The ASC Protein Controls the Severity of Systemic AA Amyloidosis in Mice

Marco Losa[1], Patrick Schürch[2], Manfredi C. Carta[1], Itzel Condado Morales[1], Karl Frontzek[1],

Veronika Lysenko[2], Asvin KK Lakkaraju[1], Mirzet Delic[1], Petra Schwarz[1], Gunilla T. Westermark[4],

K. Peter Nilsson[5], Mario Nuvolone[3], Alexandre P. A. Theocharides[2], Simone Hornemann[1],

Adriano Aguzzi[1,†]

[1] Institute of Neuropathology, University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland

[2] Department of Medical Oncology and Hematology, University Hospital Zurich, Zurich,

Switzerland

[3] Amyloidosis Research and Treatment Center, Fondazione Istituto di Ricovero e Cura a

Carattere Scientifico (IRCCS) Policlinico San Matteo, University of Pavia, Pavia, Italy

[4] Department of Medical Cell Biology, Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden

[5] Department of Physics, Chemistry and Biology, Linköping University, Linköping, Sweden

†Corresponding author:

Adriano Aguzzi

Institute of Neuropathology, University Hospital of Zurich

Schmelzbergstrasse 12, CH-8091 Zurich, Switzerland

Tel: +41-44-255-2108, E-mail: adriano.aguzzi@usz.ch

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Abstract

The apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a caspase recruitment domain (ASC) protein is a component of inflammasomes, inflammation-mediating complexes that include Nucleotide-Binding Oligomerization Domain, Leucine Rich Repeat And Pyrin Domain Containing 3 (NLRP3). ASC and NLRP3 components aggregate to form ASC specks, which can cross-seed Aβ aggregation in Alzheimer's disease (AD). Here we asked whether ASC is involved in additional protein misfolding diseases (PMDs). AA amyloidosis is a severe complication of chronic inflammatory conditions caused by the aggregation of Serum Amyloid A (SAA) protein. Since AA and Aβ aggregates share similar biochemical properties, such as β-sheet structures, we hypothesized that ASC inflammasomes may be involved in SAA/AA recruitment, aggregation, processing and removal. We therefore investigated the role of ASC in AA amyloidosis *in vivo*, employing a murine AA amyloidosis model in *Asc*-ablated mice. We show that ASC exerts a crucial role in SAA recruitment in the presence of AA fibrils, that splenic AA amyloid load was decreased in *Asc*$^{-/-}$ mice, that the presence of ASC accelerates SAA fibril formation and that ASC is important for SAA-activated phagocytosis of macrophages. We conclude that ASC modulates both SAA serum levels and the severity of AA amyloidosis in mice. ASC may represent a therapeutic target in AA as well as other amyloidosis entities.

Introduction

In inflammatory conditions, proinflammatory cytokines stimulate hepatocytes to release the acute-phase reactant SAA into the blood stream. During the acute-phase response, the serum concentration of SAA increases as much as 1000-fold from its baseline concentration (1, 2). AA amyloidosis may ultimately develop when persistently high SAA serum concentrations hamper proper SAA processing and clearance, leading to extracellular deposition of aggregated AA fibrils and SAA recruitment to the site of amyloid. AA fibrils are predominantly composed of degradation products of SAA1, an isoform of SAA, which dissociates from its carrier protein high density lipoprotein (HDL) prior to its conversion to amyloid fibrils (3-9).

Amyloid aggregates, composed of AA fibrils and other components, are deposited in the extracellular compartment of the spleen, kidney, liver and heart, which can lead to life-threatening complications due to disruption of tissue integrity (10). Various types of chronic inflammatory conditions, such as chronic bacterial and viral infections (e.g. tuberculosis, intravenous drug abuse, hepatitis B/C), chronic inflammations (e.g. inflammatory bowel diseases, rheumatic arthritis, vasculitis), hereditary mutations (e.g. familial Mediterranean fever or FMF) and neoplastic diseases (e.g. lymphomas) are associated with systemic AA amyloidosis (11, 12). Clinically, systemic AA amyloidosis is often asymptomatic, up to a tipping point in disease progression that heralds rapid health deterioration. At manifestation, AA amyloidosis patients often exhibit proteinuria and progressive kidney dysfunction, followed by liver and heart failure. Current therapies have a limited impact on disease progression and mortality and the exact molecular mechanisms behind the pathogenesis of AA amyloid formation and SAA recruitment remain unclear to date (11, 13). To our knowledge, no therapeutic approaches that directly interfere with SAA recruitment or AA amyloid formation are of avail, meaning that treatment of AA amyloidosis primarily aims to reduce the underlying inflammatory state.

However, recent insights into the field of neurodegenerative PMDs such as Alzheimer's disease might also be relevant to systemic AA amyloidosis. AD is characterized by the extracellular deposition of aggregates composed of misfolded amyloid β (Aβ) proteins in the central nervous system. Misfolded Aβ proteins contain a larger β-sheet content than soluble Aβ proteins. Similarly, amyloidogenic SAA proteins exhibit a high propensity to form AA fibrils in their misfolded state, where they exhibit increased β-sheet content.

The innate immune system and its components, including inflammasomes, represent the first line of defence to transduce immediate danger signals into a cytokine response, cell death and the activation of the adaptive immune system (14). Furthermore, the innate immune system is involved in the pathogenesis of PMDs (15-17). Upon activation of cytosolic pattern recognition receptors (PRR) of innate immune cells, such as the NACHT-, LRR- and pyrin (PYD)-domain-containing protein 3 (Nalp3) of microglia or macrophages, the adaptor protein, apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a caspase recruitment domain (ASC) is recruited, which in turn induces assembly of helical ASC fibrils (18-22). Subsequently, effector caspase-1 is recruited and activated to form mature inflammasomes, enabling them to cleave the proinflammatory cytokine pro-IL1β to IL-1β. ASC fibrils may ultimately transform into large paranuclear ASC specks, helical fibrillary assembly of ASC proteins that can be released from microglia and other tissue-resident macrophages by gasdermin D-mediated pyroptotic cell death (23).

Inflammation and NLRP3/ASC inflammasomes play an eminent role in the pathogenesis of AD (24-26). Intrahippocampal injection of microglia-derived ASC specks leads to Aβ cross-seeding in APP/PS1 *Asc* wildtype (wt) mice, while cross-seeding and spreading of Aβ pathology was reduced in APP/PS1 $Asc^{-/-}$ mice. Furthermore, stereotactic intrahippocampal co-injection of ASC specks and anti-ASC antibody prevented the increase in Aβ pathology *in vitro* and *in vivo* (25, 27).

Intriguingly, several reports point towards a role of ASC in the pathogenesis of AA amyloidosis. For instance, ASC has been shown to co-localize with AA amyloid in kidney biopsies from patients with AA amyloidosis secondary to the hereditary inflammatory condition FMF, where a gain-of-function mutation in the *Pyrin* gene activates ASC inflammasomes and leads to chronic upregulation and expression of SAA (28). Moreover, SAA activates the NLRP3 inflammasome of human myeloid cells via an interaction with the P2X7 receptor, which induces ASC release *in vitro* through a cathepsin B-sensitive pathway (29). In line with this finding, SAA (as well as lipopolysaccharide) is capable of activating murine macrophages (30). A murine model of AA amyloidosis has been developed and established. In this model, subcutaneous administration of silver nitrate ($AgNO_3$), coupled with an intravenous application of preformed SAA fibrils (known as Amyloid Enhancing Factor or AEF), rapidly induces the AA amyloidosis phenotype, with respect to splenic AA amyloid deposition (31-33).

