and p7 (5' TCTTCAGTTTGGTGCTGTC 3') for the first

reaction and primers p6 and p8 (5' GGAGATGGATGACAGCAC 3') for the second reaction (Fig.

7f,g), using the following cycling parameters: 94°C 5 min, and 38 cycles of 94°C 45 s, 58°C 45 s,

and 72°C 2 min. The fragments were then cloned into the pGEM-T-easy vector (Promega) and

Sanger sequenced using universal M13 primer. Alignment was performed using Benchling

alignment tool.

**Protein secondary structure analysis**

Protein secondary structure analysis was performed using InterProScan[49] for general domain

prediction using the coding amino acid sequence of *NRXN3* ENST00000335750.7 and

ENST00000554738.5 transcripts, representing the transmembrane and soluble isoforms,

respectively, using default parameters. Specific transmembrane domain prediction was

performed using DeepTMHMM 1.0 software[50], inputting the same sequences mentioned above.

The likelihood of secretion was evaluated using the SecretomeP (v 2.0) tool

**Real-time quantitative qPCR**

For real-time qPCR, neuronal cultures were differentiated from NPCs seeded onto 6-well plates,

followed by withdrawal of FGF-2 for 3 weeks, prior to RNA extraction with the RNeasy Mini Plus

kit (Qiagen). All samples were analyzed with 3 independent biological replicates. cDNA was

synthesized from total RNA using the Improm II First-Strand Reverse Transcription System

(Promega). Real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) was performed using regular primers for

SYBR Green technology, on an Applied Biosystems Real Time PCR system, with the following

cycling parameters: 94°C for 3 min, followed by 40 cycles of 94°C for 30 s and 68°C for 1 min.

Amplification and denaturation curves for all probes were analyzed to verify amplification of just

one amplicon. Normalization was achieved with endogenous control gene *ACTB*, and relative

expression was calculated using the traditional ΔΔCt method. The following qPCR primers were

used to detect all *NRXN3* transcript variants: p1 (5' ACAACCCGTAAGAATGCGTC 3') and p2

(5' CATCACTTGAACATTCAGCAG 3'). The following variant-specific qPCR primers were used:

p1, p3 (5' GGAAAGACTCTTATCTGTACTC 3'), p4 (5' TAGAGCTTCTGGCTGTACTC 3'), and

p5 (5' CGTAAGAATGCGCTCTACAG 3').

**Statistical analysis and reproducibility**

Data are presented as mean + SEM, unless otherwise indicated. Different types of statistical

test were used throughout the study, including comparisons of means between two groups

(PTHS against parent) in experiments that measured relative expression levels, or expression

abundances used two-sample Welch's t test, assuming unequal variances and

heteroskedasticity. For comparing mean gene expression in single cell RNA-Seq data between

two samples, we used the non-parametric Mann–Whitney U-test. Sample sizes are indicated in

the figure legends. *P*-values are reported as asterisks in the figures for significance levels

defined as $p<0.05$ (\*), $p<0.01$ (\*\*), or $p<0.001$ (\*\*\*). Supplementary Table S8 presents extended

results for all statistical tests performed, including sample sizes, statistical tests employed, effect

sizes, statistics metrics (*H, F, t*, or *W*), along with exact *p*-values, listed according to the order of

appearance in figure panels throughout the study. The numbers of replicates are also indicated

in the figure legends and all attempts at replication were successful. When experiments involved

data collected from independent biological replicates, results were collected from randomly

chosen replicates (wells/plates of experiments involving cells in 2D culture) and blinding was

used for most analyses comparing patients and control samples, including immunostaining.

Blinding was not used when analyzing results from RNA sequencing and single cell RNA

sequencing experiments, due to the inherently unbiased nature of the bioinformatic approaches

used for quantitating gene expression and determining differential expression between

genotypes or cell types. Statistical analyses were performed using Prism software (GraphPad;

version 9.2.0). Figures were composed with Prism and Illustrator CS4 (Adobe; version 14.0.0).

