PEDF-Rpsa-Itga6 signaling regulates cortical neuronal morphogenesis

Short title: Rpsa regulates neuromorphogenesis

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Abstract

Neuromorphological defects underlie neurodevelopmental disorders and functional

defects. We identified a function for ribosomal protein SA (Rpsa) in regulating

neuromorphogenesis using *in utero* electroporation to knockdown Rpsa, which results in apical

dendrite misorientation, fewer/shorter extensions with decreased arborization, and decreased

spine density with altered spine morphology. We investigated Rpsa's ligand, pigment

epithelium-derived factor (PEDF), and interacting partner on the plasma membrane, Integrin

subunit α6 (Itga6). Rpsa, PEDF, and Itga6 knockdown cause similar phenotypes, with Rpsa and

Itga6 overexpression rescuing morphological defects in PEDF deficient neurons *in vivo*.

Additionally, Itga6 overexpression facilitates Rpsa expression on the membrane. GCaMP6s was

used to functionally analyze Rpsa knockdown via *ex vivo* calcium imaging. Rpsa deficient

neurons showed less fluctuation in fluorescence intensity, suggesting defective sub-threshold

calcium signaling. Our study identifies a role for PEDF-Rpsa-Itga6 signaling in

neuromorphogenesis, thus implicating these molecules in the etiology of neurodevelopmental

disorders and identifying them as potential therapeutic candidates.

Author Summary

Investigating the mechanisms that drive neuromorphogenesis is a crucial step towards understanding normal and disordered brain development. We found that Rpsa signaling, which is facilitated by Rpsa's ligand PEDF and its plasma membrane interaction partner Itga6, regulates several key aspects of neuronal morphogenesis including dendritogenesis and dendritic spine formation. We also found that PEDF-Rpsa-Itga6 signaling contributes to calcium signaling, which is important for neuronal function. Furthermore, overexpression of Itga6 increased the expression of Rpsa on the plasma membrane, where it binds extracellular ligands, suggesting that Itga6 facilitates Rpsa signaling in this manner. Thus, PEDF, Rpsa, and Itga6 are implicated in the etiology of neurodevelopmental disorders. This work is of particular relevance to Miller-Dieker syndrome. The PEDF gene (*Serpinf1*) is located within a clinically relevant region of chromosome 17p13.3 that is deleted in Miller-Dieker syndrome patients. Severe lissencephaly, developmental delay, intellectual disability, and seizures are features of Miller-Dieker syndrome. Further investigation of PEDF-Rpsa-Itga6 signaling may increase our understanding of the mechanisms that contribute to MDS pathogenesis.

Introduction

Neuronal morphogenesis transforms an immature spherical neuron into a mature neuron with a complex structure. Investigation of the mechanisms that drive neuromorphogenesis has clear applications for improving treatments for neurodevelopmental disorders, as improper neurite formation and dendritic development have been strongly associated with mental retardation disorders and autism spectrum disorder (1-5). Inappropriate dendritic arborization may also impact inputs and signaling efficiency between the synapse and soma (6, 7). Cortical pyramidal neurons have one apical dendrite, which typically extends directly towards the cortical plate. Apical dendrite orientation is crucial in determining synaptic connectivity and is important for neuronal function, as misorientation of the apical dendrite could cause formation of aberrant connections (8). The density and morphology of dendritic spines is another important aspect of neuromorphogenesis. Dendritic spines are the site of over 90% of excitatory synapses in the central nervous system (9). Spine morphology directly relates to synapse function and altered spine phenotypes can result from neurodevelopmental disrders (10, 11).

Ribosomal protein SA (Rpsa), also known as the 67-kDa laminin receptor, functions in a variety of roles including cell anchoring via laminins, ribosomal biogenesis, and chromatin and histone binding (12). Mature Rpsa is embedded in the plasma membrane and may be concentrated in lipid rafts, suggesting it functions as part of a signaling complex (13). Rpsa's role as a laminin receptor has been extensively studied, revealing its importance in interacting with the extracellular matrix (12, 14-16). Additionally, Rpsa initiates signaling for protection against cell death induced by serum withdrawal in Neuroscreen-1 cells upon treatment with laminin-1, demonstrating an important role for Rpsa in a neuron-like cell line (17). However, the specific role of Rpsa in cortical development remains unknown.

Rpsa binds the secreted glycoprotein pigment epithelium-derived factor (PEDF) (18).

PEDF has neurotrophic properties and protects neurons in a variety of regions throughout the

central nervous system against excitotoxicity and oxidative damage (19). Recently, PEDF has

been shown to promote axon regeneration and functional recovery in dorsal root ganglion

neurons after spinal cord injury (20). PEDF expression declines with age and is downregulated

by more than 100-fold in aged human fibroblast as compared to young human fibroblast,

suggesting an important role for PEDF in early development (21). Additionally, *Serpinf1*, coding

for the PEDF protein, is encoded in a clinically relevant region of chromosome 17p13.3 known

as the Miller-Dieker Syndrome critical region that is frequently deleted or duplicated in a variety

of neurodevelopmental disorders (22, 23). Thus, the relationship between PEDF and its receptor

Rpsa in the developing cortex is of interest.

Binding of PEDF to Rpsa may involve a receptor complex that includes the integrin

subunit α6 (Itga6), which binds to the β4 subunit to form a complete integrin. Co-localization of

Rpsa and Itga6 on the plasma membrane may result from initial co-localization of Rpsa and

Itga6 in cytoplasmic complexes, leading to trafficking to the membrane together (12, 24).

Furthermore, Rpsa and Itga6 expression may be co-regulated (25). The Rpsa-Itga6 complex is

hypothesized to have a role in regulating or stabilizing Rpsa's interaction with laminin,

suggesting that an interaction between Rpsa and Itga6 could be important for other signaling

mechanisms like PEDF-Rpsa signaling (Ardini et al., 1997).

We analyzed the functions of Rpsa in cortical neuronal development by performing *in*

utero electroporation at E15.5 to induce knockdown (KD) of Rpsa in layer 2/3 cortical pyramidal

neurons (26-28). We found that Rpsa deficient cells show defects in apical dendrite orientation,

initiation and elongation of dendrites, dendritic branching, and dendritic spine density and

morphology *in vivo*. Similar defects are observed following Rpsa knockdown, PEDF KD, and

Itga6 KD. Rpsa overexpression (OE) rescued morphological defects resulting from PEDF KD *in*

vivo, suggesting that PEDF initiates Rpsa signaling to regulate neuromorphogenesis. Itga6 OE

rescued dendrite formation deficits caused by PEDF KD and facilitated the expression of Rpsa

on the plasma membrane, indicating a role for Itga6 in the signaling mechanism. Additionally,

we show that morphological changes associated with Rpsa KD impact sub-threshold calcium

activity. Our study identifies functions of the PEDF-Rpsa-Itga6 signaling pathway in cortical

neuromorphogenesis and implicates this signaling pathway in the etiology of

neurodevelopmental disorders.

Results

The Expression of Rpsa in the Developing Cerebral Cortex

The expression pattern of Rpsa has not been previously investigated in the developing brain. Therefore, it was unknown at which levels or developmental time-points Rpsa is expressed, which should be established when investigating the function of Rpsa during development. To quantify the expression of Rpsa protein levels in the developing cerebral cortex, we performed Western blots using lysate of the cerebral cortex from embryonic day (E) 13.5 to P7 samples (Fig. 1A and B). The Rpsa protein is moderately expressed in the developing cortex during early embryonic stages (E13.5) and then expression decreases, but persists to at least P7. This suggests that Rpsa may be crucial at earlier embryonic stages. We also analyzed the spatial distribution of the Rpsa protein by immunofluorescence using E18.5 brain sections (Fig. 1C). Rpsa is expressed throughout all cortical layers and in the cytoplasm, but not the nucleus at E18. Furthermore, staining of primary cortical neurons confirmed the expression of Rpsa in neurons by staining with the neuronal marker, class III β-tubulin, showing that Rpsa is highly concentrated in the soma and proximal extensions, but is not found in the nucleus or more distal extensions (Fig. 1D). Therefore, functions of Rpsa that can be associated with these cellular localizations, such as interacting with the extracellular matrix, are likely more important at this time-point.

