α-Synuclein perturbs *in vivo* neural activity following seeding in the olfactory bulb

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RUNNING HEAD: *in vivo* physiology and α-Synuclein

Highlights:

- We investigated the influence of α-synuclein aggregate pathology on neural activity in the olfactory system of awake mice

- We injected pathogenic α-Syn fibrils into the olfactory bulb to recapitulate prodromal Parkinson's disease

- α-synuclein fibril injection influences beta and gamma band oscillatory activity

- Odor-evoked olfactory bulb activity is more vulnerable than that in piriform cortex to neuropathology triggered by α-synuclein fibril injections

- The influences on oscillations are not directly related to levels of α-synuclein assessed by immunostaining for pSer129-α-synuclein

Abstract

Parkinson's disease (PD) neuropathology is characterized by intraneuronal protein aggregates composed of misfolded α-Synuclein (α-Syn), as well as degeneration of substantia nigra dopamine neurons. Deficits in olfactory perception and aggregation of α-Syn in the olfactory bulb (OB) are observed during early stages of PD, and have been associated with the PD prodrome, before onset of the classic motor deficits. α-Syn fibrils injected into the OB of mice cause progressive propagation of α-Syn pathology throughout the olfactory system and are coupled to olfactory perceptual deficits. We hypothesized that accumulation of pathogenic α-Syn in the OB impairs neural activity in the olfactory system. To address this, we monitored spontaneous and odor-evoked local field potential dynamics in awake wild type mice simultaneously in the OB and piriform cortex (PCX) one, two, and three months following injection of pathogenic preformed α-Syn fibrils in the OB. We detected α-Syn pathology in both the OB and PCX. We also observed that the presence of α-Syn pathology, triggered by α-Syn fibril injection, influenced certain oscillatory spectral bands in these regions. These changes in neural activity occurred with region specificity, and in some cases transiently relative to the number of months that had elapsed after injection. Together, we provide evidence that α-Syn pathology in the olfactory system impacts *in vivo* neural activity and provides initial insights into its network-level effects.

Keywords: Parkinson's disease; Dementia; olfaction; synucleinopathy; Lewy pathology, piriform cortex; olfactory bulb; local field potential

Introduction

In addition to loss of substantia nigra dopamine neurons, a major pathological hallmark of Parkinson's disease (PD) is the presence of Lewy bodies and Lewy neurites, primarily composed of insoluble misfolded aggregates of α-Synuclein (α-Syn) (Goedert, 2001; Spillantini et al., 1997). Braak and colleagues (Braak et al., 2004, 2003a), suggested that in the early stages of PD pathogenesis, α-Syn aggregates accumulate in olfactory structures, including the olfactory bulb (OB), and the enteric nervous system before appearing in other brain regions. Interestingly, ~90% of individuals with PD exhibited olfactory deficits (Doty, 2012; Doty et al., 1988) prior to the onset of classic motor symptoms (Mahlknecht et al., 2015; Ross et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2011). Therefore, it is possible that pathogenic α-Syn aggregates within the olfactory system underlie the olfactory perceptual deficits observed in PD.

Recent studies in experimental animals have demonstrated that intracerebral inoculation of brain homogenates derived from mice and humans with synucleinopathy, or seeding recombinant pre-formed fibrils (PFFs) of α-Syn, triggers α-Syn pathology *in vivo* and *in vitro* (e.g., (Luk et al., 2012, 2009; Luk and Lee, 2014; Peelaerts et al., 2018; Rey et al., 2013). Injection of PFFs into the OB results in the spread of pathology between anatomically connected brain regions, including the piriform cortex (PCX) (Mason et al., 2016; Mezias et al., 2020; Rey et al., 2018a, 2016). Although the relationship between PD pathology and olfactory dysfunction are being explored clinically (Doty, 2017; Lee et al., 2014; Rey et al., 2018b; Wattendorf et al., 2009; Wen et al., 2017), the mechanisms underlying olfactory deficits in PD are unclear and animal modelling might provide insight into how neural processing is perturbed.

In both humans and rodent models, initial odor processing occurs in the OB where olfactory receptor neurons in the nasal epithelium synapse on OB glomeruli. Following local synaptic processing of this input (Schoppa and Urban, 2003; Wachowiak and Shipley, 2006) odor evoked information is then transferred to several secondary olfactory structures, including the PCX (Scott et al., 1980). As the primary region for processing odors, the OB is crucial for the basic initial aspects of olfaction, including the

fundamental ability to detect and recognize odors. Additionally, the PCX contributes to
higher-order aspects of odor perception including odor learning (Gottfried, 2010; Wilson
and Sullivan, 2011). Therefore, any perturbations in odor information processing
through the local neural activity of the OB and/or the PCX could result in perceptual
changes (Doucette et al., 2007; Nusser et al., 2001; Wilson, 2001). Thus, accumulation
of α-Syn in the OB and PCX in persons with PD (Braak et al., 2003b; Doty, 2012) and
olfactory deficits observed in PD (for review (Rey et al., 2018b)) led us to propose that
pathogenic α-Syn perturbs olfactory neural activity.

