SERF deletion modifies amyloid aggregation in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease

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Abstract

In age-related neurodegenerative disease, like Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease, disease-specific

proteins become aggregation-prone and form amyloid-like deposits. Depletion of SERF proteins

ameliorates this toxic process in worm- and human cell models for disease. Whether SERF modifies

amyloid pathology in mammalian brain, however, has remained unknown. Here, we generated SERF2

brain-specific knockout mice which, unlike full body knockout mice, were viable, and showed no

major behavioral and cognitive abnormalities. We combined these knockout mice with the APPPS1

mouse model for human amyloid beta aggregation. Using structure-specific amyloid dyes, previously

used to distinguish amyloid polymorphisms in human brain, we show that knockout of SERF2 alters

the structure of amyloid fibrils and deposits. Moreover, scanning transmission electron microscopy

revealed thicker, shorter and more densely packed amyloid in absence of SERF2. Altogether, our data

reveal pleiotropic functions of SERF in development and aging and support a function as a modifier of

amyloid aggregation in mammalian brain. Our results indicate that single cellular factors like SERF

can determine the structural outcome of amyloid aggregation, offering possibilities for polymorphism-

based disease interventions.

Introduction

Protein aggregation is a pathological hallmark shared by several age-related neurodegenerative diseases, such as Alzheimer (AD), Parkinson and Huntington disease. The amyloid-like aggregates that accumulate in each of these diseases are composed of disease-specific proteins, i.e., amyloid-beta (Aβ) and tau in AD[1–4] or alpha-synuclein (α-Syn) in Parkinson disease[5]. While the exact molecular mechanisms underlying the disease pathology remain to be elucidated, genetic evidence indicates that these aggregation-prone proteins play a key role in the disease processes. Mutations altering the production, processing and folding of these proteins are sufficient to cause these diseases[6–23]. Mechanisms underlying age-related protein aggregation include protein homeostatic mechanism that appear to decline with age, which are well studied with the underlying idea that boosting these mechanisms could prevent or delay disease[24–27]. In contrast, little is known about cellular mechanisms that drive toxicity and aggregation of aggregation-prone proteins. Inhibiting such driving mechanisms could provide an alternative and complementary approach to treat protein conformational diseases.

Through a genetic screen in *Caenorhabditis elegans* (*C. elegans*), a highly charged cellular protein has been identified that has the capacity to enhance protein toxicity and aggregation of multiple disease-related, aggregation-prone proteins[28]. This peptide was dubbed *mo*difier of *ag*gregation-4 (MOAG-4) and was found to be an ortholog of two human proteins: SERF1A and SERF2. Interestingly, SERF proteins accelerate the aggregation of multiple amyloidogenic proteins *in vitro*, but not non-amyloidogenic proteins[29–31]. This aggregation promoting effect has been accredited to the interaction of a highly positively charged N-terminal segment with segments of the aggregation-prone proteins that are enriched in negatively charged and hydrophobic, aromatic amino acids leading to the disruption of its inter- and intramolecular electrostatic interactions[31–34]. Neutralizing the charge of MOAG-4 and SERF2 in this N-terminal segment is sufficient to suppress their effect on aggregation and to reduce toxicity in *C. elegans* models for polyglutamine and Aβ pathology[34]. In this study, we use the established APPPS1-21 mouse model for Aβ-pathology to investigate whether the removal of

SERF2 also modifies the aggregation of amyloidogenic proteins in the biologically more complex

environment of the mammalian brain.

Results

Full-body Serf2 KO results in developmental delay and perinatal lethality in mice

To establish the role of SERF2 *in vivo*, we first ensured SERF2 expression in all major organs,

including the brain, and proceeded to generate full-body *Serf2* knockout (KO) mice (Supplemental

Figure 1A-C). During an initial cross, using the four homozygous *Serf2* KO animal (*Serf2$^{-/-}$*) and eight

heterozygous *Serf2* KO animals (*Serf2$^{+/-}$*) we obtained, only one *Serf2$^{-/-}$* survived the day of birth

compared to 27 *Serf2$^{+/-}$* and 96 *Serf2* wild-type (*Serf2$^{+/+}$*) mice (Supplemental Table 1). After

backcrossing into C57BL/6J background, interbreeding of *Serf2$^{+/-}$* animals did not result in any viable

Serf2$^{-/-}$ mice at the time of weaning (Figure 1A, 1B). To determine whether *Serf2$^{-/-}$* mice died during

fetal development, we examined the offspring at multiple developmental stages: embryonic day 13.5,

15.5 and 17.5. In all of the examined embryonic stages we observed the expected Mendelian ratio of

genotypes, around 25 % *Serf2$^{+/+}$* and *Serf2$^{-/-}$* embryos and around 50 % *Serf2$^{+/-}$* (Chi Square: E13.5

p=0.9672; E15.5 p= 0.4432; E17.5 p=0.7674), indicating unaltered viability during embryonic

development (Figure 1B). At birth (P0), however, all *Serf2$^{-/-}$* displayed respiratory distress and the

majority (5/7) died within 30 minutes of being born. At the time of weaning, the Mendelian ratio was

maintained between the *Serf2$^{+/+}$* and *Serf2$^{+/-}$* animals, but no *Serf2$^{-/-}$* mice survived until this stage (Chi

Square: P22 p<0.0001) . At E13.5, *Serf2* mRNA levels showed a 50 % reduction for *Serf2$^{+/-}$* and

complete KO for *Serf2$^{-/-}$* compared to *Serf2$^{+/+}$*(One-way ANOVA: *Serf2$^{+/-}$* and *Serf2$^{-/-}$* vs *Serf2$^{+/+}$*

p$_{Bon}$<0.0001). No compensatory change in *Serf1* mRNA levels was observed, suggesting they function

independently from each other (Figure 1C). A similar ratio in SERF2 expression was also observed on

the protein level (Figure 1D).

Further analysis to uncover the cause of this perinatal lethality revealed a reduction in embryo size of

Serf2$^{-/-}$ compared to *Serf2$^{+/+}$* and *Serf2$^{+/-}$* from E15.5 until birth (Two-way ANOVA: E17.5 WT vs KO

$p_{bon}<0.05$; P0 WT vs ko $p_{Bon}<0.0001$) (Figure 1E, S1D-E). No differences in size could be observed

between $Serf2^{+/+}$ and $Serf2^{+/-}$ embryos during the embryonic stage leading up to birth (P0). We

excluded placental abnormalities, causing impaired transfer of nutrients and oxygen to the embryo, as

a cauce for the growth delays[35]. Examination of placenta at all three embryonic stages for microscopic

lesions in the placental labyrinth or other changes, revealed no genotype-related pathology of the

placenta. The results indicated that the absence of SERF2 in the embryo itself was responsible for the

observed growth phenotype. Histological examination of various tissues revealed a developmental

delay of approximately one to two days in the organs of E17.5 $Serf2^{-/-}$ embryos compared to the

previous time points and standard embryonic development[36,37]. This was most prominent in the lungs,

through reduced expansion of alveoli and augmented tissue density (Figure 1F), and in the kidneys, by

the increased amount of mesenchyme between the tubules and glomeruli (Supplemental Figure S1F).

At the time of birth, the lungs of $Serf2^{-/-}$ pups displayed a significantly reduced saccular space (t-test:

p= 0.0088) (Figure 1G), reflecting insufficient lung expansion and maturation. This phenomenon,

called partial fetal atelectasis, seems to explain the observed respiratory distress and is a likely cause

of the perinatal lethality in $Serf2^{-/-}$ pups.

SERF2 affects growth in a cell-autonomous manner

Given the ubiquitous expression of SERF2 and its overall effect on growth, we examined whether the

effect could be cell intrinsic. We generated CRISPR-induced $Serf2^{-/-}$ HEK293T clonal cell lines and

found that they also display slower proliferation (Figure 2A). Moreover, RNA sequencing analysis of

mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEF) isolated from E13.5 embryos showed a clear enrichment of GO-

terms clustered around three closely related biological functions: cell cycle, cell proliferation and cell

adhesion (Figure 2B-C). Interestingly, in the cell cycle cluster we observe an overall upregulation of

factors driving cell division and downregulation of growth arrest factors in $Serf2^{-/-}$ MEFs

(Supplemental Table 2). This observation seems in line with a developmental delay phenotype in

$Serf2^{-/-}$ mice, because it is known that cell proliferation is favored over differentiation in earlier stages

of embryonic development compared to later stages[38]. Overall, the cell culture results point towards a

cell-autonomous effect of SERF2 and suggest that deletion of $Serf2$ delays cell growth. While our

previous study also demonstrated a cell-autonomous function in regulating protein aggregation for

MOAG-4, we did not find visible effects of MOAG-4 deletion on the viability or life span of *C.*

elegans[28]. Altogether, our results suggest that the perinatal lethality caused by *Serf2* KO is due to the

delayed maturation of certain organs. Given the cell-autonomous nature of the effects of SERF2, we

aimed to avoid these adverse effects by creating an brain-specific conditional KO model.

