Loss of the cleaved-protamine 2 domain leads to incomplete histone-to-protamine

exchange and infertility in mice

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Abstract

Protamines are unique sperm-specific proteins that package and protect paternal chromatin

until fertilization. A subset of mammalian species expresses two protamines (PRM1 and

PRM2), while in others PRM1 is sufficient for sperm chromatin packaging. Alterations of the

species-specific ratio between PRM1 and PRM2 are associated with infertility. Unlike PRM1,

PRM2 is generated as a precursor protein consisting of a highly conserved N-terminal

domain, termed cleaved PRM2 (cP2), which is consecutively trimmed off during chromatin

condensation. The carboxyterminal part, called mature PRM2 (mP2), interacts with DNA and

together with PRM1, mediates chromatin-hypercondensation. The removal of the cP2

domain is believed to be imperative for proper chromatin condensation, yet, the role of cP2 is

not yet understood. We generated mice lacking the cP2 domain while the mP2 is still

expressed. We show that the cP2 domain is indispensable for complete sperm chromatin

protamination and male mouse fertility. cP2 deficient sperm show incomplete PRM2

incorporation, resulting in a severely altered protamine ratio, retention of transition proteins

and aberrant retention of the testis specific histone variant H2A.L.2. During epididymal

transit, cP2 deficient sperm seem to undergo ROS mediated degradation leading to complete

DNA fragmentation. The cP2 domain therefore seems to be a key aspect in the complex

crosstalk between histones, transition proteins and protamines during sperm chromatin

condensation. Overall, we present the first step towards understanding the role of the cP2

domain in paternal chromatin packaging and open up avenues for further research.

Introduction

Chromatin structure and dynamics in the sperm nucleus are as unique as the sperm cell

itself, and are of major importance to sperm function, fertilizing ability, and embryo survival.

Paternal DNA is particularly vulnerable to damage, especially to oxidative stress during

epididymal sperm maturation and migration, leading to a higher requirement for protection

(Chen et al. 2002). At the same time, the size and shape of the sperm cell nucleus needs to

be optimized for efficient sperm movement through the female reproductive tract (Tourmente

et al. 2011). This is achieved by the complete reorganization of paternal chromatin from

nucleo-histone to nucleo-protamine during the final steps of spermatogenesis (Balhorn 2007,

Rathke et al. 2014).

Even though many studies have demonstrated that the correct execution of this transition is

imperative for male fertility and embryo survival (Aoki and Carrell 2003), surprisingly little is

known about the process itself. Recent studies have only just started to unravel its molecular

basis (Schneider et al. 2016, Barral et al. 2017, Hada et al. 2017). Barral et al. (2017) were

able to show that the testis specific histone variant H2A.L.2 together with TH2B and

transition proteins (TNP1 and TNP2) mediates structural changes in chromatin allowing

protamines to bind DNA. Protamines are small, arginine-rich proteins. Their high arginine

content allows them to bind DNA with high affinity and to shield the charges of the DNA

backbone more efficiently than histones (Balhorn 1989, Tanaka and Baba 2005). Two types

of protamines have been identified in mammals: protamine 1 (*PRM1*, PRM1) and protamine

2 (*PRM2*, PRM2). While PRM1 is a major sperm protamine found across mammals, PRM2 is

only detected in the sperm of primates, most rodents, and a subset of other placental

mammals (Chauviere et al. 1992, Retief and Dixson 1993). The coding regions of *PRM1* and

PRM2 are tightly clustered and map to a small section of chromosome 16. It is highly likely

that *PRM2* is the result of a *PRM1* duplication event (Krawetz and Dixon 1988, Lüke et al.

2011).

Unlike PRM1, PRM2 is transcribed as a precursor. The N-terminal region of the translated

PRM2, termed cleaved-PRM2 (cP2), is successively cleaved over several days while

chromatin condensation is taking place. After this, only mature-PRM2 (mP2) remains bound

to the completely condensed DNA (Retief et al. 1993, Balhorn 2007, Yelick et al. 1987, Oliva

and Dixon 1991). Perturbations of PRM2 processing has been shown to lead to decreased

DNA integrity and sperm dysfunction (deYebra et al. 1998, Torregrosa et al. 2006). In

previous comparative evolutionary studies, it was shown that the cP2 coding sequence is

conserved in both primates and rodents. mP2, however, evolves under less selective

constraint (Lüke et al. 2011, 2016). Changes in coding sequences of cP2 were associated

with differences in sperm head size in mouse species. This association was specific to the

cP2 domain and not found for mP2 (Lüke et al. 2014a). A potential reason for this pattern is

that changes in cP2 are selected against conserving a crucial function for reproduction, while

mP2 is free to evolve under less constraint due to its proposed functional redundancy to

PRM1 (Lüke et al. 2011, 2016).

Proper PRM2 cleaving therefore seems to be crucial for successful reproduction, yet, the

function of the cP2 domain and PRM2 processing are unknown to date. Establishment and

analysis of PRM2 deficient mice revealed that Prm2^{-/-} males were infertile, while Prm2^{+/-}

males remained fertile (Schneider et al. 2016). Of note, mice deficient for TNP1, TNP2 and

H2A.L.2 show incomplete PRM2 processing (PRM2 precursor detected in mature sperm

nuclei) (Yu et al. 2000, Zhao et al. 2001, 2004, Barral et al. 2017).

Given that cP2 cleaving is taking place during DNA condensation in late spermiogenesis, the

strong evolutionary conservation of this domain and the effect of incomplete PRM2

processing on sperm function and fertility, cP2 is likely to play an important role in the correct

execution of chromatin condensation. We therefore studied the involvement of cP2 in

chromatin condensation during spermiogenesis by generating and analyzing a mouse line

bearing a deletion of cP2, while maintaining mP2 expression. We analyzed fertility, testis and

sperm morphology, chromatin integrity and nuclear protein content of these mice and

revealed that Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ mice are already infertile and that cP2 seems necessary for complete

protamination of sperm chromatin.

Material and Methods

<u>Animals</u>

For the generation of mouse lines using CRISPR/Cas9 the F1 generation of mouse strains

C57Bl6 and DBA2 (B6D2F1) were used. Founder animals were backcrossed to C57Bl6.