Rpsa KD is associated with apical dendrite misorientation at P3 that can be rescued by Rpsa OE

KD efficiency of our Rpsa CRISPR construct was tested via Western Blot and the knockdown efficiency was approximately 77% (Suppl. Fig. 1A and B). Genomic alteration by Rpsa CRISPR was mainly accomplished by deletions, but cases of single nucleotide additions

were also observed (Suppl. Fig. 1 C and D). To further confirm Rpsa KD, we performed

immunocytochemistry to stain for Rpsa in primary cortical mouse neurons that were transfected

with Rpsa CRISPR. Neurons positive for Rpsa KD had significantly decreased fluorescence

intensity for the Rpsa marker, as compared with untransfected controls (Suppl. Fig. 1 E and F).

To investigate apical dendrite orientation, we performed *in utero* electroporation at E15.5

to induce a CRISPR/Cas9 mediated KD of Rpsa. The orientation of the apical dendrite is an

important feature of neuronal morphology, since the angle at which the apical dendrite extends

with respect to the cortical plate is important for neuronal connectivity. Conducting this analysis

at P3 allowed for easy identification of the apical dendrite, since neuronal morphology is

relatively simple at this stage. We found that Rpsa KD cells ($34.2° \pm 3.61$) had a significantly

greater mean angle from the soma than the control CRISPR cells ($14.1° \pm 1.63$) (Fig. 2A and B).

The frequencies for degree of angle in Rpsa KD cells were more broadly distributed across a

wider range from $-30°$ to $30°$, while angle measurements were closer to $0°$ and more narrowly

distributed in control CRISPR cells (Fig. 2C). This suggests that Rpsa deficient cells have apical

dendrites that are inappropriately positioned at an abnormal angle, which may lead to formation

of aberrant synapses. The Rpsa KD phenotype could be rescued by CRISPR-resistant wild-type

Rpsa OE ($11.8° \pm 1.13$), resulting in a phenotype comparable to the control CRISPR + control

OE group ($11.7° \pm 1.25$) (Fig. 2). The possibility of the phenotype being caused by an off-target

effect of the CRISPR is minimal, since the Rpsa KD phenotype was able to be rescued by

CRISPR-resistant Rpsa OE.

Additionally, we measured the length of the apical dendrite and found no significant

difference between Rpsa KD ($27.7 \ \mu m \pm 1.4$) and control CRISPR ($27.5 \ \mu m \pm 1.6$) (Suppl. Fig.

2). This suggests that there is no defect in the early period of dendrite elongation.

Rpsa KD is associated with defects in neuronal morphogenesis at P15 that can be rescued by Rpsa OE

A decrease in the number of dendrites extending from the soma suggests that defective dendrite initiation has occurred, while a decrease in dendrite length suggests a defect in elongation of dendrites. These early pivotal processes have implications on the remaining stages of neuronal morphogenesis, such as dendritic arborization. *In utero* electroporation was used to induce a CRISPR/Cas9 mediated KD of Rpsa at E15.5 and neuronal morphology was analyzed at P15, since neuritogenesis well-established by this time point. The Rpsa KD neurons had significantly fewer and shorter extensions with less complex branching as compared with the control CRISPR neurons (Fig. 3A). The mean number of dendrites from the soma in Rpsa deficient cells was 2.9 ± 0.24, while the mean number of dendrites, including apical and basal dendrites, from the soma of control neurons was 4.2 ± 0.24 (Fig. 3B). The mean dendrite length in Rpsa deficient cells was 20.9 μm ± 2.0 as compared to control neurons with a mean dendrite length of 49.5 μm ± 2.2 (Fig. 3C). Additionally, Sholl analysis of Rpsa deficient neurons indicates that the Rpsa KD neurons have a severe defect in dendritic branching (Fig. 3D). The Sholl profile is consistent with our analysis of dendrite number and length, since it also indicates that Rpsa deficient cells have fewer and shorter dendrites than controls. All described morphological deficits from Rpsa KD were rescued by CRISPR-resistant Rpsa OE, making it unlikely that the observed phenotype was due to off-target effects (Fig. 3). This suggests that Rpsa signaling is crucial in regulating dendrite formation, during both initiation and elongation, in addition to dendritic arborization. Since the apical dendrite was correctly extended as observed at P3 (Suppl. Fig. 2), the defects in the initiation of dendrites are mainly in basal dendrites.

Rpsa and PEDF show similar defects in neuronal morphology after KD and Rpsa OE can

rescue morphological defects after PEDF KD

Since PEDF is a known ligand of Rpsa that has neurotrophic properties and is encoded in

the clinically relevant Miller-Dieker Syndrome critical region of chromosome 17p13.3, we

investigated whether PEDF binding was responsible for initiating Rpsa signaling to regulate

neuronal morphogenesis. We used PEDF shRNA in combination with *in utero* electroporation to

conduct an initial analysis of PEDF deficient neurons *in vivo*. KD efficiency of the PEDF shRNA

was tested via Western Blot and the knockdown efficiency was approximately 84% (Suppl. Fig.

1A and B). The initial analysis revealed that PEDF deficient neurons showed similar defects to

Rpsa deficient neurons in morphogenesis, with PEDF KD neurons having significantly fewer

and shorter extensions with less complex branching as compared with the scramble shRNA

control neurons (Fig. 4A). The mean number of dendrites from the soma in PEDF deficient cells

was 2.6 ± 0.21, while the mean number of dendrites from the soma in control neurons was $4.4 \pm$

0.25 (Fig. 4B). The mean dendrite length in PEDF deficient cells was $27.0\ \mu m \pm 2.6$ as compared

to control neurons with a mean dendrite length of $50.9\ \mu m \pm 3.6$ (Fig. 4C). These data indicate

that PEDF is important for the initiation and elongation of dendrites. Additionally, Sholl analysis

of PEDF deficient neurons indicates that these neurons have a severe defect in dendritic

branching (Fig. 4D). The Sholl profile is consistent with our analysis of dendrite number and

length, since it also indicates that PEDF deficient cells have fewer and shorter dendrites than

controls.

To determine whether these similar phenotypes could be a result of PEDF and Rpsa

functioning in the same signaling pathway we overexpressed Rpsa in PEDF deficient cells. Rpsa

OE rescued morphological defects in the initiation and elongation of dendrites after PEDF KD *in*

vivo (Fig. 4A). The mean number of dendrites from the soma in PEDF KD + Rpsa OE neurons

was 4.2 ± 0.17, which was not significantly different from the mean of 4.35 ± 0.30 for the double

transfected control neurons (scramble shRNA + control OE) (Fig. 4B). The mean dendrite length

in PEDF KD + Rpsa OE neurons was $44.3 \ \mu m \pm 3.6$, which was not significantly different from

the double transfected control neurons (scramble shRNA + control OE) with a mean dendrite

length of $44.3 \ \mu m \pm 3.3$ (Fig. 4C). These data indicate that PEDF is involved in Rpsa-mediated

initiation and elongation of dendrites. Additionally, Sholl analysis of PEDF KD + Rpsa OE

neurons indicates that the branching complexity is similar to that of the double transfected

control neurons (Fig. 4D). Taken together with the fact that PEDF is a ligand of Rpsa, these

results suggest that PEDF binding initiates Rpsa signaling to regulate neuronal morphogenesis.

