Impaired Cortico-Amygdala Functional Connectivity Can Drive Social Behavior Deficits in

Synucleinopathies

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Declarations

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conducted stereotaxic surgeries and behavioral tests. VS and MM generated and validated

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Abstract

The small molecule protein α-synuclein forms insoluble aggregates in a group of neurological

disorders, including Parkinson's disease and dementia with Lewy bodies, that are collectively

called synucleinopathies. However, it remains poorly understood how the aggregated α-

synuclein disrupts normal connectivity and function of complex neural circuits, prior to robust

neurodegeneration, leading to the manifestation of various motor, emotion, and cognitive

symptoms in synucleinopathies. In the present study, we combined electrophysiology,

optogenetics, mouse model of synucleinopathies, and behavioral analysis to address this

question. Using an α-synuclein preformed fibrils-based mouse model of synucleinopathies, we

reported dynamic changes in the levels of α-synuclein pathology in the basolateral amygdala

(BLA) circuits. Such dynamic changes associated with an accumulation of α-synuclein aggregates

within cortical glutamatergic afferents to the BLA at an initial stage, followed by gradual loss of

cortical inputs and BLA principal neurons at late stage. Moreover, we found that the cortical, but

not the thalamic, afferents to the BLA showed functional impairments that were highly

correlated with the manifestation of defected sociability in mice with α-synuclein pathology.

Furthermore, we provided experimental evidence showing that the impaired social behavior of

mice was rescued by chemogenetic stimulation of cortico-BLA inputs. Altogether, we presented

a series of evidence to delineate key circuit events associated with α-synuclein pathology

development in a complex neuronal network. The present work highlights the necessity of a

thorough investigation of functional consequences of α-synuclein aggregation to advance our

understand of pathophysiology of synucleinopathies and development of effective therapies.

Keywords

α-synuclein, synucleinopathies, Parkinson's disease, medial prefrontal cortex, amygdala,

electrophysiology, optogenetics, neural circuit, synapse, sociability

Background

Abnormally folded and aggregated α-synuclein (α-Syn) is the major proteinaceous component

of the intraneuronal inclusions that characterize Lewy pathology [1, 2]. Lewy pathology can be

found in most brains of people with Parkinson's disease (PD), dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB),

and multiple system atrophy. These disorders are collectively known as "synucleinopathies" [2].

Experimental work suggests that gradual accumulation of α-Syn aggregates can underlie the

pathogenesis and progression of synucleinopathies [3-5]. Particularly, accumulation of

pathologic α-Syn in the dopaminergic neurons of the substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc) and

their axons has been reported to impair nigrostriatal dopaminergic neurotransmission and

perhaps underlie the neurodegeneration, which eventually results in the manifestation of motor

symptoms in PD [4, 6, 7]. In addition, α-Syn pathology is proposed to spread between cells and

brain regions [3, 5, 8, 9]. Consequently, a large body of studies have focused on understanding

the genetic and microenvironmental factors that may promote or prevent the formation of

pathologic α-Syn aggregation, as they perhaps can provide us with strategies to regulate the

temporal development and spatial distribution of α-Syn pathology across brain regions and in

that way modify disease progression [10-15].

Over the progression of diseases over decades, deposition of α-Syn aggregates in the

brain is not the end stage of the disease and the subsequent degeneration of vulnerable

neuronal populations is just one of the biological events associated with synucleinopathies. It

has been shown that a threshold of SNc dopaminergic neurodegeneration needs to be reached

prior to the manifestation of motor deficits both in PD and its animal models [16, 17], which

might related to the development of an abnormal brain network activity following a severe

dopamine depletion [18, 19]. Consistently, compelling evidence also suggests that α-Syn

aggregates disrupt synaptic structure, function, and plasticity in susceptible brain regions [4, 20-

22].

In the context of complex neural circuits, many other factors must be considered to

better understand how α-Syn pathology impairs normal circuitry function. First, not all brain

regions and cell subtypes express equal levels of endogenous α-Syn, and therefore should not

have the same vulnerability to α-Syn aggregation [23-27]. Second, the brain network is

equipped with a battery of neural plasticity mechanisms that counteract circuit perturbations

[28]. Therefore, as α-Syn aggregates accumulate in a complex brain network, it is plausible to

hypothesize that 1) synaptic function and cellular activity of vulnerable cells are impaired at

early stage, prior to overt neurodegeneration; 2) neural network activity is altered by both the

direct detrimental effects of α-Syn aggregation and the associated compensatory adaptions;

and/or 3) early signs of behavioral deficits are more closely associated with the impaired circuit

function by α-Syn pathology, rather than with neurodegeneration itself.

To test the above hypotheses, we interrogated the basolateral amygdala (BLA)

microcircuits while α-Syn pathology progressively developed over an extended period of time.

We chose to use the BLA microcircuit as a model system because the amygdala is a hotspot for

Lewy pathology development in both PD and DLB [29-32] and its circuitry dysfunction has been

linked to emotional dysregulation in humans [33-36]. Anatomically, the BLA receives both

cortical and thalamic synaptic inputs, which exhibit distinct vulnerability to α-Syn pathology

[26]. Thus, α-Syn aggregation is likely to disrupt normal emotion encoding by the amygdala

microcircuits through a series of sequential events. Our work here provides novel insights into

how α-Syn pathology can disrupt information processing in a complex network and thereafter

contributes to the development of behavioral deficits. Altogether, our findings contribute to our

understanding of circuit events associated with α-Syn aggregation in complex microcircuits.