Conditional Serf2 KO mice display a reduction in size, but no other structural abnormalities

in the brain..

To circumvent the perinatal lethality of full-body *Serf2* KO mice we generated a brain-specific *Serf2*

KO mouse model (*Serf2*^{*br-/-*}) by combining our *Serf2*^{flox/flox} mice with the *Sox1-Cre* model[39] (Figure

3A). Brain-specific KO of Serf2 were indeed viable (Chi Square: p= 0.37) (Supplemental Table 3).

Analysis of *Serf2* expression on the mRNA in various organs and on the protein level confirmed brain-

specific ablation of *Serf2* by *Sox1*-mediated *Cre* expression in our *Serf2*^{flox/flox} mice (t-test WT vs

Serf2^{*br-/-*} brain: 1m p=0.0022; 3m p=0.00527) (Figure 3B-C, Supplemental figure 2A). The small

traces of S*erf2* expression detected in the brains of the KO mice is most likely due to the presence of

cells from non-neuronal lineage in the samples, e.g. cells from circulatory system. In correspondence

with the findings from the full-body KO, we did observe an overall reduction in the brain weight of

Serf2^{*br-/-*} of around 10% compared to WT (Two-Way ANOVA: Genotype p < 0.0001) (Figure 3D).

This difference was already present at 1 month of age and remained at least up to the age of 11

months. Both WT and *Serf2*^{*br-/-*} displayed similar increases in brain weight between 1 and 3 months of

age due to ongoing brain maturation (Two-Way ANOVA: Interaction p=0.8951). This suggests that

the reduction in brain size takes place during an early stage of brain development, but that these

changes do not necessarily alter continued development. Additional histological examination of the

brains with hematoxylin-eosin staining revealed no difference in the cell density (Supplemental Figure

2F), nor did we find any evidence of degeneration, apoptosis or necrosis. Apart from the overall

reduction in weight, the brains showed no structural abnormalities and the tissue appeared healthy. We

also examined the *Sox1-Cre* mice[39] without floxed *Serf2* (*Cre*^{*br*}) to distinguish between the effects of

Cre expression and Serf2 KO. The *Cre*^{*br*} mice also displayed a reduction in brain weight compared to

the WT controls (Two-Way ANOVA: Genotype p=0.0001) (Figure 3E), but overall it was less

pronounced than in *Serf2*br-/- animals. Therefore, *Cre* expression may be partially responsible for the

observed decrease in brain size. Overall, brain deletion of SERF2 did not affect the viability or

structural integrity of the brain.

Brain-specific KO of Serf2 show no major neurological defects

Next, we performed extensive phenotyping of the *Serf2*br-/- to investigate basic neurologic functioning,

motor function and behavior (Figure 4). The most prominent difference we observed in our brain-

specific KO model was an overall reduction in body weight compared to WT mice, around 8% for

females and 15% for males. Additionally, the *Serf2*br-/- mice appeared slightly more agitated as

evidenced by the increased tail elevation and defecation in the SHIRPA (Figure 4, basic neurology

panel). The *Serf2*br-/- mice were also more likely to refrain from a secondary response in the hot plate

test within the test period of 30 seconds, which could indicate altered or retarded thermoreception.

However, we cannot exclude that this phenotype was confounded by alterations in other functions. In

the tests for motor functions, *Serf2*br-/- mice show a reduced tendency to passive rotation and reduced

latency to falling for both sexes. While this could indicate a motor deficit, none of the other motor

tests consistently demonstrated a motor defect across sexes and measured parameters. Moreover,

behavioral differences may also influence rotarod performance and could, therefore be the basis of the

observed difference. In the behavior assays, we observed a clear difference in the open field measures

for distance travelled and center time, again indicating a hyper-responsiveness to mild novelty stress.

In the other behavioral tests, we also observed some mild differences in certain parameters, such as

decreased percentage of spontaneous alternations in the Y-maze, reduced social affinity, altered

acoustic startle at specific amplitudes and reduced pre-pulse inhibition, but only at the lowest

interstimulus interval. Overall, the latter changes appear less robust and require confirmation in an

independent cohort. While the difference in brain and body size is definitely a factor to be considered

during further analysis, our extensive phenotyping of *Serf2*br-/- mice revealed no major deficits in

neurological or motor function and only revealed some mild behavioral alterations, predominantly a

slight hyper-responsiveness and increased agitation. Therefore, we decided to proceed with this model

to investigate the effect of $Serf2^{br-/-}$ on Aβ brain pathology.

Brain-specific KO of Serf2 in APPPS1 mice preserves APP levels or Aβ production

Conditional *Serf2* KO mice were crossed with the *APPPS1-21* amyloid (AM) model[40], which contains

human transgenes for both APP with the Swedish KM670/671NL mutation and PSEN1 with the L66P

mutation. From this cross we obtained four experimental groups: WT, $Serf2^{br-/-}$, AM and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$

(Figure 5A). Upon crossing of the $Serf2^{br-/-}$ with the amyloid model, we observed the expected

Mendelian ratio for all the genotypes at P22, indicating that the viability of AM mice was not affected

by brain-specific KO of *Serf2* (Chi Square: p= 0.37)(Supplemental Table 3). Based on the known

progression of Aβ plaque pathology in the AM mice, we selected two age groups for further analysis:

before (1 month) and after (3 months) Aβ plaque deposition (Figure 5B). Analysis of the *Serf2* mRNA

and protein levels in both age groups showed that *Serf2* expression was not altered by the Aβ

pathology (Two-way ANOVA: $Serf2^{br-/-}$ and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ vs WT 1m p_{bon} <0.001; 3m p_{bon} <0.0001)

(Supplemental Figure 2B-C). The $Serf2^{br-/-}$ and the AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ mice again exhibited the reduction in

brain weight previously observed with $Serf2^{br-/-}$ (Two-way ANOVA: $Serf2^{br-/-}$ vs WT both ages

p_{bon}<0.01; AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ vs WT 1m p_{bon}<0.0001; 3m p_{bon}<0.001) (Supplemental Figure 2D). Also,

Cre^{br}mice again showed a similar, albeit slightly less pronounced reduction in brain size

(Supplemental Figure 2E) and hematoxylin-eosin staining revealed no difference in the cell density

(Supplemental Figure 2F) or tissue health due to Serf2 KO.

Next, we examined whether the brain KO of *Serf2* affected any of the key components in the Aβ

aggregation process, like altering the levels of APP or the production of its cleavage products, $Aβ_{40}$

and $Aβ_{42}$. We determined the expression of human *APP* in WT, $Serf2^{br-/-}$, AM and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ mice

at both 1 and 3 months of age and observed no difference due to brain specific *Serf2* KO (t-test: 1m

p=0.9170; 3m p=0.9963) (Supplemental Figure 2G, data from WT and $Serf2^{br-/-}$ not included due to

lack of APP construct and absence of signal). Western blot analysis confirmed there was also no

difference in APP protein levels between AM and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ (t-test: 1m p= 0.1157;3m p=0.5908)

(Supplemental Figure 2H and I). Further analysis of $A\beta_{40}$ (Two-way ANOVA: Genotype p=0.8841;

Age p<0.0001; Interaction p=0.8841) (Figure 5C) and $A\beta_{42}$ (Two-way ANOVA: Genotype p=0.7006;

Age p<0.0001; Interaction p=0.6522) (Figure 5D) showed an increase in concentration between 1 and

3 months, but this was the same in both AM and AM;*Serf2*[br-/-]. Given the variability in the $A\beta$

concentrations at 3 months and the fact that the ratio between these two peptides is known to affect the

aggregation process, we also investigated the correlation between these two $A\beta$ levels (Figure 5E).