Rpsa and Itga6 show similar defects in neuronal morphology after KD and Itga6 OE can

rescue morphological defects after PEDF KD and increase Rpsa expression on the plasma

membrane

Rpsa is known to bind to Itga6 on the plasma membrane (25). To determine if Itga6 is

also involved in PEDF-Rpsa signaling, we used Itga6 shRNA in combination with *in utero*

electroporation at E15.5 to conduct an initial analysis of Itga6 deficient neurons *in vivo*. KD

efficiency of the Itga6 shRNA was tested via Western Blot and the knockdown efficiency was

approximately 79% (Suppl. Fig. 1A and B). The analysis revealed that Itga6 deficient neurons

showed similar defects to Rpsa and PEDF deficient neurons in neuronal morphogenesis (Fig.

4A). The mean number of dendrites from the soma in Itga6 deficient cells was 2.5 ± 0.24, while

the mean number of dendrites from the soma in control neurons was 4.4 ± 0.25 (Fig. 4B). The

mean dendrite length in Itga6 deficient cells was $34.3 \ \mu m \pm 2.7$ as compared to control neurons

with a mean dendrite length of $50.9 \ \mu m \pm 3.6$ (Fig. 4C). These data indicate that Itga6 is a key

protein for the initiation and elongation of dendrites. Additionally, Sholl analysis of Itga6

deficient neurons indicates that these neurons have a severe defect in dendritic branching as seen

in neurons deficient in Rpsa and PEDF (Fig. 4D).

To determine whether Itga6 is involved in PEDF signaling, we overexpressed Itga6 in

PEDF deficient cells. We found that Itga6 OE in PEDF deficient neurons can rescue the

morphological defects associated with PEDF KD (Fig. 4A). This rescue phenotype was similar

to the control (scramble shRNA + control OE) and PEDF shRNA + Rpsa OE phenotypes. Thus,

these results suggest that Itga6 is involved in signaling pathway involving PEDF and Rpsa. The

mean number of dendrites from the soma in PEDF KD + Itga6 OE neurons was 4.1 ± 0.29,

which was not significantly different from the mean of 4.35 ± 0.30 for the double transfected

control neurons (scramble shRNA + control OE) (Fig. 4B). The mean dendrite length in PEDF

KD + Itga6 OE neurons was 44.8 μm $\pm$ 3.4, which was not significantly different from the

double transfected control neurons (scramble shRNA + control OE) with a mean dendrite length

of 44.3 μm $\pm$ 3.3 (Fig. 4C). This indicates that Itga6 is involved both in the initiation and

elongation of dendrites mediated by PEDF and Rpsa. Additionally, Sholl analysis of PEDF KD +

Itga6 OE neurons indicates that the branching complexity is partially restored (Fig. 4D). These

results suggest that Itga6, a known binding partner of Rpsa, is important for PEDF-Rpsa

signaling to regulate dendrite formation during initiation and elongation stages, and possibly

dendritic branching.

Rpsa and Itga6 expression have been shown to be co-regulated and Rpsa and Itga6 co-

localize in the cytosol, possibly leading to their being trafficked together to the plasma

membrane (24, 25). We tested whether Itga6 could be increasing Rpsa expression on the plasma

membrane, which would allow PEDF-Rpsa signaling to occur more efficiently. We transfected

6XHis-Rpsa (only Rpsa OE) and 6XHis-Rpsa + FLAG-Itga6 (both Rpsa and Itga6 OE) into

COS-1 cells and performed subcellular fraction to isolate the nuclear, cytoplasmic, and

membrane fractions. Then, Rpsa expression level in the 6XHis-Rpsa + FLAG-Itga6 group was

analyzed and compared to the control OE group and Rpsa OE only group. We found that Rpsa

expression on the plasma membrane was increased with Itga6 OE, as compared to when only

Rpsa was overexpressed (Fig. 4E). This suggests that Itga6 could be contributing to PEDF-Rpsa

signaling to regulate neuronal morphology by increasing the amount of Rpsa available on the

plasma membrane to participate in signaling and may explain the similar neuronal morphology

phenotypes following Rpsa KD, PEDF KD, and Itga6 KD.

Rpsa KD and PEDF KD, but not Itga6 KD, cause a decrease in overall spine density and a

change in spine morphology

We further investigated the neuromorphological changes observed after Rpsa KD, PEDF

KD, and Itga6 KD by determining if there was a change in dendritic spine density and

morphology, since these factors can impact synaptic function. We used *in utero* electroporation

at E15.5 to transfect the relevant plasmids and analyzed spines at P15 (Fig. 5A). We observed a

decrease in overall spine density after Rpsa KD (0.28 ± 0.04) and PEDF KD ($0.21 \pm .04$), as

compared to the control CRISPR (0.70 ± 0.05) and scramble shRNA (0.97 ± 0.09) controls,

respectively (Fig. 5B). Although fewer spines were observed, there was an increase in spines

with more immature morphologies such as filopodia and thin in the Rpsa KD and PEDF KD

groups (Fig. 5C). Interestingly, Itga6 KD (1.01 ± 0.10) resulted in a spine density phenotype

similar to that of the scramble shRNA control group (Fig. 5B). The Itga6 KD and scramble

shRNA groups also showed similar spine morphology phenotypes, with most spines being

characterized as mushroom (Fig. 5C).

To determine whether Rpsa OE could rescue spine defects after PEDF KD, we used *in*

utero electroporation at E15.5 to overexpress Rpsa in PEDF deficient cells (Fig. 5A). The PEDF

shRNA + Rpsa OE group (0.99 ± 0.07) showed an overall spine density that was comparable to

the scramble shRNA + control OE group (0.77 ± 0.08) (Fig. 5B). The morphological defects

were also rescued, with the PEDF shRNA + Rpsa OE and scramble shRNA + control OE groups

having mostly mushroom spines (Fig. 5C). This suggests that PEDF-Rpsa signaling regulates

spine density and morphology, while Itga6 may specifically regulate formation of dendrites.

Calcium imaging of brain slices shows sub-threshold functional difference in Rpsa KD

neurons

We next investigated whether the Rpsa KD associated decrease in dendrite number and

length, as well as reduced dendritic arborization and change in spine density and morphology

could be linked to functional deficits, since neuronal morphology is a critical factor in

determining the extent of inputs received by the neuron. To investigate function in Rpsa deficient

neurons we conducted calcium imaging using live brain slices after *in utero* electroporation at

E15.5 collected from mice (P15-P60). The calcium indicator GCaMP6s was used to image

neurons double-positive for Rpsa or control CRISPR (tdTomato) and GCaMP6s (GFP).

GCaMP6s has a relatively high sensitivity and is a well-validated calcium indicator (29). Rpsa

deficient neurons had a significantly lower mean difference between maximum and minimum

peaks (6.7 ±1.8), as compared with control neurons (12.8 ± 1.1) when spontaneous calcium

activity was measured (Fig. 6A), indicating that the Rpsa deficient neurons show significantly

decreased calcium signaling. We found that Rpsa KD neurons showed almost no fluctuation in

fluorescence intensity, while the control CRISPR neurons showed a dramatically greater change

in fluorescence intensity (Fig. 6B). Since few action potentials were recorded, these differences

in fluorescence intensity indicate that Rpsa KD neurons have a defect in calcium signaling at a

sub-threshold level. Calcium signaling directly relates to neuronal function by contributing to

transmission of the depolarizing signal, synaptic signaling processes, neuronal energy

metabolism, and neurotransmission (30).