Prior *in situ* and *ex vivo* studies have established that the natively unfolded form
of α-Syn can modulate synaptic activity (Burré, 2015; Burré et al., 2010; Chandra et al.,
2004). One study used brain surface electroencephalography to uncover changes in
network activity of transgenic mice overexpressing human α-Syn (Morris et al., 2015).
However, no studies to date have determined whether there are effects of pathogenic α-
Syn assemblies on *local* neural activity *in vivo*. Here we use the olfactory system as a
model to determine the influence of α-Syn aggregates on neural activity in awake
animals. Specifically, we examined spontaneous and odor-evoked local field potentials
(LFPs) within the OB and PCX of mice. LFPs reflect aggregate network activity (Buzsáki
et al., 2012; Mitzdorf, 1985), and in the olfactory system, LFPs are comprised of three
spectral bands, including theta (2-12 Hz), beta (15-35 Hz) and gamma (40-80 Hz).
These bands are thought to play unique roles in the olfaction (Kay et al., 2009). Adding
to their significance, beta and gamma oscillations in key basal ganglia structures are
perturbed in PD (Burciu and Vaillancourt, 2018; Little and Brown, 2014; McCarthy et al.,
2011).

Here we tested the hypothesis that accumulation of pathogenic α-Syn in the
olfactory system leads to aberrant LFP activity. Through multi-site LFP recordings in
awake mice following α-Syn PFF seeding in the OB, we found that α-Syn PFF seeding
impairs olfactory oscillatory network activity. This suggests that synucleinopathy, and
more specifically α-Syn aggregates in the olfactory system, might contribute to the
olfactory deficits associated with early PD and the prodrome of the disease.

Materials and Methods

Experimental subjects

A schematic of the experimental timeline is displayed in **Figure 1**. A total of 57 female C57BL/6J mice (from donor stock originating at the Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, ME) were bred and maintained in a University of Florida, Gainesville, FL vivarium. Mice were group housed until intra-cranial electrode implants as described below, with food and water available *ad libitum*. All animal procedures were approved by the University of Florida Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and were conducted in accordance with the guidelines of the National Research Council.

Sonication and PFF handling

Purified recombinant full-length mouse α-Syn (as described in Volpicelli-Daley et al., 2014) was thawed at room temperature, and sonicated in a cup horn sonicator (QSonica, Q700, Newton, CT) to yield short length PFFs (**Fig. 2**). During sonication (amplitude of 50, process time of 3 mins with 1 s ON and 1 s OFF cycles), care was made to ensure the sample was submerged in water, to ensure consistent sonication power of the sample. Sonicated PFFs were stored at room temperature until being microinjected into the brain as described below.

Electron microscopy

Electron microscopy was used to verify optimal PFF sonication in two separate runs of PFF samples (**Fig. 2**) following the guidelines recommended by (Polinski et al., 2018). The PFF samples from both runs were sonicated as described above. The sonicated PFFs were then absorbed onto 400 mesh carbon coated grids (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, PA) and stained with 1% uranyl acetate for subsequent

electron microscopic imaging to confirm optimal sonication and thus fibril lengths. All
images were captured with a Tecnai G2 Spirit TWIN 120 kV transmission electron
microscope (FEI Company, Hillsboro, OR) equipped with an UltraScan 1000 (2k x 2k
resolution) CCD camera (Gatan Inc., Pleasanton, CA). Fibril lengths were measured in
Fiji Image J (Schindelin et al., 2012).

Surgical procedures and animal care

OB microinjections

We injected PFFs unilaterally in the OB of the mice no later than 3 hours after
sonication as described above. Briefly, mice were anaesthetized with isofluorane (~3%
in 1 l/min of O_2) and mounted in a stereotaxic frame accompanied with a water-filled
heating pad in order to maintain body temperature (38°C). Marcaine (1.7 mg/ml, s.c.;
Hospira Inc., Lake Forest, IL) was injected into the site of the future wound margin. The
analgesic meloxicam was also provided s.c. (5 mg/ml; Putney Inc, Overland Park, KS),
and following, a midline incision was made to expose the skull cap. Next, a craniotomy
(~0.5 mm) was drilled in order to access the right OB (5.4 mm anterior to bregma, 0.75
mm lateral) and injected with either 800 nl of sterile PBS (pH 7.4; Gibco, Fisher
Scientific, Hampton, NH) or 800 nl of sonicated PFFs using a glass micropipette at 2
nl/sec (1 mm ventral in the OB). Following the injection, and a resting period of 3 mins,
the micropipette was gently withdrawn from the injection site at a rate of 200 μm / min.
Following injections, the mice from all cohorts received *ad libitum* access to food and
water, and were allowed to recover on a heating pad for at least 8 hrs.

Implantation of LFP electrodes

Following injection of PFFs, and either 1, 2, or 3 months follow up periods, all
mice were again sedated and prepared for cranial surgery as outlined above; this
surgery included implantation of two pairs of twisted teflon-coated stainless steel bipolar
electrodes (catalog # 791500, 0.005" diameter; A-M systems, Carlsborg, WA). The

electrodes were implanted ipsilaterally to the PFF injection into both the OB and PCX.
The OB coordinates were 3.8 mm anterior from bregma, 1 mm lateral, 1 mm ventral and
the PCX coordinates were 0 mm bregma, 3.4 mm lateral, and 4 mm ventral. A third
craniotomy was drilled over the contralateral cortex for the placement of a single
stainless steel electrode to serve as the ground (catalog # 792900, 0.008" diameter, A-
M Systems). This assembly was then cemented onto the skull along with a small plastic
head-bar for subsequent head-fixation as defined below. After surgery, the mice were
singly housed and allowed to recover on a heating pad for at least 8 hrs. These
implanted mice had *ad libitum access* to food, water, and received subcutaneous
meloxicam daily for 3 days (5 mg/kg).

Outline of experimental groups

Mice were pseudorandomly divided into two treatment groups (*i.e.,* PBS or PFF
treated) and aged for 3 different durations post injection (1, 2, or 3 months). All mice
were injected at 2-3 months of age (mean age upon injection: 64 ± 1.5 days (mean ±
SEM)). Total animals aged per group include PBS: 1 (*n*= 9), 2 (*n*=10), or 3 (*n*=8) months
post injection and PFF: 1 (*n*= 8), 2 (*n*=10), or 3 (*n*=12) months post injection.

