Astrocytic LRRK2 Controls Synaptic Connectivity via Regulation of ERM Phosphorylation

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Abstract

Astrocytes regulate synaptic connectivity. However, whether astrocyte dysfunction causes synaptic pathologies in disorders such as Parkinson's Disease (PD) is unknown. Here, we investigated how the most common Parkinsonism gene mutation, *LRRK2* G2019S, impacts structure and synaptogenic function of cortical astrocytes. In human and mouse cortex, the LRRK2 G2019S mutation caused astrocyte morphology deficits and enhanced the phosphorylation of the ERM proteins (Ezrin, Radixin, and Moesin), components of the perisynaptic astrocyte processes. Reducing ERM phosphorylation in LRRK2 G2019S mouse astrocytes restored astrocyte morphology and corrected excitatory synaptic deficits. Using an *in vivo* BioID proteomic approach, we found astrocytic Ezrin interacts with Atg7, a master regulator of autophagy. The Ezrin/Atg7 interaction is inhibited by Ezrin phosphorylation and thus diminished in LRRK2 G2019S astrocytes. Importantly, Atg7 function is required to maintain proper astrocyte morphology. These studies reveal an astrocytic molecular mechanism that could serve as a therapeutic target for synaptic pathologies seen in PD.

INTRODUCTION

Most synapses in the central nervous system are in direct contact with perisynaptic astrocyte processes (PAPs)[1], forming the "tripartite synapse"[1]. At the tripartite synapse, astrocytes clear excess neurotransmitters, maintain ion homeostasis, and secrete factors regulating synapse development and function[2]. To accomplish these crucial functions, astrocytes develop elaborate morphologies and form a gap junction-coupled network that tiles the entire brain parenchyma[3-5]. Astrocyte morphogenesis, tiling, and synaptogenesis are interdependent and bidirectional[6,7]. In neurological disorders like PD, astrocytes become reactive, undergoing morphological and molecular changes[8,9].

Mutations in the leucine-rich repeat kinase 2 (*LRRK2*) gene cause familial PD[10,11], with LRRK2 G2019S being the most common[12-14]. It is largely accepted that LRRK2 G2019S is a gain-of-function mutation that increases LRRK2's kinase activity[15-20]. PD patients with the LRRK2 G2019S mutation exhibit symptoms resembling idiopathic PD, including late onset, L-DOPA responsiveness, and Lewy body pathology[21,22]. These patients also experience non-motor symptoms like depression, hallucinations, and cognitive deficits[13,14,23]. While rodent models with the LRRK2 G2019S mutation lack motor dysfunction or dopaminergic neuron loss[24-26], they exhibit cognitive impairments linked to cortical and cortico-striatal dysfunction[27,28], reflecting critical non-motor symptoms of PD[29-38].

It is widely accepted that neuronal dysfunction drives synaptic pathologies in PD; however, given the important roles of astrocytes in synaptic connectivity, astrocyte dysfunction may underlie the circuit phenotypes. ERM proteins (Ezrin, Radixin, and Moesin) are structural components of perisynaptic astrocyte processes[39,40]. When

phosphorylated and bound to phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate (PIP2), ERM

proteins change conformation and link F-actin and other proteins to the cell

membrane[41,42]. Previous studies suggested ERM proteins as potential substrates of the

kinase activity of LRRK2[17,43,44]. Therefore, we tested whether LRRK2 may mediate

astrocyte function through the regulation of ERM phosphorylation using the LRRK2

G2019S knockin ([ki/ki]) mouse model[33,45] in conjunction with *in vivo* astrocyte-specific

genetic, proteomic, electrophysiological, and biochemical approaches. We revealed that

the Lrrk2 G2019S genotype enhances ERM phosphorylation in cortical astrocytes, which

impacts astrocyte morphology and synaptic connectivity. Dampening ERM

phosphorylation levels in LRRK2 G2019S mouse astrocytes can rescue astrocyte

morphology and excitatory synaptic deficits in the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC),

suggesting a mechanism through which the LRRK2 G2019S mutation disrupts astrocyte

morphology and synaptic connectivity.

RESULTS

LRRK2 G2019S mutation causes ERM hyperphosphorylation in the prefrontal

cortices of mice and humans.

To study how the LRRK2 G2019S mutation impacts astrocytes in the prefrontal

cortex, a cortical region linked to PD, we stained sections from the frontal cortices of age-

and sex-matched control and LRRK2 G2019S mutation-carrying PD patients

(Supplemental Table 1) with glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP, a marker for astrocyte

branches) and phosphorylated ERM (Phospho-ERM, which are enriched in PAPs) (Figure

1A). Remarkably, the astrocytic organization, determined by GFAP staining, was severely

disrupted, and GFAP levels were significantly elevated (~42%) in PD patients carrying

the LRRK2 G2019S mutation, indicative of reactive gliosis (Figure 1B-C). Unexpectedly,

the phospho-ERM signal was increased by 7-fold in the frontal cortices of PD patients

carrying the LRRK2 G2019S mutation (Figure 1B-C). The elevated phospho-ERM signal

was observed in GFAP-positive astrocytes and other cortical cells. These data reveal that

there are reactive astrocytes in the cortices of LRRK2 G2019S PD patients, and ERM

phosphorylation is highly upregulated in the brains of these patients.

To determine whether ERM hyperphosphorylation is an early or late event in

LRRK2 G2019S PD pathology, we used LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice, in which the human

G2019S mutation was introduced into exon 41 of the Lrrk2 gene[33,45]. To determine if ERM

hyperphosphorylation localizes to astrocytes, we crossed these mice to an astrocyte

reporter line carrying the Aldh1L1-eGFP transgene, which labels all astrocytes by GFP[46].

We examined the phospho-ERM levels in coronal brain sections from 21-day-old (P21,

juvenile) and 12-week-old (P84, adult) wild-type (WT) or LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice. In

LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice, a brain region-specific and heterogeneous increase in phospho-

ERM staining was observed in astrocytes across both age groups compared to WT mice

(Figure 1D-L). The increase in phospho-ERM in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice was localized to

layers (L)1 and L2-3 of the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) and the primary motor cortex

(MOp) (Figure 1E-L; Figure S1A-C) but was absent in other regions such as the primary

sensory cortex (SSp) and the dorsal medial striatum (DMS) (Figure S1D-I). In P21 LRRK2

G2019S[ki/ki] mice, the phospho-ERM integrated densities in the ACC and MOp L1 and L2-

3 were increased by ~32% (ACC) and ~41% (MOp) compared to the WTs (Figure 1I),

whereas in P84 LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice, the phospho-ERM integrated densities were

increased by ~57% (ACC) and ~37% (MOp) compared to the WTs (Figure 1L).

To confirm the specificity of the phospho-ERM antibody, we treated brain sections

from both mouse and human samples with lambda protein phosphatase (λ-PPase). The

phospho-ERM signal was eliminated after λ-PPase treatment in both human and mouse

tissues, confirming the phospho-ERM antibodies' specificity (Figure S2A-F). We then

investigated if the ERM hyperphosphorylation was cell type-specific by co-staining

phospho-ERM with various cellular markers. In the ACC and MOp L1 and L2/3 of LRRK2

G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice, phospho-ERM was significantly increased and colocalized with S100β

(astrocyte marker) and MAP2 (neuronal marker) but not Iba1 (microglia marker), with a

predominant localization to astrocytes in the ACC and MOp of LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice

(Figure S3A-C). In the frontal cortices of PD patients carrying the LRRK2 G2019S

mutation, we found significant increases in phospho-ERM signal colocalized with S100β

and MAP2 (Figure S3D-F), indicating ERM hyperphosphorylation is significantly elevated

in astrocytes and neurons in both mice and human carrying the LRRK2 G2019S mutation.

Importantly, we did not observe any difference in total ERM levels in the ACC and MOp

between WT and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ brain sections (Figure S4A-C), suggesting the

observed ERM hyperphosphorylation was due to the phosphorylation status of ERM

rather than ERM protein expression.

These findings reveal that the LRRK2 G2019S mutation increases phospho-ERM

levels in the cortices of PD patients and mice. In the human samples, phospho-ERM

elevation was observed concurrently with reactive gliosis (elevated GFAP staining). To

determine if, in LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice, there were reactive astrocytes detectable at

early ages, we stained sections from the same P21 mouse brains with an anti-GFAP antibody. In the mouse cortex, grey matter astrocytes do not display GFAP staining unless there is reactive gliosis[47,48]. We did not detect any increase in the levels of GFAP (Figure S4D-F), indicating that phospho-ERM upregulation does not occur concurrently with reactive astrogliosis in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice. Distinct from the P21 and P84 LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice where phospho-ERM was restricted to a subset of astrocytes in a brain region-specific manner, in the human patient brains (~80 years old), phospho-ERM accumulation was present equally in both astrocytes and neurons. These data suggest that ERM hyperphosphorylation is an early and astrocyte-specific event in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice but becomes more widespread and affects neurons in late-stage PD in humans.

LRRK2 G2019S mutation alters excitatory and inhibitory synapse numbers and function in the cortex.

Previous studies did not observe dopaminergic neuron loss or motor dysfunction in the LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice[25,26]; however, synapse dysfunction at cortico-striatal circuits was reported in adult mice[35]. Despite the critical role of Lrrk2 in cortico-striatal synapses and PD-related cortical circuits[49], whether LRRK2 G2019S affects cortical synapse numbers and function has not been explored. Understanding these cortical synaptic abnormalities is crucial, as they may underlie the early cognitive deficits in PD that are unrelated to dopaminergic dysfunction. Therefore, we investigated how LRRK2 G2019S mutation impacts synaptic connectivity in the ACC and MOp L1 and L2-3 (Figure 2A), regions in which ERM hyperphosphorylation within astrocytes was observed.

We quantified the density of excitatory and inhibitory intracortical synapses in WT

and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice. To do so, we marked the excitatory synapses as the co-

localization of the presynaptic Vesicular Glutamate Transporter 1 (VGlut1) and the

Postsynaptic Density Protein (PSD95), whereas inhibitory synapses were labeled using

presynaptic Vesicular GABA Transporter (VGAT) and postsynaptic gephyrin

(GEPHYRIN)[50,51] (Figure 2B). Structural synapses were identified as the apposition and

co-localization of presynaptic and postsynaptic markers, which are in two distinct

neuronal compartments (i.e., axons and dendrites) and would only appear to co-localize

at synapses due to their proximity[52].

Excitatory synapse densities were quantified both at P21 and P84. In the ACC of

the LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice, there was a significant decrease in intracortical excitatory

synapse densities in both layers and ages we analyzed (~30%) when compared to the

WT controls (Figure 2C-D and Figure S5A-B). However, no differences in excitatory

synapse numbers were observed between genotypes in the MOp (Figure 2E-F and Figure

S5C-D). When we quantified the densities of inhibitory synapses in the MOp, we found

significant differences between genotypes (~40% increase). In contrast, no differences

were observed for inhibitory synapse numbers in the ACC of WT and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$

mice (Figure 2G-J). These results revealed that the LRRK2 G2019S mutation causes a

brain region-specific reduction in excitatory synapse densities in the ACC and an increase

in inhibitory synapse densities in the MOp, highlighting synaptic alterations associated

with this mutation.

Next, we used electrophysiology to assess how altered synapse density in the

ACC and MOp of LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice affects synaptic function. We recorded

miniature excitatory postsynaptic currents (mEPSCs) in the ACC L2-3 pyramidal neurons

and miniature inhibitory postsynaptic currents (mIPSCs) in the MOp L2-3 pyramidal

neurons from acute brain slices of P84 WT and LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice. LRRK2

G2019S[ki/ki] neurons displayed a ~65% reduction in mEPSC frequency and a

corresponding right shift in the cumulative distributions of mEPSC inter-event intervals

(Figure 3A-B) when compared to WT neurons, with no change in mEPSC amplitude

(Figure 3C). mEPSC frequency changes correlate with synapse numbers and/or the

probability of presynaptic glutamate release[53], whereas mEPSC amplitude indicates the

synaptic strength reflecting the number of AMPARs at the postsynapse[54]. Therefore,

together with our anatomical data, these findings suggest that the LRRK2 G2019S

mutation reduces the number of intracortical excitatory connections formed on L2-3

pyramidal neurons in the ACC without altering synaptic strength. In contrast, in the MOp,

LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] neurons exhibited a ~72% increase in mIPSC frequency compared to

WT, with no significant change in amplitude (Figure 3D-F). This data aligns with our

findings that inhibitory synapse numbers are elevated in the MOp of LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki]

mice.

Reducing ERM hyperphosphorylation in astrocytes rescues excitatory synapse

density and function in the ACC of adult LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice.