To complement our calcium imaging data, we conducted whole-cell electrophysiological

recordings in mice (P15-P60) after knocking down Rpsa by CRISPR by *in utero* electroporation

at E15.5. In agreement with our calcium imaging results, electrophysiological recordings showed

that control and Rpsa KD neurons do not fire action potentials spontaneously at rest (Fig. 6C).

However, both control and Rpsa deficient neurons fired action potentials upon stimulation

(Suppl. Fig. 3). Intrinsic membrane properties were comparable between groups and only

differed significantly in capacitance, indicating a difference in cell size (Suppl. Fig. 3 and Table

1). Taken together, this corroborates our calcium imaging results by confirming the low

spontaneous firing rate in both control and Rpsa KD cells and showing that Rpsa KD neurons are

healthy and able to fire action potentials.

Table 1. Comparison of membrane properties between Control CRISPR and Rpsa CRISPR								
	Vm (mV)	Resistance (MΩ)	τ (ms)	C (pF)	Rheobase (pA)	Spike height (mV)	Overshoot (mV)	Spike threshold (mV)
Control CRISPR (n=9)	-67 ± 1.2	60 ± 4.9	14 ± 1.2	251 ± 30.2	141 ± 10.5	84 ± 1.8	50 ± 1.2	-34 ± 1.1
Rpsa CRISPR (n=7)	-64 ± 0.9	50 ± 5.1	18 ± 2.6	369 ± 35.8	149 ± 33.3	81 ± 1.7	48 ± 2.4	-32 ± 1.2

297 Vm = membrane potential, τ = membrane time constant, C = capacitance

298 Data are represented as mean ± SEM.

Discussion

Our study reports a role for Rpsa in regulating neuronal morphogenesis, including dendrite formation, apical dendrite orientation, dendritic branching, and spine density and morphology and suggests that morphological defects caused by Rpsa KD have sub-threshold functional consequences for calcium signaling. By performing *in vivo* rescue experiments, we found that PEDF-Rpsa-Itga6 signaling is essential for neuromorphogenesis.

Orientation of the apical dendrite and neuronal morphogenesis was dramatically impacted by disrupting Rpsa signaling. Improper orientation of the apical dendrite may have led to formation of inappropriate synaptic connections, since the apical dendrite may not have been within sufficient vicinity of its target neuron to allow synaptogenesis to occur. The decrease in number of dendrites and dendrite length suggests a deficit in the initiation and elongation of dendrites, respectively. Defects in these early stages of morphogenesis may have caused further defects at later stages such as dendritic arborization, as a severe defect in dendritic branching was observed in Rpsa deficient neurons. Rpsa deficient neurons show aberrant orientation of the apical dendrite at the proximal region of the apical dendrites (Fig. 2). However, the distal region of apical dendrites turns into the proper direction to the marginal zone (Fig. 2A). This implies that Rpsa affects the very initial step of dendrite extension after its initiation from soma, but not the later dendrite extension step. Future studies including time-lapse live imaging will help understand the precise function of Rpsa in regulating dendrite behavior during the initial step of dendrite extension and orientation.

While a significant decrease in dendrite length was seen at P15 (Fig. 3), no difference was observed between Rpsa KD and control CRISPR in dendrite length at P3 (Suppl. Fig. 2). The mean length measurement at P3 is heavily influenced by the length of the apical dendrite

since it is one of the only extensions present at this developmental time-point and basal dendrites

were not yet formed. Therefore, the defects in dendrite length seen at P15 resulted from the

defects in basal dendrites, indicating the importance of Rpsa in basal dendrite formation.

Genetically manipulating the proposed Rpsa signaling pathway using various rescue

experiments allowed us to provide convincing evidence that PEDF is the ligand responsible for

initiating Rpsa signaling to regulate neuronal morphogenesis and that an Rpsa-Itga6 signaling

complex is important for this pathway (Fig. 7A). Since the ligand PEDF is upstream of its

receptor Rpsa, Rpsa OE should compensate for a decrease in PEDF. Some PEDF will still be

present, since the knockdown does not lead to complete loss of PEDF and the cells not

transfected by *in utero* electroporation will still normally secrete PEDF. Thus, Rpsa OE should

increase the opportunity for the PEDF that is present to bind to an Rpsa receptor and compensate

for the PEDF KD. Since Itga6 OE had a similar result as Rpsa OE, this suggests that an increase

in Itga6 expression may lead to an increase in Rpsa localization on the plasma membrane,

producing a similar effect to Rpsa OE. Therefore, the PEDF-Rpsa signaling may regulate

several aspects of neuronal morphogenesis including dendrite initiation, dendrite elongation,

dendritic branching, and spine formation (Fig. 7A). The overexpression of Rpsa and Itga6 in

combination with cellular fractionation revealed that Itga6 OE facilitates Rpsa expression on the

plasma membrane (Fig. 4E). A potential mechanistic explanation is that Rpsa and Itga6 bind

each other in the cytoplasm and Itga6 supports the expression of Rpsa on the plasma membrane

(Fig. 7B). Another possible model is that Rpsa and Itga6 independently express on the plasma

membrane and Itga6 stabilizes the expression of Rpsa (Fig. 7B). Further research should be done

to investigate the molecular mechanisms that drive relationship between Rpsa and Itga6 in more

detail. While Itag6 has an important role in PEDF-Rpsa signaling, Itga6 regulation during

neuronal morphogenesis appears to be specific to dendrite formation. Interestingly, Itga6 does

not seem to have a role in regulating dendritic spine density or dendritic spine morphology, and

may only have a limited role in regulation of dendritic branching.

The Sholl profiles for both the PEDF shRNA + Rpsa OE and PEDF shRNA + Itga6 OE

rescue experiments show an increase in complexity of dendritic branching as compared to the

PEDF shRNA group, indicating that overexpression of either Rpsa or Itga6 rescues this aspect of

the PEDF KD phenotype to some extent (Fig. 4D). However, the PEDF shRNA + Rpsa OE

group showed even more complex branching than the scramble shRNA + control OE group,

while the PEDF shRNA + Itga6 OE showed a less complex branching phenotype as compared to

the scramble shRNA + control OE group. Rpsa OE could have resulted in a more complex

branching phenotype, since Rpsa is further downstream than PEDF in the proposed signaling

pathway. Thus, overexpression at a more downstream level in the signaling pathway could have

overstimulated the mechanism responsible for regulating branching, leading to an increase in

branching complexity.

To determine whether the dramatic morphological defects caused by Rpsa KD impact

function, we conducted calcium imaging on live brain slices and detected a difference between

Rpsa KD cells and control cells in sub-threshold calcium signaling. The GCaMP6s calcium

indicator was used, which has a relatively high sensitivity and has commonly been used to image

relatively low cytoplasmic calcium levels (29). The percent change in fluorescence fluctuates for

the control, while Rpsa deficient cells appear to maintain a constant level of fluorescence even

when the recording period was substantially extended. Sub-threshold changes in calcium

signaling in Rpsa KD neurons could be due to differences in NMDA channel, NMDA receptor

(NMDAR), or voltage-gated calcium channels (VGCCs) functions, which could be reduced

simply because of the decrease in dendritic surface area by less dendrites and shorter dendrite

length (31-35). Many previous studies differ from ours in that they focus on calcium signaling in

active spines. However, the amount of calcium that enters via these synaptic mechanisms may be

very small, requiring that the signal be greatly amplified by intracellular calcium release to be

detected (36). We would be able to detect sub-threshold calcium signaling changes resulting

from calcium release from internal stores in the soma. The morphological defects caused by

Rpsa KD may be impacting the NMDA, NMDAR, and/or VGCCs responsible for mediating

calcium influx, thus resulting in sub-threshold calcium signaling changes.