**Materials Availability**

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be

fulfilled by the corresponding author, Fabio Papes (papesf@unicamp.br), upon reasonable

request. When provided to others, unique reagents generated in this study will be available with

a completed Materials Transfer Agreement.

**Data Availability**

Data supporting the findings in this study are included within the Supplementary Material. RNA

sequencing and single cell RNA sequencing raw and processed data used in this study are

deposited at the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) of the National Center for Biotechnology

Information (NCBI), under accession numbers GSE159392

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE159392), GSE159859

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE159859), GSE159860

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE159860), and GSE189121

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE189121), which are available publicly

without restriction.

**Code Availability**

No new custom software or code has been used in this paper. Codes (R programming

language) used for bioinformatic analyses are all strictly based on pre-existing, regularly used

published codes for RNA-Seq and single-cell RNA-Seq analyses, as described above.

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**Author contributions**

Conceptualization, F.P.; Methodology, F.P., P.K.K.F., A.P.C., and M.C.; Investigation, P.K.K.F., L.L.D., B.B.H., J.G.B., G.D.V., I.C.V., and M.H.B.; Writing – Original Draft, F.P., P.K.K.F.; Writing – Review & Editing, F.P. and P.K.K.F.; Funding Acquisition, F.P.; Resources, F.P., M.H.B., and M.C.; Supervision, F.P.

**Competing interests**

Authors declare no competing interests.

**Figure legends**

**Figure 1: Lower expression of splicing regulators NOVA1 and RBFOX1/2/3 in neurons derived from Pitt-Hopkins Syndrome (PTHS) patients. (a-c)** MA plots showing differential gene expression in neurons in 2D culture in the comparison between different pairs of control and PTHS subjects – pair #1 in (a), pair #2 in (b) and pair #3 in (c). See Supplementary Table S6 for patient information. Each parent-patient comparison is shown separately. Gray dots are genes that are not statistically significantly differentially expressed between control and PTHS. Colored dots are statistically significant DE genes, and the color indicates adjusted *p*-value (*s*-value). Red dots represent genes coding for splicing regulators NOVA1, RBFOX1, RBFOX2, and RBFOX3. The *x* axes represent average normalized expression across all libraries. Fold-changes (in log scale, base 2) in the *y* axes indicate the contrast between expression levels in the PTHS patient and the corresponding control (negative values indicate lower expression in PTHS neurons). **(d)** Summary of fold changes (in log scale, base 2) of *NOVA1* and *RBFOX1/2/3* gene expression for each patient-parent pair. Symbols indicate different pairs, as shown in Supplementary Table S6. **(e-h)** MA plots showing differential gene expression in neural progenitor cells in 2D culture in the comparison between different pairs of control and PTHS subjects – pair #1 in (e), pair #2 in (f), pair #3 in (g), and pair #4 in (h). **(i)** Summary of fold changes of *NOVA1* and *RBFOX1/2/3* gene expression in neural progenitor cells. Notice the lack of change in expression of some of these splicing regulators in neural progenitors. **(j,k)** Relative expression levels for *NOVA1*, *RBFOX1*, *RBFOX2*, and *RBFOX3* genes, as determined from RT-qPCR experiments, in iPSC-derived neuronal cultures. Three patients per graph, with mean expression normalized to 1 in control #1 (j) or control #2 (k). N = 2 technical replicates per sample. Bar graphs represent mean + SEM. ns, not statistically significantly different, *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$; two-sample Welch's t-test assuming unequal variances.