Lrrk2 phosphorylates a conserved threonine residue present in all ERM

proteins[17,43]. We found that LRRK2 G2019S mutation increases ERM phosphorylation in

astrocytes (Figure 1) and hypothesized that dampening ERM phosphorylation in

astrocytes could restore the synapse alteration in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice. To test this,

we overexpressed a phospho-dead Ezrin mutant, which cannot be phosphorylated, in

astrocytes via adenovirus (AAV) retro-orbital injection. We chose Ezrin because Ezrin is

highly abundant and specifically enriched in astrocytes compared to its family members,

Radixin and Moesin[55] (Figure S6A-B). Switching the amino acid threonine (T) at location

567 with alanine (A) results in a version of the protein that cannot be phosphorylated

(Phospho-dead Ezrin, Figure S6C)[42,56].

To determine if phospho-dead Ezrin can reduce ERM phosphorylation in

astrocytes of LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice, we retro-orbitally injected 9-week-old WT and

LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice with AAVs to express Hemagglutinin (HA)-tagged WT Ezrin or

phospho-dead Ezrin under the control of the astrocyte-specific GfaABC1D promoter

(Figure S6D). The injected mouse brains were harvested at 12 weeks (3 weeks after

injection) for histological analyses. The widespread viral expression of Ezrin in astrocytes

was verified by staining with an anti-HA tag antibody (Figure 4A). While WT or phospho-

dead Ezrin overexpression had no effect on ERM phosphorylation in WT brains, WT Ezrin

increased phospho-ERM levels in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes, whereas phospho-dead

Ezrin abolished this increase (Figure 4A-B). This indicates that the LRRK2 G2019S

mutation sensitizes astrocytes to Lrrk2-mediated ERM phosphorylation. To determine the

specificity of phospho-dead Ezrin, we examined hyperphosphorylation of another Lrrk2

substrate, Rab10 (Thr 73)[18,20,57]. We found higher Rab10 phosphorylation in LRRK2

G2019S[ki/ki] brain sections than in WT mice. However, neither WT nor phospho-dead Ezrin

overexpression impacted Rab10 phosphorylation (Figure S7), showing that phospho-

dead Ezrin selectively reduces ERM hyperphosphorylation in astrocytes.

We next tested whether reducing ERM hyperphosphorylation in astrocytes could

rescue synaptic deficits in LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ ACC and MOp. While WT Ezrin

overexpression in astrocytes had no significant changes on excitatory synapse density in

the WT ACC (Figure S8), phospho-dead Ezrin reduced excitatory synapse density by ~30%

compared to WT mice overexpressing WT Ezrin (Figure 4C-D). Conversely, astrocytic

overexpression of phospho-dead Ezrin in LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ restored excitatory synapse

numbers to levels comparable to those in the WT ACC overexpressing WT Ezrin (Figure

4C-D). These findings suggest that the reduced synapse numbers in the ACC of the

LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice is due to astrocytic dysfunction from dysregulated ERM

phosphorylation. They also indicate that astrocytes play a key role in excitatory synaptic

dysfunction in the LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mouse cortex.

We next investigated whether the same manipulation of adult astrocytes can

change the inhibitory synapse number in the MOp. We found that neither the WT nor the

phospho-dead Ezrin overexpression in adult astrocytes can rescue the density of

inhibitory synapses back to the levels in the WT MOp overexpressed with WT Ezrin in the

MOp L1 and L2-3 of LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice (Figure S9). In summary, phospho-dead

Ezrin expression in adult WT or LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ astrocytes is sufficient to modify

excitatory synapse numbers in the ACC but cannot restore or impair inhibitory synaptic

connectivity in the MOp. It is plausible that LRRK2 G2019S mutation impairs inhibitory

synapses in the MOp by altering the number or connectivity of cortical interneurons

through a developmental mechanism. Thus, manipulation in adults is insufficient to

eliminate this inhibitory synapse phenotype.

Because astrocytic overexpression of phospho-dead Ezrin impacted excitatory

synapse numbers in the ACC of WT and LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice, we next performed

whole-cell patch-clamp recordings from ACC L2-3 pyramidal neurons transduced with the

same AAVs. Overexpression of WT Ezrin in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes did not rescue

the decreased frequency of mEPSCs in ACC L2-3 neurons. However, overexpression of

phospho-dead Ezrin in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes restored the frequency up to the

levels of WT mice expressing WT Ezrin (Figure 4E-F). Interestingly, overexpression of

phospho-dead Ezrin in WT astrocytes significantly reduced the frequency of mEPSCs

(~54%) in WT ACC neurons (Figure 4E-F). Posthoc comparisons confirmed no significant

differences in mean mEPSC amplitudes across all 4 conditions (Figure 4G).

Altogether, these electrophysiological and neuroanatomical analyses show that

the LRRK2 G2019S mutation reduces the density and function of excitatory synaptic

inputs made onto the ACC L2-3 but increases the density and function of inhibitory

synaptic inputs made onto the MOp L2-3. These data reveal that the LRRK2 G2019S

mutation dysregulates proper excitatory and inhibitory synapse connectivity and function

in the cortex in a brain region-specific manner. These results also pinpoint a link between

LRRK2 G2019S-mediated ERM hyperphosphorylation in astrocytes (Figure 1) and the

excitatory synaptic dysfunctions in the ACC (Figure 2 and 3). Our results show that

astrocytic overexpression of phospho-dead Ezrin in adult LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice can

recover excitatory synapse density and function, whereas the same manipulation disrupts

synapse numbers and function in WT ACC neurons (Figure 4). These findings show that

balancing ERM phosphorylation in astrocytes is crucial for maintaining excitatory synapse

density and function in the ACC.

Lrrk2 regulates astrocyte morphological complexity *in vivo* through ERM phosphorylation.

Astrocytes are critical for synaptic function and brain development, and their morphology at P21 can have significant implications for synaptic connectivity and network activity in adulthood[5]. Based on our observation that ERM hyperphosphorylation in LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ astrocytes disrupts cortical synaptic connectivity at P21, we next investigated how this mutation impacts astrocyte morphological complexity.

To determine if astrocyte morphology was altered in the LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ cortices, we sparsely labeled astrocytes with a membrane-targeted fluorescent protein (mCherry-CAAX) using postnatal astrocyte labeling by electroporation (PALE) in WT and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice and imaged whole astrocytes with confocal microscopy at high resolution (Figure S10A). We focused our analyses of astrocyte territory size and complexity (see Methods for details) on the ACC and MOp L1 and L2-3 at P21. In LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice, the territory volumes of astrocytes were significantly smaller (reduced by ~34%) than WT astrocytes (Figure 5A-B), without altering the number of ALDH1L1+/SOX9+ cells in the ACC and MOp (Figure S10B-D). These results reveal that LRRK2 G2019S mutation reduces astrocyte morphological complexity without affecting astrocyte numbers *in vivo*.

Because phospho-dead Ezrin overexpression in astrocytes differentially impacts synapse numbers and function in WT and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice (Figure 4), we hypothesized that overexpression of phospho-dead Ezrin would also impact astrocyte morphology differently between genotypes. We found that the overexpression of

phospho-dead Ezrin decreased the territory volume and morphological complexity of WT

astrocytes but restored astrocyte territory volume and complexity in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki]

mice (Figure 5A-C). Our results show that the abundance of unphosphorylated Ezrin

differentially regulates astrocyte morphology in WT versus LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes.

Previous studies suggested phosphorylation at T567 promotes Ezrin acquiring an

open conformation by binding to phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate (PIP2)[58]. In this

conformation, the N-terminus interacts with membrane proteins, and the C-terminus is

available to bind to the actin cytoskeleton[59,60]. An Ezrin mutant in which the T567 residue

is switched with aspartate (D) prefers Ezrin's open conformation, thereby mimicking the

phosphorylated state (Phospho-mimetic Ezrin, Figure S4C)[61,62]. Conversely, the

phospho-dead Ezrin remains in the closed conformation in which the N and C terminal

domains are bound together. This closed conformation is proposed to be unable to

interact with membranes or actin[56,63]. Because we found that phospho-dead Ezrin

differentially impacts WT and LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes, we hypothesized that Ezrin's

transition between open and closed conformation is regulated by LRRK2 function and

should be tightly balanced for proper astrocyte morphogenesis (Figure 5D). In LRRK2

G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes, Ezrin is more likely to be phosphorylated and in the open state.

This distorted balance of the Ezrin state may explain the morphological defects of LRRK2

G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes. This model also aligns with our findings that dampening Ezrin

phosphorylation via phospho-dead Ezrin disrupts WT astrocyte morphology but rescues

the deficits in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes.

If this model is correct, we would expect that the loss of Lrrk2 function in astrocytes

impacts astrocyte morphogenesis, a phenotype that we could rescue by introducing

phospho-mimetic Ezrin. To test the impact of Lrrk2 loss in astrocytes, first, we used a knockout (KO)-verified Lrrk2 antibody[64,65] and confirmed the expression of Lrrk2 protein in cortical mouse astrocytes by immunostaining coronal brain sections from WT or LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice. Lrrk2 staining was evident in WT and LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes, localizing throughout astrocytic processes (Figure S11A-B). In addition, cortical astrocytes isolated from WT rats express Lrrk2 *in vitro,* which was detected by immunoblotting (Figure S11C-D). In agreement, RNA sequencing databases for cortical cell types in mice and humans also show LRRK2 mRNA present in astrocytes (Fig. S11C-D). To test if astrocytic Lrrk2 function is required to control astrocyte morphogenesis, we knocked down Lrrk2 in WT astrocytes *in vivo*, using PALE. Astrocytes transfected with shLrrk2 (~90% Lrrk2 reduction, Figure S11E-F) exhibited significantly smaller territory volumes (~36% reduction) and reduced complexity, similar to LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes (Figure 5E-G). Overexpression of phospho-mimetic Ezrin restored shLrrk2-containing astrocyte territory volume and morphological complexity up to the levels of shControl-transfected astrocytes (Figure 5E-G) but had no effect in shControl-transfected astrocytes (Figure 5E-G).

These results show that both the gain of Lrrk2 kinase function (in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice) and the loss of Lrrk2 function (shLrrk2) decrease astrocyte complexity and size. The opposite manipulation of Ezrin conformational/phosphorylation states can rescue these morphological phenotypes. These results are in line with a model that indicates that both the loss and gain of LRRK2 function would cause astrocyte morphology deficits by causing an imbalance between the phosphorylated and unphosphorylated ERM levels, albeit in opposite directions. By overexpressing phospho-

mimetic Ezrin in shLRRK2 astrocytes, shLRRK2 astrocyte morphology was rescued,

supporting our model. In the control astrocytes, however, overexpression of phospho-

mimetic Ezrin did not cause a reduction in astrocyte territory and morphological

complexity. This outcome can be explained by the presence of endogenous

unphosphorylated Ezrin, which can balance the phospho-mimetic Ezrin. Together, these

findings indicate that LRRK2 kinase function plays a critical role in regulating astrocyte

morphological complexity through ERM phosphorylation homeostasis *in vivo*.

LRRK2 G2019S mutation interrupts Ezrin interactomes in astrocytes.

To investigate how ERM hyperphosphorylation affects astrocyte morphology in

LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ astrocytes, we identified possible Ezrin interactors in WT and LRRK2

G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ astrocytes using *in vivo* astrocyte-specific proximity labeling. We used two

virally encoded astrocyte-specific biotin ligase probes: Ezrin fused with BioID (Astro-

Ezrin-BioID) and soluble BioID with a nuclear export sequence (Astro-Cyto-BioID) (Figure

6A). These probes were delivered via intracortical AAV injections to P0-2 WT and LRRK2

G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mouse pups and followed by subcutaneous biotin injections starting at P18

for 3 days and tissue collection at P21 (Figure 6B). Biotinylated proteins were detected in

astrocytes using immunohistochemistry and immunoblotting for HA and Streptavidin

(Figure S12).

Affinity-purified proteins from cortices were analyzed using quantitative liquid

chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS) (Figure 6B), identifying 30,815

unique peptides corresponding to 4,081 unique proteins (Supplemental Tables 2-4).

Principle component analyses (PCA) of BioID results showed distinct clustering between

Cyto-BioID (control) and Ezrin-BioID (bait) samples, with further separation between WT

or LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes (Figure S13A). Radixin and Moesin, known Ezrin family

proteins, were significantly enriched in the Ezrin-BioID sample compared to Cyto-BioID

(Figure S13B)[66]. Comparative analysis revealed 344 proteins with significantly altered

proximity to Ezrin in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes (fold-change >1.5 or < -1.5, p < 0.05);

190 and 154 proteins gained and lost Ezrin proximity, respectively (Figure 6C; Figure

S13C-D; Supplemental Table 5). Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of these proteins showed

phospholipid binding, microtubule binding, and membrane transporter and cell-adhesion

mediator activity were over-represented in differentially enriched proteins (Figure 6D;

Supplemental Table 6). This result aligns with our model that the LRRK2 G2019S

mutation would shift Ezrin towards its phosphorylated/open state, promoting membrane

interactions. Unexpectedly, GO-term analyses of biological processes highlighted

enrichment in catabolic processes, macroautophagy, negative regulation of

developmental growth, and intracellular transport (Figure 6E; Supplemental Table 7).