Single action potentials are defined as $\Delta F/F_0 \geq 23\% \pm 3.2\%$. Thus, few action potentials

were recorded by our calcium imaging. However, this is not surprising, since pyramidal cells can

have a low spontaneous firing rate (37). Our electrophysiology recordings confirm the minimal

percent change in fluorescence detected by our calcium imaging by showing that inputs do not

summate to a level that would cause action potentials for either the Rpsa KD or control group.

This indicates that the specific cortical pyramidal neurons that were transfected via *in utero*

electroporation have a low spontaneous firing rate. Thus, we should not expect to see many

action potentials recorded in our calcium imaging experiments. Taken together, these data

suggest that Rpsa KD causes a functional difference in calcium signaling at sub-threshold levels

in cortical pyramidal neurons with a low spontaneous firing rate.

Additionally, our electrophysiology recordings indicate that control CRISPR neurons and

Rpsa CRISPR neurons display similar intrinsic membrane properties (Suppl. Fig. 3 and Table 1).

This is important to note because the 37-kDa Rpsa precursor is a component of the 40S ribosome

and is involved in pre-RNA processing, thus it could be suggested that the morphological defects

in Rpsa deficient cells may be attributed to a poor overall state of the neurons (5, 38). However,

our electrophysiology results suggest that Rpsa deficient cells remain healthy, despite the

phenotypic changes associated with Rpsa KD (Suppl. Fig. 3 and Table 1). Furthermore, we show

that Itga6 enhances Rpsa's expression on the membrane, where it must be located to interact with

its extracellular ligand PEDF, indicating that Rpsa's role as a receptor is critical for regulating

neuromorphogenesis.

These results are of clinical interest because the *Serpinf1* gene, coding for PEDF protein,

is located in the chromosome 17p13.3 region, which is often deleted causing Miller-Dieker

Syndrome (MDS) and duplicated causing the 17p13.3 microduplication syndrome. There is no

doubt that neuronal migration defects are a main cause of MDS, but the pathogenesis of MDS

has not been completely clarified in detail. MDS has a complex etiology because it caused by a

microdeletion that could include more than 26 genes, including *Serpinf1*. While most of the

genes deleted in MDS patients have not been investigated, previous studies have analyzed some

genes, including *Pafah1b1* (Lis1), *Ywhae* (14-3-3ε) and *Crk* in the MDS critical region (22, 39-

43). However, these studies focused on the gene functions in neuronal migration and neural

activity, since most MDS patients suffer from epilepsy. The role of neuronal morphogenesis in

MDS etiology remains uncertain. PEDF deficiency may not be the main cause of MDS, but it

could contribute to MDS pathogenesis. Thus, our findings will provide new insights into the

mechanisms underlying MDS.

In conclusion, Rpsa signaling mediates functionally relevant aspects of cortical neuronal

morphogenesis including apical dendrite orientation, initiation and elongation of dendrites,

dendritic branching, and dendritic spine density and morphology. This Rpsa signaling

mechanism is initiated by binding of its ligand PEDF, while Rpsa transduces the PEDF-initiated

signal via Itga6. Future studies should focus on elucidating the downstream targets of Rpsa

during cortical neuronal morphogenesis and investigating the mechanism by which Rpsa KD

impacts the synapse. Further investigation can advance our understanding of neuronal

morphogenesis in normal brain development as well as increase our knowledge of

neurodevelopmental disorders, such as MDS.

Materials and Methods

Mice

     All animal experiments were performed under protocols approved by the Drexel

University Animal Care and Use Committees and following the guidelines provided by the US

National Institutes of Health. ICR mice were purchased from Taconic Inc. Embryonic day (E)

0.5 was defined as noon of the day the vaginal plug appeared.

Plasmids

     pCAG-eCas9-GFP-U6-gRNA was a gift from Jizhong Zou (Addgene plasmid # 79145 ;

http://n2t.net/addgene:79145 ; RRID:Addgene_79145). This plasmid contains high-fidelity

eSpCas9 to reduce the off-target effects. gRNAs were designed using the web-based design

tools, including CHOPCHOP (http://chopchop.cbu.uib.no/) and CRISPy-web

(https://crispy.secondarymetabolites.org/#/input), and then cloned into pCAG-eCas9-GFP-U6-

gRNA. Rpsa target gRNA sequence is ATCTACAAAAGGAAAAGTGA(CGG) (112-131 of

mouse Rpsa). CRISPR was chosen as the method to accomplish Rpsa KD, as opposed to shRNA,

because we were not able to identify a specific shRNA target sequence using web-based design

tools (InvivoGen siRNA Wizard, and Invitrogen Block-iT RNAi Designer). For calcium

imaging, GFP in pCAG-eCas9-GFP-U6-control-gRNA and pCAG-eCas9-GFP-U6-Rpsa-gRNA

was replaced into tdTomato by PCR. 6XHis-tagged Rpsa was cloned into pCAGItdTomato

vector (pCAGItdTomato-Rpsa) as described previously (44). CRISPR-resistant Rpsa

overexpression plasmid was created by PCR. The sense and antisense primers containing the

CRISPR target sequence with mutations were designed, and PCR was performed using

PrimeSTAR GXL (Takara) with pCAGItdTomato-Rpsa. Ten mutations without amino acid

change were introduced into primers. The sequence with mutation is

ATTTATAAGCGCAAGTCAGA(TGG) where underlined nucleotides are mutated. The

insertion of mutations was confirmed by sequencing. To create pCAGEN-GCaMP6s, pCAGEN

and pGP-CMV-GCaMP6s were obtained from Addgene, and GCaMP6s fragment amplified by

PCR was cloned into pCAGEN. pGP-CMV-GCaMP6s was a gift from Douglas Kim (Addgene

plasmid # 40753 ; http://n2t.net/addgene:40753 ; RRID:Addgene_40753)(29). pCAGEN was a

gift from Connie Cepko (Addgene plasmid # 11160 ; http://n2t.net/addgene:11160 ;

RRID:Addgene_11160) (45). PEDF and Itga6 shRNAs were designed using the web-based tools

described above and cloned into pSCV2-Venus plasmid as described previously (44, 46). The

target sequence of mouse PEDF is GAACTTGACCATGATAGAA (849-867). The target

sequence for mouse Itga6 shRNA is GACCAAAGACTCGATGTTT (1113-1131). Certified

scramble shRNA (ACTACCGTTGTTATAGGTG) was also used as a negative control

(Invitrogen). All plasmids used in this study were purified by NucleoBond Xtra purification kit

(MACHEREY-NAGEL). pLenti-CMV-Itga6-Myc-DDK-P2A-Puro vector was purchased from

Origene Technologies, Inc. (PS100092). Itga6-Myc-DDk fragment was amplified by PCR and

cloned into pLV-CAG-P2A-mScarlet plasmid.

Analysis of genomic alterations by CRISPR/Cas9

pCAG-eCas9-GFP-U6-Rpsa-gRNA plasmid was transfected into mouse Neuro-2a cells

using PolyJet transfection reagent (SignaGen Laboratories), and Genomic DNA was isolated and

subjected to PCR to amplify the 433 bp fragment containing gRNA target sequence using Q5

High Fidelity DNA polymerase (NEB) and primers

(GAATTC(EcoRI)/GAGTTCTAGTGTCAGAAGAAAAAGATGAATTTTATTCC and

GGATCC(BamHI)/AGCTTTAATAGTGTGCAGGGTCAGTCAG). PCR products were

purified by PCR clean-up/Gel extraction kit (MACHEREY-NAGEL) and cloned into

pBluescript SK(+). Plasmid DNA isolated from the transformed bacteria was sequenced.