**Figure 2: Aberrant expression of splicing regulators in PTHS cortical and subpallial**

**organoids. (a)** Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) bidimensional reduction

of scRNA-Seq profiling of cortical (CtO) and subpallial (sPO) organoids at 8 weeks in vitro, with

pooled cells from 15 organoids per library. Color code represents 6 annotated subpopulations:

Pr-Glut: neural progenitors in glutamatergic lineage; IP-Glut: intermediate progenitors in

glutamatergic lineage; N-Glut: glutamatergic neurons; Pr-GABA: neural progenitors in inhibitory

lineage; IP-GABA: intermediate progenitors in inhibitory lineage; N-GABA: neuronal population

containing GABAergic interneurons. Minority subpopulations exist but were not the focus of our

study. **(b)** UMAP of annotated cells in CtO and sPO organoids, separated according to organoid

type, showing prevalence of excitatory neuron lineage in CtOs and preponderance of

GABAergic interneurons in sPO libraries. **(c-j)** UMAPs showing expression of *NOVA1* (c,d),

*RBFOX1* (e,f), *RBFOX2* (g,h), and *RBFOX3* (i,j), in control and PTHS CtOs and sPOs. Warmer

colors indicate higher expression levels for each gene, while black indicates absence of

detectable expression.

**Figure 3: Altered percentage of cells expressing splicing regulators in PTHS organoids**.

**(a-d)** Left graphs in each group: Violin plots showing comparison of expression of *NOVA1* (a),

*RBFOX1* (b), *RBFOX2* (c), and *RBFOX3* (d) between N-Glut subpopulations in the parent and

PTHS CtOs (left groups) or between N-GABA subpopulations in the parent and PTHS sPOs

(right groups). N = 1401 (parent) or 380 (PTHS) N-Glut cells, or N = 2661 (parent) and 988

(PTHS) N-GABA cells. Right graphs in each group: changes in percentages of neuronal

subtypes in the analyzed subpopulations of CtOs and sPOs (cells expressing each gene above

threshold corresponding to 0.5 log-normalized expression levels).

**Figure 4: Genes exhibiting aberrant splicing patterns in PTHS are involved in synapse**

**formation and cell-cell communication. (a)** Pie charts representing the distribution of splicing

events in 5 alternative splicing categories, in several pairs of patient and control samples. **(b)**

Pie chart indicating the number of events in each alternative splicing category for the common

splicing events across all patient-control pairs. **(c)** Pie chart representing the number of genes

for which splicing events were detected in each alternative splicing category, in the intersection

across all patient-control pairs. **(d,e)** Enrichment ratios observed in Over-Representation

Analysis (ORA) of splicing events with an absolute value of DPSI larger than 0.3 in the patient-

control #2 pair, subjected to either Gene Ontology – Biological Process (d) or KEGG Pathway

analysis (e). Only the 10 categories with the largest enrichment ratios are shown. The color of

each bar represents the false discovery rate (FDR) and the category names indicated in blue

represent those linked to synapse formation and function or cell-cell communication. **(f.g)**

Enrichment ratios observed in similar analyses conducted in d,e but with Gene-Set Enrichment

Analysis (GSEA).

**Figure 5: Enrichment of binding sites for splicing regulators NOVA1 and RBFOX1/2/3 in**

**genes with altered splicing patterns in PTHS. (a)** Results from site enrichment analysis

conducted on the sequences of skipped exons and neighboring introns for splicing events

detected by rMATS-turbo in PTHS neurons, for RNA-binding proteins (RBP) NOVA1 and

RBFOX1/2/3, with two motifs for NOVA1, one motif for RBFOX1 and one common motif for

RBFOX2 and RBFOX3 (motif logos in the middle column). The statistical results from Fisher's

exact test (*E*-value) in the comparison between the test dataset (sequences from splicing events

in PTHS) and genomic sequences from a random set of genes are found in boldface text. For

contrast, the *E*-values for the comparison between a positive control dataset (sequences of

genes known to be regulated by the corresponding RBP) and the random control dataset are

given in parentheses, and the *E*-values for the comparison between a negative control dataset

(sequences of genes not known to be regulated by the corresponding RBP) and the random

control dataset are given between <> symbols. **(b,c)** Examples of genomic sequence structure

for two genes in our aberrant splicing dataset detected by rMATS-turbo, including the *SLC4A10*

gene, shown to be enriched for NOVA1 binding sites (b) and the *CAMTA1* gene, shown to be

enriched for RBFOX1/2/3 binding sites (c). The exons are shown as blue rectangles, connected

by lines representing the introns. The binding sites are shown as black bars above the gene

representation, and the chromosome numbers and genomic coordinate are also displayed. **(d)**