These findings indicated that Ezrin plays a role in these biological processes, which are

altered by the LRRK2 G2019S mutation.

Previous studies showed macroautophagy deficits in neurons with the LRRK2

G2019S mutation[67]. To assess global cytosolic changes, we analyzed the Astro-Cyto-

BioID dataset across genotypes, identifying 195 differentially enriched proteins (78 gained,

117 lost in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki]; Figure S9E; Supplemental Table 8). GO-term analysis

revealed an enrichment of proteins associated with phospholipid binding and vesicle

trafficking (Figure S13F-G; Supplemental Tables 9-10). However, macroautophagy-

related terms were not enriched, suggesting that the observed changes in Ezrin-BioID

are specifically related to alterations in Ezrin function in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes.

BioID captures proteins in close proximity to the bait but does not guarantee direct

interactions. To identify potential direct Ezrin interactors affected by LRRK2 G2019S, we

compared protein abundance in Astro-Ezrin-BioID to Astro-Cyto-BioID within each

genotype (Ezrin/Cyto fold -change > 1.5, p > 0.05, 346 proteins in WT and 335 proteins

in LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$; Supplemental Tables 11-12). To generate high-confidence lists of

interactors that gained or lost proximity to Ezrin in LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ astrocytes, we set

a second requirement for proteins with fold-change > 1.5 or < -1.5 between LRRK2

G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ and WT Astro-Ezrin-BioID. Using these filters, we narrowed our list down to

28 proteins that "gained proximity to Ezrin in LRRK2 G2019S astrocytes" and 30 proteins

that "lost proximity to Ezrin in LRRK2 G2019S astrocytes" (Figure 6F-H; Supplemental

Table 13). Upregulated proteins, such as Rala, Cops3, and Anks1a, are involved in

vesicular trafficking, cell signaling, and cytoskeletal regulation, aligning with enhanced

ERM phosphorylation and their recruitment to the plasma membrane. In contrast, the

downregulated proteins (e.g., Atg7, Cul4b, Myo1e, Irs1) suggest a disruption in

intracellular trafficking and autophagy due to excessive ERM phosphorylation. Together,

these data map Ezrin interactomes in WT and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mouse cortical

astrocytes *in vivo*, revealing changes in Ezrin interactions with proteins involved in

catabolic processes and autophagy. This finding highlights a potential molecular

mechanism linking Lrrk2-Ezrin signaling to astrocyte morphogenesis.

Atg7 is an Ezrin interactor that is required for proper astrocyte morphogenesis.

Among high-confidence astrocytic Ezrin interactors, we identified autophagy-

related gene 7 (Atg7), a crucial autophagy regulator, which was enriched (~2.3-fold) in

the Ezrin-BioID fraction of WT astrocytes but less abundant (-2.0-fold) in the Ezrin-BioID

fraction of LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes compared to the Cyto-BioID. Atg7 is essential

for autophagy initiation and has been implicated in neurological disorders[68,69]. However,

its role in astrocytes and its interaction with Ezrin is unclear. To explore this, we used

AlphaFold-2.0 Multimer[70] to model the structures of Ezrin and Atg7 alone or in complex.

Atg7, a homodimer, has two globular domains: an N-terminal domain and a C-

terminal domain that are separated by a short flexible linker. The C-terminal domain is

further divided into the adenylation and extreme C-terminal domains (Figure 7A-B)[71].

Ezrin has an N-terminal FERM (four-point one, Ezrin, Radixin, Moesin) domain

(subdivided into three subdomains: F1, F2, and F3), an α-helical domain, and a C-terminal

ERM Association domain (C-ERMAD) (Figure 7C)[62]. Upon phosphorylation of T567 and

binding to PIP2, Ezrin adopts an open conformation (Figure 7D; see Methods for details

of modeling)[72]. We then predicted the structure of the complex formed between the closed

conformation of Ezrin and the homodimer of Atg7 (Figure 7E). Alpha-fold 2.0 Multimer, in

conjunction with CABS-Flex 2.0 and PyMol, was used to predict and assess

conformational changes in Atg7 and Ezrin after binding each other (Figure 7F). When

Ezrin binds Atg7, it is predicted to undergo drastic conformational changes in its α-helical

domain, which is pulled towards the ERMAD and FERM domains, whereas the changes

in the Atg7 dimer structure after Ezrin binding are minimal (Figure 7F).

To validate the interaction between Ezrin and Atg7, we performed co-

immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) in HEK293T cells overexpressing Myc-tagged Atg7 (Atg7-

Myc) and HA-tagged WT Ezrin. To understand how the open or closed conformation of

Ezrin would impact the Ezrin/Atg7 interaction, we also conducted Co-IPs with modulation

of Ezrin phosphorylation levels: phospho-mimetic T567D ("TD", open) and phospho-dead

T567A ("TA", closed) Ezrin. We found that WT Ezrin or phospho-dead Ezrin

coimmunoprecipitated with Myc-Atg7, indicating that Atg7 interacts with WT Ezrin or

phospho-dead Ezrin (Figure 7G). However, the interaction between Atg7 and phospho-

mimetic Ezrin was significantly reduced (Figure 7H). These results support a

phosphorylation-dependent interaction between Ezrin and Atg7 that is consistent with our

BioID data showing reduced Atg7/Ezrin interaction in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes.

To test if Atg7 is required for astrocyte morphology, we developed a short hairpin

RNA (shRNA) that targets both rat and mouse *Atg7,* which effectively reduced *Atg7*

mRNA in mouse cells (Figure S14A). Knockdown of Atg7 in rat astrocytes significantly

reduced neuron-induced astrocyte morphogenesis *in vitro* in a neuron-astrocyte co-

culture assay (Figure S14B-C). *In vivo*, Atg7 knockdown in WT astrocytes reduced

astrocyte territory volume and morphological complexity, resembling the LRRK2

G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes transfected with shControl (Figure 7I-K). In LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki]

astrocytes, Atg7 knockdown improved morphological complexity but did not further

reduce territory volume (Figure 7J-K). These findings highlight Atg7's role in regulating

astrocyte morphology and suggest its dysfunction in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes

contributes to altered morphology.

DISCUSSION

Here, we describe a previously unknown role for Lrrk2, a PD-linked gene, in

controlling astrocyte morphological complexity by regulating the phosphorylation state of

ERM proteins. In the presence of LRRK2 G2019S mutation, we found enhanced ERM

phosphorylation in human and mouse cortical astrocytes. ERM hyperphosphorylation in

the LRRK2 G2019S background is specific to a subset of the ACC and MOp astrocytes

of juvenile and adult mice. Previous studies suggested a direct interaction between

LRRK2 and ERM proteins[17] and that ERM proteins are substrates of LRRK2[43,44].

However, whether the enhanced ERM phosphorylation in LRRK2 G2019S astrocytes is

due to a direct effect of LRRK2 kinase is unclear. Several other kinases, such as

lymphocyte-oriented kinase, STE20-like protein kinase (SLK), and Rho kinase, were

found to be involved in ERM phosphorylation[73], suggesting the enhanced ERM

phosphorylation we observed in LRRK2 G2019S brains may be an indirect effect of the

LRRK2 G2019S mutation on the activities of these kinases.

How does ERM phosphorylation control astrocyte morphology and synaptogenic

functions?

The canonical function of ERM proteins is linking the actin cytoskeleton with the

plasma membrane, thus allowing cellular process outgrowth and morphogenesis[59]. Our

findings suggest that disruptions in the interaction between Ezrin and a core autophagy-

related protein, Atg7, contribute to the altered astrocyte morphology observed in LRRK2

G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice. *In vivo* Ezrin interactome in astrocytes included several other

autophagy-related proteins, which changed their proximity to Ezrin in the LRRK2

G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ astrocytes compared to WT astrocytes. These observations indicate that

dysregulated autophagy due to ERM hyperphosphorylation may underlie the deficits we

observed in LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ astrocytes.

Another intriguing observation is that, *in vivo*, knocking down Atg7 in WT

astrocytes reduces astrocyte morphological complexity. Atg7 is a homodimeric E1-like

enzyme essential for autophagy, which maintains cellular homeostasis by degrading and

recycling damaged organelles and proteins[68]. Autophagic dysregulation is linked to

neurodegenerative diseases, including those associated with PD-related LRRK2

mutations[25,74,67]. However, the role of autophagy in astrocyte morphology and

synaptogenic functions is not well understood, nor is the impact of LRRK2 G2019S on

autophagy in astrocytes. It is possible that Atg7 depletion disrupts autophagic flux,

causing the accumulation of damaged components that compromise astrocyte structure

and function.

Our data also show that Atg7 knockdown in LRRK2 G2019S astrocytes does not

worsen their morphological defects. The G2019S mutation enhances LRRK2's kinase

activity, leading to aberrant phosphorylation of Rab proteins that traps them on the

membrane surface.[75]. Our studies revealed that Atg7/Ezrin interaction requires the

unphosphorylated form of Ezrin. It is plausible that this interaction, which is impaired in

LRRK2 G2019S astrocytes, diminished Atg7 function in astrocytes. Therefore, additional

knockdown of Atg7 in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes does not further reduce their size

and complexity. Alternatively, LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes may compensate by

upregulating other degradation pathways like ubiquitination and proteasomal degradation.

These mechanisms are crucial for clearing misfolded or damaged proteins in the absence

of functional endolysosomal function and may help mitigate the loss of autophagic flux[76,77].

Our Ezrin BioID dataset also showed that Nedd4l, an E3 ubiquitin ligase[78], lost proximity

to Ezrin in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes (Figure 6).

Astrocytes regulate synapse formation and function through cell adhesion

molecules and secreted proteins that signal to neurons[6]. Synaptogenic proteins like Hevin

and thrombospondins shape cortical excitatory circuits[79,80]. ERM proteins are known to

link the actin cytoskeleton with the plasma membrane, supporting cellular process

outgrowth and morphogenesis[72,81,82], but their role in secretion is less understood.

Phosphorylation of ERM proteins may refine secretory mechanisms in astrocytes or

regulate synapse elimination via phagocytosis. Supporting this possibility, a recent study

found that synapses were more likely to be eliminated if phospho-ERM proteins were

localized to peri-synaptic astrocyte processes in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis patient

brains and mouse models[83]. Future research exploring the relationships between Lrrk2,

ERM, and autophagy in astrocytes will help clarify these processes and their impact on

brain region-specific excitatory and inhibitory synapse phenotypes.

Implications for therapeutic development

LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice do not recapitulate motor symptoms of PD because there

is no detectable dopaminergic neuron loss in these mice[24,26]. However, these mice serve

as good models for the non-motor (prodromal) PD symptoms seen in LRRK2 G2019S

carriers[84]. These non-motor symptoms, which arise long before motor dysfunction in PD,

indicate aberrant synaptic connectivity within multiple brain circuits, including the cortex,

long before the death of dopaminergic neurons[85].

In agreement, LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice display early circuit dysfunction and non-

motor symptoms akin to prodromal PD. Previous studies showed that LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki]

mice have deficits in attention and goal-directed learning and differential responses to

stress[31-33]. Our findings showing synaptic deficits in the ACC of LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice

(Figure 2-3) fit well with these studies because the ACC is a brain region that controls

attention, goal-directed actions, and mood[86,87]. Furthermore, we observed synaptic

deficits in the ACC of LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice concurrently with astrocyte morphological

deficits located in the ACC and MOp.

Why do ERM phosphorylation and synaptic deficits occur in specific brain regions

of LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice? Cortical astrocytes are heterogeneous in their gene

expression, morphology, and function[88,89]. Interestingly, cortical astrocyte heterogeneity

is controlled by layer-specific neuron heterogeneity[88,89]. It is plausible that neurons and

astrocytes in different cortical regions have varying levels of LRRK2 and diverse

susceptibilities to LRRK2 mutations. The ACC and MOp may have a high dependence

on the LRRK2-ERM pathway to maintain synaptic integrity and astrocyte function. A

recent single-nucleus RNA sequencing in the striatum revealed that the differential

expression level of LRRK2 is correlated with changes in the ciliogenesis of different

cholinergic neurons[90], suggesting that LRRK2 transcriptional states influence cell function

in a cell-type-specific manner. We believe future studies investigating the impacts of

LRRK2 G2019S on cortical neurons and astrocytes' transcriptional profiles will explain

why specific brain regions and astrocyte populations are susceptible to the LRRK2

G2019S mutation.

In sum, our findings reveal a critical function for Lrrk2 in astrocyte development

and synaptic connectivity, suggesting that Lrrk2-mediated ERM hyperphosphorylation in

astrocytes is an early mediator of PD pathogenesis. This astrocytic dysfunction could

directly contribute to synaptic deficits observed in the prodromal stages of PD. Moreover,

our data indicate that restoring astrocyte function even post-development could be a

promising strategy for treating excitatory synaptic pathology. Identifying the molecular

mechanisms by which Lrrk2 controls ERM phosphorylation and the specific phosphatases

involved could lead to new therapeutic targets for PD.