Materials and methods

Animals

C57BL/6J mice at 2-3-month-old (Jax#:000664, RRID: IMSR_JAX:000664) of both sexes were

obtained through the Van Andel Institute vivarium and used in this study. All animal studies

were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at Van Andel

Institute (animal use protocol #: 22-02-007) and in accordance with the standards of NIH for

care and use of animals. Animals were housed under a 12:12 h light-dark cycle, up to four

animals per cage with access to water and food *ad libitum*.

Preparation and validation of α-Syn preformed fibrils

The mouse α-Syn protein was purified using *Escherichia coli* BL21 codon plus RIPL cells, which

was then dialyzed using a buffer containing 10 mM Tris and 50 mM NaCl (pH 7.5). A high-

capacity endotoxin removal kit (PI88276) was used to remove the endotoxins, the levels of

which were assessed using an endotoxin quantification kit (A39552). The protein concentration

was estimated using absorbance at 280 nm with an extinction coefficient of 7450 M^{-1} cm^{-1}.

Purified mouse α-Syn monomer protein was used to generate mouse α-Syn preformed fibrils

(PFFs). Specifically, monomeric α-Syn protein was diluted to 5 mg/mL in the buffer, 150 mM KCl,

50 mM Tris-HCl and incubated at 37°C with shaking for 7 days, as described previously [37]. After

the incubation, sample was centrifuged for 10 min at 13,200 rpm. The protein pellet was re-

suspended in half of the initial volume of the solution. To estimate the fibril concentration, 5 µl

of fibril solution was incubated with 5 µL of 8 M guanidinium chloride at room temperature for

one hour. After incubation, the concentration of PFF was measured using absorbance at 280 nm

and diluted the PFF at 5 mg/mL and 22-25 μl aliquots were stored at −80°C until use. Prior to

the injection, PFF aliquot (22-25 μl at 5 mg/mL) was thawed at room temperature and sonicated

using Qsonica 700W cup horn sonicator at 30% amplitude using 3 seconds on/2 seconds off

cycle for 15 min at 15°C. The size of sonicated PFF (30-70 nm segments) was estimated and

confirmed using the dynamic light scattering (DynaPro NanoStar from Wyatt technology).

Stereotaxic surgery

Motorized stereotaxic frames were used for stereotaxic injections (Model# 51730M, Stoelting

Co.). Mice were anesthetized with 2% isoflurane and placed on a heating pad throughout the

surgery for maintenance of the body temperature. Eye ointment was administered to keep eyes

moisture and to protect them from strong light. To induce α-Syn pathology in mouse brain, we

bilaterally injected the sonicated PFFs (10 μg in a 2.0 μL volume) into the dorsal striatum

(anteroposterior (A-P), +0.2 mm from bregma; mediolateral (M-L), ± 2.0 mm from the midline;

dorsoventral (D-V), -2.9 mm from the brain surface) using a Nanoliter injector (NANOLITER2020,

World Precision Instrument) at a rate of 0.4 μL/min. To label the BLA principal neurons for

electrophysiological recordings, Retrobeads (LumaFluor Inc) were diluted (1:10 dilution) into

PFFs or PBS and then the mixed materials were co-injected into the dorsal striatum. Mice

injected with PBS or PBS plus beads at the same age were made as control groups. To

optogenetically evoke excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs) of BLA projection neurons, we

injected 0.3 μL AAVs encoding ChR2(H134R)-eYFP (titer = 1 x 10^{12} GC/ml, Addgene# 26973,

RRID: Addgene_127090) into the layer 5 of medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC, A-P, +2.1 mm from

bregma; M-L, ± 0.3 mm from the midline; D-V, -2.3 mm from the brain surface) and the

centromedial thalamus (A-P, -1.5 mm from bregma; M-L, 0 mm from the middle; D-V, -3.3 mm

from the brain surface) at a rate of 0.1 μL/min. An intersectional approach was used for

selective activation of mPFC to BLA projection using chemogenetics: 1) retrograde AAV encoding

FlpO (0.3 μL, titer ≥ 7 x 10^{12} GC/ml, Addgene# 55637) were bilaterally injected into BLA (A-P, -1.3

mm from bregma; M-L, ± 3.3 mm from the middle; D-V, -4.4 mm from the brain surface), and 2)

AAVs encoding FlpO-dependent excitatory designer receptors exclusively activated by designer

drugs (DREADDs) (titer = 2.5 x 10^{13} GC/ml, Addgene 154868) were injected into infralimbic

subregion of mPFC (IL-mPFC) (A-P, +2.1 mm from bregma; M-L, ± 0.3 mm from the midline; D-V,

-2.6 mm from the brain surface). Animals were returned to a cage placed on a warm pad after

surgery and then housed in their home cage until experiments. Details of this protocol can be

found at: https://doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.rm7vzye28l×1/v1.