Awake LFP recordings and data acquisition

We recorded spontaneous and odor-evoked LFP activity from 17 mice at 1
month post injection (*n*= 9 PBS, *n*= 8 PFF), 20 mice at 2 months post injection (*n*= 10
PBS, *n*= 10 PFF), and 20 mice at 3 months post injection (*n*= 8 PBS, *n*= 12 PFF).
During any given day, mice of more than one condition [1, 2, or 3 months post injection
and/or PBS/PFF treatment group] were used in recordings. A schematic of the
recording session structure is shown in **Figures 3A & 3B**. All the recordings were
performed in a dimly-lit, well-ventilated room maintained at 20-22°C, between 0900 and
1800 hrs.

Mice were head-fixed and an odor-port was positioned ~2 cm from the nose,
prior to the start of the recordings, as we have described previously (Gadziola et al.,
2015). To monitor spontaneous LFP activity, we allowed the animal to rest during head-
fixation for several minutes (~5 mins) prior to and following a series of odor deliveries
(**Fig. 3B**). All odors and the blank stimulus (mineral oil) were presented for 4 secs each,
in a pseudorandom order, with an approximately 15 secs inter-stimulus interval.
Throughout recordings, OB and PCX activity was acquired at 2 kHz and filtered (100
Hz, 2nd order low-pass, 60 Hz notch) along with stimulus presentation events using a
Tucker Davis Technologies RZ5D amplifier (Alachua, FL).

Stimulus delivery

For odor presentation, odors including isopentyl acetate, 2-butanone, and 1,7-
octadiene (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) were each diluted in their liquid state to
133.332 Pa (1 Torr) and 266.645 Pa (2 Torr) in light mineral oil (Sigma Aldrich) which
also served as the blank stimulus. Stimulus vapors controlled with an air-dilution
olfactometer were run from glass headspace vials (100 ml/min) where they were later
blended with clean nitrogen (900 ml/min) in the odor port thereby yielding a total odor
flow rate of 1 L/min. The olfactometer was equipped with independent stimulus lines up
to the point of entry into a Teflon odor port, in order to eliminate chances of cross-
contamination of the stimuli and also to allow for rapid temporal control of odor
dynamics as they reach the animal. To confirm the dynamics of the odor plume as it
leaves the odor port, we used a photoionization detector (Aurora Scientific, Aurora CO).
As shown in **Figure 3C**, odor delivery occurred rapidly, and was largely stable
throughout the 4 sec of delivery.

Tissue collection and histology

Within 48 hrs after recordings, the mice were overdosed with Fatal-plus (0.01
ml/g; Vortech Pharmaceutical Ltd, Dearborn, MI). Following confirmation of deep
sedation, they were perfused with cold saline and subsequently 10% phosphate

buffered formalin. Brains were collected and stored at 4 ºC in 10% formalin / 30%

sucrose prior to sectioning. Serial 40 µm thick coronal sections were collected using a

sliding microtome, and stored in Tris-buffered saline (TBS, pH 7.4) with 0.03% sodium

azide. These sections were used for electrode verification and phosphoserine 129

(Pser129) immunofluorescence.

Pser129 immunofluorescence

Presence of Pser129 α-Syn-immunopositive inclusions is considered

pathological given the abundance of this post-translationally modified form of α-Syn in

Lewy pathology (Fujiwara et al., 2002). Our previous work has also shown that Pser129

α-Syn-immunopositive inclusions in the animal model we used in the present study are

positive for ubiquitin, p62, Thioflavin S and are Proteinase K resistant, all features of

clinical Lewy pathology (Rey et al., 2016). Thus, we used Pser129 immunofluorescence

to quantify pathological burden resultant from OB PFF microinjections. OB and PCX

sections floating in deionized water were rinsed thrice in TBS and dilution buffer (10

mins each). Next, the sections were blocked in 20% normal donkey serum in TBS for 20

mins and incubated for 24 hrs in primary antibody rabbit anti-Pser129 (1:5000 in dilution

buffer, catalog # EP1536Y, Abcam, Cambridge, MA) at room temperature. On the

following day, all sections were rinsed four times in dilution buffer (10 mins) and

incubated for 2 hrs in secondary antibody Alexa Fluor 594 goat anti-rabbit IgG (1:500 in

dilution buffer, catalog # A11012, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Sections were rinsed thrice

in TBS and twice in double distilled water (5 mins each). Finally, tissue was placed on

slides and cover-slipped with mounting media containing DAPI (Fluoromount-G; 4',6-

diamidino-2-phenylindole; Invitrogen). All immunofluorescence runs contained tissue

from more than one age and treatment group.

Electrode verification

PCX electrode tips/recording sites were verified with microscopy. Due to the

ease of targeting, not all mice used in the study underwent exclusive examination for

electrode tip placement in the OB. For PCX recording site verification, tissue processed
for anti-Pser129 immunofluorescence (counterstained with DAPI) was used. When
additional sections were needed for confirmation of recording sites, additional PCX
tissue was placed on slides and counter-stained with DAPI. Only one mouse (PBS, 2
months post injection) did not contribute PCX data since the electrode was misplaced.
The total numbers of animals contributing data / brain region is defined below.

