Partial loss of CFIm25 causes aberrant alternative polyadenylation and learning deficits

- 3 Callison E. Alcott^{1,2,3}; Hari Krishna Yalamanchili^{2,3}; Ping Ji⁴; Meike E. van der Heijden^{2,6};
- 4 Alexander B. Saltzman⁷; Mei Leng⁷; Bhoomi Bhatt⁷; Shuang Hao^{2,8}; Qi Wang^{2,8}; Afaf Saliba^{2,4};
- 5 Jianrong Tang^{2,8}; Anna Malovannaya^{7,9,10,11}; Eric J. Wagner⁵; Zhandong Liu^{2,8,12}; Huda Y.
- 6 Zoghbi^{1,2,4,13,14,15}*
- ¹Program in Developmental Biology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, USA
- 8 ²Jan and Dan Duncan Neurological Research Institute at Texas Children's Hospital, Houston,
- 9 USA

1

2

- ³Medical Scientist Training Program, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, USA
- ⁴Department of Molecular and Human Genetics, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, USA
- ⁵Department of Biochemistry & Molecular Biology, University of Texas Medical Branch,
- 13 Galveston, USA
- 14 ⁶Department of Neuroscience, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, USA
- ⁷Verna and Marrs McLean Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology Baylor College
- of Medicine, Houston, USA
- 17 Section of Neurology, Department of Pediatrics, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, USA
- ⁹Department of Molecular and Cellular Biology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, USA
- 19 ¹⁰Mass Spectrometry Proteomics Core, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, USA
- 20 ¹¹Dan L Duncan Comprehensive Cancer Center, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, USA
- 21 ¹²Graduate Program in Quantitative and Computational Biosciences, Baylor College of
- 22 Medicine, Houston, USA

27

28

- 23 ¹³Department of Neuroscience, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, USA
- 24 ¹⁴Department of Pediatrics, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, USA
- 25 ¹⁵Howard Hughes Medical Institute, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, USA
- * Correspondence should be addressed to: hzoghbi@bcm.edu

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

ABSTRACT We previously showed that NUDT21-spanning copy-number variations (CNVs) are associated with intellectual disability (Gennarino et al., 2015). However, the patients' CNVs also included other genes. To determine if reduced NUDT21 function alone can cause disease, we generated $Nudt21^{+/-}$ mice to mimic the human state of decreased expression. We found that although these mice have 50% reduced *Nudt21* mRNA, they only have 30% less of its cognate protein, CFIm25. Despite this partial protein-level compensation, the Nudt21^{+/-} mice have learning deficits and cortical hyperexcitability. Further, to determine the molecular mechanism driving neural dysfunction, we partially inhibited NUDT21 in human stem cell-derived neurons to reduce CFIm25 by 30%. This reduction in CFIm25 was sufficient to induce misregulated alternative polyadenylation (APA) and protein levels in hundreds of genes, dozens of which cause intellectual disability when mutated. Altogether, these results indicate that disruption of *NUDT21*-regulated APA events in the brain can cause intellectual disability. **INTRODUCTION** The brain is acutely sensitive to the dose of numerous proteins, such that even small perturbations in their levels can cause neurological disease. Proteins that affect the expression of other genes, such as transcriptional or translational regulators, are particularly critical (Rubeis et al., 2014; Vissers et al., 2015; Yin and Schaaf, 2017). Canonical examples of such broad regulators are the RNA-binding protein FMR1, which underlies fragile X syndrome, and the chromatin modulator MeCP2, whose loss or gain respectively causes Rett syndrome or MECP2duplication syndrome (Amir et al., 1999; Pieretti et al., 1991; Verkerk et al., 1991).

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

Alternative polyadenylation (APA) is an important mechanism of transcript and proteinlevel regulation. Indeed, nearly 70% of human genes have multiple polyadenylation [poly(A)] sites, usually within the 3' untranslated region (UTR) of the mRNA, allowing for transcript isoforms with different 3' UTR lengths and content (Derti et al., 2012; Hoque et al., 2013). The general implication is that longer 3' UTRs contain additional regulatory motifs, such as miRNA and RNA-binding protein binding sites. This allows for differential regulation of those gene products, typically through reduced mRNA stability, but also through other mRNA metabolism mechanisms, such as translation efficiency and localization [reviewed in (Tian and Manley, 2016)]. Alternative poly(A) site usage has been observed in multiple biological contexts, both in different disease states and in normal physiology and development (Hoque et al., 2013; Masamha and Wagner, 2017). In general, as cells differentiate, pathway-specific mRNAs increasingly use distal polyadenylation sites, while cells that are more proliferative use more proximal poly(A) sites (Hoque et al., 2013; Ji et al., 2009; Sandberg et al., 2008). In the brain, average 3' UTR length increases throughout neurogenesis, and mature, post-mitotic neurons have the longest average 3' UTR length of any cell type (Guvenek and Tian, 2018; Miura et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2005). Numerous genes regulate alternative polyadenylation, but *NUDT21* is among the most consequential (Gruber et al., 2012; Masamha et al., 2014; Tian and Manley, 2016). NUDT21 encodes CFIm25, a component of the mammalian cleavage factor I (CFIm) complex (Kim et al., 2010; Rüegsegger et al., 1996; Yang et al., 2011). CFIm25 binds UGUA sequences in premRNA and the CFIm complex helps recruit the enzymes required for cleavage and polyadenylation (Brown and Gilmartin, 2003; Rüegsegger et al., 1998; Yang et al., 2011, 2010; Zhu et al., 2018). The UGUA binding sites are often enriched at the distal polyadenylation sites

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

of NUDT21-regulated RNAs, so CFIm25 typically promotes the synthesis of longer mRNA isoforms (Zhu et al., 2018). Thus, when NUDT21 expression is reduced, proximal cleavage sites are more frequently used. Indeed, CFIm25 downregulation in multiple human and mouse cell lines causes 3' UTR shortening in hundreds of genes, and a consequent increase in protein levels of a subset of those genes (Brumbaugh et al., 2018; Gennarino et al., 2015; Gruber et al., 2012; Kubo et al., 2006; Li et al., 2015; Martin et al., 2012; Masamha et al., 2014). Notably, MECP2 is among the most affected genes in these cell-line studies, and slight perturbations in MeCP2 levels cause neurological disease (Chao and Zoghbi, 2012). Moreover, NUDT21 is a highly constrained gene. In the Genome Aggregation Database (gnomAD) of ~140,000 putatively healthy individuals, 125 missense and 13 loss of function variants would be expected in NUDT21 if loss of function were not pathogenic, but instead there are only 15 missense and zero loss-of-function variants, suggesting that NUDT21 loss of function is incompatible with health (Lek et al., 2016). Given this evidence, we hypothesized that NUDT21 variants can cause neurological disease through APA misregulation of MECP2 and other dose-sensitive genes in neurons. Combining results from our previous work with data from the Decipher database, we have identified nine individuals with NUDT21-spanning duplications that have intellectual disability, and two patients with deletions that have both intellectual disability and seizures (Firth et al., 2009; Gennarino et al., 2015). However, the duplication patients also have three other genes common to their copy-number variations (CNVs) and the deletion patients have nearly 20 common genes (Gennarino et al., 2015). CNVs of these other genes could be causing their symptoms. Therefore, it is important to determine if NUDT21 loss of function alone is sufficient to cause disease. Identifying the disease-causing genes within CNVs facilitates more accurate

diagnosis and prognosis, and allows for targeted therapy development. To that end, we generated *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice to model the reduced CFIm25 expression observed in humans and assessed for phenotypes similar to the symptoms seen in the deletion patients. We found that *Nudt21* heterozygosity causes a 50% loss of wild-type *Nudt21* mRNA as expected, but only a 30% reduction of its cognate protein, CFIm25. Consistent with what we observed in the deletion patients, we found that *Nudt21* loss of function is sufficient to cause learning deficits in mice using a variety of behavioral assays. Further, to see how *NUDT21* loss might lead to disease, we analyzed *NUDT21*-depleted human neurons for aberrant alternative polyadenylation with 3' end sequencing and for protein level aberrations with quantitative mass spectrometry. These approaches showed that a 30% reduction of CFIm25 in human neurons induces widespread abnormal alternative polyadenylation and protein levels, including for dozens of dose-sensitive, disease-associated genes. Altogether, these results provide important in vivo and human-specific evidence that reduced *NUDT21* expression can lead to intellectual disability.

RESULTS

Nudt21 heterozygotes have 50% less Nudt21 mRNA in their brain, but only 30% reduced CFIm25 protein. Nudt21 expression has not been well explored within organisms, particularly in the brain. Thus, we first sought to confirm that mice express Nudt21 in the brain, and found that we could readily detect CFIm25 in neuronal nuclei in regions important for learning and memory—the cortex and hippocampus (Figure 1A). We then generated Nudt21 knockout mice by excising exons two and three, which removes the RNA-binding domain of CFIm25 and induces a frame shift mutation leading to nonsense-mediated decay of the transcript (Figure 1B) (Yang et al., 2011). We crossed the Nudt21+/- mice with each other and observed that of the 32

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

pups born, there were no homozygous null offspring, indicating that Nudt21 is essential for life (*Figure 1C*). Unexpectedly, while the heterozygous mice have the anticipated 50% reduction in wildtype Nudt21 mRNA in whole-brain extracts, there was only ~30% reduction in CFIm25 protein (Figures 1D & E). These results demonstrate the successful knockout of one Nudt21 copy and reveal a partial post-transcriptional compensation of CFIm25 protein levels. Finally, we found that the $Nudt21^{+/-}$ mice had a normal life span, but consistently weighed ~10% less than their wild-type littermates, indicating that Nudt21 heterozygosity might cause some abnormalities (Figure 1—figure supplement 1). Partial loss of CFIm25 causes learning deficits. To determine if Nudt21 heterozygosity affects cognitive function, we compared $Nud21^{+/-}$ mice and their wild-type littermates in several neurobehavioral assays starting at 30 weeks of age. We focused on learning and memory assays because intellectual disability is the most pronounced and consistent symptom seen in patients with NUDT21-spanning CNVs (Gennarino et al., 2015). We started with the conditioned fear test, which assesses the mice's ability to learn to associate an aversive event with a sensory context. In this test, we initially train the mice by exposing them to two tone-shock pairings in a novel chamber. Healthy mice will freeze as a behavioral expression of fear when they hear the tone for the second time. The following day, we return the mice to the same chamber, where healthy mice who learned to associate the chamber with the shock will freeze in recognition of the chamber. Lastly, we place the mice into a new chamber and replay the tone, where the healthy mice will remember that the tone is associated with the shock and freeze in fear. We found that Nud21^{+/-} mice show abnormal behavior throughout the assay. Their initial fear learning was attenuated: when exposed to the reinforcement sound cue played again two minutes