Slice preparation for *ex vivo* physiological recording

To prepare brain slices for physiological recording, mice were intraperitoneally injected with

avertin (300 mg/kg) for anesthesia, followed by transcardial perfusion using ice-cold, sucrose-

based artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF), containing the follows (in mM): 230 sucrose, 26

$NaHCO_3$, 10 glucose, 10 $MgSO_4$, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 0.5 $CaCl_2$, 1 sodium pyruvate, and 0.005

L-glutathione. Brain slices (300 μm thickness) with the BLA were collected using a vibratome

(VT1200S; Leica Microsystems, Buffalo Grove, IL) in the same sucrose-aCSF. Throughout the

preparation, brain slices were kept at about +4°C by a recirculating chiller (FL300; JULABO USA,

Inc, Allentown, PA). Then the slices were incubated at 35°C in regular aCSF bubbled with 95% O_2

and 5% CO_2 for 30 min (in mM, 126 NaCl, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 10 glucose, 2.5 KCl, 2 $CaCl_2$, 2 $MgSO_4$, 1.25

NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 1 sodium pyruvate, and 0.005 L-glutathione), and then kept at room temperature for

at least another 30 min prior to recording.

Slice electrophysiology recording and optogenetics

Brain slices were transferred to recording chamber with modified aCSF (in mM, 126 NaCl, 26

NaHCO3,10 glucose, 3 KCl, 1.6 CaCl$_2$,1.5 MgSO$_4$, and 1.25 NaH$_2$PO$_4$), which was equilibrated

with 95% O$_2$ and 5% CO$_2$ at 32–34°C via a feedback-controlled in-line heater (TC-324C, Warner

Instruments). A gradient contrast SliceScope 1000 (Scientifica, UK) with an IR-2000 CCD camera

(DAGE-MTI, USA) using infrared illumination was used to visualize neurons in slices. A motorized

micromanipulator was used to control the position of the glass pipette for recording. The BLA

principal cells were identified based on the presence of somatic Retrobeads signals under a 60x

water immersion object lens (Olympus, Japan).

Electrophysiology data were collected using an Axon 700B amplifier and digitized with a

1550B digitizer (Molecular Devices, San Jose, USA). Signals were low pass filtered at 2 kHz and

sampled at 50 kHz under the control of pClamp 11 (RRID: SCR_011323, Molecular Devices, San

Jose, USA). Borosilicate glass pipettes with resistance at 4-6 MΩ (O.D. = 1.5 mm, I.D. = 0.86, item

BF150-86-10, Sutter Instruments, Novato, CA) were made by a micropipette puller (P1000,

Sutter Instruments, Novato, CA). For voltage-clamp recordings of synaptic transmission, a Cs$^+$-

based intracellular solution containing the following (in mM): 120 CH$_3$O$_3$SCs, 2.8 NaCl, 10 HEPES,

0.4 Na$_4$-EGTA, 5 QX314-HBr, 5 phosphocreatine, 0.1 spermine, 4 ATP-Mg, and 0.4 GTP-Na was

used; the pH was adjusted to pH 7.3 with CsOH. A K-gluconate-based internal solution (in mM,

140 K-gluconate, 3.8 NaCl, 1 MgCl2, 10 HEPES, 0.1 Na$_4$-EGTA, 2 ATP-Mg, and 0.1 GTP-Na, 0.2%

Biocytin, pH 7.3, 290 mOsm) was used to label the BLA projections neurons for morphology

studies using Cy-streptavidin. For optogenetic stimulation, light pulses with 1 ms duration were

delivered through a 60x objective lens (Olympus, Japan) using a 470 nm LED light illumination

(CoolLED, UK). TTX (1 µM) and 4-AP (100 µM) were perfused to isolate monosynaptic mPFC-BLA

neurotransmission. To measure the synaptic strength, peak amplitude of AMPARs-mediated

EPSCs at -80 mV were calculated. Paired-pulse ratio at 10 Hz was quantified as the ratio of

amplitude between the second EPSCs over the first EPSCs (i.e., EPSC2/EPSC1). To measure

AMPA/NMA ratio, NMDA-mediated current at +40 mV was measured at 50 ms after optogenetic

stimulation when AMPAR mediated-EPSCs decayed to the baseline. Series resistance (R_s) was

continuously monitored during recordings and only cells showed stable R_s < 20 MΩ with less

than 15% changes were proceeded for further analysis. Details of this procedure can be found

here: https://www.protocols.io/view/brain-slice-preparation-for-electrophysiology-reco-

36wgqj2eovk5/v1

Perfusion and immunohistochemistry staining

Mice were intraperitoneally injected with avertin for anesthesia followed by transcardial

perfusion using 1x PBS and 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA, pH = 7.4). After perfusion, the brains

were extracted and kept in 4% PFA overnight for post-fixation, and then were re-sectioned at a

70 µm thickness using a vibratome (VT1000s, Leica Biosystems, Buffalo Grove, IL).

https://www.protocols.io/view/standard-operating-procedure-mouse-transcardiac-pe-

3byl4b8r8vo5/v1

Brain sections were rinsed with 1x PBS for 3 times before performing

immunohistochemistry, followed by incubation with 1x PBS containing 0.5% Triton X-100 (PBS-T)

plus 2% normal donkey serum (Millipore Sigma) at room temperature for 60 min. They were

then incubated in the PBS-T with primary antibodies overnight at room temperature or 48 hours

at 4°C. The primary antibodies utilized in this study were: rabbit anti-pS129 α-Syn (1:10,000,