This analysis showed that mice with a high $A\beta_{42}$ concentration display a similarly high $A\beta_{40}$ level,

maintaining a comparable $A\beta_{40}$ /$A\beta_{42}$ ratio for both AM and AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] animals. Similar to previous

observations with MOAG-4 in *C. elegans*, this data suggests that SERF2 does not affect the levels of

APP and its cleavage products, $A\beta_{40}$ and $A\beta_{42}$.

Serf2 KO alters the amount of Aβ deposits in the brain

We next investigated whether SERF2 affects the $A\beta$ aggregation by performing immunohistological

analysis of the $A\beta$ plaque pathology. Initially, we performed a general $A\beta$ staining using the 6E10

antibody directed at the N-terminal amino acid residues 1-16. In accordance with the known

progression of $A\beta$ plaque pathology in the amyloid model, we only found $A\beta$ deposits in the 3-month-

old AM and AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] mice. As expected, most plaques were found in the cortex, with some

pathology beginning to spread to the hippocampus as well (Supplemental Figure 3A). The $A\beta$ deposits

displayed a broad range of sizes, but we found no differences in global morphology between the

plaque population found in AM and AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] (Supplemental Figure 3B-D). Quantification of the

6E10-positive deposits showed a slight increase in AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] compared to AM, but this just failed

to reach statistical significance in the Bonferroni corrected post-hoc comparison (Two-way ANOVA:

all 3m non-AM vs AM groups p_{bon} <0.0001; AM vs AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] p_{bon} =0.063)(Figure 5F, left panel).

Given the high variability in plaque load between animals within the same experimental group, we

examined whether this variability reflected the previously observed variation in $A\beta$ levels.

Unsurprisingly, animals with higher levels of $A\beta_{40}$ (Figure 5F, right panel) and $A\beta_{42}$ (Supplemental

Figure 5A) displayed a higher overall plaque load in both groups. More interestingly, our linear

regression analysis revealed that AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] mice tend to have a higher plaque load than AM mice

with similar Aβ levels (Supplemental Table 4). A second Aβ staining with the similar W0-2 antibody,

directed at amino acid residues 4-10, displayed a similar slight increase in the amount of plaque

deposits in AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* at 3 months (Two-way ANOVA: all 3m non-AM vs AM groups p_{bon} <0.0001;

AM vs AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* p_{bon} =0.101) (Figure 5G, Supplemental Figure 5B). In fact, a comparison between

the 6E10 and the W0-2 staining in individual animals confirmed the similarity between both staining

patterns at 3 months (Supplemental Figure 5C, Supplemental Table S4). Interestingly, our detection

algorithm also picked up a small increase in the counts of W0-2-positive foci in the 1 month

AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* group (Two-way ANOVA: 1m WT vs AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* p_{bon} =0.088 ; *Serf2$^{br-/-}$* vs AM;*Serf2^{br-}*

$^{/-}$ p_{bon} =0.081; AM vs AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* p_{bon} =0.127; all other comparisons p_{bon} >0.999) (Figure 5G, left

panel). Closer examination of the microscopic images revealed the identified spots were not

extracellular plaques, but were the result of increased levels of W0-2-positive intracellular Aβ staining

in AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* (Supplemental Figure 6A). Some low level intracellular W0-2 and 6E10 staining could

also be observed in the other 1-month-old AM mice, but not to the extent that it was picked up by the

detection algorithm (Supplemental Figure 6A-B). This would suggest that the deletion of *Serf2* already

alters the intracellular accumulation of Aβ prior to plaque deposition in a way that affects antibody

binding affinity.

To investigate if SERF2 also affected the amount of Thioflavin-positive fibrils, we performed

Thioflavin-S (ThS) staining. Here, we again observed a large variety in the amount of ThS-positive

plaques between individual animals, but we found no mean difference between AM and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$*

mice (Two-way ANOVA: all 3m non-AM vs AM groups p_{bon} <0.001) (Figure 5H, left panel).

However, further analysis of the correlation between Aβ levels and the amount of ThS-positive

plaques revealed that AM mice showed a positive correlation similar to the general Aβ staining, while

AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* mice displayed an inverse relationship (Figure 5H, right panel, Supplemental Table S4).

Consequently, a general increase in Aβ deposits does not equate to an increase in ThS-positive

amyloid deposition in AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* mice, as it does in AM mice (Supplemental Figure 5D).

Combining the unaltered levels of amyloid beta with changes in numbers of deposits and their affinity

for ThS suggests a change in the amyloid aggregation in *Serf2* KO mice.

Given the differences in the antibody and ThS binding affinity of the Aβ deposits, we decided to

explore the composition within the individual plaques in greater detail. To this end we made use of

two luminescent conjugated oligothiophenes (LCO), small hydrophobic ligands that bind distinct

amyloid structures and can easily be distinguished from each other based on their individual spectral

properties[41]. The smallest, qFTAA, has been shown to stain compact, multifilament fibril structures,

coinciding with ThT and Congo red staining[41–43]. The larger hFTAA is capable of staining prefibrillar

(non-thioflavinophilic) and single fibril aggregates, also stained with 6E10, but not Congo red, ThT or

qFTAA[41–43](Figure 6A). Previous studies have shown that by combining LCO dyes it is possible to

uncover structural differences in plaque composition, which were shown to be associated with

different disease phenotypes in patients[43–45]. An exploratory frequency analysis of the 502nm/588nm

intensity ratios plaques in 3-month-old AM and AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] mice revealed a three-peak pattern in

which the middle peak was similarly represented in both groups (Figure 6B, green area). The first

peak, however, was predominantly found in AM mice (Figure 6B, red area), while the third peak was

mainly detected in AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] (Figure 6B, blue area). This shift in ratio was also reflected by a

difference in the average intensity ratio between AM and AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] (t-test p<0.001) (Figure 6C).

This increase in intensity ratio could not be observed in AM;*Cre*[br] mice (t-test p=0.6047) (Figure 6C,

insert), indicating that this effect is caused by the *Serf2* KO and unrelated to *Cre* expression. Given the

fact that AM;*Cre*[br] animals also show a decrease in brain weight (~8% reduction in AM;*Cre*[br] versus

~11% in the AM;*Serf2*[br-/-]) but do not show similar change in LCO staining, this suggest that the

structural changes are also unrelated to the reduction in brain weight. Next, we examined if the change

in the intensity ratio correlated with the slight increase in 6E10-positive deposits we observed in

AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] (Figure 6D). However, the higher average intensity ratio in AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] mice was not

related to this general plaque load nor the number of W0-2- or ThS-positive deposits (Supplemental

Figure 5E-F). Further microscopic analysis of low intensity ratio deposits from AM mice showed a

plaque with a qFTAA- and hFTAA-positive core and a border that was only stained by hFTAA

(Figure 4E, left panels). The high intensity ratio deposits from AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] mice, on the other hand,

revealed a qFTAA-positive core, but virtually no hFTAA-staining (Figure 6E, right panels),

demonstrating the difference in plaque composition reflected by the shift in LCO intensity ratios.

Additionally, we visualized the global fibrillar structure of the plaques on a nanometer scale using

high resolution, scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM). Overall, STEM images of

plaques from AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] tended to show more condensed plaques composed of short, thick and

densely packed bundles of fibers with little space in between (Figure 6F, right panels). In the AM

mice, however, the plaques we observed displayed more loosely packed fibrils (Figure 6F, left panels).

Taken together, these findings suggest *Serf2* KO in mice leads to a shift in the Aβ aggregation process,

resulting in an altered structural composition of the plaques.

Discussion

Previous studies identified MOAG-4 and its human orthologs SERF1A and SERF2 as modifiers of

aggregation of amyloidogenic proteins. In this study, we have demonstrated in cells and mice that

SERF2 provides a growth advantage during development. The absence of SERF2 or MOAG-4 in itself

does not appear to be lethal in cells, worms or the brain-specific KO mice. Therefore, we postulate that

the observed perinatal lethality in the full-body KO mice is a secondary effect of the delay in growth

due to insufficient maturation of certain organs at birth, rather than indicating an essential gene

function. This appears to be supported by the fact that some pups survived the initial minutes after

birth and incomplete penetrance of the lethality in the earliest generations with mixed genetic

background. The 129SV genetic background present in these mice is known to have a gestation period

that is on average around one day longer than C57/Bl6J mice[46], which could result in improved lung

maturation. These findings are also corroborated by another recent study generating SERF2 KO

mice[47].