AgNO$_3$ serves as a proinflammatory stimulus that leads to elevation in SAA serum levels, while

preformed AA fibrils serve as a template for SAA aggregation (34).

The involvement of the innate immune system in AA amyloidosis has been described on a

cellular level. For instance, depletion of splenic macrophages delays or inhibits AA amyloid

accumulation in mice (31, 35). Furthermore, macrophages were shown to clear AA amyloid

via Fc-receptor-mediated phagocytosis (36). However, a role of inflammasomes in SAA

recruitment and AA fibril formation has not been described to date.

We, therefore, sought to investigate the role of ASC in the pathogenesis of AA amyloidosis *in*

vivo and assessed the temporal development of AA amyloidosis with a focus on SAA serum

concentrations and splenic AA amyloid. Here, we report that *Asc* wt mice exhibited a

pronounced decrease in SAA serum concentration together with a concomitant increase in

splenic amyloid load upon AA induction. In contrast, these phenomena were attenuated in

the absence of ASC. Furthermore, ASC is incorporated in splenic AA amyloid and its presence

accelerates SAA fibril formation. In addition, *Asc*$^{-/-}$ bone marrow-derived macrophages did no

longer exhibit increased SAA-stimulated phagocytosis activity *in vitro*, suggesting an altered

macrophage processing in the absence of ASC.

In summary, we conclude that ASC modulates both SAA serum levels and the severity of AA

amyloidosis in mice and may, therefore, be a potential therapeutic target in AA amyloidosis.

Results

Amyloid induction

To investigate the role of ASC in the pathogenesis of AA amyloidosis *in vivo*, *Asc* wt and *Asc*^{-/-} female and male F2 generation littermates were injected with $AgNO_3$ and preformed AA fibrils (amyloid-enhancing factor, AEF) for AA amyloidosis induction (AA mice), whereas control mice were only injected with PBS, AEF or $AgNO_3$ (**Fig. 1a-b**). 79 mice were included in this study and AA was induced in 22 *Asc* wt and 24 *Asc*^{-/-} mice. A total of 33 mice were only injected with either PBS, $AgNO_3$ or AEF and served as controls (**Table S1**). The experimental overview including injection schematic, blood withdrawals and euthanasia regimen is illustrated in **Fig. 1b**. To assess AA amyloid deposition over time, mice were sacrificed either at day 16 or at day 30, two days after the last $AgNO_3$ injection. The presence of amyloid in spleens was assessed by staining histological sections of paraffin-embedded tissue with Congo red, upon which we saw the characteristic apple-green birefringence under polarized light (**Fig. S1**). No amyloid could be detected in control group mice that were only injected with either PBS, $AgNO_3$ or AEF. The detailed characteristics of the experimental groups are summarized in **Table S1**. Age distribution did not differ significantly between experimental groups (**Table S2**).

The recruitment of Serum Amyloid A in AA amyloidosis is modulated by ASC

The development of AA amyloidosis is a consequence of excessive production and recruitment of SAA. We, therefore, assessed SAA serum levels in *Asc* wt and *Asc*^{-/-} mice by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) at baseline (before any injection) as well as at 9, 24, 48, 72- and 96-hours post injection (hpi) of $AgNO_3$ and AEF (**Fig. 1b and Fig. 2).** At baseline and at 9 hpi, there was no difference between mean SAA serum concentrations of all experimental *Asc* wt and *Asc*^{-/-} groups. However, at 24 hpi, the timepoint at which we expected serum acute-phase proteins to peak (1, 37), we observed differences in SAA serum levels between experimental groups, depending on *Asc* genotype and the presence or absence of AEF. SAA serum levels of *Asc* wt mice only treated with $AgNO_3$ were significantly higher than in *Asc* wt mice with $AgNO_3$+AEF (p=0.0348), suggesting that SAA is recruited in the presence of preformed AA fibrils and therefore decreased in serum. Furthermore, the decrease in SAA serum concentration observed in *Asc* wt AA mice, was abrogated in *Asc*^{-/-} AA mice (p=0.0035). Mean

SAA serum concentrations of $Asc^{-/-}$ AA mice were slightly higher than the SAA serum

concentration of the $AgNO_3$-only injected $Asc^{-/-}$ groups at 9, 24, 48 and 72 hpi (p=0.0604 at 72

hpi), possibly because the ELISA detected injected preformed AA fibrils that were still present

in the blood stream (**Fig. S2**).

As presumed, 48 hours after injection, SAA serum concentrations decreased in all

experimental groups. However, at this time point the difference between *Asc* wt and $Asc^{-/-}$ AA

mice was still significant (p=0.0048). Depending on the genotype, the difference between SAA

serum concentrations of the two *Asc* wt and $Asc^{-/-}$ AA induced groups persisted up to 72 hours

after injections (p=0.034).

Finally, 96 hours after injection there was no longer any significant difference in SAA serum

concentration. Overall, $Asc^{-/-}$ AA mice were found to have the highest SAA serum

concentration among all experimental groups. Based on these results, we postulate that in

experimental amyloidosis, ASC facilitates the recruitment and deposition of SAA in murine AA

amyloidosis. Detailed SAA serum values are given in **Table S3**.

$AgNO_3$-induced acute-phase responses in $Asc^{-/-}$ and wildtype mice

While it is known that aluminum-containing adjuvants activate the NLRP3 inflammasome (38),

it is not known whether $AgNO_3$ stimulates ASC-dependent inflammasome pathways of innate

immune cells. To investigate this question, we assessed SAA levels of $AgNO_3$-only injected *Asc*

wt and $Asc^{-/-}$ mice by ELISA and compared their SAA serum concentrations at baseline and up

to 96 hours after injection (**Fig. 1b and Fig. 2**).

As mentioned previously serum concentrations of SAA and other acute-phase proteins peak

at around 24 hours after a proinflammatory stimulus. At this time, *Asc* genotype did not

significantly impact SAA serum levels after $AgNO_3$ stimulation, as there was no significant

difference in SAA serum concentration between *Asc* wt and $Asc^{-/-}$ mice that had only been

treated with $AgNO_3$. The same was also true for all successive timepoints. Genetic ablation of

Asc did not significantly impact $AgNO_3$-induced SAA levels, suggesting that ASC-dependent

inflammasomes do not significantly contribute to $AgNO_3$ sensing. Given that the experimental

AA amyloidosis model requires an $AgNO_3$ treatment to induce inflammation, we conclude that

applying the murine AA amyloidosis model to $Asc^{-/-}$ mice would allow us to study the role of

ASC in SAA recruitment and AA amyloid formation.