Mice were maintained under standard laboratory conditions in environmentally controlled

rooms (20–24ºC) on a 12L:12D photoperiod with nesting material and ad libitum food and

water. All animal experiments were conducted according to German law of animal protection

and in agreement with the approval of the local institutional animal care committees

(Landesamt für Natur, Umwelt und Verbraucherschutz, North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany,

AZ81-02.04.2018.A369).

<u>Gene-edited mouse lines</u>

Guide RNA (gRNA) sequence pre-selection was performed using the algorithm published by

Hsu et al. (2013). Two gRNA sequences were selected based on quality scores in each case

maximizing specificity and minimizing off-target action (score > 50) (Table S1). The designed

guide sequences were ordered as crisprRNA sequences (crRNA) (IDT, Leuven, Belgium)

and annealed to tracrRNA (IDT) by incubating 5min at 95°C for a final concentration of 50mM

of gRNA (crRNA+tracrRNA). The target site of the designed gRNAs is shown in figure S1A.

The repair template used for homology directed repair (HDR), here single-stranded

oligodeoxynucleotides (ssODNs) (IDT) (Yoshimi et al. 2014, 2016), are shown in figure S1B.

Ribonucleoprotein (RNP) complexes were assembled immediately prior to delivery by

incubation of 4pmol/µl Cas9 (IDT) protein, 4pmol/µl of each gRNA and 10pmol/µl ssODN in

Opti-MEM medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) for 10min at room

temperature.

To generate gene-edited founder animals, B6D2F1 females were hormonally superovulated

and mated as described (Schneider et al. 2016). Oocytes were isolated from the oviducts,

washed and transferred into droplets of Opti-MEM medium containing the previously

prepared RNP complex and electroporated using a BioRad Gene Pulser (BioRad,

Feldkirchen, Germany) (two 3ms square wave pulses at 30V with an 100ms interval).

Oocytes were recovered and washed 5x in M2 medium (Merck Millipore, Darmstadt,

Germany) followed by 3 washes in KSOM (Merck Millipore) medium droplets. Oocytes were

then incubated in KSOM medium covered in paraffin oil overnight at 37°C. Developing 2-cell

stage embryos were then transferred into the oviducts of pseudo-pregnant foster mice.

Offspring was genotyped (primers, see Fig. 1A, Table S1) and positive founder animals

backcrossed to C57Bl/6J for at least 3 generations before analysis. Male mice between 10

and 13 weeks of age were used for analysis.

<u>Fertility analysis</u>

Five males per genotype were mated with C57Bl/6J females 1:2 and females were checked

daily for the presence of a vaginal plug until at least 5 plugs per male were observed.

Pregnancy rate and litter size were noted.

<u>Sampling and mature sperm isolation</u>

The testes were dissected and weighed. For paraffin sectioning, testes and epididymides

were fixed in either Bouin's solution for histology or in 4% Paraformaldehyde solution for

immunohistochemistry (IHC). For tubule preparations testes were transferred to PBS and

tubules dissected as described in Kotaja et al. (2004). Briefly, tubules were separated and

elongating and condensed spermatid containing sections were identified through their light

absorption pattern using a dissection microscope. Tubule sections were squashed on a slide,

frozen in liquid nitrogen for 20 seconds, fixed in 90% ethanol for 5 minutes and air dried.

Tubule preparations were used for IHC. To obtain sperm samples, caudae epididymes were

dissected and transferred to preheated (36-37°C) M2 medium, incised several times,

squeezed with tweezers several times during a 30min incubation period at 36-37°C to ensure

flushing out the whole sperm population including immotile sperm.

Histology

Bouin-fixed testes and epididymes were paraffized, embedded in paraffin blocks and

sectioned at 3 microns. Sections were deparaffinized and stained with the Periodic acid–

Schiff (PAS) procedure. Stained sections were imaged under bright field at 20x and 63x

magnification using a Leica DM5500 B microscope (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany).

Basic sperm analysis

Isolated spermatozoa were counted for 6-12 animals per genotype using a hemocytometer.

Sperm motility was analyzed for 3-4 animals per genotype by taking 5-10, 3 second video

clips per animal using a Basler acA1920-155ucMED camera (Basler AG, Ahrensburg,

Germany). A minimum of 200 sperm per individual were analyzed and the percentage of

motile sperm calculated. Sperm viability was analyzed by eosin-nigrosin staining for 3-4

animals per genotype. Approximately 1×10^6 sperm were mixed with 50µl of eosin-nigrosin

dye, incubated for 30 seconds, spread on slides, air-dried and cover-slipped. A minimum of

200 spermatozoa were analyzed under bright field (Leica DMIRB microscope) and the

percentage of viable spermatozoa calculated.

RNAseq and differential expression analysis

RNA was extracted from testes after removal of the tunica albuginea using the RNeasy kit

(Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). RNA integrity (RIN) was determined using the RNA Nano 6000

Assay Kit with the Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 system (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA,

USA). RIN values ranged from 7.3–10 for all samples. RNA sample quality control and library

preparation were performed by the University of Bonn Core facility for Next Generation

Sequencing (NGS), using the QuantSeq 3'-mRNA Library Prep (Lexogen, Greenland, NH,

USA). RNAseq was performed by the University of Bonn Core facility for Next Generation

Sequencing (NGS) on the Illumina HiSeq 2500 V4 platform, producing >10 million, 50bp 3'-

end reads per sample.

The samples were then mapped to the mouse genome (GRCm38.89) using HISAT2 2.1 (Kim

et al. 2015). StringTie 1.3.3 (Pertea et al. 2015) was used for transcript quantification and

annotation. Gene annotation was retrieved from the Ensembl FTP server

(ftp://ftp.ensembl.org)(GRCm38.89). The python script (preDE.py) included in the StringTie

package was used to prepare DEseq2-compatible gene-level count matrices for analysis of

differential gene expression. Mapping to the *Prm2* genomic location was visualized using the

Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV; Robinson et al. 2011).

Differential expression (DE) was analyzed using DESeq2 1.16.1 (Love et al. 2014). The

adjusted p-value (Benjamini-Hochberg method) cutoff for DE was set at < 0.05, log2 fold

change of expression (LFC) cutoff was set at > 1. We performed GO term and pathway

overrepresentation analyses on relevant lists of genes using the PANTHER gene list analysis

tool with Fisher's exact test and FDR correction (Mi et al. 2017).