The effects of SERF2 on growth and development can be caused by several mechanisms. These

mechanisms include the facilitation by SERF2 of cell proliferation directly or it protecting cells from

stressors that create an unfavorable environment for cell division, both of which would slow general

growth in caes of SERF2 depletion. In the latter case, we would expect to see an upregulation of stress

pathways or cell cycle arrest proteins inhibiting the cell cycle in $Serf2^{-/-}$ cells. Interestingly, the RNA

seq analysis of the MEFs from our $Serf2^{-/-}$ mice showed the exact opposite. Cell cycle driving factors

were upregulated (e.g. cyclins). Whereas, stress signaling and cell cycle inhibiting factors were

downregulated (e.g. GADD45 and GAS1). Thus, the $Serf2^{-/-}$ cells actually displayed an increased

stimulation of cell proliferation mechanisms, which would fit with cells from earlier stages of

embryonic development. While the exact endogenous biological function of SERF2 remains unclear, a

recent study showed that SERF1a might play a role as an RNA-organizing protein, which localizes to

membraneless nuclear organelles, like the nucleolus, under normal physiological conditions. However,

under stress conditions, it was shown to migrate to the cytoplasm, where it could drive amyloid

toxicity.[48] While there was no compensatory upregulation of SERF1 in response to SERF2 KO and a

similar mode of action remains to be demonstrated for SERF2, the region responsible for the RNA-

binding properties of SERF1A is highly conserved in MOAG-4 and SERF2[48]. Given the importance of

nucleolar disassembly and reassembly in cell cycle control[49,50], a putative RNA-organizing function

could explain how SERF2 facilitates cell proliferation but its precise function in cell proliferation

remains to be identified. Loss of SERF2s function in development and cell growth, in addition, would

have limited impact in non-proliferating, differentiated cells, like the brain's neurons or the cells of

adult $C. elegans$, and may explain why we saw no adverse effects in the $moag-4$ deletion worms or our

adult $Serf2^{br-/-}$ mice.

Additionally, we confirmed the ability of SERF2 to modify the Aβ pathology $in vivo$ in a mouse model

without it changing the overall Aβ levels. This finding is in accordance with the previously observed

effects of MOAG-4 on the aggregation of polyglutamine, Aβ and αSyn in $C. elegans$[28]. At 1 month of

age, before plaque deposition, we already observe a change in intracellular Aβ accumulation, which

resembles the recently reported intracellular, perinuclear accumulation believed to be the precursor for

the dense plaque core[51]. We further showed that mice lacking SERF2 were more prone to form Aβ

deposits and that the composition of these deposits was structurally different. In AM mice higher

levels of Aβ result in an increase in the numbers of Aβ deposits as well as an increase in the number of

ThS-positive deposits. AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ mice, on the other hand, also show an increase in Aβ deposits, but

this did not lead to higher numbers of ThS-positive plaques, indicating an altered dynamic and

outcome of amyloid formation. These findings were further corroborated by the LCO spectra, which

revealed that the plaques in AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] mice have a different conformation of pre-fibrillar and

fibrillar Aβ compared to AM mice. Finally, STEM imaging also confirmed a globally altered structure

of the amyloid fibrils in the plaques.

Amyloid fibrils are formed through a nucleated self-assembly process characterized by a structural

conformation to a β-strand secondary structure and the formation of a critical nucleus during the initial

oligomerization. The nuclei act as seeds from which the fibrils grow and have been shown to

propagate a specific fibril structure[52,53]. In vitro kinetic assays with SERF and MOAG-4 have shown

that these peptides accelerate aggregation by acting on the nucleation phase[30,31,33,54]. Recently, we have

shown that SERF2 is equally capable to drive amyloid formation of α-Syn and Aβ *in vitro* through

a conserved, positively charged region[34]. Meanwhile, another study has demonstrated that binding of

the intrinsically disordered protein yeast SERF to α-Syn and Aβ results in fuzzy complexes with

heterogeneous structural conformations that are more extended in nature[54]. Intra-molecular

electrostatic interactions have also been proven to play a part in the dynamics and structure of the Aβ

monomer folding, which is at the basis of nucleus formation. In fact, several of the familial AD

mutations located within the Aβ sequence and reported not to affect the Aβ levels, appear to exert their

effects by modifying the intra-molecular interactions and monomer folding[16,55–57]. These mutations

have been shown to alter the aggregation kinetics, fibril structure and localization of Aβ accumulation

and deposition, giving rise to specific disease phenotypes in mice and human patients[14–16,44,55,58–67]. The

differences in Aβ pathology between these mutants seem to display some similarities to the changes

we observed between our AM and AM;*Serf2*[br-/-] mice. Together with the *in vitro* findings about the

mechanism of SERF2 interaction with aggregation-prone proteins, this would appear to suggest

modulation of intra-molecular interactions and altered nucleation as the mechanism for SERF2's effect

on aggregation and amyloid formation in our mice.

Interestingly, there is increasing evidence that qualitative, structural properties may be more related to

toxicity than the quantity of aggregates and deposits. Recent studies have provided increasing

evidence that structural polymorphs are associated with differences in toxicity and different clinical

phenotypes in sporadic and familial cases[45,53,68–70]. One recent study even demonstrated that these

structural conformations of distinct disease phenotypes could also be detected by differences in the

LCO spectra of the plaques and that these spectral properties could, at least partially, be transmitted to

a mouse model through seeding[45].

While the effect of familial mutations on the formation of distinct polymorphs has already been

explored by others[45,66,67,71], our study provides the first evidence of a single endogenous factor,

separate from Aβ and its production pathway, contributing to a structural shift of amyloid pathology in

a mammalian system. Further research will be needed to elucidate the exact structural changes at an

atomic level and if they affect toxicity and disease progression similarly to what was previously

observed in *C. elegans*. This will provide new insights into the structural properties and diversity of

disease-protein aggregation, contributing to a better understanding of the variability in disease

manifestation and opening up previously unexplored avenues for therapeutic research. In the case of

SERF2 specifically, its apparent antagonistic pleiotropy and potentially reduced biological importance

in later life could prove interesting with regard to the treatment of age-related neurodegenerative

disorders. However, further exploration of SERF2's endogenous function and how it evolves with

ageing will be needed to fully assess this mechanism's therapeutic potential.

Materials and methods

Animals

Serf2 knockout mice were generated by introducing *loxP* sites in the *Serf2* gene on either side of exon

2, in accordance with the 'knockout-first' allele design as described by Skarnes and colleagues[72]. Full-

body *Serf2* knockout mice were obtained by crossing these floxed mice with 129SV mice expressing

Cre under the *Hprt* promoter, resulting in the removal of exon 2 by *Cre*-mediated recombination

(Figure S1A). Subsequently, these mice with mixed background were backcrossed at least 6 times to a

C57Bl/6J background. Homozygous and heterozygous full-body *Serf2* knockout mice were examined

with their wild-type littermates at embryonic day 13.5, 15.5 and 17.5, as well as at the day of birth

(P0) and day of weaning (P22).

Heterozygous *Sox1-Cre* mice[39] were backcrossed at least 8 times to a C57BL/6J background. These

animals were also used as controls to differentiate between effects of *Cre* expression and Serf2

knockout. To generate the conditional *Serf2* knockout mice, the floxed mice were first crossed with

Tg(ACTFLPe)9205Dym (Jackson#003800) mice to flip the FRT site and remove the lacZ and neo

cassette. Subsequently, these mice were backcrossed at least 6 times to a C57BL/6J background.

Finally, the resulting homozygous *Serf2*$^{flox/flox}$ mice were crossed with the backcrossed *Sox1-Cre* mice,

to obtain the brain-specific *Serf2* knockout mice (Figure S3A). The conditional *Serf2* knockout mice

were crossed with the APPPS1-21 transgenic mice (APP (KM670/671NL)/PS1(L166P), Rottenburg,

Germany) [40]. A final cross between heterozygous APPPS1-21; *Serf2*$^{flox/flox}$ and heterozygous *Sox1-Cre*;

Serf2$^{flox/flox}$ resulted in four experimental groups of *Serf2*$^{flox/flox}$ mice: *Sox1-Cre*$^{-/-}$; APPPS1-21$^{-/-}$ (WT),

Sox1-Cre$^{+/-}$; APPPS1-21$^{-/-}$ (*Serf2*$^{br-/-}$), *Sox1-Cre*$^{-/-}$; APPPS1-21$^{+/-}$ (AM) and *Sox1-Cre*$^{+/-}$; APPPS1-21$^{+/-}$

(AM;*Serf2*$^{br-/-}$) (Figure 2A). All experimental groups were tested at 1 month or 3 months of age.