Pser129 imaging and quantification

The OB and PCX were identified based on an established brain atlas (Paxinos
and Franklin, 2000). Images of the OB and PCX were acquired from the hemisphere
ipsilateral (identified from the electrode tracks) to the OB microinjection. All the imaging
was performed with a Nikon Ti2e microscope equipped with a 15MP monochrome
camera and using 20X magnification. Additionally, image acquisition settings,
particularly the gain, light intensity, and exposure were kept constant for all images.
First, images were collected which included the OB and PCX (≥4 images/region).
Attempts were made to acquire images from similar anterior-posterior extents of each
brain area. Next, the images were cropped so that the resultant image included solely
OB and PCX, and that the images spanned the majority of cell layers, as exemplified in
Figure 4. These cropped images were thresholded using fixed settings across all
images for later quantification of Pser129 levels. The % area in each of the cropped and
thresholded images occupied by Pser129 was then calculated as a ratio of the total
pixel area : the pixel area above threshold.

Analysis and Statistics

In total, we acquired spontaneous and odor-evoked LFP activity from 17 mice at
1 month post injection (*n*= 9 PBS, *n*= 8 PFF), 20 mice at 2 months post injection (*n*= 9
PBS, *n*= 10 PFF), and 20 mice at 3 months post injection (*n*= 8 PBS, *n*= 12 PFF). All of
these mice contributed clean artifact free signals and also passed the electrode
placement confirmation described above.

Analysis of the LFP data was performed in Spike 2 (Cambridge Electronic Design, Milton, Cambridge). Data were processed using Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) analysis [for spontaneous (1.006 secs Hanning window and 0.994 Hz resolution) and odor evoked (0.503 sec Hanning window and 1.987 Hz resolution)] in order to classify and distribute the data within different LFP frequency bands. Power spectra of spontaneous and odor-evoked LFP activity were extracted from 0-100 Hz. LFP spectral bands were defined as theta (1-10 Hz), beta (10-35 Hz), and gamma (40-70 Hz) (Kay et al., 2009). OB-PCX spontaneous LFP activity was analyzed over a duration of 200 secs sampled both prior to and following presentation of odors (at the start and end of the recording session respectively). Odor-evoked response magnitude was used as a variable to measure odor-evoked LFP activity. OB-PCX odor-evoked response magnitude is a ratio of time matched (4 secs) LFP power during odor presentation to LFP power before odor presentation. Herein we focus our odor-evoked analyses solely on 1 Torr isopentyl acetate trials. This is based upon the inconsistent responses elicited by 2-butanone and 1,7-octadiene in all mice, including those PBS treated. Further, when collapsing across groups, we did not find an effect of 1 Torr versus 2 Torr intensity of isopentyl acetate and so for simplicity we restrict all analyses to 1 Torr isopentyl acetate.

All statistical analyses were performed using Microsoft Excel and Graphpad Prism 8 (San Diego, CA). Any comparison between PFF and PBS injected mice aged for 1, 2, or 3 months post injection was conducted using repeated measures ANOVA and 2-way ANOVA. For post-hoc analyses, either Tukey's multiple comparison tests or *t*-tests were used.

Results

Accumulation of Pser129 pathology in key olfactory structures following OB α-Syn seeding.

To induce α-synucleinopathy in the olfactory system, PFFs or PBS as a control,

were unilaterally injected into the OB of 2-3 months-old female mice. The mice were

then allowed to age for either 1, 2, or 3 months prior to being implanted with electrodes

into their OB and PCX, ipsilateral to the injection, and LFP recordings performed (**Fig.**

1) as described below. Following recordings, the brains were collected and processed

for anti-Pser129 immunofluorescence. Confirming previous results using this OB PFF

seeding model (Rey et al., 2018a, 2016), we observed Pser129 burden in key olfactory

structures, including the OB itself and the PCX (**Fig. 4**). Across all groups, there was an

effect of brain region on Pser129 levels ($F(2, 33) = 9.586$, $p = 0.0005$). Post hoc tests

revealed that the PCX ($t = 2.002$, $p = 0.00002$) was vulnerable to pathological

accumulation of misfolded α-Syn as indicated by the higher level of burden. In contrast,

and in agreement with previous work (Rey et al., 2016), the OB did not possess high

levels of burden across any group (**Figs. 4B & 4C**). Instead, low levels of Pser129

burden was detected in the OB, which we observed to be spanning the layers of the OB

(with the injection targeted to the inner layers). Pser129 burden was also observed

throughout all 3 cell layers of the PCX (**Fig. 4B**).

Preservation of spontaneous LFP dynamics following α-Syn seeding.

We began our investigation into the influence of α-Syn aggregates on LFP

dynamics by analyzing spontaneous (*viz.,* those in the absence of experimentally-

applied odors) levels of theta, beta, and gamma-band powers in the OB and PCX of

mice aged 1, 2, or 3 months post injection (the same mice used for histology above). As

is well established (for review (Kay et al., 2009)), spontaneous OB and PCX LFP activity

is characterized by prominent theta band power coupled with respiratory cycles, along

with beta and also some gamma band powers which also occur in somewhat phasic

manners with respiratory theta (**Fig. 5A & 5B**).

The most fundamental aspects of OB activity, how it operates during

spontaneous states, was intact following PFF injection. We did not find an overall

(across age groups) change in theta ($F(1,51) = 0.993$, $p = 0.324$), beta ($F(1,51 = 0.035$,

p = 0.853), or gamma band powers ($F(1,51) = 0.013$, *p* = 0.910) in the OB when

comparing PBS injected animals to those injected with PFFs (**Fig. 6**). Post-hoc tests

within these spectral bands, and also within individual age groups, similarly did not

reveal an effect of PFF treatment ($p > 0.05$, 2-tailed paired *t*-tests).