Limitations of the study

In our study, we found that a subset of astrocytes in the ACC and MOp were

responsive to LRRK2 kinase activity. We also pinpoint that the balance of ERM

phosphorylation plays a crucial role in regulating astrocyte morphology in the ACC and

MOp. However, astrocytes display molecular, morphological, and functional

heterogeneities[91]. We do not yet know why these astrocytes in the ACC and MOp would

be sensitive to LRRK2 kinase activity and how these astrocytes are unique compared to

other astrocytes in terms of their transcriptional and proteomic profiles. Another future

direction would be to determine how the ERM phosphorylation balance modulates

astrocyte morphological changes and synapse changes. ERM is a crucial player in linking

F-actin to the cell membrane and is important for regulating membrane tension. Actin

cytoskeleton dynamics are important for astrocyte morphogenesis[92]. Future single-cell

multi-omics studies and experiments understanding how ERM phosphorylation alters

actin cytoskeleton dynamics in astrocytes will help us address these current limitations.

In addition, the difference in GFAP levels between human PD patients and LRRK2

G2019S[ki/ki] mice reflects the complexity of human PD pathology, the limitations of single-

gene mouse models, and potential species-specific differences in astrocyte reactivity.

This discrepancy highlights the challenges in modeling human neurodegenerative

diseases in animal models and underscores the need for caution when translating

findings from animal studies to human disease. Furthermore, in our study, we used PALE

to label astrocytes. While PALE is a powerful tool that allows us to label a sparse

population of astrocytes in the brain and study their morphological complexity in detail, it

has limitations in labeling astrocytes in deep brain regions like the striatum and substantia

pars compacta. Future studies using systemic approaches may overcome this technical

limitation and clarify whether and how LRRK2 G2019S affects astrocyte morphology and

function in additional brain regions.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: ERM phosphorylation is impaired in PD patients carrying LRRK2 G2019S

mutation. (A) Schematic of human frontal cortex regions analyzed for phospho-ERM

staining. (B) Representative confocal images of GFAP (green) and phospho-ERM (purple)

in the frontal cortex of human controls (n = 4; 3M, 1F) and LRRK2 G2019S mutation

carriers (n = 3; 2M, 1F), aged >80 years. Scale bar, 200 μm. (C) Quantification of GFAP

integrated density in (B). GFAP: t (5) = 2.822, *p* = 0.037; phospho-ERM: t (5) = 5.695, *p*

= 0.0023. Grey dots: individual images; black dots: control averages; blue dots: mutation

carrier averages. (D) Schematic of mouse anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) and primary

motor cortex (MOp) analyzed for phospho-ERM staining. (E-F) Representative confocal

images of phospho-ERM in the ACC and the MOp of WT or LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ Aldh1L1-

eGFP mice at P21. Scale bar, 10 μm. (G-H) Representative confocal images of phospho-

ERM in the ACC and MOp of WT (n = 4; 2M, 2F) or LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ Aldh1L1-eGFP

mice (n = 4; 2M, 2F) at P21. Scale bar, 200 μm. (I) Quantification of phospho-ERM

integrated density in (G-H). For the ACC, nested t-test, unpaired two-tailed t-test. t (6) =

4.247, *p* = 0.0054. For the MOp, nested t-test, unpaired two-tailed t-test. t (6) = 2.392, *p*

= 0.0536. (J-K) Representative confocal images of phospho-ERM (purple) in the ACC

and MOp of WT (n = 4; 2M, 2F) or LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ Aldh1L1-eGFP (n = 4; 2M, 2F) mice

at P84. Scale bar, 200 μm. (L) Quantification of phospho-ERM integrated density in (J-K),

For the ACC, nested t-test, unpaired two-tailed t-test. t (6) = 4.383, p = 0.0047. For the

MOp, nested t-test, unpaired two-tailed t-test. t (6) = 3.898, p = 0.0080. Grey dots:

individual images; black dots: WT averages; blue dots: mutant averages.

Figure 2: LRRK2 G2019S affects excitatory and inhibitory synapse numbers in the

ACC and MOp. (A-B) Schematics of analyzed brain regions (ACC and MOp) and

methods for quantifying VGluT1-PSD95 and VGAT-GEPHYRIN colocalized puncta. (C)

Representative images of VGluT1-PSD95 staining in ventral ACC L1 of WT and LRRK2

G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice at P84. Scale bar, 10 μm. (D) Quantification of VGluT1-PSD95 puncta

in ventral ACC L1 and L2-3, normalized to WT means. n = 5/group (3M, 2F). Nested o

ANOVA: [F(3, 56) = 12.48, p < 0.0001]. Bonferroni's test: L1 (p < 0.0001), L2-3 (p =

0.0002). (E) Representative images of VGluT1-PSD95 staining in MOp L1 at P84. Scale

bar, 10 μm. (F) Quantification of VGluT1-PSD95 puncta in MOp L1 and L2-3. n = 5/group

(3M, 2F). No significant differences (Bonferroni's test: p > 0.05). (G) Representative

images of VGAT-GEPHYRIN staining in ventral ACC L1. Scale bar, 10 μm. (H)

Quantification of VGAT-GEPHYRIN puncta in ACC L1 and L2-3, normalized to WT means.

n = 4/group (2M, 2F). No significant differences (Bonferroni's test: p > 0.05). (I)

Representative images of VGAT-GEPHYRIN staining in MOp L1. Scale bar, 10 μm. (J)

Quantification of VGAT-GEPHYRIN puncta in MOp L1 and L2-3. n = 6/group (3M, 3F).

Nested one-way ANOVA: [F(3, 68) = 25.88, p < 0.0001]. Bonferroni's test: L1 (p < 0.0001),

L2-3 (p < 0.0001). Grey dots: individual images; black dots: WT averages; blue dots:

mutant averages.

Figure 3: LRRK2 G2019S affects excitatory and inhibitory synapse function in the ACC and MOp. (A) Representative mEPSC traces from ventral ACC L2-3 pyramidal neurons in WT and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice. (B) Cumulative probability and quantification of mEPSC frequency: n = 15 (WT), 13 (LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$) neurons, 4 mice/genotype. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: D = 0.504, p < 0.001. Mean frequency: WT (2.878 ± 0.6355), LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ (0.9673 ± 0.2328). Unpaired t-test: t (6) = 2.823, p = 0.0302. (C) Cumulative probability and quantification of mEPSC amplitude: n = 14 (WT), 12 (LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$) neurons. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: D = 0.194, p < 0.0001. Mean amplitude: WT (15.5 ± 0.6325), LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ (13.9 ± 0.9017). Unpaired t-test: t (6) = 1.451, p = 0.197. (D) Representative mIPSC traces from MOp L2-3 pyramidal neurons in WT and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice. (E) Cumulative probability and quantification of mIPSC frequency: n = 12 (WT), 11 (LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$) neurons, 4 WT, 3 LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: D = 0.424, p < 0.0001. Mean frequency: WT (0.7788 ± 0.1012), LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ (1.301 ± 0.07291). Unpaired t-test: t (5) = 3.883, p = 0.0116. (F) Cumulative probability and quantification of mIPSC amplitude: n = 12 (WT), 11 (LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$) neurons. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test: D = 0.382, p < 0.0001. Mean amplitude: WT (8.633 ± 0.4883), LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ (9.834 ± 0.5558). Unpaired t-test: t (5) = 1.62, p = 0.1662. Data are presented as mean ± s.e.m.

Figure 4: Overexpression of phospho-dead Ezrin in adult LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ astrocytes restores excitatory synapse number and function in the ventral ACC. (A) Representative ventral ACC images of WT and LRRK2 G2019Ski/ki mice injected with AAV-HA-WT or Phospho-dead EZRIN, stained for HA and phospho-ERM (P84). Scale bar, 200 μm. (B) Quantification of phospho-ERM intensity, n = 6/group (3M, 3F). One-

way ANOVA [F(3, 20) = 31.62, *p* < 0.0001], Bonferroni's test: significant differences

between WT + WT EZRIN vs. LRRK2 + WT EZRIN (*p* < 0.0001), and LRRK2 + WT EZRIN

vs. LRRK2 + Phospho-dead EZRIN (*p* < 0.0001). No significant differences for other

comparisons (*p* > 0.05). (C-D) Representative ACC L1 and L2-3 images of

VGluT1/PSD95 staining (P84). Scale bar, 10 µm. Quantification of co-localized puncta

normalized to WT + WT EZRIN (n = 5-6/group). L1: One-way ANOVA [F(3, 19) = 5.882,

p = 0.0051], Bonferroni's test: significant differences among WT + WT EZRIN, LRRK2 +

WT EZRIN, and their Phospho-dead counterparts (*p* < 0.05). L2-3: One-way ANOVA [F(3,

18) = 10.45, *p* = 0.0003], Bonferroni's test: significant group differences (*p* < 0.05). (E)

Representative mEPSC traces from L2-3 pyramidal neurons. (F) Synaptic event

frequency quantification (n = 11-15 neurons from 4 mice/group). Kruskal-Wallis test [H(3)

= 36.83, *p* < 0.0001], Dunn's posthoc: significant differences between WT + WT EZRIN

vs. all other groups (*p* < 0.0001), except LRRK2 + Phospho-dead EZRIN (*p* > 0.9999).

(G) Synaptic event amplitude (n = 11-15 neurons from 4 mice/group). Kruskal-Wallis test

[H(3) = 7.051, *p* = 0.0703]; no significant differences across groups (*p* > 0.05). Data are

mean ± s.e.m.

Figure 5: Astrocytic LRRK2 controls astrocyte morphology by balancing ERM

phosphorylation levels *in vivo*. (A) Representative images of ACC and MOp L2-3

astrocytes in WT and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ (P21) expressing PB-mCherry-CAAX ±

Phospho-dead EZRIN. Astrocyte territory in cyan. Scale bar, 10 µm. (B) Astrocyte territory

volume (n = 16-18 astrocytes, 6 mice/group). One-way ANOVA [F(3, 20) = 7.987, p =

0.0011] with Bonferroni's test showed significant differences: WT vs. LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$

(p = 0.0178), WT vs. WT + Phospho-dead EZRIN O/E (p = 0.0037), and WT + Phospho-

dead EZRIN O/E vs. LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ + Phospho-mimetic EZRIN O/E (p = 0.0165);

other comparisons were not significant (p > 0.05). (C) Astrocyte branching complexity (n

= 16-18 astrocytes, 6 mice/group). Two-way ANOVA showed main effects of condition

[F(2.505, 3305) = 158.4, p < 0.0001], radius [F(88, 1602) = 218.5, p < 0.0001], and their

interaction [F(264, 3958) = 10.62, p < 0.0001]. Bonferroni's test identified significant

differences between groups (all p < 0.0001), except WT vs. LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ +

Phospho-dead EZRIN O/E (p = 0.5469). (D) Proposed model of Ezrin conformational

transition and Lrrk2 regulation in astrocyte morphogenesis. (E) Images of ACC and MOp

L2-3 astrocytes expressing shControl-mCherry-CAAX or shLrrk2-mCherry-CAAX ±

Phospho-mimetic EZRIN. Scale bar, 10 μm. (F) Astrocyte territory volume (n = 18-22

astrocytes, 5–6 mice/group). One-way ANOVA [F(3, 19) = 5.47, p = 0.0070] with

Bonferroni's test showed significant differences between shControl and shLrrk2 (p =

0.0132), and shLrrk2 vs. shLrrk2 + Phospho-mimetic EZRIN O/E (p = 0.0152); no other

comparisons were significant (p > 0.05). (G) Astrocyte branching complexity (n = 16-22

astrocytes/group). Two-way ANOVA revealed significant main effects of condition

[F(2.435, 7008) = 225.0, p < 0.0001], radius [F(88, 8633) = 325.4, p < 0.0001], and their

interaction [F(264, 8633) = 5.908, p < 0.0001]. Bonferroni's test identified significant

differences between most groups (all p < 0.0001) except shControl vs. shControl +

Phospho-mimetic EZRIN O/E (p > 0.9999). Data are mean ± s.e.m.

Figure 6: LRRK2 G2019S alters the interactome of astrocytic Ezrin *in vivo*. (A)

Astrocyte-specific AAVs (serotype PHP.eB) were used to express Ezrin or nonspecific

cytosolic control. NES, nuclear export sequence; ITR, inverted terminal repeats;

GfaABC1D truncated GFAP promoter; HA, hemagglutinin tag; pA, polyadenylation. (B)

Outline of the experimental paradigm. n = 3 biological replicates/construct/genotype (1

replicate = 2 animals per pooled sample). (C) Volcano plot showing the differential

abundance of proteins detected by Astro-EZRIN-BioID in WT and LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki]

cortices. (D-E) Bars show the top 10 most significant Gene Ontology (GO) terms, ordered

by lowest adjusted p-value, for the proteins differentially detected by Astro-EZRIN-BioID

in WT compared to LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] (D) Molecular function. (E) Biological Process. (F)

The interaction network depicts 58 high-confidence proteins that gained or lost proximity

to Ezrin in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] compared to WT mice. (G-H) Heatmaps depict fold-change

in abundance (Astro-EZRIN-BioID / Asto-Cyto-BioID) of proteins with high confidence

changed proximity to Ezrin in LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] astrocytes.