Decreased splenic amyloid deposition in the absence of ASC-dependent inflammasomes

In mice with experimental AA amyloidosis, we observed that amyloid deposition commenced

in the marginal zone of the white pulp, followed by red pulp invasion, which is in accordance

with other studies (31-33). To assess amyloid load, we stained spleen sections with the

luminescent conjugated polythiophene (LCP) HS-310. Representative spleen sections of *Asc*

wt and *Asc*^{-/-} AA mice are shown in **Fig. 3a-d**. Overall, *Asc* wt mice exhibited more pronounced

red pulp invasion of amyloid compared to *Asc*^{-/-} mice (white arrows). In the PBS-only, AEF-only

and $AgNO_3$-only treated control mice, no amyloid could be detected (**Fig. S1 and Fig. S3**). To

quantify the amyloid load of AA mice, we calculated, based on fluorescence, the integrated

density, which is the sum of the values of the pixels in the region of interest and the

percentage of the amyloid area deposited within spleen sections (HS-310+). The mean

fluorescence integrated density (A.U./μm^2) differed significantly between *Asc* wt AA mice of

the 16-days and the 30-days group (p=0.0035), whereas it did not in *Asc*^{-/-} AA mice (**Fig. 3e**).

In addition, there was a significant difference in amyloid load between *Asc* wt and *Asc*^{-/-} mice

of the 30-days group (p=0.0242). Similar results were seen in the analysis of the amyloid area

deposited in the spleen. There was a significant increase in amyloid from day 16 to day 30 in

Asc wt AA mice (p=0.0004), whereas the increase of amyloid *Asc*^{-/-} AA mice was attenuated

and not significant within the same period. Furthermore, *Asc*^{-/-} AA mice from the 30-days

group revealed a decreased amyloid deposition compared to *Asc* wt AA mice (p=0.0125) (**Fig.**

3f). Detailed area values are given in **Table S4**. Using Western Blot (WB), we assessed the

presence and quantity of SAA in spleen homogenate of four *Asc* wt and five *Asc*^{-/-} AA mice with

the highest splenic amyloid load, as assessed by LCP staining (**Fig. 3g-h**). In WB we detected

bands with sizes below 12 kDa, which probably represented proteolytic degradation products

of AA amyloid (39). Moreover, ASC was found to be highly expressed, adjacent and integrated

to amyloid deposits throughout the spleen of *Asc* wt AA mice (**Fig. 4a**). In summary, these data

suggest that AA amyloid load and deposition depend on *Asc* genotype.

Accelerated SAA fibrillation in presence of ASC

In order to assess the effect of ASC on SAA fibril formation we performed an *in vitro* SAA

aggregation assay in presence as well as in absence of ASC specks (**Fig. 4b**). The halftime ($t_{1/2}$),

where the relative aggregation concentration is 0.5, was significantly reduced in presence of
ASC specks and inversely correlated with increased concentrations. The $t_{1/2}$ of murine SAA
aggregation was significantly reduced in presence of 100k ASC specks compared to the
samples that only contained murine SAA (p=0.0282). Furthermore, in presence of 200k and
500k ASC specks the lag phase was further reduced significantly, respectively (p=0.0075,
p<0.0001) (**Fig. 4c**). Hence, this suggests that the presence of the ASC protein accelerates SAA
fibril formation. Detailed values are given in (**Table S5**).

Splenic architecture and peripheral blood in AA amyloidosis
Prolonged elevation of serum SAA is required to trigger AA amyloidosis (5). Once present, AA
aggregates progressively disrupt tissue integrity and ultimately impair physiological function
of affected organs. Furthermore, patients with systemic AA amyloidosis may also exhibit
altered red blood cell and platelet volumes according to recent reports (40, 41). Moreover,
the presence of platelets in the circulation and platelet-derived enhancing factors supply
inflammasome activation and boost inflammasome capacity of macrophages, neutrophils and
monocytes in inflammation (42). Since SAA activates the NLRP3 inflammasome of innate
immune cells, as described above, we assessed the cellular composition of the spleen and of
peripheral blood at baseline and after induction of experimental AA amyloidosis, in *Asc* wt and
Asc$^{-/-}$ mice. We assessed B cells, T cells, dendritic cells, neutrophils as well as macrophages
including M1- and M2-like macrophages in the spleen (**Fig. S4**). Altogether, mice that had only
been treated with AgNO$_3$ as well as mice with AA induction had an increased splenic
macrophage infiltration compared to baseline state, underscoring the involvement of innate
immune cells in AA amyloidosis. Macrophage infiltration was neither dominated by M1- nor
by M2-like macrophages (**Fig. S4c**). Furthermore, we assessed the transcriptional state of
splenic macrophages from *Asc* wt and *Asc*$^{-/-}$ AA mice by RNA sequencing (**Fig. S5**). Significant
(p<0.05 and fdr<0.01) transcriptional changes between specimen were mainly found in the
Asc gene (**Fig. S5c and Fig. S5d**). Lymphocyte, monocyte, granulocyte, red blood cell and
platelet counts were additionally assessed in peripheral blood (**Fig. S7 and Fig. S8**).
Interestingly, platelet count at baseline was higher in *Asc*$^{-/-}$ compared to *Asc* wt mice
(p=0.0172). The same accounted for *Asc*$^{-/-}$ AA mice from the 30-days group (p=0.0357) (**Fig.
S7**).

Impaired phagocytic activity of SAA-activated Asc$^{-/-}$ bone marrow-derived macrophages

Macrophages and monocytes play a central role in AA amyloidosis. First, monocytes are

sufficient to transfer AA amyloidosis *in vivo* (43). Furthermore, macrophages co-localize with

AA amyloid in the spleen of AA mice (32). Moreover, phagocyte depletion delays or inhibits

AA amyloid accumulation (31, 35). Another important fact is that AA amyloid undergoes Fc-

receptor-mediated phagocytosis by macrophages, which is initiated by host-specific

antibodies that target AA protein (36). Given the importance of monocytes and macrophages

in AA amyloidosis, that SAA activates macrophages (29, 30) and that *Asc* heterozygous

astrocytes have an increased Aβ phagocytosis in AD mice (44), we sought to test whether ASC

may modulate the phagocytic activity of *Asc* wt and *Asc*$^{-/-}$ murine BMDMs *in vitro* (**Fig. S6a-b**).

We, therefore, exposed SAA-activated and non-(SAA)-activated murine BMDMs to an *in vitro*

phagocytosis assay (**Fig. S6c**). There was no significant difference in phagocytic activity

between unstimulated BMDMs of both *Asc* genotypes. The highest phagocytic activity among

the murine BMDMs was seen in SAA-activated *Asc* wt BMDMs as compared to non-stimulated

Asc wt BMDMs (p=0.0015). Compared to their wildtype counterparts, we observed lower

phagocytic activity in SAA-activated *Asc*$^{-/-}$ BMDMs. Furthermore, there was a difference in

phagocytic activity between SAA-stimulated *Asc* wt and *Asc*$^{-/-}$ BMDMs (p=0.0002). Hence, the

Asc genotype indeed affects the phagocytosis of SAA-activated BMDMs. Nevertheless, the

absence of SAA-induced phagocytosis stimulation in *Asc*$^{-/-}$ BMDMs (compared to *Asc* wt

BMDMs) supports the fact that the ASC protein is crucial for the decreased AA amyloid

deposition in *Asc*$^{-/-}$ mice rather than the altered phagocytosis in absence of ASC *per se*.

Detailed values are given in (**Table S6**).

Discussion

Protein misfolding diseases and their associated degenerative disorders display a major socioeconomic burden worldwide and scarcity of specific therapies still prevails.