Representation of NOVA1 and RBFOX1/2/3 binding sites in a random gene (MANBAL) not

present in the aberrant splicing event list from PTHS neurons. **(e)** Violin plots representing the

statistical comparison of the numbers of NOVA1 (left graph) and RBFOX1/2/3 (right graph)

sites, in 100,000 nt, in the genes with the highest positive values of ΔPSI from the rMATS-turbo

analysis of PTHS neurons (n=11 genes) compared with a random set of genes not present in

the splicing event list in PTHS (n=12 genes). The median/interquartile range are shown as

horizontal bars inside the violins. Welch's unpaired t-test assuming unequal variances; * $p<0.05$;

ns, not statistically significantly different. **(f-h)** Venn diagrams representing the comparison

between the number of genes with differential splicing events in PTHS neurons, as detected by

rMATS-turbo in RNA-Seq data (absolute values of ΔPSI larger than 0.1), and the number of

genes whose mRNA was shown in the literature to bind NOVA1 (f; ref [46]), NOVA1 (g; ref [63]), and

RBFOX1 (h; ref [1]), in HITS-CliP experiments. The numbers of genes in each sector are shown

inside the Venn diagrams, and some genes involved in neurodevelopment are highlighted in

each intersection. Genes highlighted in blue are those present in the SFARI database of autism-

related genes[78].

**Figure 6: Aberrant splicing in Neurexin genes in PTHS. (a)** MA plot representing the differential splicing event prevalence, in the comparison between the PTHS patient-derived neurons and control neurons cultivated in vitro. The *x*-axis represents the expression abundance for each gene (represented as dots), in transcripts per million (TPM), while the *y*-axis shows the difference between the PSI (percent spliced in) for the patient cells and the control neurons (ΔPSI). Each dot represents a gene. Only a fraction of the genes is shown, to highlight the region of the graph where we observed a splicing event in the *NRXN2* gene chosen for further analysis. Blue dots indicate splicing events with a statistically significantly higher usage in control neurons, involving the number of genes displayed in parenthesis. The red dots indicate splicing events with higher usage in patient neurons. Gray dots are splicing events with a non-statistically significant difference in usage between patient and control cells. **(b)** Sashimi plots representing the splicing patterns for the NRXN2 splicing event highlighted in (a), depicting the location of exons 6, 7, and 8 in chromosome 11 (genomic coordinates below the plots). The vertical bars indicate the coverage of RNA-Seq reads in each exon or supporting the existence of each splice junction, in a *y*-axis scale shown as RPKM (reads per kilobase per million total reads). The cusp lines connecting the exons above or below the vertical bars indicate reads that support the existence of each corresponding exon-exon junction, with full lines representing junctions that include SE (skipped exon) 7, while dashed lines display functions that exclude said exon. The cusp thickness is proportional to the number of reads supporting the existence of each splice junction. The Sashimi plot on top (purple) represents the splicing pattern in control neurons, and the plot at the bottom (red) indicates the pattern in PTHS neurons, with the PSI values indicated above each graph. **(c)** Schematic representation of a fraction of the genomic sequence of NRXN2 gene, showing exons 6, 7, and 8. Three transcripts are shown: one represents the transcript that excludes exon 7 (SE-NRXN2-e), as detected by our rMATS-turbo analysis of PTHS neurons; the second represents the transcript including exon 7 (SE-NRNX2-i), which also corresponds to a transcript in the Ensembl database (ENST entry number shown); the transcript at the bottom is another Ensembl transcript that includes a slightly longer version of exon 7. The amino acid translations for each transcript are shown below the DNA sequences. **(d)** Similar to (a), but for an event involving the *NRXN3* gene, chosen for further analyses. **(e)** Similar to (b), but for the event in (d), involving exons 20 and 21 of the canonical transcript in the Ensembl database, and an additional exon not annotated in the canonical transcript (exon 20.5). **(f)** Similar to (c), showing two transcripts of the *NRXN3* gene, either including (SE-NRXN3-i) or excluding (SE-NRXN3-e) exon 20.5. **(g,h)** Genomic sequence structure for NRNX2 (g) and NRNX3 (h), showing the location of NOVA1 and RBFOX1/2/3