Next, we performed similar analyses of spontaneous LFPs in the PCX. While in

the PCX we similarly did not find an overall change in theta ($F(1, 50) = 0.017$**,** *p* =

0.897), beta ($F(1, 50) = 0.084$**,** *p* = 0.774), or gamma band power ($F(1, 50) = 0.073$, *p* =

0.788) when comparing PBS animals to those injected with PFFs (**Fig. 6**), there were

significant differences between PFF and PBS animals. These were observed in both the

beta ($t = 2.110$, df = 17, *p* = 0.018; 2-tailed paired *t*-test) and gamma band powers ($t =$

2.228, df = 10, *p* = 0.038, 2-tailed paired *t*-test) in the 2 months post injection groups

(**Fig. 6**) with PFF-treated animals displaying elevations in the power of both bands.

Thus, despite pathogenic propagation of α-Syn from the seeded structure (the OB) into

a monosynaptically interconnected structure (the PCX), these systems (*i.e.,* their

networks) were not similarly vulnerable to the influence of α-Syn. This highlights that the

PCX may be more vulnerable than the OB to α-Syn influences on spontaneous activity.

α-Syn seeding results in heightened OB beta-band odor-evoked activity.

The OB and PCX are important for the formation of olfactory perception, and the

processing of odor information in each of these stages is considered critical for

olfaction. Odor-input drives increases in both beta and gamma-band power activity in

the OB (Kay et al., 2009). Beta band power is especially considered important for the

coordinated transfer of sensory information between brain regions (Haegens and Zion

Golumbic, 2018; Kopell et al., 2000) and thus any changes in beta activity during odor

may be especially influential to perception. Therefore, we next took advantage of the

monosynaptic and bisynaptic inputs of odor information into these structures by

analyzing odor-evoked LFPs (**Fig. 7A**) and how OB PFF seeding may impact odor-

evoked activity. We compared the LFP spectral power during 4 secs of odor (1 Torr

isopentyl acetate) versus the 4 secs immediately prior to odor (**Fig. 7B**) to calculate an

odor-evoked power ratio. We then averaged this across all trials in the session (4-5 trials/animal) to calculate average odor-evoked power ratios as a simple measure of odor-evoked network activity.

In the OB, while analyses of odor-evoked power ratios did not uncover an effect in either the theta ($F(1, 50) = 0.944$, $p = 0.336$) or gamma bands ($F(1, 50) = 0.389$, $p = 0.536$), there was a significant effect of PFF treatment increasing odor-evoked beta band activity ($F(1, 50) = 5.531$, $p = 0.023$) (**Fig. 8**). Post-hoc tests within these spectral bands, and also within individual age groups, similarly did not reveal an effect of PFF treatment ($p>0.05$, 2-tailed paired t-tests). Nevertheless, there is a clear elevation in beta-band odor evoked power ratios in the PFF-treated animals across all three age groups.

In contrast to the OB, theta ($F(1, 49) = 1.351$, $p = 0.251$), beta ($F(1, 49) = 0.042$, $p = 0.839$), and gamma band odor evoked powers ($F(1, 49) = 3.380$, $p = 0.072$) were similar between PBS and PFF treated animals across all ages in the PCX (**Fig. 8**). This indicates that, at least at the level of LFP monitoring, the effect of α-Syn OB seeding is most dramatic in shaping OB odor-evoked activity. This is a significant finding since the OB provides nasal-derived odor information into the entirety of down-stream brain regions.

Are oscillatory dynamics correlated with Pser129 levels?

Finally, we sought to test whether the levels of local Pser129 within either the OB or PCX may be correlated with the changes in oscillatory dynamics. The effect on spontaneous LFP dynamics at 2, but not 1 or 3 months of age post injection indicates a transient change in network dynamics which does not evidently/directly coincide with the levels of Pser129 progression observed in the PCX over time (**Fig. 6**). As a population across all animals, indeed no significant correlation existed between levels of Pser129 and spontaneous LFP power within the 2 months beta ($r(8) = -0.019$, $p = 0.959$) or gamma band activity ($r(8) = -0.125$, $p = 0.731$) in the PCX (**Fig. 9A**).

Our analysis of odor-evoked activity demonstrated significantly elevated levels of
beta-band activity following PFF injection (**Fig. 8**). Further, some PFF-treated animals
contributed abnormally high levels of odor-evoked beta-band activity (**Fig. 8**). Upon
post-hoc inspection, we determined that some of these mice were also those which
displayed elevated Pser129 pathological burden in the olfactory system led us to predict
these factors were related. That said, as a population across all animals, no significant
correlation existed between levels of Pser129 and odor-evoked power ratios within beta
activity in the OB (r(28) = 0.319, p =0.086) (**Fig. 9B**). Taken together, neither of two
major effects observed in PFF seeded mice, including elevations in OB odor-evoked
beta power and elevations in spontaneous PCX beta and gamma band powers, were
correlated with levels of pSer129 pathology in these respective structures.

Discussion

We tested the hypothesis that progressive development of α-Syn aggregates in
the olfactory system impacts neural dynamics. While key regions within the basal
ganglia system display aberrant synchrony of neural dynamics which may contribute to
motor deficits in PD (Brown and Williams, 2005; De Hemptinne et al., 2015; Hammond
et al., 2007; Kühn et al., 2006; Moran et al., 2008), the direct contributions of α-Syn
aggregates to neural dynamics *in vivo* are unresolved. This is an important question
because hyposmia is prevalent in PD, and often develops before the onset of clear
motor deficits. Furthermore, greater insight into the impact of α-Syn aggregates on
neural circuits is important for our understanding of functional deficits in PD and related
synucleinopathies. Perturbations in neural synchrony might be highly relevant to the
symptomology of clinical synucleinopathies since they may alter key aspects of function,
from cognitive, motor, to sensory – depending upon the system impaired.