**Figure 7: Interaction between Atg7 and Ezrin depends on Ezrin's phosphorylation
state.** (A) Schematic of Atg7 domains. (B) Predicted Atg7 homodimer model. (C)
Schematic of Ezrin domains. (D) Predicted Ezrin structures in closed and open
conformations. (E) Predicted Atg7/Ezrin interaction. (F) Structural changes in Ezrin and
Atg7 upon binding. (G) Co-immunoprecipitation of Ezrin-HA by Atg7-Myc in HEK293T
cells expressing WT, phospho-dead, or phospho-mimetic Ezrin. Ezrin was detected with
anti-HA and Atg7 was detected with anti-Myc. (H) Quantification of (G). One-way ANOVA
$[F(2,6) = 9.932, p = 0.0125]$ with Tukey's test: WT vs. phospho-mimetic Ezrin ($p = 0.0151$),
phospho-dead vs. phospho-mimetic Ezrin ($p = 0.0272$), WT vs. phospho-dead Ezrin ($p =
0.8658$). n = 3 experiments. (I) Images of ACC and MOp L2-3 astrocytes at P21
expressing shControl or shAtg7-PB-mCherry-CAAX. Scale bar, 10 μm. (J) Quantification
of astrocyte territories. Nested ANOVA $[F(3,28) = 9.484, p = 0.0002]$ with Bonferroni tests:
WT shControl vs. LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] shControl ($p = 0.0036$), WT shControl vs. WT

shAtg7 ($p = 0.0003$), WT shAtg7 vs. LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] shAtg7 ($p = 0.0109$). n = 20–25

cells from 4–5 mice/group. (K) Astrocyte branching complexity. Two-way ANOVA

revealed significant condition [$F_{(2.324, 472.6)} = 43.1$, $p < 0.05$], radius [$F_{(9, 250)} = 301.8$,

$p < 0.05$], and interaction effects [$F_{(27, 610)} = 4.539$, $p < 0.05$]. Bonferroni tests showed

significant differences between groups, including WT shControl vs. LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki]

shControl ($p < 0.0001$) and WT shControl vs. WT shAtg7 ($p < 0.0001$).

STAR METHODS

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
β-actin	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# A5441, RRID: AB_476744
ERM	Cell Signaling	Cat# 3142, RRID:AB_2100313
GAPDH	Abcam	Cat# ab8245, RRID:AB_2107448
Gephyrin	Synaptic Systems	Cat# 147 011, RRID:AB_887717
GFAP	Agilent	Cat# Z0334, RRID:AB_10013382
GFAP	Millipore	Cat# AB5541, RRID:AB_177521
GFP	Aves labs	GFP-1020, RRID:AB_10000240
HA	Roche	Cat# 11867423001, RRID:AB_390918
L1 (ASCS4)	DSHB	Cat# ascs4, RRID:AB_528349
LRRK2	Abcam	Cat# ab133474, RRID:AB_2713963
phospho-ERM	Cell Signaling	Cat# 3141, RRID:AB_330232
phospho-ERM	Cell Signaling	Cat# 3726, RRID: AB_10560513
phospho-Rab10	Abcam	Cat# ab230261, RRID:AB_2811274
PSD-95	Innovative Research	Cat# 51-6900, RRID: AB_87705
Sox9	Millipore	Cat# AB5535, RRID:AB_2239761
VGAT	Synaptic Systems	Cat# 131 004, RRID: AB_887873
VGluT1	Synaptic Systems	Cat# 135304, RRID: AB_887878
S100β	Millipore Sigma	Cat# S2532, RRID: AB_477499
Iba1	Synaptic Systems	Cat# 234009, RRID: AB_2891282
MAP2	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 13-1500, RRID:AB_2533001
Lambda protein phosphatase	New England Biolabs	Cat# P0753L, RRID:

Bacterial and virus strains		
One Shot STBL3	Thermo Fisher	Cat# C737303
AAV PhP.eB	This paper	N/A
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
AraC	Sigma	Cat# C1768
B27	GIBCO	Cat# 17504044
B27 Plus	GIBCO	Cat# A3582801
BDNF	PeproTech	Cat# 450-02
Carboxypeptidase E	R&D	Cat# 3587-ZN
CNTF	PeproTech	Cat# 450-13
DMEM	GIBCO	Cat# 11960
DPBS	GIBCO	Cat# 14287
Dystroglycan	R&D	Cat# 6868-DG
Fetal Bovine Serum	Thermo Fisher	Cat# 10-437-028
Forskolin	Sigma	Cat# F6886
Glycerol	Acros Organics	Cat# AC158920010
L-Glutamine	GIBCO	Cat# 25030-081
Hydrocortisone	Sigma	Cat# H0888-5G
Insulin	Sigma	Cat# I1882
Neurobasal	GIBCO	Cat# 21103049
Neurobasal Plus	GIBCO	Cat# A3582901
Odyssey Blocking Buffer	LI-COR Biosciences	Cat# 927-40000
Opti-MEM	Thermo Fisher	Cat# 11058021
Paraformaldehyde	Electron microscopy Sciences	Cat# 19210
Pen/Strep	GIBCO	Cat# 15140
PhosSTOP™	Roche	Cat# 4906845001
Poly-D-Lysine	Sigma	Cat# P6407
Protease Inhibitor Cocktail	Roche	Cat# 4693132001
RIPA Buffer	Sigma	Cat# R0278
Sodium Pyruvate	GIBCO	Cat# 11360-070
Tissue-Tek® O.C.T. Compound	Sakura® Finetek	Cat# 4583
Triton X-100	Roche	Cat# 11332481001

Critical commercial assays		
Endo-Free Maxi Prep Kit	QIAGEN	Cat# 12362
Experimental models: cell lines		
HEK293T	ATCC	CRL-11268
Rat primary cortical neurons	This paper	N/A
Rat primary cortical astrocytes	This paper	N/A
Experimental models: organisms/strains		
Mouse: Aldh1L1-EGFP	MMRRC	RRID: MMRRC_011015-UCD
Mouse: CD1	Charles River	RRID: IMSR_CRL:022
Mouse: LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$	Taconic	RRID: IMSR_TAC:13940
Rat: Sprague-Dawley	Charles River	001
Recombinant DNA		
pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-Ezrin WT-BioID2-HA	This paper	N/A
pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-Ezrin T567D-BioID2-HA	This paper	N/A
pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-Ezrin T567A-BioID2-HA plasmid	This paper	N/A
pLKO.1-sh*Atg7*-EGFP	This paper	N/A
pLKO.1-shControl-EGFP	This paper	N/A
pPB-CAG-sh*LRRK2*-mCherry-CAAX	This paper	N/A
pPB-CAG-sh*Atg7*-mCherry-CAAX	This paper	N/A
pPB-CAG-shControl-mCherry-CAAX	This paper	N/A
Software and algorithms		

GraphPad Prism 9	GraphPAD	https://www.graphpad.com/scientific-software/prism/
ImageJ	NIH	https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/
Puncta Analyzer	Savage et al., 2024[93]	https://github.com/Eroglu-Lab/Syn_Bot
Minhee Analysis	Kim et al., 2021[94]	https://github.com/parkgilbong/Minhee_Analysis_Pack
In vitro Sholl analysis	Tan et al., 2023[95]	https://github.com/Eroglu-Lab/In-Vitro-Sholl
Image Studio	LICOR	https://www.licor.com

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contacts, Shiyi Wang (shiyi.wang@duke.edu) and Cagla Eroglu (cagla.eroglu@duke.edu).

Materials availability

The reagents generated in this study are available without restriction.

Data and code availability

The data generated during this study are available at the link https://zenodo.org/records/12729032

The proteomic data is uploaded in the repository Massive (massive.ucsd.edu), accession number: MSV000095133

EXPERIMENTAL MODELS AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Animals

All mice and rats were used in accordance with the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) and the Duke Division of Laboratory Animal Resources (DLAR)

oversight (IACUC Protocol Numbers A147-17-06 and A117-20-05). All mice and rats were

housed under typical day/night conditions of 12-hour cycles. LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice

(RRID: IMSR_TAC:13940) were obtained through Taconic. This model was generated on

the C57BL6/NTac background. It has been maintained on that pure background in

Taconic. Aldh1l1-EGFP (RRID: MMRRC_011015-UCD) mice were obtained through

MMRRC and backcrossed on a C57BL/6J background. Wild-type CD1 mice used for

PALE were purchased through Charles River Laboratories (RRID: IMSR_CRL:022).

Mice and rats were used for experiments as specified in the text and figure legends.

For all experiments, age- and sex-matched mice were randomly assigned to experimental

groups based on genotypes. Mice of both sexes were included in the analysis, and we

did not observe any influence or association of sex on the experimental outcomes.

Primary cortical neuron isolation and culture

Purified (glia-free) rat cortical neurons were prepared as described previously[46]. Briefly,

cortices from P1 rat pups of both sexes (Sprague Dawley, Charles River Laboratories,

SD-001) were micro-dissected, digested in papain (~7.5 units/ml) at 33°C for 45 minutes,

triturated in low and high ovomucoid solutions, resuspended in panning buffer (DPBS

(GIBCO 14287) supplemented with BSA and insulin) and passed through a 20 μm mesh

filter (Elko Filtering 03-20/14). Filtered cells were incubated on negative panning dishes

coated with Bandeiraea Simplicifolia Lectin 1 (x2), followed by goat anti-mouse IgG+IgM

(H+L) (Jackson ImmunoResearch 115-005-044), and goat anti-rat IgG+IgM (H+L)

(Jackson ImmunoResearch 112-005-044) antibodies, and then incubated on positive

panning dishes coated with mouse anti-L1 (ASCS4, Developmental Studies Hybridoma

Bank, Univ. Iowa) to bind cortical neurons. Adherent cells were collected by forceful

pipetting with a P1000 pipette. Isolated neurons were pelleted (11 minutes at 200 g) and

resuspended in serum-free neuron growth media (NGM; Neurobasal, B27 supplement,

2 mM L-Glutamine, 100 U/ml Pen/Strep, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 4.2 µg/ml Forskolin,

50 ng/mL BDNF, and 10 ng/mL CNTF). 70,000 neurons were plated onto 12 mm glass

coverslips coated with 10 µg/ml poly-D-lysine (PDL, Sigma P6407) and

2 µg/ml laminin and incubated at 37°C in 10% CO_2. On day *in-vitro* (DIV) 2, half of the

media was replaced with NGM Plus (Neurobasal Plus, B27 Plus, 100 U/mL Pen/Strep,

1 mM sodium pyruvate, 4.2 µg/ml Forskolin, 50 ng/ml, BDNF, and 10 ng/ml CNTF) and

AraC (10 µM) was added to stop the growth of proliferating contaminating cells. On DIV

3, all the media was replaced with NGM Plus. In experiments involving lentivirus infection,

100 µl of supernatant containing lentivirus plus polybrene (1 µg/ml) was added to the

AraC NGM mixture on DIV 2 and completely washed out on DIV 3 and replaced with NGM

Plus containing 100 ng/ml BDNF. Neurons were fed on DIV 6 and DIV 9 by replacing half

of the media with NGM Plus.