Antibodies

466 The primary and secondary antibodies used in this research were as follows: Anti-Rpsa

467 (Santa Cruz, sc-376295), Anti-GAPDH (Proteintech, 60004-1-Ig), Anti-PEDF (Santa Cruz, sc-

468 16956), Anti-His-Tag (Proteintech, 66005-1-Ig), Anti-βIII tubulin (Thermo Scientific Pierce,

469 2G10), Anti- DYKDDDDK epitope (FLAG) tag (Thermo Scientific Pierce, MA1-91878).

Histology and Immunohistochemistry

To analyze Rpsa expression, brains were dissected at E18.5 and fixed with

paraformaldehyde/Phosphate-buffered saline overnight at 4°C. Fixed samples were cryo-

protected by 25% sucrose/Phosphate-buffered saline for 48 hours at 4°C and then embedded with

O.C.T. compound (Sakura). Cryo-sections (30 μm thickness) were cut by cryostat (Microm

HM505 N) and air dried. Sections were rinsed three times in Tris-buffered saline and treated

with 0.2% Triton X-100/Tris-buffered saline for 10 minutes at room temperature, followed by

blocking for 30 minutes in 5% Bovine serum albumin/Phosphate-buffered saline supplemented

with 0.25% Tween-20 to prevent nonspecific binding. Primary antibodies were diluted in

blocking buffer, and sections were incubated in primary antibody overnight at 4°C. All

secondary antibodies were diluted with blocking buffer and sections were incubated in secondary

antibody for 30 minutes at room temperature. Sections were stained by 40,6-Diamidino-2-

phenylindole, Dihydrochloride (DAPI, 600nM) and embedded with 90% glycerol made with

Tris-buffered saline.

To analyze neuronal morphology, brains were dissected at postnatal day (P) 3 or P15 and

fixed with paraformaldehyde/Phosphate-buffered saline overnight at 4°C. Fixed samples were

processed as described above. Cryo-sections (60 μm thickness) were cut and stained by DAPI.

***In Utero* Electroporation**

In utero electroporation was performed as previously described (40, 44, 47). Briefly,

pregnant dams were anesthetized with Avatin and the uterine horn was exposed. Plasmids (1 μg)

were then injected into the lateral ventricle of E15.5 embryo brains. Electroporation at E15.5 will

allow for transfection of cortical pyramidal neurons in layer 2/3 (26-28). Embryo heads were

placed between electrodes with the positive anode angled toward the cortex and three electric

pulses of 35 mV were applied with 50 ms intervals by a CUY21 electroporator (Nepa GENE).

Embryos were placed back into the uterus and allowed to develop uninterrupted until brain

samples were collected at P3 or P15.

Analysis of Neuronal Morphology

All images were obtained using a confocal microscope (Leica SP8) and the experimenter

was blind to the phenotype at the time of imaging.

Apical Dendrite Orientation at P3 – The angle at which the apical dendrite extends with

respect to the cortical plate at P3 was measured using the ImageJ software angle tool. A straight

line perpendicular to the edge of the tissue was used as a reference point to start measuring the

angle. Absolute values of the measured angles were used to calculate mean angles. Standard

deviation projection images from z-projection photos produced from z-stack data were used for

analysis.

Neuronal Morphology Analysis at P15 – ImageJ software measuring features were used

to analyze neuronal morphology. Standard deviation projection images from z-projection photos

produced from z-stack data were used for analysis. Sholl analysis was performed using the Sholl

Analysis Plugin (Gosh Lab, UCSD) for ImageJ following the developer instructions.

Dendritic Spine Morphology Analysis at P15 – Spines were objectively characterized

based on geometric characteristics. Spines longer than 1 µm were classified as filopodia, while

spines shorter than 1 µm were classified as thin. Stubby and mushroom spines were classified

based on morphological appearance. Spines with two heads were classified as branched. Photos

of spines were taken at 63x with 5x zoom and standard deviation projection images were used

for analysis.

Subcellular Fractionation

The subcellular fractionation kit (NBP2-47659) from Novus Biologicals was used to fractionate

COS-1 cells according to the protocol provided by the manufacturer.

Calcium Imaging of Live Brain Slices

Slice Preparation – Brain slices were prepared using a modified version of a previously

described protocol (44). Briefly, mice (P15-P60) were decapitated and brains were quickly

removed and placed in ice cold high sucrose artificial cerebral spinal fluid (ACSF) solution for

slicing. Brains were embedded in 4% low-melting agarose and coronal cortical slices were

generated (300 µm) with a vibrating microtome (VTS1000 Leica Microsystems). Slices were

next incubated for 60 minutes at 37°C in DMEM/F-12 imaging media without phenol red

supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS).

Imaging of Spontaneous Activity – The experimenter was blind to the phenotype at the

time of the imaging. Slices were gently transferred into glass bottom 35mm dishes (MatTek) for

imaging. A membrane was placed on top of the slices to reduce movement during imaging.

Time-lapse live imaging was performed using an inverted fluorescent microscope (Ziess, Axio

Observer Z1) with a 20x objective. Images were captured every 50 ms for 1 minute while the

slices were maintained at 37°C with a stage top incubator (Zeiss).

Calcium Imaging Data Analysis – All cells included in the analysis were double-positive

for GCamp6s and either pCAG-eCas9-tdTomato-U6-control-gRNA or pCAG-eCas9-tdTomato-

U6-Rpsa-gRNA. All image analysis was performed using Zen 2 Pro analysis software (Ziess

2011). Circular regions of interest were placed on the cell soma. Baseline fluorescence (F_0) was

obtained by averaging the fluorescence intensity inside the region of interest immediately before

beginning the time course imaging. Images were captured every 50ms for 1 minute.

Fluorescence intensity for the time course was measured by averaging all pixels in the region of

interest at each frame of the imaging (29). Percent change in fluorescence ($\Delta F/F_0$) was calculated

as ($F_{measured}$- F_0)/ F_0 for every frame of the time course.

Electrophysiological Recordings

Slice Preparation – Mice (P15-P60) were decapitated and brains were quickly removed

and placed in ice cold sucrose solution containing the following (in mM): 87 NaCl, 75 sucrose,

25 glucose, 25 $NaHCO_3$, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 2.5 KCl, 0.25 $CaCl_2$, and 3.5 $MgSO_4$ for slicing.

Coronal cortical slices were generated (300 μm) with a vibrating microtome (Leica

Microsystems). Slices were next incubated for 30 minutes at 37°C in recording artificial

cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) containing the following (in mM): 111 NaCl, 3 KCl, 11 glucose, 25

$NaHCO_3$, 1.3 $MgSO_4$, 1.1 KH_2PO_4, and 2.5 $CaCl_2$. Slices were then maintained at room-

temperature in ACSF for at least 30 minutes before recording. Both slicing solutions and

recording solutions were continuously aerated with 95%/5% CO_2/O_2.

Recordings – The experimenter was blind to the phenotype at the time of the recording.

All recordings were performed at room temperature. Cortical neurons transfected with either the

control CRISPR plasmid or the Rpsa CRISPR plasmid were visualized based on their

fluorescence (tdTomato) with a 63x objective lens on a BX51WI scope (Olympus) using LED

illumination (X-cite). Patch electrodes (Harvard Apparatus) were pulled to tip resistances of 5-8

MΏ using a multi-stage puller (Sutter Instruments) and were filled with K-gluconate based

intracellular solution, containing the following (in mM): 128 K-gluconate, 10 HEPES, 0.0001

$CaCl_2$, 1 glucose, 4 NaCl, 5 ATP, and 0.3 GTP. Data was collected with a Multiclamp 700B

amplifier (Molecular Devices) and Clampex software (pClamp9, Molecular Devices). Signals

were digitized at 20 kHz and filtered at 4 kHz.