We used α-Syn seeding in mice in combination with olfactory LFP recordings.
The olfactory system is an excellent model to test whether pathogenic α-Syn impacts
neural dynamics, given both the known aggregation of Lewy bodies in the OB during the

earliest states of PD, and decades of work carefully examining the dynamics of LFPs in
the OB and PCX, including how these dynamics are influenced by odors. Importantly,
LFPs are reflective of aggregated network activity (Buzsáki et al., 2012; Mitzdorf, 1985)
and are considered a substrate for the rhythmic sampling of sensory information
(Haegens and Zion Golumbic, 2018). Therefore, changes in LFPs may impact odor
perception. Here we found that the progressive development of α-Syn aggregates
influenced specific LFP spectral bands, and did so in region-specific manners (*viz.,* not
all brains regions were equally vulnerable), and in some cases transiently relative to the
amount of time following seeding.

Reconciling Pser129 pathology with that of previous studies.

The OB seeding model we used is associated with impaired odor perception, yet
spared motor function (Rey et al., 2016). We found, as expected, that injection of α-Syn
PFFs into one OB triggered α-Syn accumulation of intraneuronal Pser129
immunoreactive aggregates in inter-connected olfactory structures, particularly in the
PCX **(Fig. 4)** which has dense reciprocal connection with the OB. Based on prior
studies demonstrating Pser129 immunoreactivity in olfactory brain regions of mice
following PFF injections (Rey et al., 2018a, 2016), we interpret the Pser129
immunofluorescence we observe in the PCX as being the consequence of seeding of
endogenous α-Syn. The uptake pattern we observed is similar to that previously
reported (Rey et al., 2016, 2013). Herein and in our earlier studies (Rey et al., 2018a,
2016), injection of PFFs into the OB resulted in elevations in Pser129 relative to the
time following seeding. While there was no elevation over time of Pser129 staining in
the OB itself, the PCX did show subtle increases in pathology from 1 to 3 months of
age, albeit not significant. Also similar to our earlier studies (Rey et al., 2016, 2013), we
found significantly greater levels of Pser129 in the PCX than the OB.

α-Syn *PFF injection influences beta and gamma band activities.*

Monitoring the spontaneous and odor-evoked LFP activities simultaneously in both the OB and PCX revealed elevations in beta and gamma-band powers in mice with Pser129-positive aggregates. There are several points worthy of discussion in this regard, which we organize by oscillatory band:

Theta band activity

First, no changes were found in theta-band power, which is a prominent oscillatory power observed in both the OB and PCX. Theta oscillations in the OB are generated by intranasal afferent input, and OB and PCX theta cycles are often coupled to respiration (Kay et al., 2009; Kay and Stopfer, 2006; Komisaruk, 1970). The spared theta power observed herein suggests that OB α-Syn pathology did not overtly alter the basic sensory-motor functions impacting the olfactory system (*i.e.,* respiration).

Beta band activity

Our results indicate that α-Syn aggregates, seeded by PFF injection into the OB, can generate PD-relevant elevations in beta band activity during both spontaneous **(Fig. 6)** and odor-evoked **(Fig. 8)** states. Beta oscillations reflect large-scale activity between interconnected structures (Kopell et al., 2000; Spitzer and Haegens, 2017) such as that between the OB and PCX (Kay and Beshel, 2010; Neville and Haberly, 2003).

The changes we uncovered in beta activity are especially relevant to PD pathophysiology. Striatal and cortical beta band activity is elevated in persons with PD and deep brain stimulation, levodopa, and anti-cholinergic treatment may act by means of suppressing elevated beta power in the cortico-basal ganglia loop (Brown, 2006; Brown et al., 2001; Eisinger et al., 2020; Giannicola et al., 2010; Little and Brown, 2014; McCarthy et al., 2011). Additionally, deep brain stimulation of the subthalamic nucleus was shown in one study to improve cortical function in PD and reduce the excessive beta phase coupling of motor cortex neurons (De Hemptinne et al., 2015). Differences in beta band activity are proposed to be a network determinant of PD pathophysiology (Feingold et al., 2015). Our results indicate an important role for α-Syn related pathologies in these clinical pathophysiologies.

Notably, beta oscillations increase depending upon sensory and cognitive
demands (Bauer et al., 2006; Spitzer et al., 2010; Spitzer and Haegens, 2017; van Ede
et al., 2010) and in the olfactory system beta oscillations are considered especially
involved in odor learning (Gervais et al., 2007; Lowry and Kay, 2007; Martin et al.,
2007). In our study, while the mice were awake while being delivered odors, they were
not engaged in a cognitively demanding task. Interestingly, in our previous work, which
uncovered progressive olfactory perceptual deficits following injection of PFFs into the
OB (Rey et al., 2016), we used a task which relies partly upon working memory. Based
on these observations in our animal model, we propose that aberrant OB odor-evoked
beta-band activity can perturb odor perception in manners which may underlie the
impacts of PFF seeding on odor perception (Rey et al., 2016).

Gamma band activity

Our results indicate that α-Syn aggregates in olfactory nuclei are associated with
elevated levels of spontaneous gamma band activity in the PCX **(Fig. 6)**. Reciprocal
dendodendritic activity between OB granule and mitral / tufted cells generates gamma
band activity (Shepherd, 1972). Odor-evoked OB gamma oscillations reflect the local
network activity within the OB and PCX with gamma in the PCX considered to originate
locally (Neville and Haberly, 2003; Rall and Shepherd, 1968). This implies that while the
PFFs may have seeded in one structure (in this case, the OB), they may yield their
greatest influence upon interconnected structures which hold connectivity with the OB
(like the PCX).