Bioscience Cat# 1536-1, RRID: AB_562180), mouse anti-NeuN (1:500, Millipore Cat# MAB377,

RRID: AB_2298772), mouse anti-vGluT1 (1:1,000, Synaptic Systems Cat# 135 011,

RRID:AB_2617087), guinea pig anti-vGluT2 (1:1,000, Synaptic System Cat# 135404, RRID:

AB_887884). The sections were then thoroughly rinsed with 1x PBS for 3 times before

incubating with the secondary antibodies (1: 500, AlexaFluor 594 donkey anti-rabbit IgG, Cat#

711-585-152, Jackson ImmunoResearch Labs, RRID: AB_2340621; AlexFluor 594 donkey anti-

mouse IgG, Cat# 715-586-150, Jackson ImmunoResearch Labs, RRID: AB_2340857; AlexaFluor

488 donkey anti-guinea pig IgG, Cat# 706-545-148, Jackson ImmunoResearch Labs, RRID:

AB_2340472) at room temperature for 2 hours. To reveal morphology of biocytin-labeled

neurons, brain slices were incubated with Cy5-conjugated streptavidin (SA1011, Thermo Fisher

Scientific) at a concentration of 1: 500 at room temperature for 2 h. Brain slices were then

rinsed using 1x PBS for 3 times before mounting on glass slides with the Vectorshield antifade

mounting medium (H-1000, Vector Laboratories). Slides were left at room temperature

overnight before sealing with nail oil and imaging. Details of immunofluorescent staining can be

found here: https://www.protocols.io/view/immunofluorescent-staining-3byl4bq9ovo5/v1

Confocal imaging and analysis

Confocal images were taken using a Nikon A1R microscope. Images of α-Syn pathology in BLA

were collected by a 20x objective lens and then analyzed using imageJ (RRID: SCR_003070, NIH,

https://imagej.net). To quantify the cortical and thalamic axon terminals in the BLA, vGluT1 and

vGluT2 immunoreactivity were imaged using a Nikon A1R confocal microscope under an oil

immersion 100x objective lens (NA=1.45; x/y, 1024 x 1024 pixels; z-step = 150 nm). All confocal

images were acquired using the identical microscope and camera settings. VGluT1 and vGluT2

density were stereologically quantified using optical dissector methods (dissector height = 3 μm

with a guard zone of 0.15 μm; counting frame = 10 x 10 μm) [38]. Images of NeuN staining were

taken from the BLA by a 60x objective (NA=1.40; x/y, 1024 x 1024 pixels; z-step = 1 μm) and

subjected to quantification using Imaris software (RRID: SCR_007370, version 10.0, Oxford, UK,

https://imaris.oxinst.com). ChR2-eYFP expression in mPFC was imaged using a Nikon Ni-U

fluorescence microscope under 2x objective lens. For morphology analysis, biocytin-filled

neurons were imaged using the confocal microscope under 20x objective lens (NA=0.75; x/y,

1024 x 1024 pixels; z-step = 1 μm). Morphology of biocytin-labelled neurons of BLA was

reconstructed followed by Sholl analysis using the Imaris software (RRID: SCR_007370, version

10.0, Oxford, UK, https://imaris.oxinst.com). Spines of the biocytin-filled neurons were imaged

by the confocal microscope under 100x objective lens (NA=1.45; x/y, 1024 x 1024 pixels; z-step =

500 nm). To quantify the spine density of BLA neurons, dendritic segments of 20 μm in length

were reconstructed and number of spines were counted. Images from controls and PFFs

injected mice were collected under identical settings in the confocal microscope and analyzed

by a researcher blinded to treatments. Details of digital imaging analysis can be found here:

https://www.protocols.io/view/confocal-imaging-and-digital-image-analysis-3byl4jmxzlo5/v1.

Animal behaviors

To assess motor function, animals were subject to locomotion and rotarods tests. For open field

locomotion test, the animal was placed in the empty open field (40 x 40 x 30 cm, W x L x H) and

allowed to explore for 10 min. Animal's locomotor activity was continuously recorded and

analyzed using ANYmaze software (Stoelting Co., Wood Dale, IL). For rotarod test, the animal

was placed on an accelerating rod (speed of 4-40 rpm in 5 min, San Diego Instruments, CA) and

the latency of fall was monitored and recorded. Detailed protocol of motor activity assays can

be found here: https://www.protocols.io/view/open-field-locomotion-test-e6nvwjxmdlmk/v1.

To assess animals' social interaction behavior, mice were placed to three-chamber apparatus

(MazeEngineers, Skokie, IL) with left, middle, and right chambers (20 x 13.5 cm^2). A round wire

cage (10 cm in diameter, 20 cm in height) was placed in the left and right chambers for novel

stimulus mouse. The stimulus mice were habituated to the wire cages for 20 min before the

testing day. The testing mice were habituated to the behavior room for at least 30 min before

the experiment. Three sessions were conducted during the testing day, including the

habituation, the session 1, and the session 2. The testing mice were habituated to the middle

chamber for 5 min before opening the doors to allow the mice freely explore the three

chambers for 10 min. During the first session, the testing mice were allowed to explore the

three chambers for a total of 10 min with one empty cage and the presence of a stimulus

mouse in the other wire cage. In the second session, the same testing mouse was allowed to

explore the three chambers for another 10 min with the presence of the familiar mouse in one

cage and a second never-met stimulus mouse in another wire cage. Mice movements were

tracking and the time spent in each chamber was quantified by AnyMaze software (Stoelting

Co.). Between each testing, the chamber was thoroughly cleaned with 70% ethanol to eliminate

the odor of mice.