Resting membrane potential of the neuron was recorded in current-clamp mode

immediately after breaking in. For passive and active membrane properties, current- and voltage-

clamp protocols were performed as previously described(29). Briefly, input resistance was

measured from a series of hyperpolarizing steps in voltage clamp using Clampfit. Time constant,

tau, was calculated from the standard exponential fit of hyperpolarizing steps in current clamp.

Capacitance was calculated from the input resistance and the tau measurements. Rheobase was

defined as the lowest current step (in 10 pA increments) that evoked an action potential in the

neuron.

Statistical Analysis

Quantitative data were subjected to statistical analysis using SPSS (IBM Analytics) and

MATLAB (MathWorks). The data were analyzed by two-tailed independent-samples t-tests or

one-way ANOVAs when appropriate. Values represented as mean ± S.E.M. Results were

deemed statistically significant if the *p* value was <0.05.

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Competing Interests

The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Expression of Rpsa in the developing cerebral cortex and in primary cortical

neuronal culture

A) Western blot showing Rpsa expression level in lysates of the cortex at various developmental

time-points. B) Quantification of the Western blot showing Rpsa expression levels in the cortex

done using ImageJ. Three biological/technical replicates were used (n = 3). Band intensity was

quantified and normalized to glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH). C)

Immunofluorescence staining of wild-type brain slices at E18.5 showing the spatial distribution

of Rpsa expression (top x20, bottom x63). Scale bars = 50 μm. D) Immunofluorescence staining

of cortical primary neurons after 6 days in culture. Staining shows distribution of Rpsa and

neurons are double-positive for neuronal marker Tuj1 (βIII tubulin).

Figure 2. Rpsa CRISPR is associated with apical dendrite misorientation at P3 that can be

rescued by Rpsa OE

A) Neurons transfected via *in utero* electroporation at E15.5, orientation of the apical dendrite

measured using the angle at which the apical dendrite extends from the middle of the soma

relative to the cortical plate, scale bar = 50 μm B) One-way ANOVA showed a significant

difference in mean angle of apical dendrite from soma (F(3,76) = 22.620, *p* < 0.0005). Tukey

post hoc test showed degree of angle of apical dendrite from middle of soma is significantly

greater for the Rpsa CRISPR group (30.4° ± 3.09) compared to control CRISPR (10.7° ± 1.20)

(*p* < 0.0005). There was no significant difference between Rpsa CRISPR + Rpsa OE (10.8° ±

1.71) and control CRISPR + control OE groups (12.5° ± 1.49) (*p*=0.924). For all groups n=21

cells from 3 mice. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. C) Dendrograms show frequency

distribution of angle measurement.

Figure 3. Rpsa KD is associated with defects in neuronal morphogenesis at P15 that can be

rescued by Rpsa OE

A) Neurons transfected via *in utero* electroporation at E15.5, scale bars = 50 μm B) One-way

ANOVA shows a significant difference ($F_{(3,76)}$ = 7.024, $p < 0.0005$). Tukey post hoc test shows

the mean number of dendrites is significantly lower for Rpsa CRISPR group (2.9 ± 0.240,) as

compared to control CRISPR (4.2 ± 0.236) ($p=0.002$). There was no significant difference

between Rpsa CRISPR + Rpsa OE (4.0 ± 0.205) and control CRISPR + control tdTomato OE

groups (4.3 ± 0.301) ($p= 0.751$). For all groups n=20 cells from 3 mice. Data are represented as

mean $\pm$ SEM. C) One-way ANOVA shows significant difference ($F_{(3,76)}$ = 24.361, $p < 0.0005$).

Tukey post hoc test shows dendrite length is significantly lower for Rpsa CRISPR group (20.90

± 2.04) as compared to control CRISPR (49.51 ± 2.19) ($p<0.0005$). There was no significant

difference between Rpsa CRISPR + Rpsa OE (45.29 ± 2.75) and control CRISPR + control

tdTomato OE groups (39.99 ± 3.31) ($p=0.992$). For all groups n=20 cells from 3 mice. Data are

represented as mean $\pm$ SEM. D) Sholl analysis shows a decrease in branching complexity in

Rpsa deficient cells that can be rescued by Rpsa OE. For all groups n=20 cells from 3 mice.

Figure 4. Rpsa KD, PEDF KD, and Itga6 KD result in similar defects in neuronal

morphology and Rpsa OE and Itga6 OE can both rescue morphological defects after PEDF

KD by increasing the expression of Rpsa on the plasma membrane

A) Neurons transfected via *in utero* electroporation at E15.5, scale bars = 50 μm. B) One-way

ANOVA determined there was a statistically significant difference ($F_{(7,152)}$ = 12.211, $p <$

0.0005). Tukey post hoc test revealed that mean number of dendrites was statistically

significantly lower for Rpsa CRISPR (2.9 ± 0.240) as compared to control CRISPR (4.2 ± 0.236)

($p=0.002$) and that mean number of dendrites was statistically significantly lower for PEDF

shRNA (2.55 ± 0.211, *p*<0.0005) and Itga6 shRNA groups (2.50 ± 0.235, *p*<0.0005) as

compared to the control CRISPR (4.21 ± 0.249). There was no statistically significant difference

in mean number of dendrites between the PEDF shRNA + Rpsa OE (4.15 ± 0.167, *p*=0.999) and

PEDF shRNA + Itga6 OE (3.90 ± 0.204, *p*=0.874) as compared to the scramble shRNA + control

OE group (4.35 ± 0.302). For all groups n=20 cells from 3 mice. Data are represented as mean ±

SEM. C) One-way ANOVA determined there was a statistically significant difference (F(7,152)

= 16.134, *p* < 0.0005). Tukey post hoc test revealed that mean dendrite length was statistically

significantly lower for Rpsa CRISPR (20.90 ± 2.04) as compared to control CRISPR (49.51 ±

2.19) (*p*<0.0005) and that mean dendrite length was statistically significantly lower for PEDF

ShRNA (27.04 ± 2.56, *p*<0.0005), and Itga6 shRNA (26.23 ± 3.30, *p*<0.0005) groups, as

compared to the scramble shRNA group (50.86 ± 3.56). There was no statistically significant

difference between PEDF shRNA + Rpsa OE (48.99 ± 3.569, *p*=0.956) and PEDF shRNA +

Itga6 OE (44.76 ± 3.366, *p*=1.000) as compared to the scramble shRNA + control OE group

(44.265 ± 3.307). For all groups n=20 cells from 3 mice. Data are represented as mean ± SEM.

D) Sholl analysis shows dramatic decrease in branching in Rpsa, PEDF, and Itga6 deficient cells

that is rescued in the PEDF shRNA + Rpsa OE and PEDF shRNA + Itga6 OE groups. For all

groups n=20 cells from 3 mice. E) Western blot showing Rpsa and Itga6 expression in the

nuclear, membrane, and cytosolic subcellular fractions.

Figure 5. Rpsa KD and PEDF KD, but not Itga6 KD, cause a decrease in overall spine

density and a change in spine morphology

A) Neurons transfected via *in utero* electroporation at E15.5, images taken with 63x objective

and 5x zoom to visualize spines, scale bares = 5 μm. B) One-way ANOVA determined there was

a statistically significant difference (F(6,127) = 23.321, *p* < 0.0005). Tukey post hoc test revealed

that mean spine density per μm was statistically significantly lower for Rpsa CRISPR (0.28 ±

0.04, n=21) as compared to control CRISPR (0.70 ± 0.05, n=12) (p=0.001) and mean spine

density per μm was statistically significantly lower for PEDF shRNA (0.21 ± 0.04, n=20) as

compared to scramble shRNA (0.97 ± 0.09, n=20) (p<0.0005). However, the Itga6 shRNA group

(1.01 ± 0.10, n=17) did not show a significant difference compared to the scramble shRNA

group (p=0.999). The PEDF shRNA + Rpsa OE group (0.99 ± 0.07, n=21) was not significantly

different from the scramble shRNA + control OE group (0.77 ± 0.08, n=20) (p=0.230). Data are

represented as mean ± SEM. For each group, spines were analyzed from 3 mice. C) Pie charts

showing the percentage of spines with filopodia, thin, stubby, mushroom, or branched

morphology for each experimental group.