In the present study we investigated the role of ASC in the pathogenesis of systemic AA amyloidosis *in vivo.* To do so, we harnessed an experimental platform of AA amyloidosis and employed mice in which *Asc*, the gene coding for the central component of the NLRP3 inflammasome, had been ablated (45). We report that ASC modulates SAA serum levels and controls the severity of murine AA amyloidosis. Given its potential to influence amyloid formation, ASC may represent a valid therapeutic target for the treatment of AA amyloidosis. A fundamental role of the innate immune system is the sensing of environmental danger signals, which is mediated by the family of cytosolic pattern recognition receptors (PRR). Nalp3, the receptor of the NLRP3 inflammasome, is a PRR that mediates the immunostimulatory properties of aluminum containing adjuvants (38). Therefore, we began by assessing whether silver nitrate ($AgNO_3$), the proinflammatory stimulus required to trigger murine AA amyloidosis in this study, is sensed by ASC-dependent inflammasomes and whether $AgNO_3$ injection leads to a similar increase in SAA serum concentrations in *Asc*$^{-/-}$ and *Asc* wt mice. $AgNO_3$-only injected *Asc*$^{-/-}$ mice showed mean SAA serum elevations that were comparable to those in *Asc* wt mice that had received the same treatment. We conclude that ASC inflammasomes do not play a major role in silver nitrate sensing and that the murine AA amyloidosis model was suitable for our *in vivo* study in *Asc*$^{-/-}$ animals.

In order to determine the role of ASC in SAA kinetics upon an inflammatory stimulus, we assessed the temporal development of SAA serum concentrations of *Asc* wt and *Asc*$^{-/-}$ experimental mice. Peak SAA concentration was reached 24 hours after injection; at this timepoint SAA serum levels of *Asc* wt mice with experimental AA amyloidosis were significantly decreased, compared to *Asc* wt mice that had solely been treated with $AgNO_3$ (no AEF). Intriguingly, in the presence of injected preformed AA fibrils (AEF) but absence of endogenous ASC, serum SAA concentrations of *Asc*$^{-/-}$ mice remained increased up to 72 hours post injections. These data suggest that ASC may serve as an enhancing factor for the aggregation of SAA and AA templated by preformed AA fibrils. SAA levels only decreased in the presence of ASC, suggesting that ASC may mediate a SAA serum-to-tissue or serum-to-cell translocation.

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We then checked for the presence of amyloid after AA induction using Congo red and LCP
stains in all experimental groups. We found that only mice who had undergone the full
experimental AA amyloidosis induction protocol with AgNO$_3$ and AEF injections, but none of
the control mice, showed amyloid deposition.

ASC speck co-localization with Aβ plaques occurs in AD brains (25). Furthermore, there is
evidence that ASC co-localizes with AA amyloid in kidney biopsies from FMF patients suffering
from AA amyloidosis (28). If ASC has a propensity to bind amyloids generically, it may form
complexes with AA amyloid as well. Indeed, we detected the presence of ASC within AA
amyloid deposits in spleen tissue from *Asc* wt AA mice. In presence of ASC, the deposition of
AA amyloid appeared to be more invasive into the red pulp than *Asc*$^{-/-}$ AA mice, where amyloid
was mainly found in proximity to vessels and limited to the marginal zones of follicles.
Furthermore, the presence of ASC specks facilitated and accelerated SAA fibril formation *in*
vitro, which supports the idea that ASC inflammasome protein assemblies serve as a generic
protein aggregation-enhancing platform in various central and peripheral PMDs where the
innate immune system is involved. It has recently been reported that there are few ASC specks
in fully matured lymphoid organs, which might explain their rather sparse distribution in the
examined tissues (46). However, amyloid was significantly reduced in *Asc*$^{-/-}$ compared to *Asc*
wt mice after 30 days of inflammation. AA amyloid consists of multiple components such as
serum amyloid P, proteoglycans, glycosaminoglycans, lipid rafts as well as SAA (47, 48).
Although SAA displayed a non-significant difference in western blot analysis, the ASC protein
incorporation into amyloid of *Asc* wt mice with AA as well as the compelling amyloid load
reduction in *Asc*-ablated mice with AA (as visible in LCP-stained tissue) strongly advocate ASC
as the driving force in the pathogenesis of AA amyloidosis. SAA western blot analysis of spleen
homogenate from AA mice revealed multiple bands running between 8 and 12 kDa in size.
Murine SAA has a mass of approximately 11.8 kDa. The bands <12 kDa in size most likely
represent proteolytic degradation products of AA amyloid (39, 49).

It is widely recognized that macrophages co-localize with amyloid deposits and that Fc-
receptor-mediated phagocytosis plays an important role in deposition, processing and
clearing of AA amyloid (31, 32, 36, 39, 50). We, therefore, tested another experimental
paradigm, where we aimed to elucidate the role of ASC in the phagocytic activity of
macrophages. Interestingly, *Asc*$^{+/-}$, but not *Asc*$^{-/-}$, astrocytes exhibit increased phagocytosis of

Aβ in a mouse model of AD (44). Moreover, macrophages and monocytes are capable of

converting endocytosed SAA to processed extracellular AA amyloid *in vitro* (51, 52). We,

therefore, investigated whether *Asc*^{-/-} macrophages reveal enhanced phagocytic activity, as

this might be contributory to altered and less AA amyloid deposition or AA processing. We

observed that SAA-stimulated *Asc* wt murine BMDMs showed increased phagocytosis,

compared to *Asc*^{-/-} macrophages. These findings suggest that the reduced splenic AA amyloid

in *Asc*^{-/-} mice load is mainly due to the absence of ASC and not due to enhanced phagocytosis

of *Asc*^{-/-} BMDMs. In addition, transcriptomic analysis of splenic macrophages of AA diseased

mice revealed mainly *Asc* gene upregulation among wildtype specimen. These data further

underline the crucial role of ASC in AA amyloidosis. Nonetheless, an impaired phagocytosis of

SAA-activated *Asc*^{-/-} macrophages might potentially contribute to altered AA processing and

removal.

Finally, we investigated whether splenic and peripheral blood cellular alterations occurred in

Asc wt and *Asc*^{-/-} AA mice. We assessed splenic cellular composition with a focus on B cells, T

cells, dendritic cells, neutrophils and macrophages (including M1- and M2-like polarized

macrophages), together with peripheral blood composition of lymphocytes, monocytes,

granulocytes, red blood cells and platelets. There was an increased splenic macrophage

infiltration in AgNO$_3$-only and AA induced mice at day 16 and 30, compared to baseline levels,

which underscores the involvement of innate immune cells in the pathogenesis of AA

amyloidosis.

When comparing peripheral blood composition of *Asc* wt to *Asc*^{-/-} mice, we observed a slightly

increased baseline platelet count of *Asc*^{-/-} mice as well as marginally increased platelets

numbers in *Asc*^{-/-} AA mice at day 30 in peripheral blood. According to a recent report, platelets

release enhancing factors that boost the inflammasome activation of innate immune cells

(42). We speculate that in the absence of ASC, platelets might be increased as part of a

compensatory mechanism.