Primary cortical astrocyte isolation and culture

Rat astrocyte isolation and culture

Rat cortical astrocytes were prepared as described previously[46]. P1 rat cortices from both

sexes were micro-dissected, papain digested, triturated in low and high ovomucoid

solutions, and resuspended in astrocyte growth media (AGM: DMEM (GIBCO 11960), 10%

FBS, 10 µM, hydrocortisone, 100 U/ml Pen/Strep, 2 mM L-Glutamine, 5 µg/ml Insulin,

1 mM Na Pyruvate, 5 µg/ml N-Acetyl-L-cysteine). Between 15-20 million cells were plated

on 75 mm^2 flasks (non-ventilated cap) coated with poly-D-lysine and incubated at 37°C

in 10% CO_2. On DIV 3, the removal of non-astrocyte cells was performed by forcefully

shaking closed flasks by hand for 10-15 seconds until only an adherent monolayer of

astrocytes remained. AraC was added to the media from DIV 5 to DIV 7 to eliminate

contaminating fibroblasts. On DIV 7, astrocytes were trypsinized (0.05% Trypsin-EDTA)

and plated into 12-well or 6-well dishes. On DIV 8, cultured rat astrocytes were transfected

with shRNA and/or expression plasmids using Lipofectamine LTX with Plus Reagent

(Thermo Scientific) per the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 1 µg (12-well) or 2 µg (6-well)

total DNA was diluted in Opti-MEM containing Plus Reagent, mixed with Opti-MEM

containing LTX (1:2 DNA to LTX), and incubated for 30 minutes. The transfection solution

was added to astrocyte cultures and incubated at 37°C for 3 hours. On DIV 10, astrocytes

were trypsinized, resuspended in NGM plus, plated (20,000 cells per well) onto DIV 10

neurons, and co-cultured for 48 hours.

shRNA plasmids

pLKO.1 Puro plasmids containing shRNA (pLKO.1-shRNA) against

mouse/rat *Lrrk2* (sh*Lrrk2*: TRCN0000322193; GGCCGAGTTGTGGATCATATT) and

mouse/rat *Atg7* (sh*Atg7*: TRCN0000092163; TATTATTGAGTTCAGAGCTGG) were

obtained from the RNAi Consortium (TRC) via Dharmacon. Two scrambled shRNA

sequences were generated (GTTGCTGAATGGCGGATCTAT;

GTTGCGGTTATGAATAGTACT) and cloned into the pLKO.1 TRC cloning vector[96]

according to Addgene protocols (https://www.addgene.org/protocols/plko/). To generate

pLKO.1 shRNA plasmids that express EGFP (pLKO.1-shRNA-EGFP), CAG-EGFP was

removed from pLenLox-shNL1-CAG-EGFP[97] and inserted between Kpn1 and SpeI sites

in pLKO.1 Puro, replacing the puromycin resistance gene. pLKO.1 shRNA mCherry

plasmids were generated by replacing EGFP with mCherry between KpnI and NheI sites.

PiggyBac plasmids

pPB-CAG-EGFP and pGLAST-PBase were a gift from Dr. Joseph Loturco[98]. To generate pPB-CAG-mCherry-CAAX, mCherry-CAAX was inserted between XmaI and NotI restrictions sites to replace EGFP. To insert the hU6 promoter and shRNA in pPB-CAG-mCherry-CAAX, a DNA fragment containing hU6 and shRNA was amplified from pLKO.1-shRNA using Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (NEB) with primers that introduced SpeI restriction sites (Forward Primer: 5'-GGACTAGTCAGGCCCGAAGGAATAGAAG-3'; Reverse Primer: 5'-GGACTAGTGCCAAAGTGGATCTCTGCTG-3'). PCR products were purified, digested with SpeI, and ligated into pPB-CAG-mCherry-CAAX at the SpeI restriction site. An analytical digest with EcoRI followed by sequencing was used to confirm the orientation of the inserted DNA fragment.

Ezrin plasmids

pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-Lck-GCaMP6f was a gift from Dr. Baljit Khakh (Addgene plasmid #52924). pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-BioID2-HA was generated by PCR of BioID2 from pAAV-hSyn-BioID2-Linker-Synapsin1a-HA[99] (Forward Primer: 5'-ctagcctcgagaattcaccatgttcaaaaatcttatttg-3'; Reverse Primer: 5'-ccgggtcgactctagatgcgtaatccggtacatcg-3') and inserted into the EcoRI and XbaI restriction sites of pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-Lck-GCaMP6f using In-Fusion cloning (TaKaRa). pHJ421(pEGFP-Ezrin WT) and pHJ423 (pEGFP-Ezrin T567D) were a gift from Stephen Shaw (Addgene plasmid # 20680 and # 20681). pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-Ezrin WT-BioID2-HA and pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-Ezrin T567D-BioID2-HA were generated by PCR of Ezrin from pHJ421 or pHJ423 (Forward Primer: 5'-ctagcctcgagaattcaccatgccgaaaccaatca-3'; Reverse Primer: 5'-tgaacatggtgaattccgacagggcctcgaactcg-3') and inserted into the EcoRI

817   restriction sites of pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-BioID2, respectively. To generate pZac2.1-

818   GfaABC1D-Ezrin T567A-BioID2-HA plasmid, Q5® Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (NEB)

819   was   used   with   mutagenesis   primers   (Forward   Primer: 5'-

820   CAAGTACAAGGCGCTGCGGCAGA-3';   Reverse   Primer: 5'-

821   TCCCGGCCTTGCCTCATG-3')

Lentivirus production and transduction

Lentiviruses containing shRNA targeting vectors were produced to test the knockdown

efficiency of shRNA constructs in cultured primary astrocytes or to bulk transduce

neurons with shRNA and GFP. To produce lentivirus, HEK293T cells were transfected

with a pLKO.1 shRNA Puro targeting plasmid (for astrocyte transduction), an envelope

plasmid (VSVG), and a packaging plasmid (dR8.91) using X-tremeGENE (Roche). One

day after transfection, the media was replaced with AGM (for astrocyte transduction), and

media containing lentivirus was collected on days 2 and 3 post-transfection. To assess

the knockdown efficiency of shRNAs in astrocytes, rat primary astrocytes at DIV 7 were

plated in 6-well dishes in 2 ml of AGM. On DIV 8, 1 ml of AGM was removed, and 500 µl

of fresh AGM was added along with 500 µl of lentivirus-containing media and 1 µg/ml

polybrene. Cultured astrocytes were treated with puromycin (1 µg/ml) from DIV 10-15 to

select for transduced cells. Cultured astrocytes were lysed at DIV 15 for protein extraction

and Western blot analysis.

Immunocytochemistry

Astrocyte-neuron co-cultures on glass coverslips were fixed on DIV 12 with warm 4%

PFA for 7 minutes, washed 3 times with PBS, blocked in a blocking buffer containing 50%

normal goat serum (NGS) and 0.4% Triton X-100 for 30 minutes, and washed in PBS.

Samples were then incubated overnight at 4°C in primary antibodies diluted in blocking

buffer containing 10% NGS, washed with PBS, incubated in Alexa Fluor conjugated

secondary antibodies (Life Technologies) for 2 hours at room temperature, and washed

again in PBS. Coverslips were mounted onto glass slides (VWR Scientific) with

Vectashield mounting media containing DAPI (Vector Labs), sealed with nail polish, and

imaged on an AxioImager M1 (Zeiss) fluorescence microscope. Images of healthy

astrocytes with strong expression of fluorescent markers that did not overlap with other

fluorescent astrocytes were acquired at 40x magnification in red, green, and/or DAPI

channels using a CCD camera. Astrocyte morphological complexity was analyzed in FIJI

using the Sholl analysis plugin[100], as described previously[46] (https://github.com/Eroglu-

Lab/In-Vitro-Sholl). Statistical analyses were conducted using a custom code in R

(https://github.com/Eroglu-Lab/In-Vitro-Sholl). A mixed-effect model with multiple

comparisons made using the Tukey post-test was used for Sholl analysis to account for

the variability per experiment as a random effect to evaluate differences between the

conditions. The exact number of independent experiments and the exact number of cells

analyzed are indicated in the figure legend for each experiment. To ensure the health of

astrocyte-neuron co-cultures, the peak for the number of astrocyte intersections must be

greater than or equal to 25 in the control condition. We imaged non-overlapping

astrocytes that contained a single nucleus (DAPI stain) and expressed consistent

fluorescent markers and Ezrin constructs according to the experimental conditions.

Postnatal astrocyte labeling by electroporation (PALE)

Late P0/early P1 mice were sedated by hypothermia until anesthetized, and 1 μl

of plasmid DNA mixed with Fast Green Dye was injected into the lateral ventricle of one

hemisphere using a pulled glass pipette (Drummond). For shRNA knockdown

experiments in wild-type CD1 mice, the 1 μl of DNA contained 1 μg of pGLAST-PBase

and 1 μg of pPB-shRNA-mCherryCAAX was injected. To label astrocytes in WT

and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice, the 1 μl of DNA contained 1 μg of pGLAST-PBase and 1

μg of pPB-mCherry-CAAX was injected per mouse.

For PALE-mediated overexpression of phospho-mimetic Ezrin in shRNA knockdown

experiments, 0.5 μg pGLAST-PBase, 0.5 μg pPB-shRNA-mCherryCAAX, and 1 μg

pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-Ezrin T567D-BioID2-HA were injected in a total volume of 1 μl. For

phospho-dead Ezrin overexpression in WT and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice, 0.5 μg of

pGLAST-PBase, 0.5 μg of pZac2.1-gfaABC1D-mCherry-CAAX, and 1 μg of pZac2.1-

GfaABC1D-Ezrin T567A-BioID2-HA were injected in a total volume of 1 μl. Following DNA

injection, electrodes were oriented with the positive terminal above the frontal cortex and

the negative terminal below the chin, and 5 discrete 50 ms pulses of 100 V spaced

950 ms apart were applied. Pups were recovered on a heating pad, returned to their home

cage, and monitored until collection at P21. The number of mice used for each experiment

is indicated in the figure legends. All animals appeared healthy at the time of collection.

Brain sections were examined for the presence of electroporated cells before staining.

Adeno-associated virus (AAV) production and administration

Purified AAVs were produced as described previously[101]. Briefly, HEK293T cells were

transfected with pAd-DELTA F6, serotype plasmid AAV PHP.eB, and AAV plasmid

(pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-Ezrin-BioID2-HA or pZac2.1-GfaABC1D-Ezrin T567A-BioID2-HA).

Three days after transfection, cells were collected in 15 mM NaCl, 5 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.5,

and lysed with repeat freeze-thaw cycles followed by treatment with Benzonase (Novagen

70664) at 37°C for 30 minutes. Lysed cells were pelleted by centrifugation, and the

supernatant, containing AAVs, was applied to an Optiprep density gradient (Sigma D1556,

15%, 25%, 40%, and 60%) and centrifuged at 67,000 rpm using a Beckman Ti-70 rotor

for 1 hour. The AAV-enriched fraction was isolated from between 40% and

60% iodixanol solution and concentrated by repeated washes with sterile PBS in an

Amicon Ultra-15 filtration unit (NMWL: 100 kDa, Millipore UFC910008) to a final volume

of ~100 μl and aliquoted for storage at −80°C. 9-week-old WT or LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice

placed in a stereotaxic frame were anesthetized through inhalation of 1.5% isofluorane

gas. 10 μl of purified AAVs having a titer of ~1 x 10^{12} GC/ml was introduced into the

mouse brain intravenously by injection into the retro-orbital sinus. After 3 weeks at 12-

week-old, mice were anesthetized with 200 mg/kg Tribromoethanol (Avertin) and

transcardially perfused with TBS/Heparin and 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) at room

temperature (RT). Harvested brains were post-fixed overnight in 4% PFA, cryoprotected

in 30% sucrose, and the brain blocks were prepared with O.C.T. (TissueTek) to store at

−80°C. 30 μm thick brain sections were obtained through cryosectioning using a Leica

CM3050S (Leica, Germany) vibratome and stored in a mixture of TBS and glycerol at

−20°C for further free-float antibody staining procedures.

Immunohistochemistry on mouse brain sections

Mice used for immunohistochemistry were anesthetized with 200 mg/kg Avertin and

perfused with TBS/Heparin and 4% PFA. Brains were collected and post-fixed in 4% PFA

overnight, cryoprotected in 30% sucrose, frozen in a solution containing 2 parts 30%

sucrose and 1-part O.C.T. (TissueTek), and stored at −80°C. Floating coronal tissue

sections of 30 μm, 40 μm or 100 μm thickness were collected and stored in a 1:1 mixture

of TBS/glycerol at −20°C. For immunostaining, sections were washed in 1x TBS

containing 0.2% Triton X-100 (TBST), blocked in 10% NGS diluted in TBST, and

incubated in primary antibody for 2-3 nights at 4°C with gentle shaking. Primary antibodies

used were anti-LRRK2 (Rabbit, 1:500; ab133474, Abcam), HA (Rat, 1:500; 11867423001,

Roche), phospho-ERM (Rabbit, 1:500; 3141, Cell Signaling), Sox9 (Rabbit, 1:500;

AB5535, Millipore Sigma), GFAP (Rabbit, 1:500; Z0334, Agilent DAKO), VGluT1 (Guinea

pig, 1:2000; 135304, Synaptic Systems), PSD95 (Rabbit, 1:300; 51-6900, Innovative

Research), VGAT (Guinea pig, 1:1000; 131004, Synaptic Systems), Gephyrin (Rabbit,

1:1000; 147011, Synaptic Systems), S100β (Mouse IgG1, 1:200; S2532, Millipore Sigma),

MAP2 (Mouse IgG1, 1:200; 13-1500, Thermo Fisher Scientific), and Iba1 (Chicken, 1:500;

234009, Synaptic Systems). For lambda protein phosphatase (λ-PPase) treatment, brain

sections were divided into two groups: λ-PPase treatment group and a control group.