binding sites. The exons are shown as blue rectangles (exon numbers below the gene

structure), connected by lines representing the introns. The binding sites are shown as black

bars above the gene representation, and the chromosome numbers and genomic coordinate

are also displayed. The region containing the exons involved in the SE events are blown up

below. The models at the bottom schematically depict the exons (to scale) and the splicing

patterns in the SE-NRXN2/3-i and SE-NRXN2/3-e transcripts.

**Figure 7: Changes in the abundances of transcript variants via exon skipping at the**

**Neurexin-3 gene *NRXN3* in PTHS neurons in vitro. (a)** Schematic representation of the

location of PCR primers in exons of the *NRXN3* gene, used in real-time qPCR experiments.

Some oligos were designed to detect all transcript variants (left), because they detect a

combination of exons present in both the transcript including (SE-NRXN3-i) and excluding (SE-

NRXN3-e) exon 20.5. Other PCR oligos (right) were designed as variant-specific primers,

because they recognize exon-exon splice junctions typical of either the SE-NRXN3-I or SE-

NRXN3-e transcripts. **(b)** Real-time qPCR results showing the expression of *NRXN3* with the

combination of oligos p1 and p2, which recognize both transcript variants. Each graph

compares the expression in three patient lines (blue bars) and control line #1 (orange bar on the

left graph) or control line #3 (orange bar on the right graph). Error bars are S.E.M. Each symbol

represents a patient line, according to Supplementary Table S6. The expression is each graph

is normalized to 1 in the control line, and the statistical comparisons (Welch's unpaired t-test

assuming unequal variances) are between each patient line and the control shown in each

graph. * $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$; ns, non-statistically significantly different. N=3 biological replicates

per group. **(c)** Left: Bar plots representing the expression abundances of NRXN3 in control

(orange) and PTHS (blue) neuronal cell lines, as judged by transcripts per million (TPM) in

RNA-Seq data. Each symbol represents a patient or control. The control group has 3 subjects,

while the PTHS group has 4 subjects; in three cases, the PTHS patient lines are matched with

the corresponding parental control lines, and a fourth PTHS neuronal line is not matched to

controls. Error bars are S.E.M. Notice the tendency for lower mean expression in the PTHS

group, but the difference fell below the statistical significance threshold level, due to the low

expression values in patient-parent pair #1 (circle symbols). Right: Direct comparison between

the TPM expression abundances in three patient-parent pairs, represented as fold-change in

the $\log_2$ scale. Error bars are S.E.M. **(d)** qPCR results with variant-specific oligos to detect the

SE-NRXN3-e transcript (p1 and p3) or the SE-NRXN3-i (p4 and p5). The cell lines and

comparisons are the same as in (c). Welch's unpaired t-test assuming unequal variances; *

$p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$. **(e)** Ratio between the relative expression of SE-NRXN3-i and SE-NRXN3-e

transcript abundances, produced by contrasting the RQ (relative quantitation) levels with oligos

p4+p5 with those obtained with primers p1+p3. In each graph, the mean ratio was normalized to

1 in either control #1 (left) or control #3 (right) neuronal cell lines. N=3 independent biological

replicates. Notice the change in the balance between the two transcript variants in two patient

lines, with a reduction in the abundance of the transcript containing exon 20.5, as indicated by

the mean ratio below 1 (dashed line). (f) Schematic representation of the location of primers for

regular PCR amplification of specific *NRXN3* gene transcripts: oligos p6+p7 were designed to

amplify just the SE-NRNX3-e variant, as p7 recognizes exon 21; oligos p6+p8 on the other hand

were designed to amplify just the SE-NRNX3-i variant, as p8 recognizes the skipped exon 20.5