In summary, we conclude that ASC modulates SAA serum levels, accelerates SAA fibril

formation and controls the severity of AA amyloidosis. Although we have identified ASC as a

critical protein in the pathogenesis of AA amyloidosis, additional work may be required to

resolve the precise molecular mechanism of its involvement. It is conceivable that the

modulatory effect is not only a result of the binding properties of ASC and ASC specks for β-

sheet rich proteins. However, the findings of this study highlight a crucial role of ASC in SAA

recruitment and amyloid deposition in AA amyloidosis, which might also be relevant in the

pathogenesis of further systemic amyloidoses. It may very well be that ASC and its protein

assemblies serves as aggregation enhancing platform in various PMDs. Finally, it is possible

that our findings might have therapeutic implications, since ASC could be a target of disease-

modifying therapies that aim to reduce amyloid deposition in various PMDs.

Material and Methods

Mice

Animal care and experimental protocols were in accordance with the Swiss Animal Protection Law and approved by the Veterinary office of the Canton of Zurich (permit ZH131-16). Mice were bred in a high hygienic grade facility of the University Hospital of Zurich (BZL) and housed in groups of 2-5. Mice were under a 12 hours light/ 12 hours dark cycle (from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m.) at 21 ± 1°C. *Asc*-deficient mice (B6.129-*Pycard*^{tm1Vmd}) were generated as previously published in (45). C57BL/6 wildtype mice were obtained from the Jackson laboratory. To minimize environmental bias and potential differences in microbiota, F2 littermates were bred. We perfomed the experiments with highest possible gender and age congruence among experimental groups (**Table S1-S2**). Mice were randomly assigned to the experiments.

Genotype screening

Ear biopsies were digestd and subjected to PCR. An 859 bp *Asc* allele fragment was amplified using forward 5'-GAAGCTGCTGACAGTGCAAC-3' and reverse 5'-CTCCAGGTCCATCACCAAGT-3' primers. Amplification of a 275 bp gDNA fragment from the B6.129-*Pycard*^{tm1Vmd} Neo cassette was done using forward 5'-TGGGACCAACAGACAATCGG-3' and reverse 5'-TGGATACTTTCTCGGCAGGAGC-3' primers. PCR products were run on a 1.5% agarose gel and developed for genotype definition.

AA induction, injections and reagents

Silver nitrate (Merck) was eluted in nuclease-free water (Ambion®). AEF was prepared as previously described in (53) and pH was adjusted to 7.4 before administration. AA amyloidosis induction performed by injections of 100 μl AEF (i.v.) and 200 μl sterile-filtered 1 % silver nitrate solution (s.c.). Repeated injections of silver nitrate were in accordance to (39) (**Fig. 1**).

Mouse serum amyloid A (SAA) measurements

To determine the SAA levels in mice serum, blood was withdrawn into BD Microtainer® SST™ Tubes at baseline and up to 96 hours post injection. Samples were left at room temperature (RT) for 30 min and subjected to centrifugation at 10'000xg for 8 min at 4°C. Sample sera were then transferred and stored at -80°C. SAA levels were assessed by a mouse SAA enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit (abcam) according the manufacturers' guidelines. Mouse serum samples were analyzed in technical triplicates. ELISA plate was developed using of 450 nm for absorbance.

Euthanasia and organ harvesting

Upon euthanasia, organs were harvested and kept on ice in Iscove's Modified Dulbecco's Medium (IMDM) (ThermoFisher Scientific) until measurement and further usage (no longer than 4 hours). Bone marrow cells of tibia, femur and pelvis were flushed into IMDM using 25G needles (B. Braun). Tissue was fixated in formalin for paraffin embedding or put in Tissue-Tek® O.C.T.™ compound (Sakura®) for frozen sections.

Histology and immunohistochemistry

Formalin-fixed and paraffin-embedded spleen sections (2-4 μm) were de-paraffinized with three cycles of xylene treatment followed by re-hydration with 100 % EtOH, 96 % EtOH, 70 % EtOH and water (each cycle 5 min) respectively. Hematoxylin and eosin (HE) as well as Congo red (CR) staining and ASC immunohistochemistry (IHC) were performed according to standard procedures used at our institute. IHC was performed with anti-ASC pAb (clone AL177, AdipoGen) at a dilution of 1:500. Slides were incubated with HS-310 for 30 min at RT in the dark at a final concentration of 0.3 μg/ml in PBS (54, 55). After washing, slides were mounted with fluorescence mounting medium (Dako) and proceeded to fluorescence microscopy for imaging (OLYMPUS BX61 fluorescence microscope system harnessing an OLYMPUS XM10 camera). The hexameric LCP HS-310 was produced as previously described (56).

Fluorescence and polarized microscopy

To analyze LCP-stained tissue sections, we assessed three different and independent visual

fields at 4x magnification and slides per mouse and organ. Two parameters, HS-310 positive

area (% of area) as well as the fluorescence integrated density (A.U./μm^2) of HS-310 were

calculated with the free software application ImageJ (imagej.net). To confirm the presence of

amyloid, we assessed the apple-green birefringence of amyloid under polarizing light in Congo

red stained spleen tissue sections (**Fig. S2**). FACS sorted splenic macrophages were visually

confirmed by filter settings that allowed the detection of PE-Cy5 and APC-Cy7.

Immunoblot analysis

To determine SAA presence by WB, spleen tissues from AA induced mice were homogenized

in 1:9 volumes (w/v) of RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris pH 7.4, 1 % NP-40, 0.25% Deoxycholic acid

sodium salt, 150 nM NaCl, 1 mM EGTA, protease inhibitors (complete Mini, Roche)) using

TissueLyser LT for 45 seconds for four cycles. Samples were cooled on ice between cycles.

Supernatant was transferred into new tubes after full speed centrifugation for 10 min at 4°C.

10 µl spleen homogenate was boiled at 95°C for 10 min with a final concentration of 1 µM DTT

and 4x NuPage^{TM} LDS sample buffer (ThermoFisher Scientific). Spleen homogenate was

separated using SDS-PAGE (Novex NuPAGE 4-12 % Bis-Tris Gels, Invitrogen) and transferred to

a PVDF membrane (ThermoFisher Scientific) at 20 V for 7 min. Membrane was blocked with

5% milk in TBS-T (Tris-Buffered Saline, 0.1 % TWEEN®20, pH 7.6) for 3 hours at RT. Primary

rabbit anti-SAA antibody was overnight (o/n) incubated at 4°C at a concentration of 2.5 µg/ml

(**Table S7**). After 4 cycles of washing, membranes were incubated with secondary horseradish

peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (H+L) (Jackson Immuno) diluted 1:5000 in

blocking buffer for 1 hour at RT. Blots were developed harnessing Luminata Crescendo

Western HRP substrate (Milipore) and visualized with the Stella system (model 3200, Raytest).

Actin served as loading control. Membranes were sequentially incubated with primary mouse

anti-actin antibody (Merck) at 1:8000 in blocking buffer at 4°C o/n. After washing membranes

were incubated with secondary horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG

(H+L) (Jackson Immuno) diluted 1:8000 in blocking buffer for 1 hour at RT. Blots were

developed as described above (**Fig. S9**). WB quantification was performed using the free

software Image Studio^{TM} Lite (licor.com).