Serf2$^{br-/-}$ for behavioral phenotyping resulted from breeding conditional *Serf2* knockout mice with

APPPS1 transgenic mice (APP(KM670/671NL)/PS1dE9)[73] and phenotyping started at the age of 9

weeks.

All experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the University

of Groningen (Groningen, The Netherlands) and by the responsible authority of the district

government of Upper Bavaria, Germany.

All mice were maintained on a C57BL/6J background and housed in a 12:12 hour light/dark cycle and

the animals had ad libitum access to food and water. Genotyping of embryos was performed using tail

and yolk sac biopsies. Otherwise, ear biopsies from labelling were used. DNA was purified using

prepGEM® Tissue kit according to a protocol adapted from the manufacturer (ZYGEPTI0500,

ZyGEM, VWR International BV) and subjected to PCR using the primers listed in Supplemental

Table S5. If not otherwise stated, mice were terminated through CO_2-inhalation and cervical

dislocation for subsequent tissue collection.

Embryo processing and histochemistry

Embryos were fixed in 4 % formalin (Kinipath) for a minimum of 24 hours at room temperature. For

the pathological analysis, the embryos and their placenta were bisected longitudinally and embedded

in paraffin. Using the microm HM 340E (Thermo Scientific) 4 µm sections were cut for the

hematoxylin-eosin (HE) staining. The HE sections were incubated at 60 °C for 15 minutes. Next,

sections were deparaffinized and rehydrated in xylene (2x), 100 % alcohol (2x), 96 % alcohol, 70 %

alcohol and water. HE staining was performed by incubation with hematoxylin for 4 minutes, water

for 10 minutes, eosin for 1 minute and water for 10 seconds. After staining all sections were

dehydrated in 70 % alcohol, 96 % alcohol, 100 % alcohol (2x) and xylene (2x).

Brain processing

Upon termination, all brains were collected and weighed. From each experimental group three whole

brains were collected for HE staining according to the protocol described under embryo processing.

HE-stained sections were scanned with the TissueFAXs microscope using 20X objective. Images were

processed for nuclei counts using Histoquest software. The remaining brains were divided sagittally.

The left hemibrain was prepared for histochemistry and fixed in 4 % paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 48

hours at room temperature on a shaker. Next, the brains were placed in 30 % sucrose for

approximately 12 hours. Afterwards, the excess sucrose was removed and hemibrains were frozen in

molds with Tissue Tek O.C.T. compound (Sakura, The Netherlands) on dry ice. The right hemibrain

was snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. This tissue was homogenized using a liquid

nitrogen cooled mortar for subsequent protein and RNA analysis.

Quantitative RT-PCR

Total RNA was extracted from snap frozen tissue using TRIzol Reagent (Life Technologies) according

to the manufacturers' description. Total RNA quality and concentration were assessed using a

NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific/Isogen Life Science). cDNA was made from

1,5 µg total RNA with a RevertAid H Minus First Strand cDNA Synthesis kit (Thermo Scientific)

using random hexamer primers. Quantitative real-time PCR was performed using a Roche LightCycler

480 Instrument II (Roche Diagnostics) with SYBR green dye (Bio-Rad Laboratories) to detect DNA

amplification. Relative transcript levels were quantitated using a standard curve of pooled cDNA

solutions. Expression levels were normalized to β-Actin or 18S mRNA levels. The primers for

Quantitative PCR used are listed in Supplemental Table S5.

Western Blot analysis

For SERF2 analysis tissues were homogenized in RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris pH 8, 150 mM NaCl,

5mM EDTA, 0.5 % SDS, 0.5 % SDO, 1 % NP-40) with protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) and

incubated on ice for 1 hour, spun down at 13,300 rpm for 30 minutes at 4 °C and the supernatant was

collected. Protein measurements were performed using a BCA kit (Pierce) and 150 µg was loaded on a

10-20 % tris/tricine SDS-page gels (Bio-Rad Laboratories) and blotted onto 0,2 µm nitrocellulose

membrane (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Membranes were incubated overnight with SERF2 (1/1500,

Protein tech) or Actin (1/10 000, MP biomedicals) antibody. Next, the membranes were incubated

with anti-mouse or –rabbit secondary antibodies tagged with horseradish peroxidase (1/10 000, Bio-

Rad Laboratories) for one hour at room temperature and visualized by chemiluminescence (Amersham

ECL prime western blotting detection reagent, VWR).

RNA sequencing

RNA sequencing analysis was performed on three MEF cell lines from *Serf2*^{-/-} mice and four *Serf2*^{+/+}

littermate controls. Total RNA was isolated from MEFs using the Qiagen RNeasy isolation kit.

Integrity of the RNA based on RIN scores as determined by a Bioanalyzer (Agilent). RNA-sequencing

libraries were prepared using TruSeq Stranded Total RNA with Ribo-Zero Human/Mouse/Rat (RS-

122-2201; Illumina, CA, USA) according to manufacturers' protocol. Pooled libraries were sequenced

on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 (single-end 50 bp). Reads were aligned to the mouse reference genome

(mm10) using a splicing-aware aligner (StarAligner). Aligned reads were normalized to fragments per

million (FPM), excluding low abundance genes (mean FPM>1 in at least two samples). The raw count

data were pre-processed using the programming language R (3.4.0) [R Core Team, 2016, available

online at: www.r-project.org], the program RStudio (1.0.143) [RStudio Team, 2016, available online

at: http://www.rstudio.com/] and the EdgeR package (3.18.0) (Robinson et al., 2010). Genes that

displayed FPM value >1 in at least two libraries were retained, resulting in a list of 12,808 genes for

differential analysis. Differentially expressed (DE) genes between the $Serf2^{+/+}$ and $Serf2^{-/-}$ MEFs were

identified using the EdgeR general linear model approach. After statistical correction for multiple

comparisons with the "false discovery rate" (FDR) method (FDR<0.05), a list of 738 DE genes was

obtained. DAVID (6.8) was used to perform functional annotation analyses on this gene list and to

identify significantly enriched gene ontology (GO) terms [using GOTERM_BP_DIRECT] [74,75]. The

connectivity between the enriched GO terms was further examined by determining the amount of

associated genes found (AGF) that were shared between two GO terms. The most significant

relationships (where a GO term shared > 25 % of the AGF) were mapped in a network using the

igraph package (1.0.1). The color of the edges reflects the major node, with the largest amount of

AGF, in each relationship. The weight of the edges was determined by the percentage of AGF shared

by the minor node in the relationship. We defined three clusters of GO-terms, where multiple minor

GO-terms connected to one or two central, major GO-terms. Minor GO-terms always clustered with

the major GO-term with whom they shared the strongest connection. One GO term, positive regulation

of the apoptotic process, showed no direct relation with one of the major GO-terms and was therefore

assigned to the only cluster it had a significant connection with (Figure S2A-B).

Cell culture

Mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) were isolated from $Serf2^{+/+}$, $Serf2^{+/-}$ and $Serf2^{-/-}$ E13.5 embryos.

MEFs were cultured in T75 culture flasks (Greiner Bio-One, 658175), high–glucose Dulbecco's

modified Eagle's medium (Gibco), supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Sigma 12133C), 1 %

penicillin/streptomycin (Gibco), non-essential amino acids (Gibco) and β-mercaptoethanol at 37°C, 5

% CO_2 and 3 % O_2. E13.5 embryos. Wild-type HEK293T and two independent clonal lines of

CRISPR *Serf2* KO mutant HEK 293T cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium

(DMEM, Gibco; high glucose, pyruvate, 41966052), supplemented with 10 % Bovine Cow Serum

(BCS; Sigma 12133C) and 1 % Penicillin/Streptomycin (Gibco; 10 000 U/mL, 15140122), at 37 °C, 5

% CO_2. For passaging of cells, 0.05 % Trypsin-EDTA (1X), Phenol Red (Invitrogen; 25300-054) was

used. Regular mycoplasma tests were performed.