Data analysis and statistics

Electrophysiology data were analyzed using Clampfit 11.1 (RRID: SCR_011323, Molecular

Devices, San Jose, USA). The amplitude of monosynaptic glutamatergic EPSCs were quantified

from an average of three sweeps. Confocal images were analyzed using Image J (RRID:

SCR_003070, NIH, https://imagej.net) and Imaris (RRID: SCR_007370, Oxford, UK,

http://www.bitplane. com/imaris). Statistics were performed in Prism 10 (RRID: SCR_002798,

GraphPad Software, http://www.graphpad.com). Non-parametric, distribution-independent

Mann-Whiney U (MWU) test was used for statistical comparison of data from two groups. The

amplitude of Cortico-BLA EPSCs across a range of stimulation and Sholl analysis were analyzed

using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with *post hoc* Sidak's analysis multiple comparison's

test. All tests were two-tailed, and *p*-value < 0.05 was considered as statistical significance.

Results

Time-course of α-Syn pathology development in the BLA

We chose to employ the α-Syn preformed fibrils (PFFs)-based mouse models to interrogate

circuit events associated with α-Syn aggregation in the BLA microcircuits. In the PFFs-based

models, fibrillar α-Syn species are reported to be internalized at the axon terminals, which then

recruit endogenously expressed α-Syn to form insoluble inclusions. This process has been

shown to start at the axons and propagate to somatic regions, followed by a potential spreading

of pathologic species between cells [3, 20]. We injected α-Syn PFFs into the dorsal striatum of

wildtype C57BL6 mice to induce the accumulation of α-Syn pathology in the brain, including

broad cerebral cortical regions and the amygdala [3, 39, 40].

Figure 1. Time-course of αSyn pathology development in the BLA. A-D) Representative confocal images showing
the development and accumulation of pS129[+] pathology in the BLA at 1, 3, 6 and 12 months-post-injection (mpi).
Arrows and arrowheads highlighted a few pS129[+] somatic aggregates and neurites, respectively, in the BLA. **E)** Time
course of the development of total α-syn pathology (filled circles), pS129[+] somatic aggregates (square), and pS129[+]
neurites (triangle) in the BLA. Total α-Syn pathology, 1 mpi = 0.20±0.02, n = 38 slices/8 mice; 3 mpi = 0.37±0.06, n =

28 slices/10 mice; p = 0.004. pS129$^+$ aggregates, 1 mpi =0.02±0.005, n = 38 slices/8 mice; 3 mpi =0.14±0.03, n = 28

slices/10 mice, p < 0.0001. pS129$^+$ neurites, 1 mpi =0.19±0.02, n = 38 slices/8 mice, 3 mpi = 0.24±0.04, n = 28 slices/10

mice, p = 0.3. Total α-Syn pathology at 6 mpi = 0.26±0.04, n = 38 slices/10 mice, p = 0.09 versus total pathology at 3

mpi. pS129$^+$ aggregates at 6 mpi = 0.11±0.02, n = 38 slices/10 mice, p = 0.5 versus pS129$^+$ aggregates at 3 mpi. pS129$^+$

neurites at 6 mpi = 0.14±0.02, n = 38 slices/10 mice, p = 0.01 versus pS129$^+$ neurites at 3 mpi. Total α-Syn pathology

at 12 mpi = 0.05±0.007, n = 35 slices/6 mice, p < 0.0001 versus total pathology at 3 mpi. pS129$^+$ aggregates at 12 mpi

= 0.026±0.005, n = 35 slices/6 mice, p < 0.0001 versus pS129$^+$ aggregates at 3 mpi. pS129$^+$ neurites at 12 mpi =

0.02±0.0035, n = 35 slices/6 mice, p < 0.0001 versus pS129$^+$ neurites at 3 mpi.

*p< 0.05 relative to the counterparts at 1 mpi, #p < 0.05 relative to the counterparts at 3 mpi; one-way ANOVA. **F**)

Representative images showing Lewy body-like somatic pS129$^+$ aggregates in the BLA at different time points (top

panel) and their 3D reconstructions.

As expected, we detected robust phospho-Ser129 (pS129$^+$) α-Syn immunoreactivity in

the BLA of PFFs-injected mice (**Figure 1A-D**), but not in the BLA of PBS-injected controls