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

after the initial tone-shock pairing during training, they froze on average ~50% less often than their wild-type littermates (*Figure 2Ai*). Furthermore, the following day, they froze on average \sim 30% less in both tests, indicating that $Nud21^{+/-}$ mice have reduced memory of the chamber or the sound cue compared to their wild-type littermates (Figure 2Aii & iii). It is important to ensure that potential hyperactivity in the mutant mice does not confound the conditioned fear test results. If the mice are hyperactive, they may freeze less in the conditioned fear assay even if they remember the chamber or the cue. Therefore, we tested our mice in the open field assay. We place the mice in an open chamber and record the distance they travel in 30 minutes. We also record how much time they spend in the exposed center part of the chamber compared to the more hidden periphery. In this assay, hyperactive mice cover a greater distance, and anxious mice spend more time on the perimeter of the chamber (Crawley, 1985). We found that the $Nud21^{+/-}$ mice were not hyperactive, thus validating the conditioned fear results by showing they are not confounded by hyperactivity and indicating that partial loss of *Nudt21* function does indeed cause cognitive defects (*Figure 2Bi*). Intriguingly, the *Nud21*^{+/-} mice spent ~15% more time in the exposed, center part of the open field, which suggests they have reduced anxiety and shows that they have neuropsychiatric features beyond learning and memory deficits (Figure 2Bii). To determine if the learning deficits we detected in the $Nud21^{+/-}$ mice extended to other learning paradigms, we tested spatial learning using the Morris water maze. In this assay, the mice are trained over four days to locate a hidden platform in a pool of water using visual cues provided on the perimeter of the room. We initially reveal the platform to the mice to confirm visual acuity. Then the mice are individually placed at different locations around the perimeter of

the pool eight times per day and timed for how long it takes to locate the platform. Mice with

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

spatial learning deficits require more time to find the platform throughout training. For an additional measurement, the platform is removed after the training and the mice are placed in a novel location on the perimeter of the pool. We then record how much time, out of a minute, they spend searching for the platform in the quadrant of the pool where it had been. Mice with spatial learning and memory deficits spend relatively less time in the platform quadrant, indicating that they do not remember its location as well. We found that the Nudt21+/- mice indeed have spatial learning deficits. On average, they required more time to locate the platform during their training trials, despite swimming slightly faster and covering a greater distance (Figure 2Ci & ii). Moreover, when the platform was removed, the Nudt21+/- mice spent ~30% less time in the correct quadrant (Figure 2Ciii & iv). Thus, the conditioned fear and Morris water maze results show that $Nudt21^{+/-}$ mice have learning and memory deficits in multiple domains. *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice have increased cerebral spike activity. In addition to intellectual disability, the patients with NUDT21-spanning deletions had seizures. In general, though, mice are much less sensitive to seizure-causing mutations than humans, but seizure susceptibility can be assessed using electroencephalography (EEG) (Amendola et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 1998; Kriscenski-Perry et al., 2002; Miura et al., 2002). Despite a lack of detectable seizures in Nudt21+/- mice, we found significantly more EEG spikes in their frontal cortex relative to their wild-type littermates. This result indicates that Nudt21 haploinsufficiency is alone sufficient to cause cortical hyperexcitability, and suggests that NUDT21 loss of function might increase seizure risk (Figure 3).

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

NUDT21 depletion induces aberrant alternative polyadenylation and altered protein levels. The observations that individuals with *NUDT21*-spanning CNVs have intellectual disability (ID) and that Nudt21^{+/-} mice have learning deficits provides strong evidence that NUDT21 loss of function causes disease, but do not reveal the molecular pathology. Therefore, to understand how partial loss of NUDT21 function might sicken neurons and cause ID, we used shRNA to inhibit NUDT21 in human embryonic stem cell (ESC)-derived glutamatergic neurons and assessed them for proteome and alternative polyadenylation (APA) dysregulation. To assess the proteome, we used mass spectrometry, and to directly measure APA events, we used poly(A)-ClickSeq (PACseq), an mRNA 3'-end sequencing method that allows for more accurate identification of polyadenylation sites than standard RNA sequencing (Elrod et al., 2019; Routh et al., 2017). The genotypes cluster by principle component in both assays, showing that both approaches are reproducible (Figure 4—figure supplement 1A & B). Like in the whole-brain extracts from $Nudt21^{+/-}$ mice, the human neurons had a 30% reduction of CFIm25 protein, despite a greater reduction of NUDT21 mRNA (Figure 4A & B). This difference shows that there is also homeostatic stabilization of CFIm25 in human neurons. Intriguingly, in addition to reduced NUDT21 mRNA levels as expected, the PAC-seq data also showed that NUDT21 itself undergoes aberrant alternative polyadenylation following its depletion (Figure 4Ci). These shortened NUDT21 mRNAs have no stop codon, and are likely to undergo non-stop decay, an mRNA decay mechanism that degrades mRNAs lacking an in-frame stop codon (Frischmeyer et al., 2002; van Hoof et al., 2002). As in the NUDT21 CNV patient-derived lymphoblasts, NUDT21 loss of function causes 3' UTR shortening of MECP2 in human neurons, as well as other genes strongly regulated by NUDT21 in cancer-cell-line assays, such as VMA21, LAMC1, and PAK1 (Figure 4Cii & iii)

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

(Gennarino et al., 2015; Masamha et al., 2014). Also, similar to other cell-line assays, NUDT21 loss of function causes widespread dysregulation of alternative polyadenylation, predominantly resulting in mRNA shortening (*Figure 4Ci-v & D*) (Brumbaugh et al., 2018; Gruber et al., 2012; Masamha et al., 2014). Of the misregulated genes, 230 have a gnomAD probability of loss-offunction intolerance over 0.9, 43 cause intellectual disability when mutated, and of those, 18 are autosomal or X-linked dominant (Supplemental data 1) (Lek et al., 2016; OMIM, 2019; Vissers et al., 2015). In addition to MECP2, misregulation of some of these genes is likely contributing to pathogenesis. Notwithstanding disrupted RNA localization, the most apparent consequence of misregulated APA is altered protein levels (Tian and Manley, 2016). As expected, for many of the genes with significantly misregulated APA, we also see concordant changes in protein levels (Figure 4E). Most commonly, NUDT21 loss results in shorter mRNAs and increased protein, such as with MeCP2 and VMA21, which respectively had protein-level increases of 50% and almost 300% (Figure 4Cii-iii & E). However, there are exceptions that further clarify the relationship between NUDT21 loss and protein levels. Occasionally, the shortened mRNA will lose its stop codon and so likely undergo non-stop decay, resulting in reduced protein, such as with ZCCHC6 (Figure 4Civ & E). Conversely, as with KIF9, NUDT21 reduction occasionally induces synthesis of longer mRNAs, and this could paradoxically increase protein levels if the longer mRNAs gain a stop codon and cease to be degraded by non-stop decay (Figure 4Cv & E). Intriguingly, the degradation of KIF9 and others through non-stop decay in the control neurons shows an example of non-stop decay being used for normal gene regulation, rather than just as a quality control mechanism. We observed that ~15% of the genes with altered APA have a change in the percentage of mRNA isoforms undergoing non-stop decay. However, the majority

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

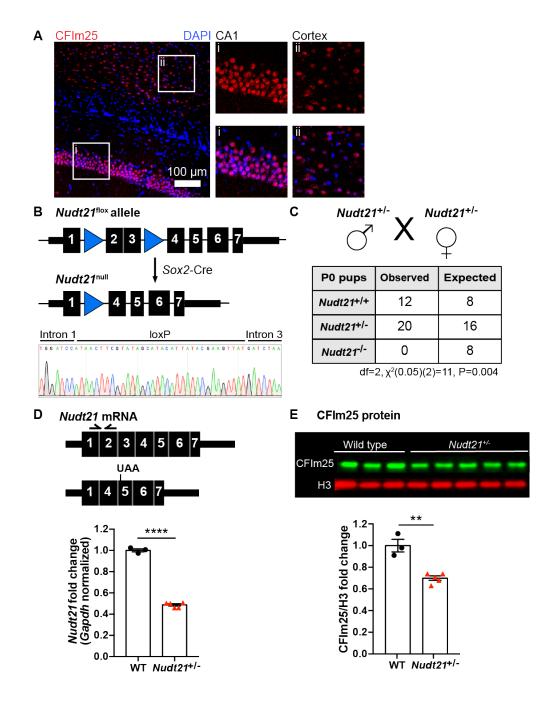
255

256

follow the trends seen in cancer cell lines: NUDT21 loss of function in neurons causes widespread 3' UTR shortening and increased protein levels (*Figure 4D & E*). **DISCUSSION** Here we show that a partial loss of *Nudt21* function causes learning deficits and cortical hyperexcitability in mice. Further, we show that partial loss of NUDT21 function broadly disrupts gene expression in human neurons via widespread misregulated alternative polyadenylation and protein levels. Alongside our previous discovery that patients with NUDT21-spanning deletions have intellectual disability and gnomAD data that NUDT21 is a highly constrained gene, our results provide strong evidence that partial loss of NUDT21 function causes intellectual disability (Gennarino et al., 2015; Lek et al., 2016). Because a relatively small reduction in CFIm25 protein was sufficient to cause deficits, these data suggest that individuals with missense variants in NUDT21 that affect its function may also have intellectual disability. Moreover, duplications of NUDT21, which we previously showed are associated with ID, should lead to comparable dysregulation of alternative polyadenylation and protein levels, including reduced MeCP2, and thus cause disease (Gennarino et al., 2015). Beyond providing insight into NUDT21-associated disease, these data provide useful perspectives on the broader field of pediatric neurodevelopmental disease research. They illustrate the importance of protein-level homeostasis. A mere 30% reduction in CFIm25 protein was sufficient to cause learning deficits in mice, and mice are neurologically less sensitive to genetic insult than humans (Tan and Zoghbi, 2018). Further, many genes associated with neurodevelopmental diseases encode proteins that regulate or affect transcription (Rubeis et al.,

2014; Vissers et al., 2015; Yin and Schaaf, 2017). NUDT21 provides another layer to this family of genes insofar as it broadly affects alternative polyadenylation and protein levels. As a group, these genes demonstrate how a partial loss or gain of function can result in large effects, and further show that neurons are particularly sensitive to protein-level disequilibrium.

Lastly, while the observed 50% increase of MeCP2 protein likely contributes to the symptoms seen in the NUDT21 CNV patients, the transcriptional dysregulation in neurons following NUDT21 loss is so widespread that there are probably other CFIm25 targets that mediate the patients' condition. Most likely, patient symptoms result from the additive effects of numerous misregulated genes, including the dozens that are ID associated. This then points to normalization of CFIm25 levels as the most viable molecular therapeutic strategy for treating this disease.