In vitro SAA fibril formation

Recombinant murine SAA1 was generated as previously described in (57). The *in vitro*

aggregation assay was carried out in a black 96-well plate (Greiner Bio-One, PS, F-bottom,

black) on a FLUOstar OMEGA plate reader (BMG Labtech). SAA1 was dissolved in water at a

stock solution concentration of 10 mg/ml. The final reaction volume was 100 µl per well and

consisted of 50 µM murine SAA1, 20 µM Thioflavin T (abcam) and 10 mM Tris buffer pH 8.0.

ASC specks were recombinantly produced as previously described (58), diluted in PBS and

added at various concentrations. The plate was agitated every 20 min by orbital shaking for

10 s at 100 rpm. The assay was performed at 37°C. Fluorescence (Ex: 450nm, Em: 490 nm) was

measured over the course of 140 hours. Data was normalized using the free software

application AmyloFit according to the developers' guidelines (59).

Differentiation of bone marrow cells to bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDMs)

BMDMs were generated, with slight modifications, as previously published (60). BM cells were

harvested from tibia and femur, washed twice in PBS and resuspended in differentiation

medium I-10 + M-CSF (i.e. IMDM, 10 % FBS, 1 mg/ml Pen/Strep containing 25 ng/ml

recombinant murine M-CSF (PeproTech)) at a density of 1-2 Mio. cells/ ml. After incubation

for four days at 37°C differentiation medium was exchanged. On day 8 attached BMDMs were

detached using Accutase® (Innovative Cell Technologies, Inc.), washed twice in PBS, counted

and proceeded to the phagocytosis assay.

In vitro phagocytosis

The phagocytosis of BMDMs was performed using a phagocytosis assay kit (abcam). Individual

samples were prepared in duplicates. The in *vitro* assay was performed in 96-well tissue

culture plates (TPP). *Asc* wt and *Asc*$^{-/-}$ BMDMs were suspended at a density of 500'000

cells/ml. BMDMs were stimulated, with slight modifications, as previously published (30).

BMDMs were stimulated with murine SAA1 at a concentration of 2 µg/ml for 16 hours at 37°C

prior to phagocytosis substrate encounter. After 1-hour phagocytosis substrate incubation at

37°C, cells were treated according to the manufacturers' guidelines and proceeded to EnVision

Multimode Plate Reader (PerkinElmer) for data acquisition. The absorbance was determined

at 405 nm.

Assessment of cellular spleen architecture by flow cytometry

After sacrifice, cells were isolated from spleens using a 70 µm cell strainer (Falcon®). Following

red blood cell lysis cells were stained and with the following monoclonal antibodies to

determine cellular architecture of most abundant spleen and immune cells (**Table S8**): anti-

mouse CD45.2 (Biolegend), anti-mouse Gr-1 (eBioscience), anti-mouse F4/80 (eBioscience),

anti-mouse CD11b (Biolgegend), anti-mouse B220 (Biolegend), anti-mouse CD3 (Biolgend),

anti-mouse CD206 (Biolegend), anti-mouse MHCII (Biolegend) and anti-mouse CD11b

(eBioscience). Data acquisition and analysis was performed on a BD LSRIIFortessa^{TM} flow

cytometer and FlowJo v10.6.1, respectively. Gating strategy was applied, with slight

modifications, as previously published (61-63).

RNA extraction and high throughput sequencing (NGS)

Upon FACS sorting of F4/80+/CD11b+ splenic macrophages originating from AA mice (see

above) total RNA was extracted using TRIzol^{TM} Reagent (ThermoFisher Scientific) according to

the manufacturers' guidelines and proceeded to high throughput sequencing (NGS). RNA

integrity and quantity were assessed by RNA ScreenTape Analysis (Agilent). The SMARTer

Stranded Total RNA-Seq Kit- Pico Input Mammalian (Takara) together with a NovaSeq platform

(Illumina) was applied for transcriptomic data acquisition. Data was analyzed using established

analysis pipelines at the Functional Genomics Center Zurich (FGCZ).

Assessment of complete blood count (CBC) from peripheral blood

Blood was withdrawn into Microvette® 100 K3E (SARSTEDT Germany) cuvettes according to
the manufacturers' guidelines. To assess CBCs, samples were run on an ADVIA (Siemens
Healthineers) hematology system.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using Graph Pad Prism v8.0.0. If not indicated otherwise,
unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-tests or one-/two-way ANOVA were performed, followed by
post hoc analysis wherever appropriate. Statistical details are described in the respective
figures. A two-tailed p-value <0.05 was considered as statistically significant. Confidence
intervals were calculated at a confidence level of 95 %.

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Statement of author contribution

Conceived and designed the experiments: ML, AA. Performed the experiments: ML, PS, VL,
ICM, MC, MD. Analyzed the data: ML, PS. Contributed reagents and materials: KF, AKKL, GTW,
KPRN, MN, SH. Wrote the manuscript: ML. Edited manuscript: all authors.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

 Main figures

 Figure 1.

 Experimental overview.

 (a) Mouse schematic depicting breeding strategy. B6.129-*Pycard*^tm1Vmd (*Asc* is also known as
 Pycard) were crossed with C57BL/6 mice. *Asc* heterozygous F1 progenies were mated to
 generate *Asc* wt and *Asc*^-/- F2 generation littermates. **(b)** Experimental set-up. AA was induced
 by intravenous (i.v.) injection of amyloid enhancing factor (AEF) and subcutaneous (s.c.)
 injection of silver nitrate (AgNO$_3$). To assess SAA serum concentration development in a
 temporal manner, blood was withdrawn at indicated time points. Repeated AgNO$_3$ injections
 were performed with an interval of 7 days. Group A (16 days in experiment) received two,
 whereas group B (30 days in experiment) received four additional AgNO$_3$ injections after AA
 induction. Group A and B mice were euthanized two days after the last silver nitrate injection,
 either on day 16 or day 30, respectively. Organs of interest were harvested and processed for
 further analysis.

Figure 2.

The recruitment of serum amyloid A in AA amyloidosis is modulated by ASC.

Scatter plots depicting SAA serum concentrations in *Asc* wt and *Asc*^{-/-} mice in a temporal

manner, from baseline up to 96 hours after injection of either AgNO$_3$ only (grey bars) or

AgNO$_3$+AEF (orange bars) **(a-f)**. Each dot at a given timepoint represents an individual animal.

SAA serum measurements were performed in technical triplicates. Results are represented as

mean ± standard deviation (error bars). ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$, ns; not significant. Analysis was

performed using unpaired two-tailed Student's t-tests.

Figure 3.

Decreased splenic amyloid load in the absence of ASC inflammasomes.

Representative LCP-stained spleen sections from AA mice showing amyloid deposits (green)

(a-d). *Asc* wt and *Asc*^{-/-} specimen were obtained from groups A and B. *Asc* wt mice exhibited a

more pronounced red pulp invasion than the *Asc*^{-/-} mice (white arrows). **(e-f)** Integrated

density expressed as arbitrary units/μm^2 (A.U./μm^2) and percentage of HS-310+ area from

LCP-stained sections. Each dot represents an individual animal. **(g)** Quantification of SAA

western blot given in A.U. **(h)** SAA western blot performed on spleen homogenate from the

most intense LCP-stained spleen sections confirms successful AA induction (four from *Asc* wt

and five from *Asc*^{-/-}). Actin and spleen homogenate from C57BL/6 wt mice served as positive

and negative control, respectively. Each dot represents an individual animal. White asterisks

(*) represent the white pulp. Spleen sections shown here are representative for respective

experimental group. Results shown in scatter plots are represented as mean ± standard

deviation (error bars). * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$, ns; not significant. Post-hoc corrected

(Tukey) ANOVA was performed. Scale bars: 500 μm.