("controls" hereinafter). α-Syn pathology in the BLA included both pS129$^+$ Lewy neurite (LN)-like

and large Lewy body (LB)-like aggregates (**Figure 1A-D, F**), which are likely the α-Syn aggregation

within the afferents and the somatic regions of glutamatergic principal neurons of the BLA,

respectively [26, 39]. Next, we characterized the dynamic changes of α-Syn pathology

abundance in the BLA at 1, 3, 6, and 12 months-post-injection (mpi). We measured the

proportion of the BLA region covered by pS129$^+$ neurites, and pS129$^+$ somatic aggregates, as

well as the total α-Syn pathology (i.e., pS129$^+$ LN/LB-like aggregates) to quantify α-Syn

pathology load in the BLA, as in earlier studies (**Figure 1E**) [40, 41]. Specifically, moderate level

of pS129$^+$ α-Syn pathology was detected in the BLA as early as at 1 mpi, which was dominated

by the pS129$^+$ neurites (**Figure 1A, E**). The level of total pS129$^+$ α-Syn pathology continually grew

beyond 1 mpi, peaking at 3 mpi (**Figure 1B, E**). After 3 mpi, the amount of total α-Syn pathology

in the BLA remained at a relatively high at the 6 mpi timepoint but decreased significantly at 12

mpi (**Figure 1C, D, E**). Particularly, at 12 mpi only few pS129$^+$ somatic aggregates could be

detected in the BLA, but nearly no LN-like structure could be seen in this region (**Figure 1D, E**).

Consistently, the reduced total α-Syn pathology in the BLA was initially driven by the loss of

pS129$^+$ neurites at 6 mpi (**Figure 1C, E**), and then by loss of both pS129$^+$ neurites and somatic

aggregates at 12 mpi (**Figure 1D, E**).

Furthermore, the LB-like somatic aggregates showed distinct morphological features

from early to later stages (**Figure 1F**). Specifically, the somatic aggregates became denser

gradually and smaller in size, which might be the process of maturation as reported by previous

studies [11, 42]. It is worth noting that maturation of Lewy bodies has been shown to drive

neurodegeneration in model systems, both *in vitro* and *in vivo* [11, 42]. These data suggest that

deposition of α-Syn pathology may compromise the integrity and function of BLA microcircuits

by disrupting synaptic connections followed by a possible loss of BLA neurons.

α-Syn pathology induces neurodegeneration in the BLA at later stages

Post-mortem studies of patients with advanced PD reported that the amygdala exhibits

significant Lewy body pathology and reduced cell density [32]. In experimental studies,

development and maturation of pS129$^+$ somatic aggregates have been reported to drive the

death of cortical glutamatergic neurons and SNc dopaminergic neurons in mice after more than

4 months post PFFs injections [3, 11, 42]. Thus, the gradual and robust reduction in the number

of pS129$^+$ somatic aggregates in the BLA from 6 to 12 mpi could have been the result of loss of

BLA neurons as the somatic aggregates mature (**Figure 1C-F**). To test this hypothesis, we

performed stereological quantification of BLA neurons at 6 and 12 mpi, prior to which

neurodegeneration is unlikely to occur in the BLA [3, 39]. The PFF-injected mice and controls

were perfusion-fixed using 4% PFA at 6 and 12 mpi and brain sections containing the BLA region

were collected and stained using anti-NeuN antibody as a pan-neuronal marker (**Figure 2**).

Relative to controls, the BLA of PFFs-injected mice showed a significant cell loss at 12 mpi

relative to controls, but not at 6 mpi (**Figure 2**), consistent with the findings of a recent study

using the same model [39]. These data suggest that deposition of α-Syn aggregates induced

neurodegeneration in the BLA at this late stage. The temporal relationship between the BLA cell

density reduction and the decrease in pS129$^+$ somatic aggregates suggests that the decreased

LB-like aggregates can be attributed to degeneration of BLA neurons at 12 mpi as it has been

indicated in the literature [3, 40].

Figure 2. α-Syn pathology induces neurodegeneration in the BLA at later stages. A-D) Representative images
showing NeuN immunoreactivity in the BLA of controls (A, C) and PFFs-injected mice (B, D) at 6 mpi and 12 mpi. **E**)
Summarized results showing a reduced BLA cell density in the PFFs-injected mice relative to controls at 12 mpi, but
not at the 6 mpi. Cell densities at 6 mpi, control = 54.9 [51.7, 60.8] x10^3/mm^3, PFFs = 51.5 [46.4, 54.9] x10^3/mm^3, n =
8 mice/group, p = 0.16; Cell densities at 12 mpi, control = 57.7 [54.7, 60.3] x10^3/mm^3, PFFs = 48.9 [47.4, 51.8]
x10^3/mm^3, n = 6 mice/group, p = 0.0087, Mann-Whitney U (MWU) test.
394

Loss of cortical afferents contributes to the decreased pS129$^+$ neurites in the BLA

Next, we tested the hypothesis that loss of glutamatergic inputs occurs prior to the BLA

neurodegeneration and further delineated the relative vulnerability of distinct glutamatergic

afferents to α-Syn pathology. The BLA receives major glutamatergic inputs from both the

cerebral cortices and the thalamus, the axons of which can be distinguished by the expression

of vesicular glutamate transporter (vGluT) 1 and 2, respectively. We recently reported that

vGluT1-expressing (vGluT1$^+$) cortical axons express higher levels of endogenous α-syn than

vGluT2$^+$ thalamic axons, rendering the cortical inputs more vulnerable to functional damages of

α-Syn aggregation than the thalamic inputs at 1 mpi [26]. Although at this early time point α-

Syn aggregation did not induce loss of cortico-BLA axon terminals, it remains to be determined

whether and when cortical axon degeneration occurs at later time points, as suggested by the

previous studies [20, 43].