Brain sections in the treatment group were incubated with λ-PPase at 30°C for 2 hours,

while brain sections in the control group were incubated under identical conditions without

the enzyme. All sections were blocked in 5% normal goat serum and 0.3% Triton X-100

for 1 hour at room temperature, followed by overnight incubation with primary antibodies

at 4°C. Following the primary incubation, sections were washed in TBST, incubated in

Alexa Fluor conjugated secondary antibodies diluted 1:200 (Life Technologies) for 2-3

hours at room temperature, washed with TBST, and mounted onto glass slides using a

homemade mounting media (90% Glycerol, 20 mM Tris pH 8.0, 0.5% n-Propyl gallate)

and sealed with nail polish. Images were acquired with an Olympus FV 3000 microscope.

Immunohistochemistry on human brain sections

Floating human frontal cortex sections of 40 μm thickness were obtained from Banner

Sun Health Research Institute in Sun City, Arizona (4 control and 3 LRRK2 G2019S

mutation carrier subjects). None of the control subjects had a history of dementia or

neurological or psychiatric disorders at the time of death (See Supplemental Table 1).

Informed and written consent was obtained from the donors. For immunostaining,

sections were washed in 1x TBS containing 0.3% Triton X-100 (TBST), blocked in 3%

NGS diluted in TBST, and incubated in primary antibody 2-3 nights at 4°C with shaking.

Primary antibodies used were GFAP (chicken, 1:250; AB5541, Millipore Sigma),

phospho-ERM (Rabbit, 1:250; 3726, Cell Signaling), S100β (Mouse IgG1, 1:200; S2532,

Millipore Sigma), and MAP2 (Mouse IgG1, 1:200; 13-1500, Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Following primary incubation, sections were washed in TBST, incubated in Alexa Fluor

conjugated secondary antibodies diluted 1:200 (Life Technologies) for 2-3 hours at room

temperature, washed with TBST, and mounted onto glass slides using a homemade

mounting media (90% Glycerol, 20 mM Tris pH 8.0, 0.5% n-Propyl gallate) and sealed

with nail polish.

Mouse astrocyte territory volume analysis

To assess the territory volume of individual astrocytes in the mouse cortex, 100 μm-thick

floating sections containing anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) and primary motor cortex

(MOp) astrocytes labeled sparsely via PALE with mCherry-CAAX were collected. High-

magnification images containing an entire astrocyte (50-60 μm z-stack) were acquired

with an Olympus FV 3000 microscope with the 60x objective. Criteria for data inclusion

required that the entirety of the astrocyte could be captured within a single brain section

and that the astrocyte was in L2-3 of the ACC or MOp. Astrocytes in which the entire

astrocyte could not be captured within the section or was in other layers or outside of the

ACC or MOp were not imaged. Imaged astrocytes were analyzed using Imaris Bitplane

software as described previously[46]. Briefly, surface reconstructions were generated, and

the Imaris Xtensions "Visualize Surface Spots" and "Convex Hull" were used to create an

additional surface render representing the territory of the astrocyte. The volume of each

territory was recorded, and astrocyte territory sizes from biological replicates were

analyzed across experimental conditions using a nested two-way ANOVA followed by the

Bonferroni posthoc test. For 3D Sholl analysis of individual PALE astrocytes, we first

loaded images onto Imaris and then created a surface. After generating the surface of

astrocytes, we created filaments using 'Add new filament (leaf icon)'. For the

quantification of complexity, we clicked on the gear tool on Imaris to display Sholl

intersections. The number of animals and cells/animals analyzed are specified in the

figure legend for each experiment.

Mouse synapse imaging and analysis

Staining, image acquisition, and analysis of synaptic density were performed as described

previously[102]. Synaptic staining was performed in coronal sections (30 μm thick)

containing the ACC and MOp from WT and LRRK2 G2019S[ki/ki] mice. To label pre and

postsynaptic proteins, the following antibody combinations were used: VGluT1 and

PSD95 (excitatory, intracortical), VGAT, and GEPHYRIN (inhibitory). High magnification

60x objective plus 1.64x optical zoom z-stack images containing 15 optical sections

spaced 0.34 μm apart were obtained using an Olympus FV 3000 inverted confocal

microscope. Each z-stack was converted into 5 maximum projection images (MPI), each

corresponding to a 1 µm section of z plane, using FIJI. Synapses were identified by the

colocalization of pre and postsynaptic puncta. The number of co-localized synaptic puncta

of excitatory intracortical (VGluT1-PSD95) and inhibitory (VGAT-GEPHYRIN) synapses

were obtained using the FIJI plugin Puncta Analyzer[52]. 15 MPIs were analyzed for each

mouse (5 MPI/tissue section, 3 tissue sections/mouse). Between 4 and 5, age- and sex-

matched mice/genotype/condition were analyzed for each synaptic staining combination,

as indicated in the figure legends. All animals appeared healthy at the time of collection.

No data were excluded.

Cell counting, imaging, and analysis

Tile scan images containing the anterior cingulated cortex (ACC) and primary motor

cortex (MOp) from P21 WT and LRRK2 G2019S$^{ki/ki}$; Aldh1l1-eGFP mice were acquired

on a confocal Leica SP8 STED microscope using the galvo scanner and 20x objective.

For ALDH1L1-EGFP and SOX9 double positive cell counting in the ACC and MOp, the

cells labeled with ALDH1L1-EGFP and SOX9 were counted by hand using the cell

counter tool in FIJI. 2-4 sections per brain from 3 sex- and age-matched mice/genotype

were analyzed.

Biochemical assays

mRNA extraction and cDNA preparation

Cells stored in TRIzol (15596026, Invitrogen) were thawed and resuspended in 1 mL of

TRIzol. After adding 200 µL of chloroform, the samples were centrifuged at 12,000 g for

15 minutes at 4°C. The aqueous phase was collected, and RNA was precipitated with

GlycoBlue Coprecipitant (AM9515, Invitrogen) and isopropanol. The RNA pellet was

washed with 75% ethanol, air-dried, and resuspended in 40 µL of nuclease-free water.

The RNA was then isolated using the Zymo Research RNA Clean & Concentrator-5 Kit

(R1014, Zymo), quantified with the Qubit RNA HS Assay Kit (Q32852, Invitrogen), and

diluted to equalize concentrations. Finally, cDNA libraries were generated using qScript

cDNA SuperMix (101414-102, VWR) with a temperature profile of 25°C for 5 minutes,

42°C for 30 minutes, and 85°C for 5 minutes, and the resulting cDNA was diluted threefold

and stored at −80°C.

Real-time qPCR

cDNA samples were plated on a 96-well qPCR plate and incubated with Fast SYBR

Green Master Mix (4385616, Applied Biosystems), nuclease-free water, and the forward

and reverse primers of interest at a ratio of 5 µl SYBR: 3 µl water: 0.5 µl forward primer:

0.5 µl reverse primer: 1 µl sample. Each sample was plated two to four times to ensure

technical replicates. A control sample (water with primers and Master Mix) served as a

negative control. Cycle threshold values were collected for each well and normalized to

GAPDH as a housekeeping gene. The sequences of forward (F) and reverse (R) primers

used (5′→ 3′) are:

Atg7: (F) 5′- GTTCGCCCCCTTTAATAGTGC -3′ and (R) 5′-

TGAACTCCAACGTCAAGCGG -3′

Protein extraction and western blotting

Protein was extracted from cultured rat astrocytes using membrane solubilization buffer

(25 mM Tris pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.5% NP-40, and protease

inhibitors). Cultured astrocytes were washed twice with ice-cold TBS containing 1 mM

$CaCl_2$ and 1 mM $MgCl_2$ and incubated on ice in membrane solubilization buffer for

20 minutes with occasional agitation. Cell lysates were collected, vortexed briefly, and

centrifuged at 4°C at high speed for 10 minutes to pellet non-solubilized material. The

supernatant was collected and stored at −80°C.

Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher) was used to determine protein

concentration, and lysates were mixed with 4x Pierce™ Reducing Sample Buffer (Thermo

Scientific) and incubated at 45°C for 45 minutes to denature proteins. 7-10 µg (cultured

astrocyte lysates) of protein was loaded into Bolt™ 4–12% Bus-Tris Plus gels (Thermo

Scientific) and run at 150 V for 1 hour. Proteins were transferred at 100 V to PVDF

membrane (Millipore) for 1.5 hours, blocked in 5% BSA in TBST (137 mM NaCl, 2.68 mM

KCl, 24.7 mM Tris-Base, 0.1% (w/v) Tween 20) for 1 hour and incubated in primary

antibodies overnight at 4°C. Primary antibodies used were: anti-LRRK2 (Rabbit, 1:500;

ab133474, abcam), GAPDH (mouse, 1:5000; ab8245, abcam), β-actin (mouse, 1:5000;

A5441, Millipore Sigma). The next day, membranes were washed with TBST, incubated

in HRP secondary antibodies (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 2 hours, washed in TBST,

and imaged on a Biorad Gel Doc imaging system. Protein levels were quantified using

FIJI.

Coimmunoprecipitation

Co-immunoprecipitation assays were performed in HEK293T cells. Cells were

transfected 36 hours prior to lysis with Ezrin/Atg7 cDNA using X-tremeGENE HP (Roche)

and grown to 85-90% confluency. At 36 hours post-transfection, cells were rinsed with 1x

PBS and collected for lysis. Cellular lysis and protein extraction was conducted via brief

vortexing in chilled membrane solubilization buffer (25mM HEPES, 150mM KCl, 1.5mM

MgCl2, 0.5% NP40, 10% Glycerol) in the presence of both protease (cOmplete, Roche)

and phosphatase (PhosSTOP, Roche) inhibitors. Protein concentrations of cell lysates

were equalized using the Pierce™ BSA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher) and CLARIOstar Plus Plate Reader (BMG Labtech). Equalized cell lysates were incubated, while rotating, with Pierce™ Anti-c-Myc Magnetic Beads (Thermo Fisher) for 6 hours at 4°C. Following this incubation, the beads were washed with chilled lysis buffer. Protein samples were eluted from beads through the addition of 2x Bromophenol Blue-free Laemilli Sample Buffer and heating to 95°C for 5 minutes. Eluted protein samples were subjected to western blot analysis and quantification using a SimpleWestern Jess (ProteinSimple) automated immunoassay system with a 12-230kDa Fluorescence Separation module and associated manufacturer's protocol. Primary antibodies used for protein detection were: Anti-Myc (Rabbit, 1:40, Cell Signaling Technologies, mAb#2278) and Anti-HA (Rat, 1:20, Roche, 11867423001). Signal detection was achieved using the following fluorescently conjugated secondary antibodies at a dilution of 1:100: IRDye® 680RD Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (LI-COR, 926-68071) and IRDye® 680RD Goat anti-Rat IgG (LI-COR, 926-68076). Signal quantification was conducted with the Simple Western Compass software, utilizing quantitative electropherograms of detected signals. Ezrin co-immunoprecipitation signal intensity was background-subtracted and normalized to Ezrin protein load and Atg7 IP levels for statistical analysis. Statistical analysis was performed in GraphPad Prism 9, using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test and alpha threshold of 0.05.

Protein interaction modeling

Full-length mouse Ezrin (UniProt ID: Q4KML7) and Atg7 (UniProt ID: Q9D906) were used for structure prediction in Alphafold 2.0 Multimer. The structure of Ezrin in the open conformation was generated by segmenting independently predicted Ezrin N- and C-

termini and threading them onto an open ERM hinge structure using the PyMOL2

molecular visualization software. To model the Ezrin/Atg7 interaction and associated

conformational changes, the structures of Ezrin and the Atg7 homodimer were predicted

and docked using Alphafold 2.0 Multimer. Conformational changes in the Ezrin-Atg7

protein complex were assessed using PyMOL2 and CABS-flex 2.0[103]. For all predicted

structure models, the highest-confidence structures, calculated via the predicted local

distance difference test (pLDDT), were subjected to energy-minimization via AMBER

relaxation. The resulting minimized structures were imported into PyMOL2 for

representative model production.