Figure 4.

ASC is incorporated in splenic amyloid deposits and its presence facilitates and accelerates
SAA fibril formation in *vitro*.

(a) HE staining (left panels) and ASC IHC (middle and right panels) of representative spleen
sections from *Asc* wt and *Asc*^{-/-} AA mice. In HE, amyloid appears pink (white arrows). In IHC,
ASC appears brown. Sections within boxes (middle panels) are enlarged in the right panels.
White asterisks (*) represent the white pulp. Scale bars: 200 μm and 25 μm. **(b)** Relative
aggregation concentration of replicates is plotted over time. Replicates that contained murine
SAA only are depicted in grey color whereas replicates containing murine SAA as well as 200k
or 500k ASC specks are represented in blue and green color, respectively. Each aggregation
curve represents one technical replicate. ASC specks only samples did not yield a signal at all
(data not shown). **(c)** Mean halftimes ($t_{1/2}$) are plotted for each individual condition: 0, 100k,
200k and 500k ASC specks, respectively. * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, **** $p<0.0001$. Results are

represented as mean ± standard deviation (error bars). Unpaired, two-tailed Students' t-test

was performed. Each dot represents one replicate.

Supplemental figures

Figure S1.

Amyloid stained by Congo red shows apple-green birefringence in polarized light only in
mice with AA induction.

Representative Congo red-stained photo micrographs from indicated experimental groups
showing amyloid apple-green birefringence (white arrows) under polarized light in AA mice

(64). In light microscopy, amyloid appears as pink amorphous material (black arrows). Of note,

there is any amyloid in the AEF-only nor in the AgNO3-only treated group.

Figure S2.

Similar peak concentration of Amyloid Enhancing Factor (AEF) in *Asc* wt and *Asc*-/- mice.

Scatter plot depicting SAA levels of AEF-only treated mice at peak concentration 24 hours after

AEF injection. No significant difference in SAA serum concentrations (ns) between *Asc* wt and

Asc-/- mice, suggesting that different *Asc* genotypes did not result in different AEF serum

concentrations over time. Each dot represents an individual animal. SAA measurements were

performed in technical triplicates. Results are represented as mean ± standard deviation (error

bars). ns; not significant. Unpaired, two-tailed Students' t-test was performed. Each dot

represents one individual mouse.

Figure S3.

Absence of amyloid deposition in mice only treated with AgNO₃, AEF or PBS.

Visualization of amyloid deposition by hexameric LCP HS-310. No amyloid was seen in the

control groups (AgNO₃-only, AEF-only and PBS-only). Light exposure time and 4x microscope

objective were kept equal throughout the imaging/experiment.

Figure S4.

Assessment of splenic cellular architecture in basal as well as disease state.

(a) Representative flow cytometry analysis and gating strategy of murine spleen cells. CD45.2

is an alloantigen expressed on all hematopoietic cells (except mature erythrocytes and

platelets). B cells defined as CD45+CD3-B220+, T cells defined as CD45+B220-CD3+, Dendritic

cells (DCs) defined as CD45+F4/80-CD11c+ and Neutrophils defined as CD45+Gr-1+CD11b+.

Macrophages (MΦs) defined as CD45+F4/80+, and M1-like MΦs defined as

CD45+F4/80+CD206-CD11c+ whereas M2-like MΦs defined as CD45+F4/80+CD11c-CD206+.

(b) Relative abundance of B cells, T cells, neutrophils and dendritic cells (DCs) are plotted as

percentage of CD45.2 positive events. Three different time points are represented. First row

of panels: baseline values. Second row of panels: group A (16 days). Third row of panels: group

B (30 days). There is no statistically significant difference in splenic cellular composition in

unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test between the equivalent experimental group of *Asc* wt

and *Asc*^{-/-} mice at each individual time point. Error bar represents standard deviation (SD).

Each dot represents an individual mouse. **(c)** F4/80+ macrophages, M1-like MΦs and M2-like

MΦs are plotted as percentage of CD45.2 positive events at three different time points. First

lane panel represents baseline values whereas data of animals euthanized after 16 days (group

A) and 30 days (group B) are plotted in the second and third lane panels, respectively. There

was no statistically significant (ns; not significant) difference by unpaired two-tailed Student's

t-test in splenic cellular macrophage composition between the equivalent experimental group

of *Asc* wt and *Asc*^{-/-} mice at each individual time point. There was no significant difference in

the proportion of M1-like MΦs as well as M2-like MΦs (of F4/80+ MΦs) between different

time points and genotypes in disease state (data not shown). Results are represented as mean

± standard deviation (error bars). Each dot represents one individual mouse.

Figure S5.

Transcriptional analysis of splenic macrophages from AA mice reveals mainly changes in *Asc*
expression.

(a) Representative gating strategy of splenic macrophages FACS sort from AA mice. Splenic
cells were gated first gated in an FSC-A vs. SSC-A plot followed by doublet and dead cell
exclusion. Finally, CD11b+F4/80+ macrophages were bulk sorted for transcriptomic analysis.
(b) To confirm a legit FACS sort, splenic macrophages were assessed using phase contrast and
fluorescence microscopy. One can appreciate the amoeboid morphology of a FACS sorted
macrophage (left panel). The middle and right panel confirms the presence of the two
antibody-conjugated fluorophores PE-Cy5 and APC-Cy7 that were used to identify CD11b+ and
F4/80+ macrophages, respectively. Scale bar: approximately 10 μm. **(c)** Scatter plot depicting
normalized counts of ASC transcript reads. An unpaired, two-tailed Students' t-tests was
performed. **** $p<0.0001$. Each dot represents one individual mouse. **(d)** 'Volcano plot' of
statistical significance vs. foldchange between *Asc* wt and *Asc*^{-/-} splenic macrophages from AA
mice displays the most significantly and differentially expressed genes (in red).

Figure S6.

***In vitro* phagocytosis of SAA-stimulated BMDMs.**

(a) Phase contrast micrograph of adherent and differentiated BMDMs. Scale bar: 100 µm. **(b)**

To assess BMDMs differentiation, flow cytometry was performed with anti-mouse F4/80

antibody, a specific macrophage marker. Alive (not shown) F4/80+ cells represent

differentiated BMDMs. **(c)** Scatter plots depicting phagocytosis (OD) from unstimulated and

mSAA-stimulated *Asc* wt as well as *Asc-/-* BMDMs specimens. Each condition of the assay was

carried out in technical duplicates. 10 µM Cytochalasin D phagocytosis inhibitor was used.

Results are represented as mean ± standard deviation (error bars). ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$,

**** $p<0.0001$, ns; not significant. Statistics was performed using a two-way post hoc adjusted

ANOVA and unpaired, two-tailed Students' t-tests. Each dot represents one individual bone

marrow.

Figure S7.