Cell proliferation assay

For the proliferation assay, 200 000 cells of each cell line were plated in triplicate in a standard 12-

well plate and incubated inside the IncuCyte Zoom Live-Cell Imaging System (Essen Bioscience) for

over 100 hours. The Incucyte system captured phase contrast images with a 10X magnification every 2

hours at nine distinct locations in each well to determine average confluency as a measure of cell

growth. The quantification was performed using the IncuCyte Zoom software. The growth experiment

was repeated three times. The confluency data of each experiment was normalized by min-max scaling

and the average of the three experiments was plotted (solid line) with the standard deviation (dashed

lines).

Mouse phenotyping pipeline

30 Serf [br-/-] (15 male and 15 female mice) and 30 littermate controls (male and female mice) underwent

to a neuro-behavioral phenotypic screening pipeline at the German Mouse Clinic[76,77] (see also

www.mouseclinic.de). Measurements were taken from weeks 9 to 29 weeks. Experimental groups

were assigned according to the genotype of the animals. Metadata for each data point was recorded

throughout the measurements. The phenotypic tests were performed according to the standardized

protocol as described before[78–83] and available as extended material & methods. Animal numbers may

vary depending on the test performed.

ELISA

The ELISA experiments were performed as described previously[84]. Briefly, the frozen brain samples

were homogenized in tissue protein extraction reagent (Pierce) supplemented with complete protease

inhibitors (Roche), and centrifuged for 1 hour at 430 000 g at 4 °C. The supernatant was used for

ELISA. The $A\beta_{40}$ and $A\beta_{42}$ levels were determined by standard sandwich ELISAs using end-specific

antibodies (Janssen Pharmaceutical), and the monoclonal $JRFcA\beta_{40}/28$ and $JRFcA\beta_{42}/26$ antibodies as

the capture antibodies. Horseradish peroxidase conjugated $JRFA\beta N/25$ or $JRFA\beta N/25$ were used as

the detection antibodies for, respectively, human $A\beta$ or murine $A\beta$. Samples were loaded in triplicate

for each ELISA. The ELISAs were performed in triplicate for the 3-month-old animals and in

duplicate for the 1-month-old animals.

Brain immunohistochemistry

To evaluate $A\beta$-related pathology, the brain was cut in 30 µm thick serial cryostat sections. A series of

sections was selected with 300 µm spacing between individual sections and blind-coded, 6 per mouse

for the 6E10 and Iba1 antibody and 3 per mouse for W02. Sections were fixed in 4 % PFA for 10

minutes, followed by 20 minutes antigen retrieval in citrate acid (pH 6.0) and 30 minutes in 1 % H_2O_2

in methanol. Next the sections were incubated for 1 hour in 10 % goat or donkey serum, depending on

the secondary antibody, and immunolabeled overnight with antibodies against $A\beta$, and Iba1

(Supplemental Table S6). The sections were washed and incubated with the complementary

biotinylated secondary antibody (1/500, Jackson Immunoresearch) for 2 hours. Next, sections were

incubated in ABC complex and reacted with diamino-benzidine (0.5 mg/ml H2O with 0.01 % H_2O_2).

The stained sections were scanned with the TissueFAXs microscope using 20X objective. All images

were analyzed using the Fiji platform of the ImageJ software[85]. For unbiased feature detection we used

a single automated script with optimized threshold method and parameters for the complete image set

of each staining method.

Thioflavin-S Staining

A 300 µm-spaced series of three blind-coded 30 µm sections were fixed in 4 % PFA for 10 min,

followed by incubation in 0.25 % potassium permanganate solution for 15 min, and a bleaching step

with 1 % potassium metabisulfite/1 % oxalic acid for 5 min, incubation with 0.02 % Thioflavin-S

solution in 50 % ethanol (Sigma T1892) for 8 minutes, rinsed with water between every step. Finally

the sections were incubated with 1 µl/ml DAPI. The sections were analyzed as described for the

immunostained sections. Stained sections were scanned with the TissueFAXs microscope using 20X

objective. Images were processed using Tissuequest software, selecting the cortex for automated

analyses.

Luminescent conjugated oligothiophene (LCO) staining

For the Luminescent conjugated oligothiophenes (LCO) stainings, two different LCO variants,

qFTAA (quadro-formyl thiophene acetic acid) and hFTAA (hepta-formyl thiophene acetic acid) were

used. Blind-coded 30 µm sections were double-stained with qFTAA and hFTAA (2.4 µM qFTAA and

0.77 µM hFTAA in PBS) similar to a previous description (Nyström et al., 2013). Sections were

incubated for 30 minutes in the dark at room temperature. Stainings were analyzed on the Zeiss LSM

510 META confocal microscope equipped with an argon 458 nm laser (Carl Zeiss MicroImaging

GmbH, Jena, Germany). An 40x objective (oil-immersion, 1.3 NA, Zeiss) was used for spectral

imaging of the Aβ deposits. Stacked images were acquired every 10 nm in the emission spectrum

between 470 to 695 nm. Locations were selected randomly from the plaque containing regions of the

temporal, frontal and occipital cortex. Images were analyzed using Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012, 2015)

and standard computer algorithms to provide a reproducible, unbiased detection of the plaques. First,

the stacks of images across the different wavelengths of the spectrum were combined into one image

using the Z-projection sum. A threshold was applied to the resulting image using the "Triangle dark"

algorithm to automatically identify and delineate the plaques. Partial plaques on the edge of the images

and particles smaller than 25 µm^2 were excluded. These settings allowed us to detect over 98 % of all

the plaques in the images. The missed plaques were either too small or too low in intensity to be

accurately distinguished from the background. Incorrectly identified particles due to (lipofuscin) auto

fluorescence were readily identified based on their wavelength intensity profile and visual inspection

and were also excluded from the analysis. We identified between 17-25 plaques in each animal for the

spectral intensity measurements. The ratio of the intensity of emitted light at the blue-shifted portion

(502 nm) and red-shifted peak (588 nm) was used as a parameter for spectral distinction of different

Aβ deposits. These peaks of the spectra were selected to maximize the spectral distinction.

Large-scale STEM (nanotomy)

The scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) experiments were adapted from previously

described experiments (Kuipers et al., 2015). Briefly, paraffin embedded cortical sections of AM and

AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* were deparaffinized and postfixed with 1 % osmium tetroxide/1.5 % potassium

ferrocyanide in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate, dehydrated through ethanol and embedded in EPON (Serva)

using a tissue processor (Leica EM TP 709202). Ultrathin sections (80 nm) were cut using the Leica

uc7 ultramicrotome and collected on formvar coated cupper grids (electron microscopy sciences,

Hatfield, Pennsylvania). A large area scan using Scanning Transmission Detection was made using a

Zeiss supra55 SEM with Atlas. STEM detection with a four quadrant STEM detector was used in

inverted darkfield mode, at 28 kV with 30 μm aperture at 3.5 mm working distance. All images were

recorded at the same scan speed (cycle time 1.5 minute at 3072×2304 pixels). Contrast and brightness

were set based on a live histogram. High resolution large-scale STEM images at 2.5 nm pixel size

were generated with the external scan generator ATLAS (Fibics, Canada), individual tiles were

stitched in VE viewer (Fibics, Canada), exported as a html-file and uploaded to the website

www.nanotomy.org.

Statistical analysis

Unless specified otherwise, statistical analysis was performed using Graphpad v7.02. The exact

statistical test used for each comparison is specified in the main body of the text, together with the

resulting p-values. In the case of multiple comparisons, a post-hoc analysis with Bonferroni correction

was performed. Any corrected p-values derived from this post-hoc analysis are indicated in the text as

p_{bon}.

Data availability

RNA-seq data have been deposited in the ArrayExpress database at EMBL-EBI (www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress) under accession number E-MTAB-10083. (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress/experiments/E-MTAB-10083)

Nanotomy datasets are open access available via the repository website www.nanotomy.org/PW/temp02/EllenNollen.

[to be deleted] Upon acceptance of this work the data will be open access available, without password. Pending acceptance, the website can only be accessed by collaborators and reviewers

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Author Contributions

E.S., O.S., L.J. and E.A.A. conceptualized the project. E.S., L.J., O.S. and W.H. performed initial sample collection, sample processing and validation experiments verifying the Serf2 KO models and controls. M.K., L.H., S.A.Y. and A.d.B. provided the embryonic morphological and histological assessment. N.B. and M.J. provided the LCO staining and confocal imaging. A.H.G.W. performed the

large-scale STEM imaging. B.B. and F.F. provided assistance in the isolation and RNA seq analysis of

the MEFs. A.T. performed western blotting and ELISA measurements for APP and Aβ content. L.G,

S.M.H., and W.W. designed, performed, analyzed and interpreted the behavior assays.