272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

Figure 1. Nudt21 heterozygotes have 50% less Nudt21 mRNA in their brains, but only 30% reduced CFIm25 protein. (A) Immunofluorescence showing CFIm25 expression in the (i) mouse hippocampus and (ii) cortex. (B) Schematic of the floxed and recombined Nudt21 alleles (top), and sequencing showing successful recombination (bottom). (C) Observed and expected offspring counts born with each possible genotype from *Nudt21*^{+/-} mating pairs. No homozygous Nudt21 null offspring were born, when eight would be expected if loss of Nudt21 did not affect survival: P=0.004, analyzed by two-tailed, chi-square test. (D) Schematic of wild-type and recombined Nudt21 mRNA (top). Arrows indicate RT-qPCR primer binding sites, and UAA shows site of induced premature stop codon after recombination. RT-qPCR analysis shows expected 50% reduction of whole-brain, Gapdh-normalized, wild-type Nudt21 mRNA in fiveweek-old mice with one wild-type *Nudt21* allele and one recombined, null allele (bottom): P<0.0001, n=3-5/genotype. (E) Western blot image comparing five-week-old *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice CFIm25 protein levels with their WT littermates (top). Western blot analysis showing ~30% reduction of H3-normalized CFIm25 protein levels in Nudt21+/- mice: P=0.0012, n=3-5/genotype. We confirmed that CFIm25 does not regulate H3. For all charts, error bars indicate SEM. All data analyzed by unpaired, two-tailed t-test unless otherwise stated. **P<0.01; ****P<0.0001. Weights of the heterozygous animals are shown in *Figure 1—figure supplement* 1.

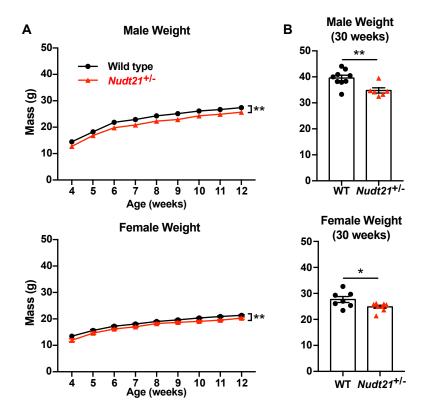


Figure 1—figure supplement 1. *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice weigh less. (A) Male (top) and female (bottom) *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice weigh less than their wild-type littermates from weening to twelve weeks: P=0.002 (males) and P=0.004 (females), analyzed by two-way repeated measures ANOVA (genotype*week). n=15-26/genotype. (B) Reduced weight persists up to at least 30 weeks in male (top) and female (bottom) *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice: P=0.008 (males) and P=0.04 (females), analyzed by unpaired, two-tailed t-test. n=6-9/genotype. Error bars indicate SEM. *P<0.05; **P<0.01.

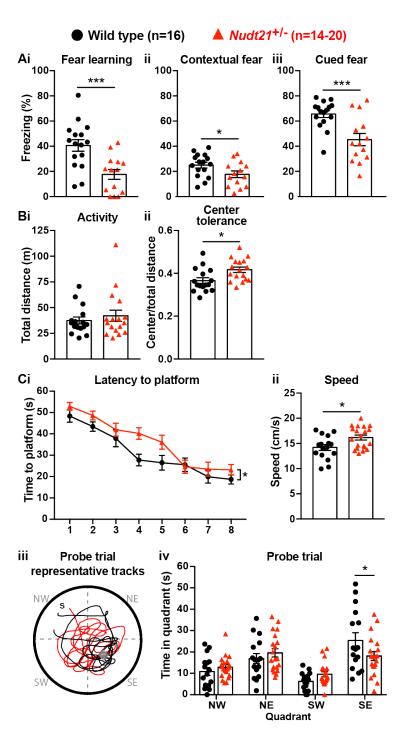


Figure 2. Partial loss of *Nudt21*-encoded CFIm25 protein causes learning deficits. (A) *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice have conditioned fear learning deficits: fear learning, P=0.0009; contextual fear, P=0.045; cued fear, P=0.0009. (B) The open field assay shows that *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice are no more active (i) but spend relatively more time in the center of the open field (ii), indicating reduced anxiety: P=0.01. (C) *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice have spatial learning deficits in the Morris water maze. (i) They take longer to find the hidden platform during the training blocks (P=0.026, two-way, repeated measures ANOVA), (ii) despite swimming faster and farther (P=0.013). (iii & iv) When the hidden platform is removed in the probe trial, they spend less time in the quadrant that previously had the platform (P=0.039, Sidak's multiple comparisons test). For all assays, mice were between 30-40 weeks of age. Error bars indicate SEM. Representative tracks are from the animal with the median result in each genotype. All data were analyzed by unpaired, two-tailed t-test unless otherwise stated. *P<0.05; ***P<0.001.

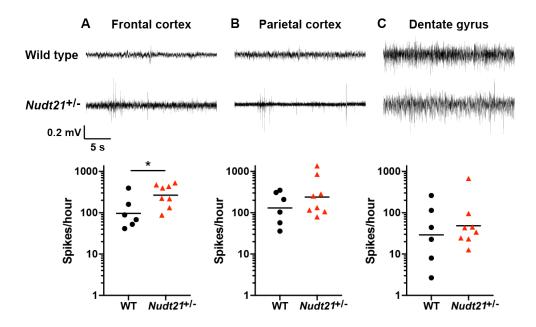
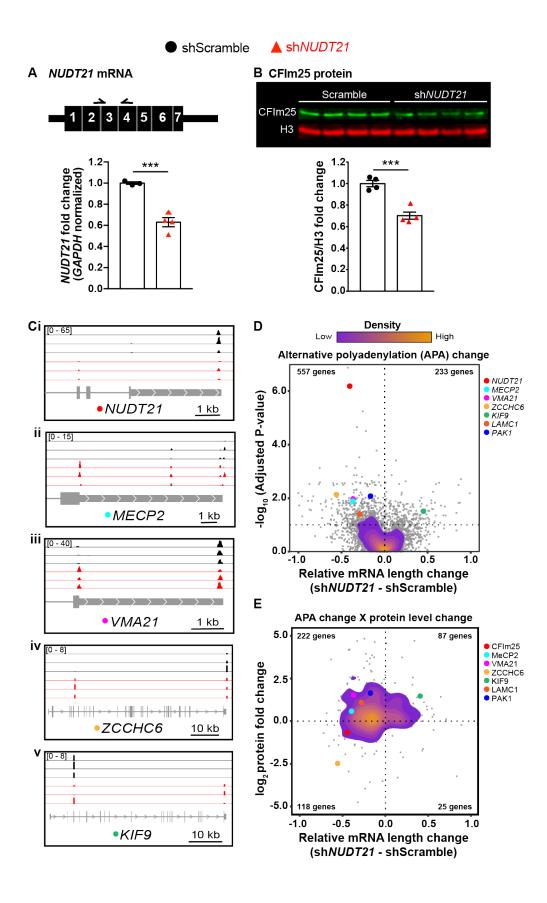


Figure 3. *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice have increased cerebral spike activity. (A) 57-week-old *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice have significantly increased spike activity in the frontal cortex by EEG (P=0.029), but not in the parietal cortex (B) and dentate gyrus (C). Representative traces are on top and spike count summaries below. All data analyzed by two-tailed Mann-Whitney test. Central tendency lines show the geometric mean. *P<0.05.



325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

Figure 4. NUDT21 depletion induces aberrant alternative polyadenylation and altered **protein levels.** (A) Schematic of *NUDT21* mRNA with qPCR primers (top) and RT-qPCR quantification of NUDT21 mRNA levels in human embryonic stem cell (ESC)-derived neurons infected with scrambled shRNA (shScramble) or shRNA targeting NUDT21 (shNUDT21). The neurons infected with sh*NUDT21* have a 40% reduction of *GAPDH*-normalized *NUDT21*: P=0.0009, n=3-4/treatment. (B) Western blot image and quantification showing a 30% reduction of H3-normalized CFIm25 protein in sh*NUDT21*-infected neurons: P=0.0005, n=4/treatment. We confirmed that CFIm25 does not regulate H3. (C) Poly(A)-ClickSeq (PAC-seq) tracks showing reduced *NUDT21* and altered alternative polyadenylation in example genes: n=3/treatment. Peaks are 3' end sequencing reads. Multiple peaks in a gene indicate multiple mRNA isoforms with different cleavage and polyadenylation sites. Bracketed numbers show counts per million; kb stands for kilobases. (D) Volcano plot showing relative mRNA length change in shNUDT21-infected neurons compared to shScramble-infected controls. The horizontal, dashed line shows Padjusted=0.1, n=3/treatment. Principle component analysis shows sample clustering by treatment: (Figure 4—figure supplement 1A) (E) Mass spectrometry quantification of protein level fold change for genes with significantly altered APA (Padjusted <0.1). For bar charts, error bars indicate SEM and data analyzed by unpaired, two-tailed t-test. ***P<0.001. Principle component analysis shows sample clustering by treatment: (*Figure 4* figure supplement 1B). Source files for the PAC-seq and mass spectrometry quantification data are available in *Figure 4*—source data 1.

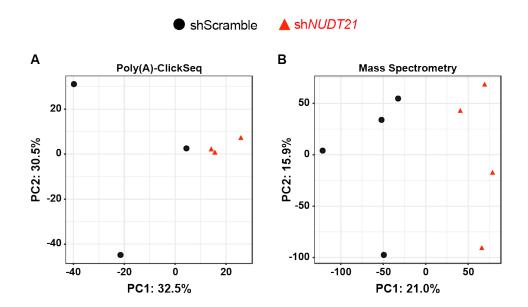


Figure 4—figure supplement 1. Control and sh*NUDT21*-infected human neurons transcriptomes and proteomes segregate by principle component analysis (PCA). (A)

Control and sh*NUDT21*-infected human neurons segregate by principle component 1 (PC1) of differentially expressed genes. Principle components (%): 32.5, 30.5, 16.9, 11.2, 8.8, 0. (B)

Control and sh*NUDT21*-infected human neurons segregate by PC1 of protein levels. Principle components (%): 21, 15.9, 15.3, 13.6, 12.4, 11.1, 10.6, 0.

Figure 4—source data 1. RNA length and protein level changes in genes with misregulated APA following neuronal *NUDT21* inhibition. Likelihood ratio (lr), degrees of freedom (df), fold change (FC).