<u>Sperm nuclear morphology</u>

Nuclear morphology was analyzed for 3 individuals per genotype. Approximately 1.5×10^6

sperm were fixed in methanol-acetic acid (3:1), spread onto a slide and stained with 4',6-

diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) nuclear stain (ROTI®Mount FluorCare DAPI (Carl Roth

GmBH, Karlruhe, Germany)). At least 200 stained sperm cells per individual were imaged at

100x magnification using a Leica DM5500 B fluorescent microscope. Nuclear morphology

was analyzed using the stand-alone version of the Nuclear Morphology program by Skinner

et al. (2019). The program allows for automated detection and morphological analysis of

mouse sperm nuclei (among other species and cell types). It additionally provides options for

clustering heterogenous populations by nuclear parameters and comparative analyses of

nuclear morphology (Skinner et al. 2019). The parameters used for nucleus detection are

shown in figure S3.

<u>Sperm basic nuclear protein extraction and analysis</u>

Basic nuclear proteins were extracted described in Soler-Ventura et al. (2018). Briefly,

approximately 10 x 10^6 of swim-out sperm were washed in PBS and pelleted. The pellet was

resuspended in buffer containing 1M Tris pH 8, 0.5M MgCl and 5ul Triton X-100.

Subsequently the pellet was treated with 1mM PMSF in water inducing cell lysis. Treatment

with EDTA, DTT and GuHCl induced DNA denaturation. Incubation at 37°C for 30min in

presence of 0.8% vinylpyridine is necessary for mouse protamine separation on the

subsequent protein gel. DNA is then precipitated by addition of EtOH and separated from the

sample by centrifugation. Basic sperm nuclear proteins are then extracted and dissolved in

0.5M HCl, followed by protein precipitation with TCA, acetone washes and drying. The

precipitated proteins are resuspended in sample buffer containing 5.5 M urea, 20% β-

mercapto-ethanol and 5% acetic acid.

The samples were then run on a pre-electrophorized acid-urea polyacrylamide gel (AU-

PAGE) (2.5 M urea, 0.9 M acetic acid, and 15% acrylamide/0.1% N,N′-Methylene bis-

acrylamide, TEMED and APS). The extracted basic nuclear proteins migrate towards the

negative pole at a 150V for 1h, 50min. The gels were stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue

(Sigma Aldrich, Taufkirchen, Germany) using standard procedures. The two main protamine

bands can be observed in the bottom of the gel with mature-PRM2 corresponding to the

upper and PRM1 the lower band (Ishibashi et al. 2010, Soler-Ventura et al. 2018). PRM2

precursor bands can be observed in the lower part of the gel above the mature-PRM2 band,

if present (Yu et al. 2000, de Mateo et al. 2011). In the upper half of the gel, bands

corresponding to other basic nuclear proteins, including histones can be found (see Soler-

Ventura 2018). The densities of Coomassie stained bands were analyzed using ImageJ

(1.52k, Schneider et al. 2012).

<u>Immunohistochemistry</u>

PFA fixed testis and epididymis sections as well as EtOH fixed tubule preparations were

used for immunofluorescent staining. Sections were deparaffinized in xylol and rehydrated.

Sections and tubule preparations were washed in PBS and blocked for 30 min with normal

horse serum (Vectorlabs, Burlingame, USA) at room temperature, followed by primary

antibody incubation over night at 4°C. Antibodies and dilutions are shown in table S3. Slides

were then double-stained with fluorescent secondary antibodies using the VectaFluor™ Duet

Immunofluorescence Double Labeling Kit, DyLight® 594 Anti-Rabbit (red), DyLight® 488

Anti-Mouse (green) (Vectorlabs, Burlingame, USA), DAPI counterstained and coverslipped

with ProLong™ Gold antifade reagent with DAPI (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA).

<u>Mass spectrometry and differential protein abundance analysis</u>

Basic nuclear protein extractions were done for 3 individuals per genotype using

approximately 10^6 sperm. Extracted proteins were dissolved in sample buffer (5.5 M urea,

20% β-mercapto-ethanol and 5% acetic acid).

Peptide preparation: Protein solutions (5.5 M urea, 20% 2-mercaptoethanol, 5% acetic acid)

were dried in a vacuum concentrator and subjected to in solution preparation of peptides.

Proteins were dissolved in 50 mM acrylamide solution (Tris-HCl, pH=8) and alkylated for 30

min at RT. 1 µg of Trypsin were added for o/n proteolysis at 37°C. Dried peptides were

dissolved in 10 µL 0.1% trifluoro acetic acid (TFA) and desalted with ZipTips (Waters GmbH,

Eschborn, Germany) according to standard solid-phase extraction procedures. Equilibration

and binding was done in presence of 0.1% TFA, washing with 0.1% formic acid (FA). Eluates

(50% acetonitrile, 0.1% FA) were dried and stored at -20°C.

LC-MS measurements: Peptide separation was performed on a Dionex Ultimate 3000 RSLC

nano HPLC system (Dionex GmbH, Idstein, Germany). The autosampler was operated in µl-

pickup mode. Peptides were dissolved in 10 µl 0.1% FA (solvent A). 2 µL were injected onto

a C18 analytical column (300 mm length, 75 µm inner diameter, ReproSil-Pur 120 C18-AQ,

1.9 µm). Peptides were separated during a linear gradient from 2% to 35% solvent B (90%

acetonitrile, 0.1% FA) within 90 min at 300 nl/min. The nanoHPLC was coupled online to an

Orbitrap Fusion Lumos mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany).

Peptide ions between 300 and 1600 m/z were scanned in the Orbitrap detector every 3

seconds with R=120,000 (maximum fill time 50 ms, AGC target 400,000). Polysiloxane

(445.12002 Da) was used for internal calibration (typical mass error ≤1.5 ppm). In a top-

speed method peptides were subjected to higher energy collision induced dissociation (HCD:

1.0 Da isolation, threshold intensity 25,000, normalized energy 27%) and fragments analyzed

in the Orbitrap with target 50,000 and maximum injection time 22 ms, R=15,000. Fragmented

peptide ions were excluded from repeat analysis for 20 s.