B.v.d.S. and J.v.D. generated the initial Serf2KO animals. L.J. performed the data analysis and wrote

the manuscript in collaboration with E.S. and E.A.A.

M.H.dA. acquired funding. M.H.dA. and W.W. conceptualized the phenotyping study. V.G-D., H.F.

and S.M.H. supervised the mouse phenotyping study and were responsible for project organization;

S.M. generated the mouse cohorts for phenotyping. L.B. and L.G. performed the neuro-behavioral

tests and analysed and interpreted the data.

Conflict of Interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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 Figure legends

 Figure 1. Full-body *Serf2*^{-/-} mice display a developmental delay and perinatal lethality. (A)
Schematic overview of the crossing scheme with full-body *Serf2*$^{+/-}$ mice and the resulting genotypic
composition of the offspring at embryonic and postnatal stage. **(B)** Absolute animal counts for the
three genotypes in the offspring at various days of embryonic development(E13.5, E15.5 and E17.5),
at birth (P0) and at time of weaning (P22). **(C)** Real time RT-PCR analyses of *Serf1* and *Serf2* RNA
levels in E13.5 heads normalized to housekeeping gene beta-actin (n=4/group, mean±SD, One-way
ANOVA for each gene, Bonferroni corrected post-hoc comparison between genotypes ***$p<0.001$).
(D) Western blot of SERF2 and actin in *Serf2*$^{+/+}$, *Serf2*$^{+/-}$, *Serf2*$^{-/-}$embryos at E13.5 (black arrow
indicates SERF2 band). **(E)** Length measurements of *Serf2*$^{+/+}$, *Serf2*$^{+/-}$, *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ embryos at E15.5, E17.5
and P0 (black line = mean, Two-way ANOVA with factors age and genotype, Bonferroni corrected
post-hoc comparison for *Serf2*$^{+/-}$ and *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ compared to *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ *$p<0.05$; ***$p<0.001$). **(F)**
Hematoxylin and eosin stained lung tissue from *Serf2*$^{+/+}$ and *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ pups at P0 (top: *Serf2*$^{-/-}$, bottom:
Serf2$^{+/+}$, scale bar=500μm, rectangle =5x magnification in right picture, **(G)** Quantification of the
saccolar space in lung tissue from *Serf2*$^{+/+}$ and *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ pups at P0 (black line = mean, t-test **$p<0.01$).
For all mouse data panels: *Serf2*$^{+/+}$= black, *Serf2*$^{+/-}$ = dark grey, *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ = light grey.

**Figure 2. Cell culture data of *Serf2* KO and control HEK cells and RNA sequencing analysis of
mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) isolated from full-body *Serf2*^{-/-} and control mice. (A)**
Growth curve of two CRISPR-induced *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ clones of HEK293T versus wild-type HEK293T.
(Three replicates measured,full line=replicate average, dashed lines=standard deviation on average)
(B) Network showing the interconnectivity of enriched GO-terms in RNA sequencing data from *Serf2*$^{-}$
$^{/-}$ and control MEFs. Circle size indicates amount of differentially expressed genes found in each GO-
category. Edges were drawn when the minor category shared more than 25 % of its found genes with
the major category. Edge color indicates the major category in the relationship. Edge thickness
indicates the percentage of found genes shared by the minor category. **(C)** Bar chart indicating the fold
change for each GO-term as determined by DAVID. Brackets indicate the three main GO-term
clusters defined based on the network in (B).

Figure 3. Brain-specific conditional KO results in reduced brain weight, partially attributed to

Cre-expression. (A) Modified targeting strategy used to delete the exon 2 of *Serf2* specifically in the

central nervous system. **(B)** Real time RT-PCR analyses of *Serf2* RNA expression in different organs

Serf2$^{+/+}$ and *Serf2*$^{br-/-}$ female mice at 1 month and 3 months of age. *Serf2* expression was normalized to

housekeeping gene beta-actin (all groups n=6, mean ± SEM). **(C)** Quantification of *Serf2* and beta-

actin western blot analysis in brain lysates of WT and *Serf2*$^{br-/-}$ female mice at 1 month (both groups

n=6, mean ± SEM, t-test **p<0.01). **(D)** Evolution of brain weight in WT and *Serf2*$^{br-/-}$ female mice

between 1 and 11 months of age. **(E)** Brain weight of unfloxed WT and CRE^{br} mice between 1 and 11

months of age. For panel E and D: black line = mean, Two-way ANOVA with factors age and

genotype, Bonferroni corrected post-hoc for genotype comparison at each age *p_{bon}<0.05, **p_{bon}<0.01,

***p_{bon}<0.001.

Figure 4. Extensive phenotyping of conditional *Serf2* KO mice reveals reduced body weight and

some subtle behavioral changes, but no clear neurological or motor function defects. The top

panel provides a schematic overview of the complete phenotyping pipeline used and the ages of

testing. Mice were used from a separate breeding line, dedicated to behavioral testing. An overview of

the test results is grouped in the 4 bottom panels according to the three general modalities investigated:

basic neurological functioning, overall motor function and behavior. Graphs show the -log(p-value)

for the comparison between WT and *Serf2*$^{br-/-}$ mice for all parameters tested (vertical black line =

significance level of 0.05, sex symbols indicate that sex specific analysis of the parameter only

revealed a significant difference for sex).

Figure 5. Crossing a conditional *Serf2* KO with an AM background does not affect Aβ levels, but

modifies Aβ plaque formation (A) Schematic overview of the cross between brain-specific *Serf2* KO

mice and the amyloid model resulting in four experimental groups: WT, *Serf2*$^{br-/-}$, AM and AM;*Serf2*$^{br-}$

$^{/-}$. **(B)** Timeline for the Aβ pathology in the amyloid model and the selected time points for this study.

(C) Aβ$_{40}$ and **(D)** Aβ$_{42}$ levels in brain lysate from AM and AM;*Serf2*$^{br-/-}$ mice at 1 and 3 months of age

as determined by ELISA normalized to total protein content. (black line = mean, t-test between

genotypes at both ages not significant). **(E)** Correlation plot depicting the relationship between $A\beta_{40}$

and $A\beta_{42}$ levels in AM (black) and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ (grey) mice at 3 months of age (detailed statistics in

Supplemental Table 3). **(F)** Quantification of the $A\beta$ deposits in the region of interest (ROI) of 6E10

immunostained sagittal brain sections from 1- and 3-month-old AM and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ mice (black line

= mean, One-way ANOVA between genotypes at both ages, Bonferroni corrected post-hoc between

AM and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ not significant). Right panel: Correlation plot depicting the relationship between

$A\beta_{40}$ levels and 6E10 plaque density in AM (black) and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ (grey) mice at 3 months of age.

(G) Quantification of the $A\beta$ deposits in the ROI of W0-2 immunostained sagittal brain sections from

1- and 3-month-old AM and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ mice (black line = mean, One-way ANOVA between

genotypes at both ages, Bonferroni corrected post-hoc between AM and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ not significant).