Proteomic analysis

In vivo **BioID protein purification**

In vivo BioID experiments were performed as previously described in Takano et al., 2020

with modifications[104]. Genotype-matched animals (wild-type C57BL6 or LRRK2

G2019S$^{ki/ki}$) were bred to produce single-genotype litters. For each genotype (WT or

G2019S), 6 pups were injected with AAVs carrying Astro-Ezrin-BioID

(PHP.eB.GfaABC1D-Ezrin WT-BioID2-HA) or Astro-CYTO-BioID (PHP.eB.GfaABC1D-

BioID2-HA). 2 genotype-matched cortices were pooled at the time of protein isolation,

yielding 3 independent replicates per BioID construct. 12 total samples (3 per genotype

per construct) were subjected to LC-MS/MS and downstream analysis. WT and LRRK2

G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ P0-P2 mouse pups were anesthetized by hypothermia, and 1μl of each

concentrated AAV-BioID vector was injected bilaterally into the cortex using a Hamilton

syringe. Pups were monitored until they recovered on a heating pad. At P18, P19, and

P20, biotin was subcutaneously injected at 24 mg/kg to increase the biotinylation

efficiency. At P21, the cerebral cortices were removed and stored at -80° C. For the

protein purification, each cortex was lysed in a buffer containing 50 mM Tris/HCl, pH 7.5;

150 mM NaCl; 1 mM EDTA; protease inhibitor mixture (Roche); and phosphatase inhibitor

mixture (PhosSTOP, Roche). Next, an equal volume of buffer containing 50 mM Tris/HCl,

pH 7.5; 150 mM NaCl; 1 mM EDTA; 0.4 % SDS; 2 % TritonX-100; 2 % deoxycholate;

protease inhibitor mixture; and phosphatase inhibitor mixture was added to the samples,

following by sonication and centrifugation at 15,000 g for 10 min. The remaining

supernatant was ultracentrifuged at 100,000g for 30 minutes at 4°C. Finally, SDS

detergent was added to the samples and heated at 45°C for 45 minutes. After cooling on

ice, each sample was incubated with High-Capacity Streptavidin Agarose beads

(ThermoFisher) at 4°C overnight. Following incubation, the beads were serially washed:

1) twice with a solution containing 2% SDS; 2) twice with a buffer 1% TritonX-100, 1%

deoxycholate, 25 mM LiCl; 3) twice with 1M NaCl, and finally, five times with 50 mM

ammonium bicarbonate. The biotinylated proteins attached to the agarose beads were

eluted in a buffer of 125 mM Tris/HCl, pH6.8; 4% SDS; 0.2% β-mercaptoethanol; 20%

glycerol; 3 mM biotin at 60°C for 15 minutes.

Sample Preparation

The Duke Proteomics and Metabolomics Shared Resource (DPMSR) received 12

samples (3 of each WT CYT, GS CYT, WT EZR, and GS EZR), which were kept at -80C

until processing. Samples were spiked with undigested bovine casein at a total of either

1 or 2 pmol as an internal quality control standard. Next, they were reduced for 15 minutes

at 80°C, alkylated with 20 mM iodoacetamide for 30 minutes at room temperature, then

supplemented with a final concentration of 1.2% phosphoric acid and 636 µl of S-Trap

(Protifi) binding buffer (90% MeOH/100mM TEAB). Proteins were trapped on the S-Trap

micro cartridge, digested using 20 ng/µL sequencing grade trypsin (Promega) for 1 hour

at 47°C, and eluted using 50 mM TEAB, followed by 0.2% FA, and lastly using 50%

ACN/0.2% FA. All samples were then lyophilized to dryness. Samples were resuspended

in 12 µl of 1% TFA/2% acetonitrile with 12.5 fmol/µl of yeast ADH. A study pool QC (SPQC)

was created by combining equal volumes of each sample.

LC-MS/MS Analysis

Quantitative LC/MS/MS was performed on 3 µL of each sample, using an MClass UPLC

system (Waters Corp) coupled to a Thermo Orbitrap Fusion Lumos high resolution

accurate mass tandem mass spectrometer (Thermo) equipped with a FAIMSPro device

via a nanoelectrospray ionization source. Briefly, the sample was first trapped on a

Symmetry C18 20 mm × 180 µm trapping column (5 µl/min at 99.9/0.1 v/v

water/acetonitrile), after which the analytical separation was performed using a 1.8 µm

Acquity HSS T3 C18 75 µm × 250 mm column (Waters Corp.) with a 90-minute linear

gradient of 5 to 30% acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid at a flow rate of 400

nanoliters/minute (nL/minute) with a column temperature of 55C. Data collection on the

Fusion Lumos mass spectrometer was performed for three difference compensation

voltages (-40v, -60v, -80v). Within each CV, a data-dependent acquisition (DDA) mode

of acquisition with a r = 120,000 (at m/z 200) full MS scan from m/z 375-1500 with a target

AGC value of 4e5 ions was performed. MS/MS scans with HCD settings of 30% were

acquired in the linear ion trap in "rapid" mode with a target AGC value of 1e4 and max fill

time of 35 ms. The total cycle time for each CV was 0.66 seconds, with total cycle times

of 2 seconds between like full MS scans. A 20s dynamic exclusion was employed to

increase the depth of coverage. The total analysis cycle time for each sample injection

was approximately 2 hours.

Quantitative Data Analysis

Following 15 total UPLC-MS/MS analyses (excluding conditioning runs, but including 3

replicate SPQC samples), data were imported into Proteome Discoverer 3.0 (Thermo

Scientific Inc.) and individual LCMS data files were aligned based on the accurate mass

and retention time of detected precursor ions ("features") using Minora Feature Detector

algorithm in Proteome Discoverer. Relative peptide abundance was measured based on

peak intensities of selected ion chromatograms of the aligned features across all runs.

The MS/MS data was searched against the SwissProt *M. musculus* database, a common

contaminant/spiked protein database (bovine albumin, bovine casein, yeast ADH, etc.),

and an equal number of reversed-sequence "decoys" for false discovery rate

determination. Sequest with INFERYS was utilized to produce fragment ion spectra and

to perform the database searches. Database search parameters included fixed

modification on Cys (carbamidomethyl) and variable modification on Met (oxidation).

Search tolerances were 2 ppm precursor and 0.8 Da product ion with full trypsin enzyme

rules. Peptide Validator and Protein FDR Validator nodes in Proteome Discoverer were

used to annotate the data at a maximum 1% protein false discovery rate based on q-

value calculations. Note that peptide homology was addressed using razor rules in which

a peptide matched to multiple different proteins was exclusively assigned to the protein

has more identified peptides. Protein homology was addressed by grouping proteins that

had the same set of peptides to account for their identification. A master protein within a

group was assigned based on % coverage.

Prior to normalization, a filter was applied such that a peptide was removed if it was not

measured at least twice across all samples and in at least 50% of the replicates in any

one single group. After that filter, samples were total intensity normalized (total intensity

of all peptides for a sample are summed and then normalized across all samples). Next,

the following imputation strategy is applied to missing values. If less than half of the values

are missing in a biological group, values are imputed with an intensity derived from a

normal distribution of all values defined by measured values within the same intensity

range (20 bins). If greater than half values are missing for a peptide in a group and a

peptide intensity is > 5e6, then it was concluded that the peptide was misaligned and its

measured intensity is set to 0. All remaining missing values are imputed with the lowest

2% of all detected values. Peptide intensities were then subjected to a trimmed-mean

normalization in which the top and bottom 10% of the signals were excluded, and the

average of the remaining values was used to normalize across all samples. Lastly, all

peptides belonging to the same protein were then summed into a single intensity. These

normalized protein level intensities are what was used for the remainder of the analysis.

To assess technical reproducibility, we calculated the % coefficient of variation (%CV) for

each protein across 3 injections of an SPQC pool that were interspersed throughout the

study (Table S4). The mean %CV of the SPQC pools was 11.7%, which is well within our

expected analytical tolerances. To assess biological and technical variability, %CVs were

measured for each protein across the individual groups which averaged 19.8%, which is

also within our normal tolerances and indicated a reproducible IP and sample processing.

As an initial statistical analysis, we calculated fold-changes between various sample

groups based on the protein expression values and calculated two-tailed heteroscedastic

t-test on log2-transformed data for this comparison. Those fold changes and p-values are

presented for all proteins in Tables S5, S7, S9, and S10. False Discovery Rate (FDR)

correction was performed using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure, and these values are

reported ("p.adjusted") in Tables S5, S7, S9, and S10. To optimize for discovery, we opted

to use the less stringent parameter of unadjusted p-value for downstream analyses.

Within supplemental tables, we have labeled proteins significantly more abundant ("Up",

fold change >1.5 and unadjusted p-value <0.05), or less abundant ("Down", fold change

>-1.5 and unadjusted p-value <0.05) in a particular genotype or BioID sample group.

These annotated proteins were used for downstream analyses, including protein

interaction networks using Cytoscape (v.3.9.1) and Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment

analysis using the ClusterProfiler package for R, with all M. musculus genes as the

reference background.

Mouse brain slice electrophysiology

For whole-cell patch-clamp recordings, 3-4 mice of each genotype and condition were

used for miniature excitatory postsynaptic current (mEPSC) and miniature inhibitory

postsynaptic current (mIPSC) measurements. WT and *LRRK2* G2019S$^{ki/ki}$ mice of both

sexes were anesthetized with 200 mg/kg tribromoethanol (avertin) and decapitated. After

decapitation, the brains were immersed in ice-cold artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF, in

mM): 125 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 3 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.1 mM CaCl$_2$, 10 glucose, 25 NaHCO$_3$, 1.25

NaHPO$_4$, 0.4 L-ascorbic acid, and 2 Na-pyruvate, pH 7.3-7.4 (310 mOsmol). 350 µm thick

coronal slices containing the ACC were obtained using a vibrating tissue slicer (Leica

VT1200; Leica Biosystems). Slices were immediately transferred to standard aCSF (33°C,

continuously bubbled with 95% O$_2$ – 5% CO$_2$) containing the same as the low-calcium

aCSF but with 1 mM MgCl$_2$ and 1-2 mM CaCl$_2$. After 30-minute incubation at 33°C, slices

were transferred to a holding chamber with the same extracellular buffer at room

temperature (RT: ~25°C). Brain slices were visualized by an upright microscope (BX61WI,

Olympus) through a 40x water-immersion objective equipped with infrared-differential

interference contrast optics in combination with a digital camera (ODA-IR2000WCTRL).

Patch-clamp recordings were performed by using an EPC 10 patch-clamp amplifier,

controlled by Patchmaster Software (HEKA). Data were acquired at a sampling rate of 50

kHz and low-pass filtered at 6 kHz.

To measure mEPSCs, the internal solution contained the following (in mM): 125 K-

gluconate, 10 NaCl, 10 HEPES, 0.2 EGTA, 4.5 MgATP, 0.3 NaGTP, and 10 Na-

phosphocreatine, pH adjusted to 7.2 – 7.4 with KOH and osmolality set to ~300 mOsmol.

mEPSCs were measured in the aCSF bath solution containing 1 μM tetrodotoxin and 50

μM Picrotoxin at -70 mV in voltage-clamp mode. To measure mIPSCs, the internal

solution contained the following (in mM): 77 K-gluconate, 77 KCl, 10 HEPES, 0.2 EGTA,

4.5 MgATP, 0.3 NaGTP, and 10 Na-phosphocreatine, pH adjusted to 7.2 – 7.4 with KOH

and osmolality set to ~300 mOsmol. mIPSCs were measured in the aCSF bath solution

containing 1 μM tetrodotoxin and 10 μM 6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione (CNQX),

and 50 μM D-2-amino-5-phosphonopentanoate (D-AP5) at -70 mV in voltage-clamp

mode. mEPSCs and mIPSCs recorded at -70 mV were detected using Minhee Analysis

software (https://github.com/parkgilbong/Minhee_Analysis_Pack). To analyze the

frequency, events were counted over 5 minutes of recording. To obtain the average

events for each cell, at least 100 non-overlapping events were detected and averaged.

The peak amplitude of the average mEPSCs was measured relative to the baseline

current.

Quantification and statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed in GraphPad Prism 9. Exact value of n, what n

represents, and specific statistical tests for each experiment are indicated in the figure

legend for each experiment. All data are represented as mean ± standard error of the

mean, and data points are shown where applicable. Exact *P*-values are listed in the figure

for each experiment. Where indicated, the unpaired two-tailed t-tests were run using

Welch`s correction, and a correction for multiple comparisons was applied using Hom-

Sidak method with an alpha threshold of 0.05 for adjusted *P*-value. A Geisser-

Greenhouse correction was used for both One-way and Two-way ANOVA analyses. For

Sholl analysis, statistical analyses were conducted using a custom code in R

(https://github.com/Eroglu-Lab/In-Vitro-Sholl). A mixed-effect model with multiple

comparisons made using the Tukey post-test was used for Sholl analysis to account for

the variability per experiment as a random effect to evaluate differences between the

conditions. Sample sizes were determined based on previous experience for each

experiment to yield high power to detect specific effects. No statistical methods were used

to predetermine the sample size. All experimental animals that appeared healthy at the

time of tissue collection were processed for data collection.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, SW, ARLS, and CE; Methodology, SW, RB, GS, DSB, LV, KS, JM, CXT, TT, MPR, KD, NB, LB, SHS, and CE; Investigation, SW, RB, GS, and LV; Formal analysis, SW, RB, GS, and LV; Resources, CXT, MPR, and KS; Writing – original draft, SW and CE; Writing – Review & Editing, SW, RL, and CE; Funding Acquisition, SW, SHS, ARLS, and CE.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The data generated during this study are available at the link https://zenodo.org/records/12729032

The proteomic data is uploaded in the repository Massive (massive.ucsd.edu), accession number: MSV000095133

CODE AVAILABILITY

The code used to analyze Sholl data is available via the link https://github.com/Eroglu-Lab/Sholl_Macro.

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Figure 1