Altered platelet count in baseline as well as disease state in the absence of ASC.

Scatter plots depicting platelet counts from experimental mice and different time points are
represented. Results are represented as mean ± standard deviation (error bars). $Asc^{-/-}$ mice
showed increased platelet counts at baseline, as did AA mice from group B. There was no
significant (ns) difference between $AgNO_3$-only treatment or AA induced mice of group A nor
in $AgNO_3$-only treated group in group B. Platelet counts < 150 x10^9/L were excluded from
analysis. * $p<0.05$, ns; not significant. Analysis was performed using unpaired two-tailed
Students' t-tests. Each dot represents one individual mouse.

Figure S8.

Assessment of complete blood count (CBC) in basal and disease state.

Scatter plots depicting the abundance of lymphocytes, monocytes, neutrophils red blood cells

(RBCs) plotted in relative (%) as well as absolute values (cell numbers). First lane panel

represents baseline values of *Asc* wt and *Asc*^{-/-} mice. Data of mice euthanized at day 16 (group

A) and day 30 (group B) are plotted in the second and third lane panels, respectively. There

was no significant difference between equivalent experimental groups of same genotype in

basal as well as disease state. Results are represented as mean ± standard deviation (error

bars). * *p*<0.05, ns; not significant. Statistical analysis performed by unpaired two-tailed

Student's t-test in CBC between the equivalent experimental group. Each dot represents one

individual mouse.

Figure S9.

Uncropped and unmodified western blot images of Figure 3.

(a) Uncropped image of western blot that was performed on spleen homogenate of AA mice
and probed with anti-SAA primary antibody for SAA detection. **(b)** Uncropped image of
western blot that was performed on spleen homogenate of AA mice and probed with anti-
Actin primary antibody (loading control).

 Supplemental tables

709 Table S1. **Genotype and sex of experimental animals.**

Group / Gender	AEF+AgNO$_3$ Group A and B	AgNO$_3$ only Group A and B	PBS only	AEF only	Total (n =)
Asc$^{-/-}$ females (n =)	10	4	3	1	18
Asc$^{-/-}$ males (n =)	14	6	0	3	23
Asc wt females (n =)	10	4	0	0	14
Asc wt males (n =)	12	6	3	3	24
Total (n =)	46	20	6	7	79

713 Table S2. **Genotype and age of experimental animals.**

Genotype / Group	*Asc* wt	*Asc*$^{-/-}$	*p*-value	Sign.
PBS-only (mean days ± SD)	77.67 ± 1.16	58.33 ± 19.63	0.164	ns
AEF-only (mean days ± SD)	80.33 ± 1.16	59.75 ± 15.17	0.071	ns
AgNO$_3$-only (mean days ± SD)	100.0 ± 20.07	94.8 ± 21.14	0.580	ns
AgNO$_3$ + AEF (mean days ± SD)	81.68 ± 12.11	88.96 ± 16.53	0.101	ns
Total (mean days ± SD)	86.08 ± 15.93	85.20 ± 21.18	0.837	ns

717 Table S3. **Temporal SAA serum concentrations upon silver nitrate injection or AA induction.**

Group Time (hrs)	*Asc* wt		*Asc*^{-/-}	
	AgNO$_3$ Mean ± SD (µg/ml)	AgNO$_3$+AEF Mean ± SD (µg/ml)	AgNO$_3$ Mean ± SD (µg/ml)	AgNO$_3$+AEF Mean ± SD (µg/ml)
Baseline	6.08 ± 6.44	1.49 ± 1.22	1.39 ± 0.99	1.27 ± 1.06
9h	84.44 ± 15.22	63.41 ± 36.12	49.08 ± 38.48	80.98 ± 49.2
24h	217.1 ± 124.5	125.4 ± 25.04	188.5 ± 120	231.9 ± 97.13
48h	118 ± 60.21	95.2 ± 40.01	106.5 ± 65.24	149 ± 34.62
72h	19.22 ± 10.65	16 ± 5.94	16.16 ± 7.7	26.69 ± 10.79
96h	3.28 ± 0.47	3.48 ± 1.55	4.38 ± 0.79	7.04 ± 5.77

721 Table S4. **HS-310-stained AA amyloid.**

Group Time (days)	*Asc* wt		*Asc*^{-/-}	
	AgNO$_3$ Mean ± SD (HS-310 area, %)	AgNO$_3$+AEF Mean ± SD (HS-310 area, %)	AgNO$_3$ Mean ± SD (HS-310 area, %)	AgNO$_3$+AEF Mean ± SD (HS-310 area, %)
Group A	-	6.13 ± 4.48	-	3.10 ± 2.46
Group B	-	17.33 ± 8.60	-	8.39 ± 6.5

725 Table S5. **Accelerated SAA fibrillation in the presence of ASC specks.**

ASC specks (abs) Time ($t_{1/2}$)	0	1×10^5	2×10^5	5×10^5
Mean ± SD (hours)	98.83 ± 8.16	82.12 ± 8.73	79.22 ± 7.18	66.30 ± 4.10

729 Table S6. **Phagocytosis of *Asc* wt and *Asc*^{-/-} BMDMs.**

Genotype Condition BMDMs	*Asc* wt Mean ± SD OD at 405 nm	Asc$^{-/-}$ Mean ± SD OD at 405 nm	*p*-value	Sign.
Unstimulated	1.58 ± 0.03	1.53 ± 0.09	0.194	ns
Unstimulated + Cytochalasin D	0.32 ± 0.03	0.35 ± 0.03	0.167	ns
mSAA stimulated	1.72 ± 0.05	1.55 ± 0.11	0.0002	sign.
mSAA stimulated + Cytochalasin D	0.34 ± 0.05	0.34 ± 0.01	0.999	ns

733 **Supplemental material and methods tables**

735 Table S7. **Western blot antibodies.**

Antibody	Clone	Host / Conjugate	Source	Dilution (µl)
SAA recombinant rabbit monoclonal	D9H4L41	Rabbit	Invitrogen, #700830	1:200
Goat anti-rabbit IgG (H+L)	-	Goat/ HRP	Jackson Immuno, #111-035-045	1:5000
Anti-Actin Antibody monoclonal	C4	Mouse	Merck, #MAB1501R	1:8000
Goat anti-mouse IgG (H+L)	-	Goat/ HRP	Jackson Immuno, #115-035-003	1:8000

739   Table S8. **Flow cytometry antibodies.**

Surface antigen	Fluorophore	Source	Dilution (µl)
Anti-mouse B220	Brilliant Violet 785	Biolegend, #103245	1:400
Anti-mouse CD11b	Brilliant Violet 650	Biolegend, #101239	1:400
Anti-mouse CD45.2	Pacific Blue	Biolegend, #109820	1:100
Anti-mouse CD3	Per/CPCy5.5	Biolegend, #100218	1:100
Anti-mouse Gr-1	PE/Cy5	eBioscience™, #15-5931-82	1:400
Anti-mouse CD206	PE	Biolegend, #141705	1:100
Anti-mouse F4/80	APC-eFluor 780	eBioscience™, #47-4801-82	1:200
Anti-mouse MHCII	Alexa Fluor® 700	Biolegend, #107621	1:800
Anti-mouse CD11c	APC	eBioscience™, #17-0114-82	1:400

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