Right panel: Correlation plot depicting the relationship between $A\beta_{40}$ levels and W0-2 plaque density

in AM (black) and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ (grey) mice at 3 months of age. **(H)** Quantification of the plaque

density in the ROI of Thioflavin-S stained sagittal brain sections from 1- and 3-month-old AM and

AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ mice (black line = mean, One-way ANOVA between genotypes at both ages, Bonferroni

corrected post-hoc between AM and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ not significant). Right panel: Correlation plot

depicting the relationship between $A\beta_{40}$ levels and ThS plaque density in AM (black) and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$

(grey) mice at 3 months of age. In all panels ROI = cortical and hippocampal area; For all dot plots:

WT = black, $Serf2^{br-/-}$ = light grey , AM = dark grey and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ = white; For correlation plots:

AM = black and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ = grey, detailed statistics in Supplemental Table 3; ***p<0.001;

**p<0.01; *p <0.05.

Figure 6. Brain-specific *Serf2* KO alters the structural composition of amyloid plaques. (A)

Graph showing the theoretical LCO dye emission spectra for qFTAA, which binds mature $A\beta$ fibrils

(blue), and hFTAA, which binds both mature fibrils and prefibrillar $A\beta$ species (red). **(B)** Frequency

distribution of the ratio in fluorescence intensity at 502 nm and 588 nm for all amyloid plaques

identified by confocal microscopy in AM (blue) and AM;$Serf2^{br-/-}$ (red) mice at 3 months of age. Three

peak frequency categories were identified: low IR(red), medium IR (green) and high IR (blue) (n=6

mice/genotype). **(C)** Dot plot representing the intensity ratio of all amyloid plaques identified by

confocal microscopy for AM and AM;*Serf2*$^{br-/-}$ mice at 3 months of age (colors represent the IR

categories defined in panel B, black circles correspond to the plaques depicted in panel E, black line =

mean, t-test ***p<0.001) (n=6 mice/genotype). **(D)** Correlation plot depicting the relationship between

6E10 plaque density in the ROI and the LCO average intensity ratio in AM (black) and AM;*Serf2*$^{br-/-}$

(grey) mice at 3 months of age (ROI = cortical and hippocampal area, detailed statistics in

Supplemental Table 3). **(E)** Spectral confocal microscopy images of amyloid plaques in AM and

AM;*Serf2*$^{br-/-}$ mice at 3 months of age of double stained with qFTAA and hFTAA (top= fluorescence

at 502 nm, middle= fluorescence at 588 nm, bottom=merged image of 502 nm and 588 nm

fluorescence, scale bar = 5 µm). **(F)** Scanning transmission electron microscopy pictures of amyloid

plaques in the cortex of AM and AM;*Serf2*$^{br-/-}$ mice at 3 months of age (top scale bar 5µm, rectangle =

zoomed region in bottom picture, bottom scale bar = 1µm). High-resolution EM images are available

via http://www.nanotomy.org.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

 Figure 5

 Supplemental figure legends

 Supplemental Figure 1. Additional full-body *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ mice validation and phenotype

 confirmation. (A) Targeting strategy used to delete exon 2 of *Serf2* by using the 'knockout-first'-

 allele (adjusted from Skarnes et al. 2011). Top panel: exon/intron structure of *Serf2* including the

 positions of the LacZ and Neo cassettes, as well as loxP sites. Bottom panel: the *Serf2* allele after

 recombination events as a result of crosses with *Hprt-Cre* mice. **(B)** Western blot analysis of liver,

 heart and brain tissue of a *Serf2*$^{+/+}$, *Serf2*$^{+/-}$ and *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ adult mice to detect Serf2 and actin. **(C)** Real

 time RT-PCR analyses of *Serf2* in different organs of adult mice with the following genotypes *Serf2*$^{+/+}$

 (n=3), *Serf2*$^{+/-}$ (n=8) and *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ (n=1). *Serf2* levels were normalized to the housekeeping gene 18S

 (mean ± SEM). **(D)** Lateral view of a *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ and *Serf2*$^{+/-}$ embryo and placenta at embryonic day 15.5

 and 17.5. **(E)** Weight measurements of *Serf2*$^{+/+}$, *Serf2*$^{+/-}$, *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ embryos at E17.5 and P0 (black line =

 mean, Two-way ANOVA with factors age and genotype, Bonferroni corrected post-hoc comparison

 for *Serf2*$^{+/-}$ and *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ compared to *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ *$p<0.05$; ***$p<0.001$). **(F)** Hematoxylin and Eosin staining

 on *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ and *Serf2*$^{+/+}$ lung and kidney tissue at E17.5 (10 times magnification). For all panels:

 Serf2$^{+/+}$= black, *Serf2*$^{+/-}$ = dark grey, *Serf2*$^{-/-}$ = light grey.

 Supplemental Figure 2. Basic characterisation of conditional Serf2 KO crossed with an AM

 background. (A) The western blot of *Serf2* and beta-actin in brain lysates of WT and *Serf2*$^{br-/-}$ female

 mice at 1 month quantified in main Figure 3 **(B)** Real time RT-PCR analyses of *Serf2* RNA levels in

 the brain tissue of all experimental groups at 1 and 3 months of age normalized to housekeeping gene

 beta-actin (n=6/group, mean±SD, Two-way ANOVA with factors age and genotype, Bonferroni

 corrected post-hoc for individual groups compared to WT). **(C)** Western blot of SERF2 and actin in

 brain tissue of all experimental groups at 1 and 3 months of age. **(D)** Brain weight of all experimental

 groups at 1 and 3 months of age (black line = mean, Two-way ANOVA with factors age and genotype,

 Bonferroni corrected post-hoc for individual groups compared to WT). **(E)** Brain weight of unfloxed

 control groups at 3 months of age (black line = mean, One-way ANOVA, Bonferroni corrected post-

 hoc for individual groups compared to WT). **(F)** Number of cortical nuclei per mm^2 in hematoxylin

 and eosin stained brain tissue of all experimental groups at 3 months of age. (n=3/group, mean±SD,

Kruskal-Wallis p=0.5566). **(G)** Real time RT-PCR analyses of APP RNA levels in the brain tissue of

AM and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* mice at 1 and 3 months of age normalized to housekeeping gene beta-actin

(n=6/group, mean±SD, t-test between genotypes at both ages not significant). **(H)** Western blot of

APP and beta-actin in brain tissue of AM and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* mice at 3 months of age versus 1-month-

old non-AM controls. **(I)** Quantification of total APP protein levels in brains of AM and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$*

mice at 1 and 3 months of age normalized to beta-actin levels. (black line = mean, t-test between

genotypes at both ages not significant). In all graphs: WT = black, *Serf2$^{br-/-}$* = light grey , AM = dark

grey and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* = white

Supplemental Figure 3. Overview of distribution and general morphological parameters of

6E10-stained Aβ deposits in AM and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* mice at 3 months of age. (A) Light microscope

images of the 6E10 immunostained sagittal section of 3-month-old AM and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* female mice

(scale bar = 1mm, black rectangle = region magnified in right panel). **(B)** Boxplots showing the

distribution of the surface area of the individual plaques measured in AM and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* mice at 3

months of age. **(C)** Boxplots showing the distribution of the circularity of the individual plaques

measured in AM and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* mice at 3 months of age. **(D)** Boxplots showing the distribution of

the solidity of the individual plaques measured in AM and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* mice at 3 months of age. For

all boxplots: black line = median, box = 25th-75th percentile, whiskers = 1.5 x interquartile range

(IQR), circles = outlier value > 1.5x IQR, asterisks = extreme outlier value > 3x IQR.

Supplemental Figure 4. Overview of distribution and detailed W0-2-stained Aβ deposits in AM

and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* mice at 3 months of age. Light microscope images of the W0-2 immunostained

sagittal section of 3-month-old AM and AM;*Serf2$^{br-/-}$* female mice (scale bar = 1mm, black rectangle =

magnified in insert on the right, insert scale bar = 100μm).

Supplemental Figure 5. Correlation plots illustrating the relationship of different stains to Aβ$_{42}$

levels, each other and LCO dyes in individual AM (black) and AM;Serf2br-/- (grey) mice at 3

months of age. (A) Correlation plot depicting the relationship between Aβ$_{42}$ levels and 6E10 plaque

density **(B)** Correlation plot depicting the relationship between Aβ$_{42}$ levels and W0-2 plaque density

(C) Correlation plot depicting the relationship between 6E10 and W0-2 plaque density **(D)** Correlation

plot depicting the relationship between 6E10 deposits and ThS **(E)** Correlation plot depicting the

relationship between W0-2 plaque density and the LCO average intensity ratio **(F)** Correlation plot

depicting the relationship between ThS plaque density and the LCO average intensity ratio. For all

plots: detailed statistics in Supplemental Table 3; *p <0.05.

Supplemental Figure 6. Overview and detailed view of Aβ staining pattern after W0-2 and 6E10

staining in AM and AM;*Serf2^{br-/-}* mice at 1 month of age. (A) Light microscope images of the W0-2

immunostained sagittal section of 1-month-old AM and AM;*Serf2^{br-/-}* female mice. **(B)** Light

microscope images of the 6E10 immunostained sagittal section of 1-month-old AM and AM;*Serf2^{br-/-}*

female mice. All pictures: main scale bar = 1mm, black rectangle = magnified in insert on the right,

insert scale bar = 100μm.

 Supplemental Figure 1

 Supplemental Figure 2

1001 **Supplemental Figure 3**

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1003   **Supplemental Figure 4**

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 Supplemental Figure 5

  Supplemental Figure 6