Data analysis: Raw data processing and was performed with Proteome Discoverer software

2.5.0.400 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Peptide identification was done with an in-house

Mascot server version 2.6.1 (Matrix Science Ltd, London, UK). MS data were searched

against *Mus musculus* sequences from SwissProt (2021/03, including isoforms), and

contaminants (cRAP, Mellacheruvu et al. 2013). Precursor Ion m/z tolerance was 10 ppm,

fragment ion tolerance 20 ppm. Tryptic peptides with up to two missed cleavages were

searched. Propionamide on cysteines was set as static modification. Oxidation was allowed

as dynamic modification of methionine, acetylation as modification of protein N-termini.

Mascot results were evaluated by the percolator algorithm (Kall et al. 2008) version 3.05 as

implemented in Proteome Discoverer. Spectra with identifications below 1% q-value were

sent to a second round of database search with semitryptic enzyme specificity (one missed

cleavage allowed). Protein N-terminal acetylation, methionine oxidation, carbamylation on

lysine and N-termini were allowed as dynamic modifications. Actual FDR values were

typically ≤0.5% (peptide spectrum matches), ≤1.0% (peptides), <1% (proteins). Proteins were

accepted if at least two peptides with q-value <1% were identified. Summed abundances

(areas of precursor extracted ion chromatograms of unique peptides) were used for relative

quantification.

Differential abundance (DA) analysis: DA analysis was performed using the Bioconductor

package proDA (Ahlmann-Eltze C 2021) using peptide spectrum matches (PSM) level data

extracted from Protein Discoverer. Only proteins detected in all genotypes and all replicates

with more than two peptides were included in the analysis. The data were log2 transformed

and median normalized prior to DA analysis to ensure comparability. The proDA package is

based on linear models and utilized Bayesian priors to increase power for differential

abundance detection (Ahlmann-Eltze C 2021). Proteins with a log2 fold change (LFC) of >1

and false discovery rate adjusted p-value (FDR) <0.05 were considered differentially

abundant compared to the WT. Plots were generated using the R-package ggplot2 (Wickam

2016).

<u>Generation of expression plasmids and transfection</u>

Prm2 and Prm2$^{\Delta c}$ cDNA (GenBank: NM_008933.2) was amplified from C57Bl6 mouse testis

cDNA using overhang primers introducing suitable restriction enzyme motifs (table S1) and

cloned N-terminally in-frame with eGFP into the pEGFP-N3 vector (6080-1). Correct

sequence and insertion were verified by sequencing.

Human Embryonic Kidney 293 (HEK293) cells were cultured in standard medium (DMEM,

10% FBS). HEK293 cells were transfected at 80% confluence with 3 µg of pPrm2-EGFP-N3

(*Prm2*), pPrm2$^{\Delta c}$-EGFP-N3 (Prm2$^{\Delta c}$ sequence) or pEGFP-N3 with FuGENE® HD

Transfection Reagent (Promega, Madison, USA), according to the manufacturer's

instructions. At 12 hours post-transfection the medium was changed. Pictures were taken

after 48 hours using a Leica DMIRB inverted microscope (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar,

Germany).

Results

<u>Generation of gene-edited mouse lines</u>

To delete cP2 in the reading frame of the PRM2 gene, we used CRISPR/Cas9 with

templates catalyzing homology directed repair (HDR). In order to induce the deletion, we

used two gRNAs targeting the 5' and 3' ends of the cP2 domain (Fig. 1A, Fig. S1). A single

stranded DNA template encoding the 5' and 3' areas flanking the cP2 coding region enabling

deletion of the cP2 coding region and an in-frame repair, generating an allele, where only

mature PRM2 is expressed from the endogenous promoter, was added to the gene-editing

reaction (Fig. S1). The sequence of the generated allele, named $Prm2^{\Delta c}$, is shown in figure

S1A and was registered with the mouse genomics database (MGI:6718282). Animals were

generated, sequence validated and backcrossed to C57Bl/6J for at least 3 generations

before analysis.

<u>$Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ as well as $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ male mice are infertile</u>

First, we subjected the $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ mice to a fertility test. Five $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ male mice were mated to

ten WT females and the pregnancy/litters were recorded for five confirmed vaginal plugs per

male (successful matings). We found that $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ male mice were infertile, with no observed

pregnancies in at least five confirmed matings each. This is in contrast to the deletion of the

entire PRM2 gene, where $Prm2^{+/-}$ male mice remained fertile (Schneider et al. 2016) (Fig.

1B). We hypothesized that an aberrant interaction between the newly generated mP2 and

the PRM2 precursor expressed from the wildtype allele might lead to interference and be

causative for infertility in these males. In order to test this, we bred $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ females with

$Prm2^{+/-}$ males published by us ($Prm2^{\Delta 97bp}$; Schneider et al. 2016, MGI:5760133) to generate

$Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ mice. This results in male mice, in which only $Prm2^{\Delta c}$ is present and expressed.

However, $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ males did not produce any litters in at least five confirmed matings each

and can be considered infertile (Fig. 1B). This strongly suggests, that the cP2 domain is

essential for murine spermiogenesis. If cP2 was non-essential these $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ mice should be

fertile, similar to $Prm2^{+/-}$ males.

<u>mP2 is expressed in $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ mice and transcriptional silencing does not seem to be</u>

<u>disrupted</u>

Since the $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ mice allow for detection and validation of mP2 transcripts from the $Prm2^{\Delta c}$

allele we, performed RNAseq on testis samples and analyzed expression of *Prm2*. By

mapping the RNAseq reads to the *Prm2* genomic location, we were able to verify that the

mP2 transcript was indeed expressed from the gene edited Prm2$^{\Delta c}$ allele (Fig. S2). The

expression levels of the *Prm2* transcripts were comparable in all genotypes (WT, Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$

and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$), thus the alleles do not display a gene dosage effect (Fig. 1C).