Some brain networks may be more vulnerable to the influence of α-Syn PFF injections
than others.

Our two main effects of α-Syn PFF injections were localized to either the OB or
PCX, but *not* to both. Indeed, we uncovered that despite pathogenic propagation of α-
Syn from the seeded structure (the OB) into a monosynaptically interconnected
structure (the PCX), these structures (*i.e.,* their networks) were not similarly vulnerable
to the influence of α-Syn. For instance, a striking effect in PFF seeded mice was an

elevation in odor-evoked beta power (**Fig. 7 & 8**). This was observed only in the OB –
suggesting that the OB is either directly impacted by α-Syn pathology, or, that the PCX
which is known to innervate the OB and influence local inhibition, is impacted and this
results in elevated beta power during odor inhalation. We propose the latter model is at
play. This is based upon the known nature of beta activity to be
originating/communicating between brain regions and also the notably low levels of
Pser129 in the OB compared to the PCX. Regardless of mechanism, the results of the
odor-evoked analyses highlight that the impact of α-Syn aggregates may be region
specific.

Similarly supporting this case, monitoring the spontaneous LFP activity
simultaneously in both the OB and PCX revealed elevations in beta and gamma-band
powers. Interestingly, in these measures of spontaneous activity, only the PCX, not also
the OB, was perturbed (**Fig. 5 & 6**). As introduced above, gamma-band activity is
resultant from network interactions within a local population of neurons and thus the
finding that the OB also did not display changes in spontaneous LFPs, not even
gamma-band activity, suggest that the PCX may be more vulnerable than the OB to α-
Syn influences on spontaneous activity.

In our model, α-Syn aggregates are present within several processing stages of
the olfactory system (OB, AON, and PCX). Therefore, we cannot determine with
certainty in which neuronal populations (single or multiple) that the α-Syn aggregates
influence neural activity, which ultimately give rise to the altered LFPs we detect in the
OB and PCX.

The influence of α-Syn PFF injection on oscillations is not directly related to levels of
pSer129.

Neither of two major effects observed in PFF injected mice, including elevations
in OB odor-evoked beta power (**Fig. 7 & 8**) and elevations in spontaneous PCX beta
and gamma band powers (**Fig. 5 & 6**), were correlated with levels of pSer129 pathology
in the respective structures (**Fig. 9**). In the case of the elevations in PCX spontaneous

power, these were only observed 'transiently', in the two, but not the one or three-
months post-injection groups (**Fig. 6**). This transient occurrence is striking since
pSer129 pathology in the PCX increased with age (**Fig. 4C**). Further, the transient effect
implies that neural networks are more vulnerable to α-Syn pathology at a certain time-
point following injection of α-Syn PFFs. Adding to this, the elevations in beta power in
the OB during odor were stable regardless of delay post seeding (**Fig. 7 & 8**) which had
no impact on pSer129 levels in the OB (**Fig. 4C**).

Cell culture and slice physiology studies demonstrated that pathological α-Syn
perturbs normal synaptic function (Volpicelli-Daley et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2019), for
instance, by oligomeric α-Syn's actions upon glutamatergic receptors (Durante et al.,
2019). Further, brain-surface electroencephalography from transgenic mice
overexpressing human α-synuclein, throughout the brain, uncovered aberrant activity,
including epileptiform events (Morris et al., 2015). Our *in vivo* results suggest that
elevations in pathological α-Syn, up to a particular level, may be sufficient to entail
changes in synaptic coupling or perhaps efficacy which may result in the aberrant LFP
activity. While we do not elucidate the precise cellular mechanism whereby α-Syn
seeding perturbed neural activity, our correlation results do indicate that function is not
strongly correlated with pathogenic α-Syn levels at least at the level of the local
networks (*viz.,* detectable with LFPs). This outcome points towards the likely influential
role of other pathologies related to α-Syn aggregates in shaping neural dynamics in the
context of PD. For instance, α-Syn aggregates accumulate in axons where they likely
cause degeneration of the axons as well as dendrites (Volpicelli-Daley et al., 2011).
Thus, it is possible that the influence of α-Syn aggregates on neural activity would be
more directly correlated with changes in activity as the aggregates mature.

Conclusions.

Our results extend important mechanistic work performed in cell culture and in brain
slices indicating that α-Syn aggregates can perturb synaptic activity. Thus, we used
awake mice and studied how progressive changes in α-Syn aggregate pathology affects

the olfactory system at the network level. We found changes in neural activity that were
region-specific, but did not directly correlate to the local degree of α-Syn aggregate
pathology. Future work to assess levels of other pathologies along with simultaneous
neural recordings will be informative, as will be work utilizing methods allowing for
monitoring the activity of select cell populations to understand the cell types specifically
vulnerable to the effects of synucleinopathy.

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Kulkarni et al., Figure 1

Fig 1. Experimental design for α-Syn seeding and subsequent multi-site LFP recordings in awake mice. 2-3 months old C57BL/6J mice received unilateral OB injections of either α-Syn PFFs or PBS and were aged for 1, 2, or 3 months post injection. The mice were then surgically implanted ipsilaterally to the initial surgical site in the OB and PCX with twisted bipolar electrodes for LFP recordings. Following this, the mice were allowed 2-3 days to recover. Spontaneous and odor-evoked LFPs were recorded from awake mice while they were head fixed (to allow control for the positioning of the snout relative to the odor port) in the absence and presence of odors respectively, and then were perfused within 3 days for *post-mortem* histology.