Supplemental data 1. Intellectual disability associations of genes with misregulated APA following neuronal *NUDT21* **inhibition.** Probability of loss of function intolerance (pLI), intellectual disability (ID), Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM), autosomal recessive (AR), autosomal dominant (AD), X-linked dominant (XLD), X-linked recessive (XLR)

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

METHODS Generation of *Nudt21*^{+/-} mice The Baylor College of Medicine Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee approved all mouse care and manipulation (IACUC, protocol AN-1013). We generated C57BL/6J Nudt21^{flox/flox} mice by inserting loxP sites flanking exons 2 and 3 of Nudt21 by homologous recombination in embryonic stem cells (Ozgene) (Weng et al., 2019). We then crossed male Nudt21^{flox/flox} mice with female C57BL/6J Sox2-Cre hemizygous mice to obtain Nudt21^{+/-} mice. All oocytes from Sox2-Cre hemizygous females have Cre and can induce cre/lox recombination, even those haploid oocytes that do not have the Cre transgene (Hayashi et al., 2002). We confirmed successful cre/lox recombination by Sanger sequencing. To eliminate potential confounding from recombination mosaicism, we first crossed the Nudt21^{+/-} F1 generation with wild-type C57BL/6J mice (Jackson Lab) before establishing mating pairs with F2s to generate experimental cohorts **Immunofluorescence** We dissected then hemisected brains from three seven-week-old Nudt21^{flox/flox} C57BL/6J mice and drop-fixed their brains in 4% PFA overnight with gentle rocking at 4°C. After fixation, we cryoprotected the brains by gentle rocking in 30% sucrose solution in PBS at 4°C until the tissue sank. We then froze the brains in OCT, cryosected 40µm sections, and stored them at 4°C. For immunolabeling, we first blocked free-floating sections in 5% normal goat serum, 0.5% Triton-X in PBS for one hour at room temperature. We then incubated the sections in CFIm25

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

primary antibody (1:50, Proteintech 10322-1-AP) in blocking buffer overnight at 4°C, followed by three washes and Alexa Fluor 488 (1:1000, Molecular Probes) secondary antibody incubation for two hours at room temperature. Lastly, we labeled the nuclei with DAPI (1:10,000) and mounted the sections with Vectashield. We used a Leica TCS SP5 confocal microscope for imaging and ImageJ Fiji for image processing. We confirmed the specificity of the CFIm25 antibody with siNUDT21 knockdown in HeLa cells. RT-qPCR RNA extraction: We dissected and hemisected the brains of five-week-old Nudt21^{+/-} mice and their wild-type littermates. We immediately flash froze them in liquid nitrogen and stored them temporarily at -80°C. We later homogenized the half brains in TRIzol Reagent (ThermoFisher Scientific) with the Polytron PT 10-35 GT (Kinematica). We then isolated the RNA by chloroform phase separation, precipitated it with 2-propanol, and washed it with 75% ethanol. We eluted the purified RNA in water. We extracted RNA from shRNA-infected, human ESC-derived neurons in a 12-well plate: 4 wells non-silencing scrambled (RHS4348) and 8 wells shNUDT21 (V2LHS 253272 and V2LHS 197948) (Dharmacon). We lysed the neurons in the tissue-culture plate with TRIzol Reagent (ThermoFisher Scientific) and immediately transferred the lysate to microfuge tubes for trituration. We then isolated the RNA by chloroform phase separation, precipitation with 2propanol, washing with 75% ethanol, and eluting in water as with the mice.

405 RT-qPCR: We synthesized first-strand cDNA with M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Life 406 Technologies), and performed qPCR with PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (ThermoFisher 407 Scientific) using the CFX96 Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad). We designed exon-408 spanning primers using the UCSC genome browser mm10 and hg38 assemblies 409 (http://genome.ucsc.edu/) (Kent et al., 2002), and Primer3 (http://bioinfo.ut.ee/primer3/) 410 (Koressaar and Remm, 2007; Untergasser et al., 2012). We performed all RT-qPCR reactions in 411 triplicate and determined relative cDNA levels by NUDT21 threshold cycle (Ct) normalized to 412 GAPDH Ct using the delta Ct method: relative expression (RQ) = 2^{-1} (NUDT21 average Ct -413 GAPDH average Ct). We present the data from human neurons infected with shRNA clone 414 V2LHS 253272 because we used it for the PAC-seq experiment. We analyzed the data by two-415 tailed, unpaired t-test, and present it as mean \pm SEM. *, **, ***, and **** denote P<0.05, 416 P<0.01, P<001, P<0.0001. 417 418 **Primers** 419 Nudt21: 420 Forward: 5'- TACATCCAGCAGACCAAGCC - 3' 421 Reverse: 5'- AATCTGGCTGCAACAGAGCT - 3' 422 423 *Gapdh*: 424 Forward: 5'- GGCATTGCTCTCAATGACAA - 3' 425 Reverse: 5'- CCCTGTTGCTGTAGCCGTAT - 3' 426 427 *NUDT21*:

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

Forward: 5'- CTTCAAACTACCTGGTGGTG - 3' Reverse: 5'- AAACTCCATCCTGACGACC - 3' *GAPDH*: Forward: 5'- CGACCACTTTGTCAAGCTCA - 3' Reverse: 5'- TTACTCCTTGGAGGCCATGT - 3' Western blot Protein extraction: For the mice, we dissected and hemisected the brains of five-week-old Nudt21^{+/-} mice and their wild-type littermates. We immediately flash froze them in liquid nitrogen and stored them temporarily at -80°C. We later homogenized the half brains with the Polytron PT 10-35 GT (Kinematica) in lysis buffer: 2% SDS in 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.5, with protease and phosphatase inhibitors (ThermoFisher Scientific) and universal nuclease (Pierce). We incubated the lysates on ice for ten minutes, then rotated them for 20 minutes at room temperature. We spun the samples at top speed for 20 minutes to remove membrane, then quantified the protein levels with the Pierce Protein BCA Assay kit (ThermoFisher Scientific). For the ESC-derived neurons infected with shRNA targeting NUDT21, our extraction protocol was similar, except we lysed them directly in their 12-well plate and rocked them for 20 minutes at room temperature. Western blot: We diluted the protein to 1 µg/µL in reducing buffer (LDS and sample reducing agent (ThermoFisher Scientific)) and ran 10 µg/sample. We imaged the membranes with the LI-COR Odyssey and analyzed the data with LI-COR Image Studio (LI-COR Biosciences),

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

comparing H3-normalized CFIm25 levels. We confirmed the specificity of the CFIm25 antibody by shNUDT21 knockdown in HEK293T cells. We present the data from human neurons infected with shRNA clone V2LHS 253272 because we used it for the PAC-seq experiment. We analyzed the data by two-tailed, unpaired t-test, and present it as mean \pm SEM. *, **, ***, and **** denote P<0.05, P<0.01, P<001, P<0.0001. Antibodies: CFIm25: NUDT21 (2203C3): sc81109 (Santa Cruz) H3: Histone H3 (D1H2) XP (Cell Signaling Technology) Mouse husbandry and handling The Baylor College of Medicine Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee approved all mouse care and manipulation (IACUC, protocol AN-1013). We housed the mice in an AAALAS-certified level three facility on a 14-hour light cycle. The mice had ad libitum access to standard chow and water. We weighed a cohort of mice weekly from 4-12 weeks and a different cohort at 30 weeks. We tested both male and females in all experiments and only present the weight data separately because we never otherwise detected a difference between them. We were blinded to the mice's genotype during all handling. Genotyping We determined the mice's genotypes by PCR amplification of tail lysates. Primers:

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

Nudt21^{null} Forward: 5'- ACAGATTAGCTGTTAGTACAGG - 3' Reverse: 5'- GAAGAACCAGAGGAAACGTGAG - 3' Wild-type *Nudt21* Forward: 5'- AGGAGGCTGACATGGATTGTT - 3' Reverse: 5'- TCTTCTCCTGGGTTAAGTTCCC - 3' **Behavioral tests** Because neurodevelopmental disease loss-of-function mouse models typically have more pronounced phenotypes when they are older, we started our behavioral battery on 30-week-old mice. We performed the assays on two cohorts. We tested the mice during their light cycle, typically between 11 AM and 5 PM. Prior to each assay, we habituated the mice to the testing facility for 30-60 minutes. The investigators were blind to the mice's genotypes during all assays. Conditioned fear We first habituate the mice for 30 minutes in an adjacent room on each day of the test. On day one, we conditioned the mice by placing them in the habitest operant cage (Coulbourn) for a training session. The training consists of two minutes habituation, then a 30 second 85 dB tone followed by a foot shock of 1.0 mA for two seconds. After another two minutes, the 30 second 85 dB tone is played again (the training day cue). Throughout the experiment, except for the two seconds during the foot shock, the FreezeFrame3 system (Coulbourn/Actimetrics) recorded the

mice's movement and freezing episodes. On day two, we performed the contextual and cued fear assays. For contextual fear, we returned the mice to the test chambers precisely as we had done during the training, and recorded their freezing in the chamber for five minutes. We waited two hours before beginning the cued fear assay. We first changed the holding cages and test chamber shape, color, texture, scent, and lighting to make the experience as unrecognizable as possible to the mice. We then placed them in the modified chamber, and after three minutes played the 30 second 85 dB tone, then recorded their freezing for the following three minutes. We analyzed the difference in freezing between the two groups after the second sound cue (training cue) on day one, throughout the contextual fear test, and after the sound cue in the cued fear test, each by unpaired, two-tailed t-test. We excluded data for all the mice from one contextual fear trial. We suspect there was a technical error in the collection of those data: the FreezeFrame3 system recorded them as freezing far more than the mice in any other trial (50-80%) and two of the three were significant outliers in the Grubbs test.

Open field

We lit the room to 200 lux and set the ambient white noise to 60 dB during habituation and throughout the test. We placed each mouse in the open field, a 40 x 40 x 30 cm chamber equipped with photobeams (Accuscan Instruments), and recorded their activity for 30 minutes. We analyzed total distance and center tolerance (center distance/total distance) by unpaired, two-tailed t-test.

Morris water maze

Our Morris water maze experiment took pl ace in a 120 cm diameter pool of water. We hid a 10 cm X 10 cm platform 0.5-1 cm underwater in the Southeast quadrant. On each wall of the testing room, we taped brightly colored shapes that the mice can use for orientation. Our experiment spanned four days. Each day, we set the lighting to 60 lux and habituated the mice in the testing room in their home cages for 30 minutes, then ten minutes in holding cages. Prior to the first day's experiment, we introduced the mice to the invisible platform by placing them on it for ten seconds. We next pulled the mice into the water and let them swim for ten seconds to ensure they could swim, then placed them directly in front of the platform to confirm they could climb back on to it. We tested the mice in two training blocks per day for the four days. Each training block consisted of four trials. For each trial, we placed the mice in a different quadrant of the pool (North, South, East, or West); the quadrant order was the same for every mouse in the trial, but different for every trial. We removed the mice after they found the platform, or if they did not find that platform, we guided them to the platform to rest on it for ten seconds before removing them. We used an EthoVision XT automated video tracking system (Noldus Information Technology) to track the mice's location, speed, and latency to find the platform. After the second training block on the fourth day, we immediately performed the probe trial: we removed the platform and placed the mice in a new location, the Northwest quadrant, and tracked them for 60 seconds. We analyzed their speed by unpaired, two-tailed t-test; their latency to find the platform by two-way, repeated measures ANOVA (genotype*block); and their time in each quadrant in the probe trial by two-way, repeated-measures ANOVA (genotype*quadrant).