In our previous study we found that in the Prm2$^{-/-}$ testis, a much higher number of genes was

differentially higher than lower expressed (81:13) indicating incomplete protamine-mediated

transcriptional silencing (Schneider et al. 2020). Here, compared to WT, we found 36 genes

differentially higher expressed and 42 genes differentially lower expressed for Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ males

and 26 genes differentially higher and 43 differentially lower for Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ (Fig. 1D). This

indicates that transcriptional silencing is not notably disrupted in males harboring the Prm2$^{\Delta c}$

allele. No GO-term or pathway enrichment was found for analyzed gene sets. Lists of

differentially expressed genes and statistics can be found in supplementary dataset S1.

mP2 is detected in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ spermatid nuclei, but is also found in cytoplasm and

residual bodies

After confirming, that the gene-edited mP2-domain is expressed from the Prm2$^{\Delta c}$ allele, we

next addressed the question, whether mP2 can be detected in spermatids and is able to

condense DNA. We therefore first performed IHC on PFA fixed testis sections. The epitope

of the PRM2 antibody (Hup2B, Briarpatch Bio, Livermore, USA) is located in the first half of

the mP2 domain and is able to detect both, the PRM2 protein generated from the wildtype

and the gene-edited Prm2$^{\Delta c}$ allele. As shown in figure 2A, PRM2 is detected in condensed

spermatid nuclei of Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males, similar to the wildtype. However, we

additionally detected a signal in the cytoplasm of spermatids and residual bodies that is

strongest in Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males and not found in wildtype (Fig. 2A).

To determine if mP2 is able to condense DNA, we expressed PRM2 and the mP2 sequence

of the Prm2$^{\Delta c}$ allele tagged with eGFP in HEK293 cells. The ability of PRM1 to bind to DNA

and condense nuclei when expressed *in vitro* in somatic cells had been demonstrated before

by Iuso et al. (2015) in sheep fibroblasts. Experiments revealed that PRM2-eGFP and

Prm2$^{\Delta c}$-eGFP locate to the HEK293 cell nuclei and are present after 48h as large speckles in

the nucleus (Fig. 2B). We therefore concluded that mP2 is able to condense the nucleus of

somatic cells *in vitro* and should therefore be able to contribute to spermatid chromatin

condensation *in vivo*.

<u>Testis histology is inconspicuous, while mature sperm are inviable and immotile in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$</u>

<u>and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ male mice</u>

Next, we analyzed testis mass and examined histological sections to determine the nature of

the infertility. Relative testes mass did not differ from the wildtype (Fig. 3A). Almost no viable

and motile mature sperm were found in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males (Mean percent viable:

Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$=1.7, SD=1.31; Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$=0; Mean percent motile: Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$=0.2, SD=0.45; Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$

=0.25, SD=0.5) (Fig. 3A, Fig. S4). Interestingly, sperm count is significantly reduced in

Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ but not in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ males compared to the wildtype (ANOVA: $F(2)=10.87$, $p<0.001$;

Post-hoc Tukey HSD: WT vs. Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$: $p=0.89$, WT vs. Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$: $p<0.001$) (Fig. 3A). To

determine if the loss of cP2 affects spermiogenesis, testis and epididymis histology was

evaluated by PAS staining of Bouin-fixed sections. Testis histology was inconspicuous and

spermatogenesis seemed not to be affected in either genotype (Fig. 3B). Epididymis

histology however, shows larger round cells and vacuole-like structures, which are indicative

of spermatid degradation. This was more pronounced in Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males compared to Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$

males (Fig. 3B).

<u>Chromatin integrity is strongly affected and nuclear morphology is altered in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and</u>

<u>Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ male mice.</u>

Since protamines condense sperm chromatin and were shown to influence sperm head

morphology (Lüke et al. 2014a,b), mature sperm DNA integrity and nuclear morphology

could be affected even though mP2 is able to condense DNA. We therefore extracted DNA

from mature sperm and subjected it to agarose gel electrophoresis. DNA from sperm of

Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ males is completely fragmented (Fig. 4A). Schneider et al. (2020) was able to show

that during epididymal transit, $Prm2^{-/-}$ deficient sperm underwent ROS mediated destruction,

leading to DNA and membrane degradation and immotility. We therefore stained sections of

epididymides against 8-Oxo-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG), which indicates oxidative DNA

damage. In the caput epididymis we detected only a slight increase of the 8-OHdG signal in

$Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ and $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ males compared to the wildtype. However, in the $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ cauda

epididymis a strong increase in 8-OHdG was visible compared to the wildtype. The 8-OHdG

signal in the $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ cauda was less intense, which is likely due to the more severe

degradation and reduced sperm count (Fig. 4B).

Nuclear morphology analysis revealed aberrant nuclear morphology of mature sperm in

$Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ and $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ males. Sperm from both genotypes show a significantly reduced

nuclear size compared to the WT (Table S2, Fig. 4C, Fig. S5). $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ males show two

clusters of nuclear shape, a slimmer nucleus with decreased hook curvature and a smaller

hookless nucleus. This phenotype is even more severe in $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ males (Table S2, Fig. 4C,

Fig. S5). Of note, nuclear morphology of $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ and $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ deficient sperm also differs

from $Prm2^{+/-}$ and $Prm2^{-/-}$ males.

<u>The protamine ratio is flipped in $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ and $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ males</u>

Since the ratio between PRM1 and PRM2 is constant in mature sperm (in mice ~60%

PRM2), and alterations of this ratio are associated with sperm defects and infertility (Corzett

et al. 2002, Steger et al. 2008; García-Peiró et al. 2011), we next tested if male mice

harbouring the $Prm2^{\Delta c}$ allele display alterations of the PRM1/PRM2 ratio. Interestingly, acid-

urea gel electrophoresis (AU-PAGE) of mature sperm basic nuclear proteins showed several

bands corresponding to PRM2 precursors in $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ males. This was also the case in

$Prm2^{+/-}$ males.

Comparing the densities of the PRM1 band relative to mP2 and PRM2 precursor bands, we

found the PRM ratio to be strongly altered, showing a lower percentage of PRM2 (including

precursors) compared to the wildtype in $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ and $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ males (Mean %PRM2:

WT=69,29; $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$=42,07; $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$=26.78)(ANOVA: $F(2)=18.98, p=0.009$; Post-hoc Tukey

HSD: WT vs. Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$: p=0.04, WT vs. Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$: p=0.008). This does not seem to be the case

in Prm2$^{+/-}$ males, for which we find the percentage of PRM2 (including precursors) to be

similar to the wildtype (%PRM2=66.57 (n=1)) (Fig. 4D, Fig. S7). These data, together with

the mP2 signal detected in condensing spermatid cytoplasm (Fig. 2A), strongly suggest, that

loss of the cP2 domain leads to a reduction of PRM2 associated with DNA.

<u>Histone-to-protamine transition is incomplete in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males</u>

Since we found the relative level of PRM2 to be reduced, and PRM2 aberrantly located in the

cytoplasm and residual bodies of condensing/condensed spermatids in the testis, we next

evaluated the histone-to-protamine transition. To this end, we performed IHC staining to

detect histone H3, transition protein 1 (TNP1) and PRM1 in testis and epididymis sections. In

Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ male mice PRM1 staining intensity and localization is comparable to the WT.