Therefore, we extended our study to later time points and quantified the density of

vGluT1$^+$ puncta in the BLA as levels of α-Syn pathology evolves over time. Although the level of

pS129$^+$ α-Syn bearing neurites peaked at 3 mpi (**Figure 1E**), there was no change in the density

of vGluT1$^+$ puncta in the BLA at this stage (**Figure 3A**), indicating no loss of cortico-BLA axon

terminals at 3 mpi. However, a significant reduction in the density of vGluT1$^+$ puncta in the BLA

was detected at 6 and 12 mpi (**Figure 3B-C**), indicating a gradual loss of cortico-BLA axonal

projections. It is worthy to note that the time course of vGluT1$^+$ puncta reduction aligns with the

changes in pS129$^+$ neurites in the BLA (**Figure 1E**), suggesting that loss of cortico-BLA axonal

projections could contribute to the reduced pS129$^+$ neurites in the BLA at 6 and 12 mpi, though

a downregulation of vGluT1 protein itself cannot be excluded.

Figure 3. Loss of cortical afferents contributes to the decreased pS129⁺ neurites in the BLA. A-C) *Left*, representative confocal images showing vGluT1 immunoreactive puncta in the BLA of controls and PFFs-injected mice at 3, 6, and 12 mpi. *Right*) Summarized result showed changes in vGluT1 densities in the BLA at 3, 6, and 12 mpi. *A,* vGluT1 densities at 3 mpi, controls = 11.7 [9.5, 13], PFFs = 11.3 [10.5, 12.0], p = 0.86. *B,* vGluT1 densities at 6 mpi, controls = 11.5 [10.1, 13.3], PFFs = 9.3 [8.7, 10.7], p = 0.0001. *C,* vGluT1 densities at 12 mpi, controls = 12. 7 [11.0, 13.3], PFFs = 9.3 [8.7, 10.3], p <0.0001. **D-F)** *Left*, representative confocal images showing vGluT2 immunoreactive puncta in the BLA of controls and PFFs-injected mice at 3, 6, and 12 mpi. *Right*) Summarized result showed no change in vGluT2 densities in the BLA at 3, 6, and 12 mpi. *D,* vGluT2 densities at 3 mpi, controls = 9.0 [7.5, 10.3], PFFs = 8.3 [7.0, 9.0], p = 0.1387. *E,* vGluT2 densities at 6 mpi, controls = 9.0 [7.8, 9.7], PFFs = 8.7 [8.3, 10.3], p = 0.4883. *F,* vGluT2 densities at 12 mpi, controls = 9.0 [8.0, 10.3], PFFs = 9.0 [8.2, 10.3], p = 0.8225. N = 21 slices/4 mice for 3 mpi, 19 slices/4 mice for 6 mpi, 33 slices/6 mice for 12 mpi. MWU test.

Even though vGluT2⁺ thalamic inputs are more resilient to α-Syn pathology, they could

still be affected as secondary effects of α-Syn's detrimental impact on BLA microcircuits at late

stages. Thus, we further tested whether PFFs-injected mice showed changes in thalamic input

to the BLA relative to controls. To this end, we quantified vGluT2⁺ axon terminals and

surprisingly found no change in the density of vGluT2⁺ puncta in the BLA of PFFs injected mice

relative to respective controls at 3, 6, and 12 mpi (**Figure 3D-F**). These data indicate that

thalamic-BLA axonal projections were not altered by the dynamic changes of α-Syn pathology

over time. We also concluded that thalamo-BLA afferents did not underlie the decreased pS129$^+$

neurites in the BLA between 6 mpi and 12 mpi (**Figure 1**).

The BLA neurons express abundant *SNCA* (α-Syn encoding gene) and develop robust LB-

like somatic aggregates in both human PD and animal models (**Figure 1**). Thus, it is plausible to

speculate that changes in dendritic morphology of BLA neurons may contribute to the reduced

pS129$^+$ neurites in the BLA at 6 and 12 mpi. We therefore employed *ex vivo* whole-cell patch-

clamp technique to fill retrobeads-labeled BLA principal neurons with biocytin followed by

confocal imaging of their dendrites (**Figure 4A-E**). By performing Sholl analysis, we found that

there was no change in the dendritic arborization and total length of biocytin-labeled BLA

neurons from PFFs-injected mice relative to those from controls at 3, 6, and 12 mpi (**Figure 4C-**

H). These results suggest that dendritic changes of BLA neurons were unlikely to contribute to

the reduction of pS129$^+$ neurites that we detected in the BLA (**Figure 1**).

Given the cortical and thalamic inputs mainly target dendritic spines, we further

quantified the density of dendritic spines of the biocytin labeled BLA neurons at 3, 6, and 12

mpi (**Figure 4I-N**). We found that BLA principal neurons exhibited a reduced density of dendritic

spines at 3 and 6 mpi (**Figure 4I, J, L, M**). Surprisingly, such reduction of dendritic spines was not

detected from BLA neurons at 12 mpi (**Figure 4K, N**), which might be due to the sampling bias at

this time point (see **Discussion**).

Taken together, although BLA neurons also developed robust α-Syn aggregates, changes

in their dendritic morphology may not contribute to the decreased pS129$^+$ neurites seen in the

BLA at 6 and 12 mpi. In addition, the above data suggest that in the BLA microcircuits, α-Syn

pathology triggers loss of presynaptic axon terminals and postsynaptic dendritic spines, which

may lead to a disconnection of the BLA from the cerebral cortex as α-Syn pathology

accumulates in the brain.