Figure 6. Calcium imaging shows sub-threshold functional difference in Rpsa KD neurons

A) Mean difference in GCaMP6s fluorescence intensity. Two-tailed independent-samples t-test

showed the average difference between maximum and minimum peaks was significantly greater

in the control (12.79 ± 1.06, n=22 cells from 3 mice) compared to Rpsa KD (6.73 ± 1.80, n=19

cells from 3 mice), t(39) = 2.992, p = 0.035. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. B)

Representative % change in fluorescence ($\Delta F/F_0$) for representative individual neuron in mouse

brain slice. Single action potentials are defined as $\Delta F/F0 \geq 23\% \pm 3.2\%$. The left panels were

taken over 20 seconds and the right panels show a 5 second section of each representative trace,

with the y-axis measuring 8 units to provide a zoomed in view. C) Electrophysiology recordings

confirm low spontaneous firing rate of control CRISPR and Rpsa CRISPR neurons.

Representative traces of spontaneous activity of 3 control CRISPR and Rpsa CRISPR neurons at

resting membrane potential in current-clamp mode. n= 9 cells from 3 control CRISPR mice and

n= 7 cells from 2 Rpsa CRISPR mice.

Figure 7. Schematic of Rpsa/PEDF/Itga6 signaling regulating neuronal morphogenesis

A) Under normal conditions Itga6, which is likely bound to a β4 subunit to function as part of a complete integrin, is co-localized on the plasma membrane with Rpsa. Both Rpsa and Itga6 facilitate the binding of PEDF to Rpsa, which results in signaling to regulate proper neuronal morphogenesis (top left). Following Rpsa KD, PEDF KD, or Itga6 KD the signaling mechanism initiated by Rpsa is attenuated, resulting in severe defects in morphology (top right). Knockdown of the upstream ligand PEDF can be compensated for by increasing its downstream receptor Rpsa, to cause increase of Rpsa-Itga6-Itgb4 complex, thus resulting in normal level of signal intensity and normal morphogenesis. The increase in Rpsa-Itga6-Itgb4 complex can also be accomplished by Itga6 OE (bottom). B) Two potential mechanistic explanations for the increase in Rpsa expression on the plasma membrane following Itga6 OE. Rpsa and Itga6 may bind each other in the cytoplasm and co-localize to be trafficked to the plasma membrane together (top). Rpsa and Itga6 may independently express on the plasma membrane and then form a complex to allow stabilization of Rpsa via Itga6 (bottom).

Supplemental Figure 1. Validation of KD plasmids

A) Western blots showing the efficacy of Rpsa KD, PEDF KD, and Itga6 KD done using 293T and COS-1 cells. B) Quatification of Western blots done using ImageJ shows Rpsa CRISPR efficiency is ~77%, PEDF shRNA efficiency is ~84%, and Itga6 shRNA efficiency is ~ 79%. Three biological/technical replicates were used (n = 3). Band intensity was quantified and normalized to GAPDH. C) Representative chromatograms for the target sequence of Rpsa CRISPR. D) Representative Rpsa gene alterations caused by Rpsa CRISPR. Numbers indicate amino acid position in Rpsa protein. Sequences in red font show the target of Rpsa gRNA and PAM sequence. E) Immunofluorescence staining of cortical primary neurons transfected with

pCAG-eCas9-GFP-U6-Rpsa-gRNA plasmid upon plating and then fixed after 6 days in culture.

Note that in the GFP-positive Rpsa KD neuron Rpsa staining is reduced compared to

surrounding GFP-negative normal neurons. Scale bar = 50 μm. F) Quantification of Rpsa marker

fluorescence intensity. Rpsa corrected total cell fluorescence (CTCF) is significiantly decreased

in neurons positive for Rpsa CRISPR (43,881.13 CTFC ± 5,156.70), as compared to

untransfected controls (85,504.51 CTFC ± 9,189.28), t(38) = 3.950, $p<0.0005$.

Supplemental Figure 2. Dendrite length at P3 after Rpsa KD

In utero electroporation was performed at E15.5. One-way ANOVA determined there was no

statistically significant difference in dendrite length between Rpsa CRISPR (27.68 ± 1.40) and

control CRISPR (27.53 ± 1.56) at P3 (F(3,96) = 0.503, p = 0.681). For all groups, n=25 cells

from 3 mice. Data are represented as mean ± SEM.

Supplemental Figure 3. Intrinsic properties of neurons in *ex vivo* brain slice preparation

Control CRISPR and Rpsa CRISPR neurons display similar intrinsic membrane properties. A)

Examples of a control CRISPR and Rpsa CRISPR neuron responding to a series of

hyperpolarizing and depolarizing current steps from a holding potential of −65 mV. B)

Quantification demonstrated that capacitance was significantly larger in the Rpsa CRISPR group.

No other significant differences in membrane properties were found between the control

CRISPR (n= 9 cells from 3 mice) and the KD group (n=7 cells from 2 mice).

A

B

Rpsa expression levels in developing cortex

C E18.5 brain

| Rpsa | DAPI |
| Rpsa | DAPI |

D Cortical neuron (DIV 6)

| Rpsa | βIII Tubulin |
| DAPI | Merge |

Figure 2.

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IUE (E15.5) → Analysis (P3)

A

Control CRISPR | Rpsa CRISPR | Control CRISPR + Control OE | Rpsa CRISPR (GFP) + Rpsa OE (tdTomato)

B

Mean |θ| of apical dendrite from soma

Control CRISPR · Rpsa CRISPR · Control CRISPR + Control OE · Rpsa CRISPR + Rpsa OE

C

Control CRISPR · Rpsa CRISPR · Control CRISPR + Control OE · Rpsa CRISPR + Rpsa OE

IUE (E15.5) → Analysis (P15)

A

IUE (E15.5) → Analysis (P15)

Control CRISPR   Rpsa CRISPR

Scramble shRNA (GFP) +   PEDF shRNA (GFP) +
Control OE (tdTomato)   Rpsa OE (tdTomato)

Scramble shRNA

PEDF shRNA   Itga6 shRNA

B

Spine density per μm

C

Control CRISPR   Rpsa CRISPR
1% 3%   6% 2%
22%   16%
56%   66%
18%   10%

Scramble shRNA
2% 3%
20%
60%
15%

Filopodia
Thin
Stubby
Mushroom
Branched

PEDF shRNA   Itga6 shRNA
7% 2%   1% 1%
12%   16%
44%   63%
35%   19%

Scramble shRNA + Control OE   PEDF shRNA + Rpsa OE
1% 2%   4% 10%
25%   18%
50%   47%
22%   21%

IUE (E15.5) → Analysis (P15-P60)

A

Rpsa signaling: normal

Rpsa KD   PEDF KD   Itga6 KD

Rpsa signaling: decreased

PEDF KD + Rpsa OE

Rpsa signaling: normal

Increase in downstream Rpsa receptor compensates for loss of upstream ligand PEDF

PEDF KD + Itga6 OE

Rpsa signaling: normal

Increase in Itga6 results in an increase of Rpsa localized to the plasma membrane, increased Rpsa compensates for loss of PEDF

B

Itga6 supports Rpsa expression on plasma membrane

Co-localization in cytosol results in Rpsa and Itga6 being trafficked to plasma membrane together

Itga6 stabilizes Rpsa expression on plasma membrane

Rpsa and Itga6 independently express on the plasma membrane

A

B