However, PRM1 staining seems to be lost in Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ sperm from cauda epididymis (Fig. S6,

Fig. 5). This is most likely due to the strong degradation of the sperm and its DNA and low

sperm count in this genotype. We did not find any apparent increase in total histone H3

signal (Fig. S6, Fig. 5), However, in contrast to WT, TNP1 was retained in both Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and

Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males in step 15-16 spermatids and caput epididymal sperm. In cauda epididymal

sperm however, we did not find any visible signal of TNP1 (Fig. S6, Fig. 5). This indicates,

that loss of cP2 leads to transition protein retention.

In order to further investigate histone retention and alteration in nuclear protein content we

performed mass spectrometric analysis on mature sperm basic nuclear protein extracts and

analyzed differential abundance (DA) of the detected proteins. Compared to wildtype, we

found 14 proteins to be DA in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ sperm, 20 in Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males and 24 for Prm2$^{-/-}$ sperm.

Seven proteins were DA in all three comparisons, several of those associated with stress

response and/or apoptosis (HSPA2, B2M, CLU) (Fig. 6A,B). Consistent with IHC results we

did not find any histones that were significantly higher abundant in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ or Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males.

We therefore conclude that histone retention is not increased in males harboring the Prm2$^{\Delta c}$

allele. Interestingly in the Prm2$^{-/-}$ samples we did find histones (H3f3, H3C, H4C) to be

significantly higher abundant, indicating increased histone retention when PRM2 is

completely lacking. Transition proteins were not detected. Lists of DA proteins including

statistics can be found in supplementary dataset S2.

Eight proteins were not DA in Prm2$^{-/-}$ compared to WT, but in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and/or Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males.

Of these, RPL26 and GSTM5 are involved in DNA damage response and/or oxidative stress

pathways, while TUBA3B and ANT4 (*Slc25a31*) are related to motility. Of note, citrate

synthase (CS) is specifically higher abundant in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males. Most

interestingly, we found the histone H2A variant H2A.L.2 to be significantly lower abundant in

Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males, compared to the wildtype (Fig. 6A-D). H2A.L.2 is a spermatid/sperm-specific

histone variant and a key player in histone-to-protamine transition. Together with TH2B it

forms a nucleosome with an open chromatin structure allowing for loading of transition

proteins followed by protamine recruitment and histone and transition protein eviction by

protamines (Barral et al. 2017) (Fig. 6D). According to Hoghoughi et al. (2020) H2A.L.2 is

retained in mature sperm in pericentric heterochromatin. We therefore investigated the

presence and co-localization of H2A.L.2 and PRM2 in Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ males, by

immunofluorescent staining of condensed step 15-16 spermatids from tubule preparations

and mature sperm extracted from the cauda epididymis. In the wildtype, we found a

moderately strong signal for H2A.L.2 in the pericentric region of the nucleus, with PRM2

signal in the whole nucleus (Fig. 7a-b,g-h). However, in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ step 15-16

spermatids the H2A.L.2 signal is stronger compared to the WT and localized in DAPI-bright

foci in the nucleus (Fig. 7c-f). DAPI-bright regions in nuclei usually correspond to

heterochromatin. In mature sperm, however, the H2A.L.2 signal is almost completely lost in

Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ males, consistent with the lower abundance found in mass

spectrometric analysis. The PRM2 signal is diffuse and distributed along the whole mature

sperm cell, likely due to severe membrane damage and degradation (Fig. 7i-l).

Discussion

The crucial role of protamines in the process of sperm chromatin reorganization is well

known. However, why two protamines are needed in some species, while PRM1 seems to be

sufficient in others is still unclear. The main difference between PRM1 and PRM2 is the

highly conserved N-terminal cleaved PRM2 domain (cP2). Its function remains elusive to

date. Using gene-editing we generated mice lacking the cleaved-*Prm2* (cP2) domain. We

show that the cP2 domain is indispensable for PRM2 function and required for male mouse

fertility. Mice heterozygous for the deletion of the domain display inviable and immotile

sperm. Loss of cP2 leads to severe retention of transition proteins and reduced incorporation

of PRM2 into nucleoprotamine. Instead, mature-PRM2 (mP2) is aberrantly found in

spermatid cytoplasm and residual bodies. While overall histone retention is not increased,

the histone variant H2A.L.2 is less abundant in mature sperm deficient in cP2.

Firstly, mP2 expressed from the Prm2$^{\Delta c}$ allele was detected in the nucleus of

condensed spermatids of cP2 deficient mice and was shown to be able to condense somatic

cell DNA *in-vitro* similar to PRM2, or PRM1 (Iuso et al. 2015). We therefore conclude that the

mP2 domain produced by gene editing seems to maintain its main function during

spermiogenesis in cP2 deficient mouse lines. Male Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ mice are infertile, show complete

fragmentation of mature sperm DNA, loss of viability and immotility of mature sperm. This is

in contrast to PRM2$^{+/-}$ males, which remained fertile (Schneider et al. 2016). In order to test,

whether the infertility of Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ mice is due to an aberrant interaction between mP2 and the

wildtype PRM2 precursor, we bred the Prm2$^{\Delta c}$ allele with the Prm2$^{\Delta 97bp}$ mouse line generated

and analyzed by Schneider et al. (2016, 2020). However, mice expressing only mP2

(Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$) were also infertile showing an even more extreme phenotype than Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ males.

Since Prm2$^{+/-}$ male mice are reported to be fertile, these data clearly indicate, that loss of

cP2 leads to male infertility in mice. We speculate, that this holds also true for all other

species which harbor a functional PRM2 gene.

Since mature sperm chromatin is completely fragmented in cP2 deficient males and

mature sperm are inviable and immotile similar to Prm2$^{-/-}$ sperm, we suspected that sperm

might undergo epididymal degradation mediated by oxidative stress. Schneider et al. (2020)

showed that loss of PRM2 seems to lead to reduced antioxidant capacity of sperm, initiating

an oxidative stress-mediated destruction cascade during epididymal transit. Indeed, cP2

deficient mice showed a strong increase in oxidative DNA damage in the cauda epididymis.

Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ sperm seem to be degraded to an extent that many of the caudal sperm are

completely disintegrated, leading to a significantly reduced sperm count. We propose that

this is not a specific effect of cP2 or PRM2 deficiency but an inherent epididymal mechanism

evoked by DNA damage or aberrant protamination (or even otherwise damaged sperm, e.g.:

membrane defects, aberrant morphology or sperm surface proteome). How sperm damage

might be sensed by epididymal cells and what, in fact, initiates this cascade is an interesting

avenue for further investigation.

Given the timing of *Prm2* expression and processing, the primary effects of cP2 loss

are likely to be found during the transition from histone-bound to protaminized DNA in the

final stages of spermiogenesis. Barral et al. (2017) describe this transition taking place by

assembly of a histone (TH2B and H2A.L.2) - transition protein (TNP1 and TNP2) interface

followed by protamine recruitment and processing. Protamines themselves subsequently

replace histones. This process is disrupted in cP2 deficient mice.

Firstly, in cP2 deficient mice mP2 is detected in the cytoplasm and residual bodies in

addition to the signal found in the nucleus, indicating that mP2 is not completely incorporated

into the condensing chromatin. In consequence, the protamine ratio changes from 2:1 in

wildtype to 1:2-1:5 in cP2 deficient sperm. This indicates, that the cP2 domain facilitates

incorporation of PRM2 and assembly of nucleoprotamine.

Secondly, we found retention of TNP1 in condensed testicular spermatids and caput

epididymal sperm, indicating that the eviction of TNP1 is hampered due to the loss of cP2 or

that TNP1 is binding DNA in a competitive manner. Of note, a recent study investigating a

single residue mutation in PRM1 showed increased histone retention, but no disturbances in

transition protein retention in such mice (Moritz et al. 2021). Transition proteins are believed

to aid in chromatin condensation by stabilizing the DNA in a non-supercoiled state,

cooperating with topoisomerases to relieve torsional stress and to be involved in DNA repair

during chromatin condensation (Singh and Rao, 1988 Lèvesque et al. 1998, Akama et al.

1999). Loss of either transition protein results in incomplete PRM2 processing (Yu et al.

2000, Shirley et al. 2004, Zhao et al. 2004) and TNP2 was shown to interact with PRM2

(Barral et al. 2017). This demonstrates that transition proteins are required for proper PRM2

processing during nucleoprotamine assembly. The fact that we find severe retention of TNP1

in condensed spermatids indicates, that the cP2 domain in turn, is required for the proper

processing (i.e. eviction) of TNP1.

Surprisingly, however, overall histone retention was not increased. This was

confirmed by H3 immunostaining and mature sperm basic nuclear protein abundance

analysis. Interestingly, we do find an increased retention of H3 and H4 variants in Prm2$^{-/-}$

deficient sperm. The data from the H3 immunostainig indicate, that the global amount of

retained histones seems unaffected, and hence not controlled by protamine ratio or PRM2

processing.

The retention of transition protein detected in cP2 deficient mice seems to go along

with altered retention of H2A.L.2. During the first steps of chromatin condensation H2A.L.2,

together with TH2B provides an open chromatin interface necessary for transition protein

loading. Barral et al. (2017) showed, that deletion of H2A.L.2 leads to infertility, aberrant

transition protein loading and disturbed processing of PRM2. In mature sperm H2A.L.2 was

shown to be retained in pericentric heterochromatin (Govin et al. 2007, Hoghoughi et al.

2020). This retention seems to be lost in Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ mature sperm, where H2A.L.2 was shown

to be significantly lower abundant. However, a strong H2A.L.2 signal can be observed in

Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ condensed spermatids in the testis, were it overlaps with atypical speckles of bright

DAPI signal. Thus, it seems that H2A.L.2-transition protein complexes are retained in

aberrant clumps of heterochromatin in cP2 deficient mice.

Protamines have a strong electrostatic attraction to DNA due to arginine clusters

(Moritz et al. 2021). This allows protamines to condense DNA even in the absence of

spermatid specific histones and transition proteins, as shown in *in-vitro* assays in somatic

cells and in this study (Iuso et al. 2015). However, uncontrolled or unbalanced binding of

protamines might lead to strong torsional stress and DNA damage. A controlled stepwise

chromatin condensation therefore could be required to maintain chromatin integrity. Moritz et

al. (2021) recently showed that the PRM2 precursor has a lower DNA binding affinity than

mP2, leading to faster DNA condensation by mP2. Barral et al. (2017) suggested that

transition proteins buffer protamine incorporation by allowing for ordered protamine loading

and (or possibly through) PRM2 processing. By losing the cP2 domain this processing step is

skipped. We therefore propose, that the aberrant interaction with transition proteins due to

cP2 deficiency leads to random mP2 binding, leading to strong hypercondensation of open

chromatin resulting in DNA strand breaks. Transition protein-loaded chromatin, however

does not allow for mP2 loading, leading to incomplete mP2 incorporation and retention of

H2A.L.2 – transition protein complexes in aberrantly located heterochromatin foci, that are

lost by DNA degradation during epididymal transit.

In conclusion, our results show that the cleaved domain of PRM2 is essential for

sperm function and fertility. Loss of the domain leads to incomplete protamination, a switch in

the protamine ratio and transition protein retention in epididymal sperm. During epididymal

transit cP2 deficient sperm are degraded, seemingly by ROS mediated damage, leading to

complete DNA fragmentation. cP2 seems to be necessary for correct interaction between the

H2A.L.2 - transition protein complex and PRM2. We were able to provide a first glimpse into

the function of cleaved PRM2 and PRM2 processing, that opens up multiple avenues for

further investigation.

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Author contributions: L.A. and H.S. conceived the study and designed the experiments.

L.A. and S.S. generated gene-edited mice. L.A. and G.E.M. analysed gene-edited mice.

F.E.O. and I.N. generated IHC stainings. L.A. and H.S. drafted the manuscript. All authors

read and approved the final manuscript.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Gene editing, fertility and expression. A) Schematic representation of the

generation of cP2 deletion. Double strand breaks induced by Cas9 indicated by black

triangles. B) Schematic overview of analyzed genotypes and fertility. Prm2$^{+/-}$ and Prm2$^{-/-}$

(Schneider et al. 2016) were included as a comparison. Barplot of average litter size for WT,

Prm2$^{+/-}$, Prm2$^{-/-}$, Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$, n=5 for each genotype. C) Barplot showing average

DESeq2 normalized read counts of *Prm2* for WT, Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$. D) Barplot showing

comparison between number of differentially higher and lower expressed genes for Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$

and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ compared to wildtype.