Animal behavior statistical analysis

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

From previous experience, we know a sample size of 14 animals is sufficient to detect meaningful phenotypic differences in a neurobehavioral battery (Chao et al., 2010; Lu et al., 2017; Samaco et al., 2012). We analyzed all the data with Prism 7 (Graphpad), following Graphpad's recommendations. We used unpaired, two-tailed t-tests for all simple comparisons, and two-way repeated measures ANOVAs for all two-factor comparisons. We present all data as mean \pm SEM. *, **, ***, and **** denote P<0.05, P<0.01, P<0.001, P<0.0001. Video electroencephalography (EEG) and spike counting Surgery and data recordings: The Baylor College of Medicine Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee approved all research and animal care procedures. We tested eight Nudt21^{+/-} mice and six wild-type littermate controls. Experimenters were blind to the mouse genotype. We secured 54-week-old mice on a stereotaxic frame (David Kopf) under 1-2% isoflurane anesthesia. Each mouse was prepared under aseptic condition for the following recordings: the cortical EEG recording electrodes of Channels 1 and 2 were made of Teflon-coated silver wires (bare diameter 127 µm, A-M systems) and implanted in the subdural space of the parietal cortex and frontal cortex, respectively, with reference at the midline over the cerebellum. The electrode of the third channel, made of Teflon-coated tungsten wire (bare diameter 50 µm, A-M systems) was stereotaxically aimed at the hippocampal dentate gyrus (1.9 mm posterior, 1.7 mm lateral, and 1.8 mm below the bregma) with reference in the ipsilateral corpus callosum (Paxinos and Franklin, 2001). In addition, Teflon-coated silver wires were used to record the electromyogram (EMG) in the neck muscles to monitor mouse activity. All of the electrode wires together with the attached miniature connector sockets were fixed on the skull by dental cement. After two weeks of post-surgical recovery, mice received three two-hour sessions of EEG/EMG recordings

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

over a week. Signals were amplified (100x) and filtered (bandpass, 0.1 Hz - 1 kHz) with the 1700 Differential AC Amplifier (A-M Systems), then digitized at two kHz and stored on disk for off-line analysis (DigiData 1440A and pClamp10, Molecular Devices). The time-locked mouse behavior was recorded by ANY-maze tracking system (Stoelting Co.). EEG data analysis: Abnormal synchronous discharges were manually identified when the sharp positive deflections exceeding twice the baseline and lasting 25-100 ms (Roberson et al., 2011). We counted the number of abnormal spikes over the recording period using Clampfit 10 software (Molecular Devices, LLC) and averaged the spike numbers across sessions for each animal. Since the data follow a lognormal distribution, we statistically compared the genotypes with the Mann-Whitney test using Prism 7 (Graphpad). The measure of central tendency is the geometric mean and * indicates P<0.05. shRNA lentivirus production and titer assessment Virus production. We made several viruses that express shRNAs targeting NUDT21. We transfected 45 ug DNA into 80%-90% confluent, low-passage HEK293T cells (ATCC CRL-3216; RRID:CVCL 0063) in 150 mm dishes at a 4:3:1 ratio of pGIPz, psPAX2, pMD2.G with TransIT-293 transfection reagent (Mirus, MIR 2706). The following day, we changed the media to 10 mL. At 48 and 72 hours, we collected and pooled their media, then centrifuged at 4000 x g for ten minutes and filtered the supernatant through a Poly-ethersulfone filter (VWR, 28145-505) to remove cellular debris. We concentrated the virus 100-fold with Lenti-X concentrator (Clontech, 631231) following the manufacturer's recommendations before aliquoting and freezing at -80C.

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

Titer assessment. We measured the viral titer using Open Biosystems pGIPZ method (Thermo Fisher Scientific). We plated 5 X 10⁴ HEK293T cells in a 24-well plate. The following day, we made a serial dilution of the virus in a 96-well plate, and when the HEK293T cells reached ~50% confluency, we infected them with the diluted virus. We cultured the cells for two days, then counted the tGFP colonies with Axiovert 25 microscope (Zeiss) microscope X-cite 120 lamp (ExFo) to determine the viral titer. Our viruses had 10⁹ transducing units/mL. Confirmation Compared to non-silencing scrambled control virus (RHS4348, Dharmacon), we confirmed NUDT21 knockdown efficacy in HEK293T cells (ATCC CRL-3216; RRID:CVCL 0063), and selected the two most efficient shRNAs for our studies: V2LHS 197948 and V2LHS 253272 (Dharmacon). Human embryonic stem cell (hESC)-derived neuron culture We used WA09 (H9; RRID:CVCL 9773) female embryonic stem cells (ESCs) to generate human neurons as previously described (Jiang et al., 2019). We differentiated neural progenitors into human neurons over three weeks, changing the media every 3 d. Afterwards, we passaged the neurons with trypsin. Three days after passaging, we infected the neurons with lentiviruses containing pGIPZ shRNA clones at a multiplicity of infection of 10. We verified the tropism and infectivity of the virus using the tGFP reporter signal. At day 3 after infection, we treated the neurons with puromycin (0.75–1.25 g/ml) for 6 days to select for infected cells. We cultured the

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

cells for 60 days after infection, changing the media three times per week. We then aspirated all the media and washed the cells with PBS before freezing them at -80C for later RNA and protein extraction. Poly(A) click-seq RNA extraction We extracted RNA from shRNA-infected, human ESC-derived neurons in a 12-well plate: 4 wells non-silencing scrambled (RHS4348) and 8 wells shNUDT21 (V2LHS 253272 and V2LHS 197948) (Dharmacon). We know from past experience that we need at least three samples for RNA- and PAC-seq analysis (Elrod et al., 2019; Maio et al., 2018; Routh et al., 2017; Tan et al., 2016). We prepared four samples per genotype to allow for loss of one sample. We lysed the neurons in the tissue-culture plate with TRIzol Reagent (ThermoFisher Scientific) and immediately transferred the lysate to microfuge tubes for trituration. We then isolated the RNA by chloroform phase separation, precipitation with 2-propanol, washing with 75% ethanol, and eluting in water. Library preparation and sequencing We prepared sequencing libraries as previously described (Routh et al., 2017). We reverse transcribed 1 ug of total RNA with the partial P7 adapter (Illumina 4N 21T) and dNTPs with the addition of spiked-in azido-nucleotides (AzVTPs) at 5:1. We click-ligated the p5 adapter (IDT) to the 5' end of the cDNA with CuAAC. We then amplified the cDNA for 21 cycles with Universal primer and 3' indexing primer and purified it on a 2% agarose gel by extracting

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

amplicon from 200-300 base pairs. We pooled the libraries and sequenced single-end, 75 basepair reads on a Nextseq 550 (Illumina). P7 adapter (Illumina 4N 21T): P5 adapter (IDT): 5'HexynylNNNNAGATCGGAAGAGCGTCGTGTAGGGAAAGAGTGTAGATCTCGGTGGTCGCCGTATCATT Universal primer: AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAG Example 3' indexing primer: CAAGCAGAAGACGCATACGAGATCGTGATGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGT PAC-seq data analysis We sequenced each library to a depth of ~20 million, 75 base pair (bp), single-end reads. For each sample, we obtained raw reads in a zipped fastq format. We used fastp for initial quality control (Chen et al., 2018). We filtered adapter contamination (AGATCGGAAGAGC) using the -a option. We trimmed the first 6 nucleotides and any PolyG tail nucleotides with the -f and -g options. And removed reads shorter than 40 nucleotides (nt) after trimming, using the -1 option.

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

674

675

676

677

Read alignment We downloaded raw FASTA sequences and annotations of the Human genome build GRCh38 from the UCSC table browser tool (Karolchik et al., 2004), and aligned trimmed reads to the reference genome with Bowtie 2 version 2.2.6 with parameters: -D 20 -R 3 -N 0 -L 20 -i S,1,0.50 (very-sensitive-local) (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012). We indexed the reference genome using bowtie2-build default settings, and saved sample-wise alignments as Sequence Alignment Map (SAM) files. We then used SAMtools V0.1.19 "view", "sort" and "index" modules to convert SAM files to Binary Alignment Maps (BAM), coordinate sort, and index (Li et al., 2009). Sample quality We obtained gene level counts as the sum of total reads mapped to their respective genes. shRNA clone V2LHS 253272 gave more consistent NUDT21 knockdown, so we used those samples in our analysis. We sequenced four samples from both the control and NUDT21 knockdown conditions, but excluded one control sample with <10 million reads, and one knockdown sample with unusually low *NUDT21* levels (<2% of other knockdown samples). We then performed principle component analysis (PCA) on gene counts as previously described and confirmed that the treatment groups clustered (Figure 4—figure supplement 1A) (Yalamanchili et al., 2017). Alternative poly-adenylation (APA) analysis We computed strand-specific coverage of the features (mRNA cleavage sites) from BAM files using bedtools v2.25.0 (Quinlan and Hall, 2010) "genomecov" module. We pooled sample-wise feature files to get a comprehensive list of polyadenylation (p(A)) sites across all the samples.

679

680

681

682

683

684

685

686

687

688

689

690

691

692

693

694

695

696

697

698

699

700

We merged overlapping features and features within 15 nucleotides using the bedtools "merge" module. We mapped features to genes if they were within the gene body or within 16 kilobases (kb) downstream of the annotated transcription end site and do not overlap with any other gene. which is far enough to detect the longest known 3'UTRs (Miura et al., 2013; Quinlan and Hall, 2010). We then mapped these features to known, annotated human polyadenylation sites downloaded from PolyA DB3 (Wang et al., 2017). Because the annotations were in the hg19 coordinate system, we converted them to the GRCh38 coordinate system with the liftOver program from the UCSC genome browser portal. With a read length of 75 nucleotides, we may not have reached the actual cleavage sites. Thus, each annotated polyadenylation site was considered a 70-nucleotide feature for mapping our features to annotated p(A) sites. Our features that did not overlap with at least 1 bp of any of the annotated p(A) sites were considered novel p(A) sites. For calling novel p(A) sites, we used a sliding window approach to filter out any potential misprimed sites, i.e. potential cleavage sites where the poly-d(T) reverse transcription primer bound genomic adenines in the body of the mRNA rather than the poly(A) tail. We filtered out features with more than 12 genomic adenines in a 20 bp window 10 nt up- and 50 nt downstream of the potential cleavage site. We quantified resultant novel and annotated p(A) sites across all samples using featureCounts (Liao et al., 2013). To minimize potential bias from under-covered p(A) sites, we retained only features with at least 5 reads in two samples and 1 read in the remaining sample in either of the conditions. We also filtered out p(A) sites accounting for less than 10% of the reads mapped to a

gene in both the control and *NUDT21* knockdown conditions. We considered genes with mean read counts <5 in either condition not expressed and so excluded them.