Fig 2. Verification of PFF length prior to OB injections. A, Experimental design, including sonication and electron microscopy, to optimize the length of the PFFs. **B,** Transmission electron microscopy images of PFFs before and after sonication. Scale bar represents 100 nm. **C,** Histogram of PFF length post sonication illustrating that >50% of the fibril population are <50 nm. Dashed line represents 50% of total population of PFFs quantified. Data from two separate sonication runs, 6-7 electron micrographs each.

Fig 3. Paradigm for recording spontaneous and odor-evoked LFPs from head-fixed awake mice. A, After a variable inter-trial interval (ITI), the odor valves are turned on for 8 secs and the vacuum for 4 secs. This allows the animal to be presented with an odor for 4 secs. **B,** Schematic showing the recording paradigm. An epoch of spontaneous LFP activity was recorded before and after odor presentation. During odor presentation, 7 odors were presented in a pseudo-random order for 4-5 sessions, and their odor-evoked activity recorded. **C,** Average photoionization detector trace in response to 12 presentations of 1 Torr isopentyl acetate, depicting the rapid temporal dynamics and stability of odor presentation (10 Hz, low pass filtered). Data are mean +/- SEM.

Fig 4. PFFs injected in the OB induced an amplification and spread of pathology to interconnected regions, including the PCX. Pser129 immunofluorescence was used as an assay to detect pathological α-Syn. **A,** Coronal panel showing the regions (green boxes) used for quantifying Pser129 expression level in the OB and PCX of mice injected with PFFs. **B,** Representative images of Pser129 immunofluorescence staining of the OB and PCX of mice aged for 1, 2, or 3 months post PFF seeding. Arrowheads in the OB and PCX panels indicate areas of neuritic pathology. **C,** Quantification of mean % area in all three brain regions, showing Pser129 immunofluorescence in PFF injected mice aged for 1 (*n*= 8), 2 (*n*= 10), and 3 (*n*= 12) months post injection. Significant increase in mean % area Pser129 was observed in the PCX when compared to the OB. ****p* ≤ 0.001 ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison's test.

Fig 5. Aberrant transient spontaneous LFP activity in the PCX. A, Representative spontaneous LFP traces from two separate mice injected with either PBS (left) or PFF (right), 2 months prior to recording. Shown are full band traces from simultaneous OB and PCX recordings (0.1-100Hz) which were also filtered to separately display beta and gamma band activity as defined in the figure. Respiratory theta from the OB is also displayed along with dashed vertical lines indicating the timing of OB respiratory cycles for visual aid. **B,** Spontaneous PCX power spectrograms of theta (top), and beta and gamma spectral power (bottom) of PBS (*n* = 9) and PFF injected mice (*n* = 10) aged for 2 months post injection.

Fig 6. Quantification of spontaneous LFP activity reveals effects of PFF seeding in the PCX beta and gamma spectral bands. A,B, Spontaneous OB and PCX LFP power, consisting of theta (1-10 Hz), beta (15-34 Hz), and gamma (40-75 Hz) spectral bands in either PFF seeded mice or PBS injected mice aged for 1 (PFF: *n*= 8, PBS: *n*= 9), 2 (PFF: *n*= 10 , PBS: *n*= 9) , or 3 (PFF: *n*=12, PBS: *n*=8) months post injection. No treatment or age-post injection effect was observed in any of the cohorts. However, *post hoc* tests revealed a significant elevation in the beta and gamma band powers in the PCX of the 2 months group, age-matched PBS versus PFF. *ANOVA followed by two-tailed *t*-test.

Fig 7. OB PFF seeding entails heightened odor-evoked OB beta band power. A, Representative odor-evoked LFP traces from two separate mice injected with either PBS (left) or PFF (right), 2 months prior to recording. Shown are full band traces from odor-evoked OB and PCX recordings (0.1-100Hz) which were also filtered to separately display beta band activity as defined in the figure. Respiratory theta from the OB is also displayed as is the root mean square of the beta band activity to illustrate elevated power of beta activity in the PFF injected versus PBS injected mouse. Pink shaded boxes indicate the time of odor delivery. **B,** Odor-evoked OB power spectrograms in the theta, and beta and gamma spectral bands of PBS (*n*= 9) and PFF injected mice (*n*= 10) aged for 2 months post injection.

Fig 8. Analyses of odor-evoked activity uncovers PFF seeding induced aberrant OB beta band power during odor. A,B, Odor-evoked OB and PCX LFP power, consisting of theta (1-10 Hz), beta (15-34 Hz), and gamma (40-75 Hz) spectral bands in either PFF seeded mice or PBS injected mice aged for 1 (PFF: *n*= 8, PBS: *n*= 9), 2 (PFF: *n*= 10 , PBS: *n*= 9), or 3 (PFF: *n*=12, PBS: *n*=8) months post injection. Across all age groups, a significant increase in the beta band power in the OB of PFF seeded mice was observed when compared to PBS treated. *ANOVA. Solid data point indicates an animal whose elevated OB beta power associated with high OB Pser129 pathological burden.

Fig 9. Lack of statistical correlation between Pser129 burden and aberrant LFP dynamics. A, Scatterplot illustrating the relationship between the mean % area occupied by Pser129 in the PCX (as quantified in **Fig. 4**) and beta (gray, 15-34 Hz) and gamma band spontaneous PCX activities (black, 40-75 Hz). Gray and black dashed lines indicate the linear fit for beta (r^2 = 0.0004) and gamma band (r^2 = 0.016) data sets respectively. **B,** Scatterplot illustrating the relationship between the mean % area occupied by Pser129 in the OB (as quantified in **Fig. 4**) and odor-evoked beta power (gray, 15-34 Hz). Gray dashed line indicates the linear fit (r^2 = 0.102).