Figure 2. Localization and DNA condensing ability of mP2. A) Immunohistochemical

fluorescent staining of PRM2 (WT, Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$) or mP2 (Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$, Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$) (green) in testis

sections, counterstaining with DAPI (blue). Scale bar = 50µm. B) Heterologous expression of

plasmids encoding eGFP tagged PRM2 (*Prm2*-eGFP) or mP2 (*mP2*-eGFP) in human

embryonic kidney 293 (HEK) cells 48 hours post-transfection. Scale bar = 10µm.

Figure 3. Sperm and testis parameters and histology. A) Barplots showing data for relative

testes mass, mature sperm count, percentage of viable mature sperm (eosin-nigrosin assay)

and percentage of motile mature sperm in Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ mice compared to wildtype.

B) PAS staining of testis and epididymal sections of Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$, Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ and WT males. Scale

bar = 50µm (200µm for left column).

Figure 4. Chromatin integrity, nuclear morphology and protamine content. A) Agarose gel of

DNA extracted from WT, Prm2$^{+/-}$, Prm2$^{-/-}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$ mature sperm. B)

Immunohistochemical fluorescent staining of 8-Oxo-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) (green) in

caput epididymis (upper row) and cauda epididymis (lower row) of Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$, Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$ and WT.

Counterstained with DAPI (pseudo-colored grey). Scale bar = 50µm. C) Comparison of

mature sperm nucleus consensus shapes of WT, $Prm2^{+/-}$, $Prm2^{-/-}$, $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ and $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$

resulting from nuclear morphology analysis. Numbers inside the consensus shapes indicate

the number of nuclei assessed and assigned to the respective consensus shape cluster.

Upper row shows the consensus shape of the different gene edited lines overlaid with the

wildtype consensus shape. cl. = cluster. D) Representative lanes of acid-urea gel

electrophoresis (AU-PAGE) of WT, $Prm2^{+/-}$, $Prm2^{-/-}$, $Prm2^{\Delta c/+}$ and $Prm2^{\Delta c/-}$ mature sperm

basic nuclear protein extractions. a=non-protamine basic nuclear proteins, b=PRM2

precursors, open arrowhead indicates mature PRM2 band, solid arrowhead indicates PRM1

band. To the right: quantification of the percentage of PRM2 (including PRM2 precursors) of

total protamine by band density analysis. Asterisk indicates significant difference.

Figure 5. Histone H3, transition protein 1 and protamine 1 staining. Two left columns:

Immunohistochemical fluorescent staining of Histone H3 (H3) (red) and protamine 1 (PRM1)

(green) in WT, $Prm2^{\Delta/+}$ and $Prm2^{\Delta/-}$ caput epididymis. Counterstained with DAPI (blue). Scale

bar = 50μm. Columns to the right: Immunohistochemical fluorescent staining of transition

protein 1 (TNP1) (red) and protamine 1 (PRM1) (green) in WT, $Prm2^{\Delta/+}$ and $Prm2^{\Delta/-}$ caput

and cauda epididymis. Counterstained with DAPI (blue). Scale bar = 50μm.

Figure 6. Differential abundance of mature sperm basic nuclear proteins. A) volcano plots

showing differential abundance (DA) of basic nuclear proteins in $Prm2^{\Delta/+}$ compared to WT

(upper plot) and $Prm2^{\Delta/-}$ compared to WT (lower plot). Significantly DA proteins are indicated

in color (teal = lower abundant, yellow = higher abundant). Top DA proteins and proteins of

interest are labeled with their corresponding gene symbol. B) Venn diagram showing the

overlap between DA proteins found in the three different comparisons (WT vs. $Prm2^{\Delta/+}$, WT

vs. $Prm2^{\Delta/-}$ and WT vs. $Prm2^{-/-}$). Proteins present in overlaps of interest are listed with their

corresponding gene symbol. H2A.L.2 is marked in red. C) Boxplot of median normalized log2

abundance of H2A.L.2 in WT, $Prm2^{-/-}$, $Prm2^{\Delta/+}$ and $Prm2^{\Delta/-}$. D) Interaction network for

H2A.L.2 extracted from String database (Szklarczyk et al. 2019).

Figure 7. Immunohistochemical staining of H2A.L.2 and PRM2. Immunohistochemical

fluorescent staining of H2A.L.2 (red) and PRM2 (green) in WT, Prm2$^{\Delta/+}$ and Prm2$^{\Delta/-}$ step 15-

16 spermatids from tubule preparations (two left columns) and mature sperm extracted from

cauda epididymis (two right columns). Counterstained with DAPI (blue). Scale bar = 20µm.

A — Deletion of the cleaved *Prm2* domain

B — Allelic combinations and fertility

C — *Prm2* expression

D — Diff. expression

Fig. 1

A IHC (Step 15-16 spermatids)

PRM2 / DAPI

WT

Prm2$^{\Delta c/+}$

Prm2$^{\Delta c/-}$

B Heterologous expression

HEK cells 48h post-lipofection

Prm2Δc-eGFP

Prm2-eGFP

pEGFP-N3

Fig. 2

A. Sperm parameters

B. Testis histology

Fig. 3

A DNA integrity

Mature sperm DNA

WT, Prm2^{+/-}, Prm2^{-/-}, Prm2[Δc/+]

B Oxidative DNA damage

WT, Prm2[Δc/+], Prm2[Δc/-]

caput

cauda

8-OHdG

C Nuclear morphology

Consensus nuclear shape comparison

541 — WT
268 — Prm2^{+/-}
289 — Prm2^{-/-}
232 — cl.1, 98 — cl.2 — Prm2[Δc/+]
158 — cl.1, 127 — cl.2 — Prm2[Δc/-]

D Relative protamine abundance

a

b

WT, Prm2^{+/-}, Prm2^{-/-}, Prm2[Δc/+], Prm2[Δc/-]

% PRM2 of total PRM

60
40
20

$n=2$ $n=2$ $n=2$

WT   Prm2[Δc/+]   Prm2[Δc/-]

Fig. 4

Histone H3, Transition protein 1 and Protamine 1 IHC

Fig. 5

Fig. 6

H2A.L.2 and PRM2 IHC

Fig. 7