Because about half of genes that undergo APA have greater than two p(A) sites, we wanted to use a statistic that could account for changes in all of the p(A) sites (Derti et al., 2012). Thus, we identified changes in alternative polyadenylation site usage using the Dirichlet multinomial test in the DRIMSeq package, and computed adjusted p-values as previously described (Nowicka and Robinson, 2016; Zhao et al., 2013). We quantified the magnitude and direction of change in polyadenylation site usage as an mRNA lengthening score. We summed the weighted read counts per million (cpm) from each p(A) site in a gene to get that gene's mRNA length score.

We assigned the weights in decreasing order from the most distal p(A) site as below:

$$W_i = 1 - \left(\left(\frac{1}{NS - 1} \right) (i - 1) \right)$$

where W_i is the weight of i^{th} distal polyadenylation site of a gene and NS is the of total number of polyadenylation sites mapped to it. Thus, in a gene with 3 p(A) sites, the cpm at the most promoter-distal site would all be counted (weight of 1) in the length score, the cpm at the intermediate site would be weighted by 0.5, and the cpm at the proximal site would not be counted (weight of 0). We then averaged the scores across samples and took the difference of treated to controls for the relative mRNA length change.

Disease association determination

For the probability of loss of function intolerance (pLI) of all the genes, we used gnomAD (Lek et al., 2016). In addition, we cross-referenced the misregulated genes with published genetic studies to see which were known to cause intellectual disability when mutated, then looked to the

725

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

735

736

737

738

739

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM) database to see if the pathological variants were dominant or recessive (OMIM, 2019; Vissers et al., 2015). Mass spectrometry We processed, measured, and analyzed the sample as previously described (Saltzman et al., 2018). We summarize the main steps below. Lysis and Digestion We pelleted and lysed the shRNA-infected human neurons with three freeze (LN2) and thaw (42°C) cycles in 50 μL of ammonium bicarbonate + 1mM CaCl₂. We then boiled the lysate at 95°C for two minutes with vortexing at 20 second intervals, and then centrifugation at 21,000 rcf. We digested 50 µg of total protein with a 1:20 solution of 1 µg/µL trypsin:protein overnight at 37°C with shaking and then again with a 1:100 solution of 1 μg/μL trypsin:protein for 4 hours. We extracted the peptides with 80% acetonitrile + 0.1% formic acid solution, followed by centrifugation at 10,000 g, and vacuum drying. Off-Line Basic pH Reverse Phase Peptide Fractionation A "15F5R" protocol was used for off-line fractionation as described before (Saltzman et al., 2018). We filled a 200 μl pipette tip with 6 mg of C18 matrix (Reprosil-Pur Basic C18, 3 μm, Dr. Maisch GmbH) on top of a C18 disk plug (EmporeTM C18, 3M). We dissolved 50 µg of vacuum-dried peptides with 150 µl of pH10 ABC buffer and loaded it onto the pre-equilibrated C18 tip. We eluted bound peptides with fifteen 2%-step 2-30% gradient of ACN noncontiguously combined into five pools, and then vacuum dried.

748

749

750

751

752

753

754

755

756

757

758

759

760

761

762

763

764

765

766

767

768

769

Mass Spectrometry We analyzed fractionated peptides on an Orbitrap Fusion mass spectrometer coupled with the Nanospray Flex ion sources and an UltiMate 3000 UPHLC (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For each run, we loaded approximately one microgram of peptide onto a two cm 100 μm ID pre-column and resolved it on a twelve cm 100 µm ID column, both packed with sub-twi µm C18 beads (Reprosil-Pur Basic C18, Catalog #r119.b9.0003, Dr. Maisch GmbH). We maintained a constant flow rate for 100-minute 2-28% B gradient elutions, where A is water and B is 90% acetonitrile, both with 0.1% formic acid. Proteome Discoverer (Mascot-based) Search and Protein Inference/Quantification We used the Proteome Discoverer software suite (PD version 2.0.0.802; Thermo Fisher Scientific) to search the raw files with the Mascot search engine (v2.5.1, Matrix Science), validate peptides with Percolator (v2.05), and provide MS1 quantification through Area Detector Module (Käll et al., 2007; Perkins et al., 1999). We matched MS1 precursors in a 350-10,000 mass range against the tryptic RefProtDB database digest (2015-06-10 download) with Mascot permitting up to 2 missed cleavage sites (without cleavage before P), a precursor mass tolerance of 20 ppm, and a fragment mass tolerance of 0.5 Da. We allowed the following dynamic modifications: Acetyl (Protein N-term), Oxidation (M), Carbamidomethyl (C), DeStreak (C), and Deamidated (NQ). For the Percolator module, we set the target strict and relaxed FDRs for PSMs at 0.01 and 0.05 (1% and 5%), respectively. We used gpGrouper (v1.0.040) for gene product inference and label-free iBAQ quantification with shared peptide distribution.

771

772

773

774

775

776

777

778

779

780

781

782

783

784

785

786

787

788

789

790

791

Data Normalization Because *NUDT21* inhibition consistently increases protein levels across the proteome, normalizing to total protein levels in each sample would introduce bias. Instead, we normalized each sample to a group of ~20 consistently expressed genes that we know are not directly regulated by NUDT21 from the PAC-seq data. Analysis We performed a PCA as previously described to confirm that the treatment groups separated (Figure 4—figure supplement 1B) (Yalamanchili et al., 2017). We then computed protein level changes as log₂ fold change values and plotted them against their relative mRNA length change (Figure 4E). Data availability The PAC-seq data are available in the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus, accession number GSE135384. The analysis code can be found at http://liuzlab.org/iNeuron PACSeq.zip. The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD014842 (Perez-Riverol et al., 2018). **ETHICS** For animal experimentation, we housed up to five mice per cage on a 12-hour light cycle in a level 3, AALAS-certified facility and provided water and standard rodent chow ad libitum. The

793

794

795

796

797

798

799

800

801

802

803

804

805

806

807

808

809

810

811

812

813

814

815

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee for Baylor College of Medicine and Affiliates approved all procedures carried out in mice under protocol AN-1013. **ACKOWLEDGEMENTS** We would like to thank the Zoghbi and Wagner lab members for critical feedback, particularly Nathan Elrod for his suggestions on analyzing the PAC-seq data. We would also like to thank the cores that provided services for the project: the Microscopy, Neuroconnectivity, Animal Behavior, and Human Neuronal Differentiation cores from the Jan and Dan Duncan Neurological Research Institute and BCM Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities Research Center (NIH U54 HD083092 from the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development); the Next Generation Sequencing core at the University of Texas Medical Branch; and BCM Mass Spectrometry Core (supported by NIH P30 CA125123 and CPRIT RP170005). Lastly, we would like to thank our funders who made the work possible: the NIH National Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke—F30NS095449 (CEA), the Howard Hughes Medical Institute (HYZ), and the Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities Research Center—NIH U54 HD083092 from the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (HYZ). The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not represent the official views of the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, the National Institutes of Health, or the Howard Hughes Medical Institute. **REFERENCEES** Amendola E, Zhan Y, Mattucci C, Castroflorio E, Calcagno E, Fuchs C, Lonetti G, Silingardi D, Vyssotski AL, Farley D, Ciani E, Pizzorusso T, Giustetto M, Gross CT. 2014. Mapping Pathological Phenotypes in a Mouse Model

817818

819

820821

822

823824

825

826

827828

829

830

831832

833834

835

836837

838

839 840

841

842843

844

845

846847

848

849

850851

852

of CDKL5 Disorder. Plos One 9:e91613. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0091613 Amir RE, den Veyver IB, Wan M, Tran CQ, Francke U, Zoghbi HY. 1999. Rett syndrome is caused by mutations in X-linked MECP2, encoding methyl-CpG-binding protein 2. Nature Genetics 23:185–188. doi:10.1038/13810 Brown KM, Gilmartin GM. 2003. A Mechanism for the Regulation of Pre-mRNA 3' Processing by Human Cleavage Factor Im. Mol Cell 12:1467–1476. doi:10.1016/s1097-2765(03)00453-2 Brumbaugh J, Stefano B, Wang X, Borkent M, Forouzmand E, Clowers KJ, Ji F, Schwarz BA, Kalocsay M, Elledge SJ, Chen Y, Sadreyev RI, Gygi SP, Hu G, Shi Y, Hochedlinger K. 2018. Nudt21 Controls Cell Fate by Connecting Alternative Polyadenylation to Chromatin Signaling. Cell 172. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2017.11.023 Chao H-T, Chen H, Samaco RC, Xue M, Chahrour M, Yoo J, Neul JL, Gong S, Lu H-C, Heintz N, Ekker M, Rubenstein JL, Noebels JL, Rosenmund C, Zoghbi HY. 2010. Dysfunction in GABA signalling mediates autismlike stereotypies and Rett syndrome phenotypes. Nature 468:263–269. doi:10.1038/nature09582 Chao H-T, Zoghbi HY. 2012. MeCP2: only 100% will do. Nature Neuroscience 15:176-177. doi:10.1038/nn.3027 Chen S, Zhou Y, Chen Y, Gu J. 2018. fastp: an ultra-fast all-in-one FASTQ preprocessor. Bioinform Oxf Engl 34:i884-i890. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bty560 Crawley JN. 1985. Exploratory behavior models of anxiety in mice. Neurosci Biobehav Rev 9:37-44. doi:10.1016/0149-7634(85)90030-2 Derti A, Garrett-Engele P, MacIsaac KD, Stevens RC, ram S, Chen R, Rohl CA, Johnson JM, Babak T. 2012. A quantitative atlas of polyadenylation in five mammals. Genome Res 22:1173–1183. doi:10.1101/gr.132563.111 Elrod NR, Jaworski EA, Ji P, Wagner EJ, Routh A. 2019. Development of Poly(A)-ClickSeq as a Tool Enabling Simultaneous Genome-wide Poly(A)-site identification and Differential Expression Analysis. Methods. doi:10.1016/j.ymeth.2019.01.002 Firth HV, Richards SM, Bevan PA, Clayton S, Corpas M, Rajan D, Vooren S, Moreau Y, Pettett RM, Carter NP. 2009. DECIPHER: Database of Chromosomal Imbalance and Phenotype in Humans Using Ensembl Resources. The American Journal of Human Genetics 84:524–533. doi:10.1016/j.ajhg.2009.03.010 Frischmeyer PA, van Hoof A, O'Donnell K, Guerrerio AL, Parker R, Dietz HC. 2002. An mRNA Surveillance Mechanism That Eliminates Transcripts Lacking Termination Codons. Science 295:2258–2261.