(yellow). (g) Image of the results of gel electrophoresis showing amplification of several bands

with the p6+p7 and p6+p8 primer combinations, with samples from patient line #2 and control

line #1. L: Kasvi 1 kb DNA ladder. The open triangle indicates the 252-bp band expected from

the SE-NRXN3-i transcript, while the filled triangle shows the 334-bp band expected from the

SE-NRXN3-e transcript. Notice the almost complete absence of the band from the SE-NRXN3-i

transcript in PTHS samples.

**Figure 8: Evidence that the transcript variants of *NRXN3* encode transmembrane and**

**secreted Neurexin-3 protein isoforms. (a)** Location of protein domains laminin G and EGF in

the Neurexin-3 protein isoforms encoded by the SE-NRNX3-e and SE-NRNX3-i variants, as

detected by InterProScan, showing the shorter length of the protein predicted to be produced

from the variant included exon 20.5, due to the presence of a premature stop codon. **(b)**

Schematic representation showing the coding sequences in transcripts SE-NRNX3-e and SE-

NRNX3-i (hatched pattern), showing a detail of the premature stop codon introduced when exon

20.5 is spliced into the transcript. Exon sizes are shown to scale, except for exon 21 in the

bottom transcript, which is shown partially. **(c)** Prediction of protein topology using the

DeepTMHMM tool on the proteins encoded by the SE-NRNX3-e (top) and SE-NRNX3-i (bottom)

transcripts. The protein topology in each case is shown above the graph, color-coded according

to the prediction of extracellular, intracellular, or transmembrane domains. The *y*-axis in the

graph represents the probability of each portion of the protein being extracellular (orange),

transmembrane (purple), or intracellular (blue). **(d)** Prediction of signal peptide and probability of

secretion with the SignalP tool, on the first 70 amino acid residues in the protein sequences

predicted from the SE-NRNX3-e and SE-NRNX3-i transcripts. Each line indicates the probability

of the existence of a signal peptide (sigP) having features of N-terminal, central, or C-terminal

portions of the signal peptide, while the dashed line is the remainder of the probability.

# Figure 1

# Figure 2

# Figure 3

# Figure 4

# Figure 5

**a**

| RBP | motif logo | site enrichment *E*-value test against random set *(pos. ctrl against random set)* *<neg. ctrl against random set>* |
|---|---|---|
| NOVA1 motif #1 | | **9.2 x E-08** *(2.9 x E-01)* *<2.2 x E-00>* |
| NOVA1 motif #2 | | **3.0 x E-08** *(1.6 x E-06)* *<5.9 x E-01>* |
| RBFOX1 | | **5.8 x E-04** *(8.4 x E-08)* *<3.2 x E-00>* |
| RBFOX2/3 | | **4.1 x E-07** *(9.2 x E-16)* *<2.4 x E-00>* |

**b** NOVA1 sites in the *SLC4A10* gene

**c** RBFOX1/2/3 sites in the *CAMTA1* gene

**d** random gene (*MANBAL*) not in splicing analysis dataset

**e** NOVA site counts     RBFOX site counts

genes with splicing events with largest ΔPSI>0

random genes not detected in our splicing analysis

**f** genes with NOVA1 binding peaks detected via HITS-CLiP in Yuan et al. 2018 (165 genes)

**g** genes with NOVA1 binding peaks detected via HITS-CLiP in Ule et al. 2003 (212 genes)

genes with aberrant splicing pattern detected by rMATS-turbo (|ΔPSI| > 0.1) (1634 genes)

**h** genes with RBFOX1 binding peaks detected via HITS-CLiP in Weyn-Vanhentenryck et al. 2014 (7302 genes)

# Figure 6

# Figure 7

# Figure 8