854855

856

857

858

859860

861

862863

864

865866

867

868869

870

871872

873

874

875876

877

878

879880

881

882

883 884

885

886 887

888

889

doi:10.1126/science.1067338 Gennarino VA, Alcott CE, Chen C-AA, Chaudhury A, Gillentine MA, Rosenfeld JA, Parikh S, Wheless JW, Roeder ER, Horovitz DD, Roney EK, Smith JL, Cheung SW, Li W, Neilson JR, Schaaf CP, Zoghbi HY. 2015. NUDT21spanning CNVs lead to neuropsychiatric disease and altered MeCP2 abundance via alternative polyadenylation. eLife 4. doi:10.7554/eLife.10782 Gruber AR, Martin G, Keller W, Zavolan M. 2012. Cleavage factor Im is a key regulator of 3' UTR length. RNA biology 9:1405-12. doi:10.4161/rna.22570 Guvenek A, Tian B. 2018. Analysis of alternative cleavage and polyadenylation in mature and differentiating neurons using RNA-seq data. Quantitative Biology 1-14. doi:10.1007/s40484-018-0148-3 Hayashi S, Lewis P, Pevny L, McMahon AP. 2002. Efficient gene modulation in mouse epiblast using a Sox2Cre transgenic mouse strain. Mech Develop 119:S97-S101. doi:10.1016/s0925-4773(03)00099-6 Hoque M, Ji Z, Zheng D, Luo W, Li W, You B, Park J, Yehia G, Tian B. 2013. Analysis of alternative cleavage and polyadenylation by 3' region extraction and deep sequencing. Nature Methods 10:133. doi:10.1038/nmeth.2288 Ji Z, Lee J, Pan Z, Jiang B, Tian B. 2009. Progressive lengthening of 3' untranslated regions of mRNAs by alternative polyadenylation during mouse embryonic development. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 106:7028-7033. doi:10.1073/pnas.0900028106 Jiang X, Zhang C, Chen J, Choi S, Zhou Y, Zhao M, Song X, Chen X, Maletić-Savatić M, Palzkill T, Moore D, Wang MC, Wang J. 2019. Quantitative Real-Time Imaging of Glutathione with Subcellular Resolution. Antioxid Redox Sign 30:1900-1910. doi:10.1089/ars.2018.7605 Jiang Y, Armstrong D, Albrecht U, Atkins CM, Noebels JL, Eichele G, Sweatt JD, Beaudet AL. 1998. Mutation of the Angelman Ubiquitin Ligase in Mice Causes Increased Cytoplasmic p53 and Deficits of Contextual Learning and Long-Term Potentiation. Neuron 21:799-811. doi:10.1016/s0896-6273(00)80596-6 Käll L, Canterbury JD, Weston J, Noble W, MacCoss MJ. 2007. Semi-supervised learning for peptide identification from shotgun proteomics datasets. Nat Methods 4:nmeth1113. doi:10.1038/nmeth1113 Karolchik D, Hinrichs AS, Furey TS, Roskin KM, Sugnet CW, Haussler D, Kent JW. 2004. The UCSC Table Browser data retrieval tool. Nucleic Acids Res 32:D493-D496. doi:10.1093/nar/gkh103

- Kent JW, Sugnet CW, Furey TS, Roskin KM, Pringle TH, Zahler AM, and Haussler D. 2002. The Human Genome
- 891 Browser at UCSC. Genome Research 12:996–1006. doi:10.1101/gr.229102
- Kim S, Yamamoto J, Chen Y, Aida M, Wada T, Handa H, Yamaguchi Y. 2010. Evidence that cleavage factor Im is
- a heterotetrameric protein complex controlling alternative polyadenylation. *Genes Cells* **15**:1003–1013.
- 895 doi:10.1111/j.1365-2443.2010.01436.x

896

899

903

907

910

921

- Koressaar T, Remm M. 2007. Enhancements and modifications of primer design program Primer3. *Bioinformatics*
- 898 **23**:1289–1291. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btm091
- Wriscenski-Perry E, Applegate CD, Serour A, Mhyre TR, Leonardo CC, Pearce DA. 2002. Altered Flurothyl Seizure
- Induction Latency, Phenotype, and Subsequent Mortality in a Mouse Model of Juvenile Neuronal Ceroid
- 902 Lipofuscinosis/Batten Disease. *Epilepsia* **43**:1137–1140. doi:10.1046/j.1528-1157.2002.16002.x
- Wubo T, Wada T, Yamaguchi Y, Shimizu A, Handa H. 2006. Knock-down of 25 kDa subunit of cleavage factor Im
- in Hela cells alters alternative polyadenylation within 3'-UTRs. *Nucleic Acids Research* **34**:6264–6271.
- 906 doi:10.1093/nar/gkl794
- Langmead B, Salzberg SL. 2012. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nat Methods 9:357.
- 909 doi:10.1038/nmeth.1923
- Lek M, Karczewski KJ, Minikel EV, Samocha KE, Banks E, Fennell T, O'Donnell-Luria AH, Ware JS, Hill AJ,
- 912 Cummings BB, Tukiainen T, Birnbaum DP, Kosmicki JA, Duncan LE, Estrada K, Zhao F, Zou J, Pierce-Hoffman
- E, Berghout J, Cooper DN, Deflaux N, DePristo M, Do R, Flannick J, Fromer M, Gauthier L, Goldstein J, Gupta N,
- Howrigan D, Kiezun A, Kurki MI, Moonshine A, Natarajan P, Orozco L, Peloso GM, Poplin R, Rivas MA, Ruano-
- Rubio V, Rose SA, Ruderfer DM, Shakir K, Stenson PD, Stevens C, Thomas BP, Tiao G, Tusie-Luna MT,
- Weisburd B, Won H-H, Yu D, Altshuler DM, Ardissino D, Boehnke M, Danesh J, Donnelly S, Elosua R, Florez JC,
- Gabriel SB, Getz G, Glatt SJ, Hultman CM, Kathiresan S, Laakso M, McCarroll S, McCarthy MI, McGovern D,
- McPherson R, Neale BM, Palotie A, Purcell SM, Saleheen D, harf J, Sklar P, Sullivan PF, Tuomilehto J, Tsuang
- 919 MT, Watkins HC, Wilson JG, Daly MJ, MacArthur DG, Consortium E. 2016. Analysis of protein-coding genetic
- 920 variation in 60,706 humans. *Nature* **536**:285. doi:10.1038/nature19057
- Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, Marth G, Abecasis G, Durbin R. 2009. The Sequence
- Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics* **25**:2078–2079. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btp352
- Li W, You B, Hoque M, Zheng D, Luo W, Ji Z, Park J, Gunderson SI, Kalsotra A, Manley JL, Tian B. 2015.
- 926 Systematic Profiling of Poly(A)+ Transcripts Modulated by Core 3' End Processing and Splicing Factors Reveals

- 927 Regulatory Rules of Alternative Cleavage and Polyadenylation. *PLOS Genetics* 11:e1005166.
- 928 doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1005166

932

939

943

947

950

953

957

960

- Liao Y, Smyth GK, Shi W. 2013. The Subread aligner: fast, accurate and scalable read mapping by seed-and-vote.
- 931 Nucleic Acids Res 41:e108–e108. doi:10.1093/nar/gkt214
- Lu H-CC, Tan Q, Rousseaux MW, Wang W, Kim J-YY, Richman R, Wan Y-WW, Yeh S-YY, Patel JM, Liu X, Lin
- T, Lee Y, Fryer JD, Han J, Chahrour M, Finnell RH, Lei Y, Zurita-Jimenez ME, Ahimaz P, Anyane-Yeboa K,
- 935 Maldergem L, Lehalle D, Jean-Marcais N, Mosca-Boidron A-LL, Thevenon J, Cousin MA, Bro DE, Lanpher BC,
- Klee EW, Alexander N, Bainbridge MN, Orr HT, Sillitoe RV, Ljungberg M, Liu Z, Schaaf CP, Zoghbi HY. 2017.
- Disruption of the ATXN1-CIC complex causes a spectrum of neurobehavioral phenotypes in mice and humans.
- 938 *Nature genetics* **49**:527–536. doi:10.1038/ng.3808
- Maio A, Yalamanchili H, Adamski CJ, Gennarino VA, Liu Z, Qin J, Jung SY, Richman R, Orr H, Zoghbi HY.
- 941 2018. RBM17 Interacts with U2SURP and CHERP to Regulate Expression and Splicing of RNA-Processing
- 942 Proteins. Cell Reports 25:726-736.e7. doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2018.09.041
- Martin G, Gruber AR, Keller W, Zavolan M. 2012. Genome-wide analysis of pre-mRNA 3' end processing reveals
- a decisive role of human cleavage factor I in the regulation of 3' UTR length. *Cell reports* 1:753–63.
- 946 doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2012.05.003
- Masamha CP, Wagner EJ. 2017. The contribution of alternative polyadenylation to the cancer phenotype.
- 949 *Carcinogenesis* **39**:2–10. doi:10.1093/carcin/bgx096
- Masamha CP, Xia Z, Yang J, Albrecht TR, Li M, Shyu A-B, Li W, Wagner EJ. 2014. CFIm25 links alternative
- polyadenylation to glioblastoma tumour suppression. *Nature* **510**:412–416. doi:10.1038/nature13261
- Miura K, Kishino T, Li E, Webber H, Dikkes P, Holmes GL, Wagstaff J. 2002. Neurobehavioral and
- 955 Electroencephalographic Abnormalities in Ube3aMaternal-Deficient Mice. Neurobiol Dis 9:149–159.
- 956 doi:10.1006/nbdi.2001.0463
- 958 Miura P, Shenker S, Andreu-Agullo C, Westholm JO, Lai EC. 2013. Widespread and extensive lengthening of 3'
- 959 UTRs in the mammalian brain. *Biotechfor* 23:812–825. doi:10.1101/gr.146886.112
- Nowicka M, Robinson MD. 2016. DRIMSeq: a Dirichlet-multinomial framework for multivariate count outcomes in
- 962 genomics. F1000research 5:1356. doi:10.12688/f1000research.8900.1

964 Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man, OMIM®. McKusick-Nathans Institute of Genetic Medicine, Johns Hopkins 965 University (Baltimore, MD), 7/22/2019. World Wide Web URL: https://omim.org/ 966 967 Paxinos G, Franklin K. 2001. The Mouse Brain in Stereotaxic Coordinates Academic Press San Diego. CA, USA. 968 969 Perez-Riverol Y, Csordas A, Bai J, Bernal-Llinares M, Hewapathirana S, Kundu DJ, Inuganti A, Griss J, Mayer G, 970 Eisenacher M, Pérez E, Uszkoreit J, Pfeuffer J, Sachsenberg T, Yılmaz S, Tiwary S, Cox J, Audain E, Walzer M, 971 Jarnuczak AF, Ternent T, Brazma A, Vizcaíno J. 2018. The PRIDE database and related tools and resources in 972 2019: improving support for quantification data. Nucleic Acids Res 47:gky1106-. doi:10.1093/nar/gky1106 973 974 Perkins DN, Pappin DJ, Creasy DM, Cottrell JS. 1999. Probability-based protein identification by searching 975 sequence databases using mass spectrometry data. Electrophoresis 20:3551–3567. doi:10.1002/(sici)1522-976 2683(19991201)20:18<3551::aid-elps3551>3.0.co;2-2 977 978 Pieretti M, Zhang F, Fu Y-H, Warren ST, Oostra BA, Caskey CT, Nelson DL. 1991. Absence of expression of the 979 FMR-1 gene in fragile X syndrome. Cell 66:817-822. doi:10.1016/0092-8674(91)90125-i 980 981 Quinlan AR, Hall IM. 2010. BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic features. *Bioinformatics* 982 **26**:841–842. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btq033 983 984 Roberson ED, Halabisky B, Yoo JW, Yao J, Chin J, Yan F, Wu T, Hamto P, Devidze N, Yu G-Q, Palop JJ, Noebels 985 JL, Mucke L. 2011. Amyloid-β/Fyn-Induced Synaptic, Network, and Cognitive Impairments Depend on Tau Levels 986 in Multiple Mouse Models of Alzheimer's Disease. J Neurosci 31:700-711. doi:10.1523/jneurosci.4152-10.2011 987 988 Routh A, Ji P, Jaworski E, Xia Z, Li W, Wagner EJ. 2017. Poly(A)-ClickSeq: click-chemistry for next-generation 989 3'-end sequencing without RNA enrichment or fragmentation. Nucleic acids research 45:e112. 990 doi:10.1093/nar/gkx286 991 992 Rubeis S, He X, Goldberg AP, Poultney CS, Samocha K, Cicek EA, Kou Y, Liu L, Fromer M, Walker S, Singh T, 993 Klei L, Kosmicki J, Fu S-C, Aleksic B, Biscaldi M, Bolton PF, Brownfeld JM, Cai J, Campbell NG, Carracedo A, 994 Chahrour MH, Chiocchetti AG, Coon H, Crawford EL, Crooks L, Curran SR, Dawson G, Duketis E, Fernandez BA, 995 Gallagher L, Geller E, Guter SJ, Hill SR, Ionita-Laza I, Gonzalez P, Kilpinen H, Klauck SM, Kolevzon A, Lee I, Lei 996 J, Lehtimäki T, Lin C-F, Ma'ayan A, Marshall CR, McInnes AL, Neale B, Owen MJ, Ozaki N, Parellada M, Parr 997 JR, Purcell S, Puura K, Rajagopalan D, Rehnström K, Reichenberg A, Sabo A, Sachse M, Sanders SJ, Schafer C, 998 Schulte-Rüther M, Skuse D, Stevens C, Szatmari P, Tammimies K, Valladares O, Voran A, Wang L-S, Weiss LA, 999 Willsey JA, Yu TW, Yuen RK, udy T, for Autism H, Consortium U, Consortium T, Cook EH, Freitag CM, Gill M,

1000 Hultman CM, Lehner T, Palotie A, Schellenberg GD, Sklar P, State MW, Sutcliffe JS, Walsh CA, Scherer SW, 1001 Zwick ME, Barrett JC, Cutler DJ, Roeder K, Devlin B, Daly MJ, Buxbaum JD. 2014. Synaptic, transcriptional and 1002 chromatin genes disrupted in autism. Nature 515:209. doi:10.1038/nature13772 1003 1004 Rüegsegger U, Beyer K, Keller W. 1996. Purification and Characterization of Human Cleavage Factor I Involved in 1005 the 3' End Processing of Messenger RNA Precursors. Journal of Biological Chemistry 271:6107-6113. 1006 doi:10.1074/jbc.271.11.6107 1007 1008 Rüegsegger U, Blank D, Keller W. 1998. Human Pre-mRNA Cleavage Factor Im Is Related to Spliceosomal SR 1009 Proteins and Can Be Reconstituted In Vitro from Recombinant Subunits. Molecular Cell 1:243-253. 1010 doi:10.1016/s1097-2765(00)80025-8 1011 1012 Saltzman AB, Leng M, Bhatt B, Singh P, Chan DW, Dobrolecki LE, Chandrasekaran H, Choi J, Jain A, Jung S, 1013 Lewis MT, Ellis MJ, Malovannaya A. 2018. gpGrouper: A Peptide Grouping Algorithm for Gene-Centric Inference 1014 and Quantitation of Bottom-Up Proteomics Data. Molecular & Cellular Proteomics 17:mcp.TIR118.000850. 1015 doi:10.1074/mcp.tir118.000850 1016 1017 Samaco RC, McGraw CM, Ward CS, Sun Y, Neul JL, Zoghbi HY. 2012. Female Mecp2(+/-) mice display robust 1018 behavioral deficits on two different genetic backgrounds providing a framework for pre-clinical studies. Human 1019 molecular genetics 22:96-109. doi:10.1093/hmg/dds406 1020 1021 Sandberg R, Neilson JR, Sarma A, Sharp PA, Burge CB. 2008. Proliferating Cells Express mRNAs with Shortened 1022 39 Untranslated Regions and Fewer MicroRNA Target Sites. Science 320:1643-1647. doi:10.1126/science.1155390 1023 1024 Tan Q, Yalamanchili H, Park J, Maio A, Lu H-C, Wan Y-W, White JJ, Bondar VV, Sayegh LS, Liu X, Gao Y, 1025 Sillitoe RV, Orr HT, Liu Z, Zoghbi HY. 2016. Extensive cryptic splicing upon loss of RBM17 and TDP43 in 1026 neurodegeneration models. Hum Mol Genet ddw337. doi:10.1093/hmg/ddw337 1027 1028 Tan Q, Zoghbi HY. 2018. Mouse models as a tool for discovering new neurological diseases. Neurobiol Learn Mem. 1029 doi:10.1016/j.nlm.2018.07.006 1030 1031 Tian B, Manley JL. 2016. Alternative polyadenylation of mRNA precursors. Nature reviews Molecular cell biology. 1032 doi:10.1038/nrm.2016.116 1033

Untergasser A, Cutcutache I, Koressaar T, Ye J, Faircloth BC, Remm M, Rozen SG. 2012. Primer3—new

capabilities and interfaces. Nucleic Acids Res 40:e115-e115. doi:10.1093/nar/gks596

1034

1035

- 1037 van Hoof A, Frischmeyer PA, Dietz HC, Parker R. 2002. Exosome-Mediated Recognition and Degradation of 1038 mRNAs Lacking a Termination Codon. Science 295:2262–2264. doi:10.1126/science.1067272 1039 1040 Verkerk A, Pieretti M, Sutcliffe JS, Fu Y-H, Kuhl D, Pizzuti A, Reiner O, Richards S, Victoria MF, Zhang F, 1041 Eussen BE, van Ommen G-JB, Blonden L, Riggins GJ, Chastain JL, Kunst CB, Galjaard H, Caskey TC, Nelson DL, 1042 Oostra BA, Warren ST. 1991. Identification of a gene (FMR-1) containing a CGG repeat coincident with a 1043 breakpoint cluster region exhibiting length variation in fragile X syndrome. Cell 65:905-914. doi:10.1016/0092-1044 8674(91)90397-h 1045 1046 Vissers L, Gilissen C, Veltman JA. 2015. Genetic studies in intellectual disability and related disorders. *Nature* 1047 Reviews Genetics 17:9-18. doi:10.1038/nrg3999 1048 1049 Wang R, Nambiar R, Zheng D, Tian B. 2017. PolyA DB 3 catalogs cleavage and polyadenylation sites identified by 1050 deep sequencing in multiple genomes. Nucleic Acids Res gkx1000-. doi:10.1093/nar/gkx1000 1051 1052 Weng T, Ko J, Masamha CP, Xia Z, Xiang Y, Chen N, Molina JG, Collum S, Mertens TC, Luo F, Philip K, Davies 1053 J, Huang J, Wilson C, Thandavarayan RA, Bruckner BA, Jyothula S, Volcik KA, Li L, Han L, Li W, Assassi S, 1054 Karmouty-Quintana H, Wagner EJ, Blackburn MR. 2019. Cleavage factor 25 deregulation contributes to pulmonary 1055 fibrosis through alternative polyadenylation. J Clin Invest. doi:10.1172/jci122106 1056 1057 Yalamanchili H, Wan Y, Liu Z. 2017. Current Protocols in Bioinformatics. Curr Protoc Bioinform 59:11.15.1-1058 11.15.21. doi:10.1002/cpbi.33 1059 1060 Yang O, Coseno M, Gilmartin GM, Doublié S. 2011. Crystal Structure of a Human Cleavage Factor 1061 CFIm25/CFIm68/RNA Complex Provides an Insight into Poly(A) Site Recognition and RNA Looping. Structure 1062 19:368-377. doi:10.1016/j.str.2010.12.021 1063 1064 Yang Q, Gilmartin GM, Doublié S. 2010. Structural basis of UGUA recognition by the Nudix protein CFIm25 and 1065 implications for a regulatory role in mRNA 3 processing. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 1066 107:10062-10067. doi:10.1073/pnas.1000848107 1067 1068 Yin J, Schaaf CP. 2017. Autism genetics – an overview. Prenatal Diagnosis 37:14–30. doi:10.1002/pd.4942 1069 1070 Zhang H, Lee J, Tian B. 2005. Biased alternative polyadenylation in human tissues. Genome Biology 6:R100. 1071 doi:10.1186/gb-2005-6-12-r100
- 2013 Zhao K, Lu Z, Park J, Zhou Q, Xing Y. 2013. GLiMMPS: robust statistical model for regulatory variation of

1074	alternative splicing using RNA-seq data. Genome Biology 14:R74. doi:10.1186/gb-2013-14-7-r74
1075	
1076	Zhu Y, Wang X, Forouzmand E, Jeong J, Qiao F, Sowd GA, Engelman AN, Xie X, Hertel KJ, Shi Y. 2018.
1077	Molecular Mechanisms for CFIm-Mediated Regulation of mRNA Alternative Polyadenylation. Molecular Cell 69.
1078	doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2017.11.031
1079	