Figure 4. BLA principal neurons show moderate morphological changes as α-Syn pathology develops. A)

Representative images showing green Retrobeads-labeled BLA neurons at low and high (inset) magnification. Cells

with green beads labeling were targeted for biocytin filling and morphology analysis. **B)** Representative image

showing a Cy5-labeled BLA principal neurons against pS129$^+$ α-Syn immunoreactivity. This cell showed clear somatic

aggregation of pS129$^+$ α-Syn. **C)** *Left*, Representative 3D reconstructed BLA principal neurons from controls and PFFs-

injected mice at 3 mpi. *Right*, Summarized result from Sholl analysis showing the number of intersections at different

distance from the soma was similar between controls and PFFs-injected mice at 3 mpi. Thick and thin lines indicate

medians and interquartile ranges. **E-F)** Similar to C-D) expect at 6 mpi. **G-H)** Similar to C-D) expect at 12 mpi. **I-K)**

Confocal images showing representative dendritic spines of BLA neurons from controls and PFFs-injected mice at 3

(I), 6 (J), and 12 (K) mpi. **L-N)**. Summarized results showing reduced dendritic spine densities of BLA neurons from

PFFs-injected mice relative to control at 3 (L) and 6 (M) mpi, but not at 12 (N) mpi. Spine densities at 3 mpi, controls

= 7.45 [5.7, 9.44]/10 μm; PFFs = 5.3 [4.66, 6.46]/10 μm, n= 21 segments/4 mice, p = 0.0008, MWU; Spine densities

at 6 mpi, controls = 6.5 [5.5, 8.75]/10 μm, PFFs = 6.0 [4.5, 6.5]/10 μm, n = 36 segments/4 mice, p =0.002, MWU;

Spine densities at 12 mpi, controls = 6.5 [5.25, 7.5]/10 μm, PFFs = 6.5 [6.0, 7.5]/10 μm, n = 31 segments/5 mice, p =

0.4, MWU test.

α-Syn pathology disrupts functional connectivity between the mPFC and the BLA

Next, we assessed the functional connectivity between the cerebral cortex and the BLA. Proper

interaction between the medial prefrontal cortex (mFPC) and the BLA plays a critical in

regulating emotion and social behavior [44-46]. Moreover, since both the mPFC and the BLA

accumulate robust α-Syn pathology following intrastriatal PFFs injection, the functional

connectivity between two regions could be impaired. Thus, we assessed how α-Syn pathology

affects mFPC-BLA connection at 3 and 6 mpi when the abundance of α-Syn pathology remains

high but has not yet caused severe degeneration of BLA neurons (**Figures 1E and 2**). We virally

expressed AAV9-hSyn-ChR2(H134R)-eYFP in the layer 5 projection neurons of the mPFC,

allowing a selective activation of mPFC-BLA inputs (**Figure 5A**). We optogenetically stimulated

ChR2(H134R)-expressing axon terminals in the BLA (**Figure 5A**) and recorded the evoked

excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs) in the retrogradely labeled BLA principal neurons under

the voltage-clamp mode from controls and PFFs-injected mice (**Figure 5B, C**). The amplitude of

optogenetically-evoked, monosynaptic EPSCs were quantified to assess the connection strength

of mPFC-BLA synapses. A significant reduction of the amplitude of mPFC-BLA EPSCs was

detected in PFFs-injected mice relative to control at both 3 and 6 mpi (**Figure 5B, C**), indicating

an impaired functional connectivity of the mPFC-BLA synapses.

The reduced connection strength of mPFC-BLA synapses was accompanied by a

decreased ratio of amplitude of EPSCs mediated by AMPA receptors and NMDA receptors (i.e.,

AMPA/NMDAR ratio) in PFFs-injected mice relative to controls at both 3 and 6 mpi (**Figure 5D-**

F). Moreover, the ratio of EPSC2/EPSC1 at the mPFC-BLA synapses evoked by paired optogenetic

stimulation was also decreased in PFFs-injected mice relative to controls at both 3 and 6 mpi

(**Figure 5**), indicating an enhanced initial release probability of neurotransmitter at mPFC-BLA

input. Last, we did not detect changes in the connection strength of thalamo-BLA synapses in

PFFs-injected mice at 3 mpi (**Supplementary Figure 1**). Together with the changes in synaptic

markers (**Figure 3**), these data further suggest that cortico-BLA inputs were selectively

downregulated by α-Syn pathology whilst the thalamo-BLA synapses remained intact even at

later stages of α-Syn pathology.

Figure 5. α-Syn pathology disrupts functional connectivity of the mPFC-BLA synapses. A) *Top*, diagram showing overall experimental design. *Bottom*, Representative AAV-ChR2-eYFP injection site in the mFPC (left) and the eYFP-labeled axonal terminal field in the BLA (right). B-C) Decreased amplitude of optogenetically evoked mPFC-BLA EPSCs in PFFs-injected mice relative to controls at both 3 (B) and 6 (C) mpi. *Top*) Representative traces of EPSCs evoked by optical stimulation intensities of 1.8, 3.6, and 12 mW/mm^2. Blue arrows indicate when the optogenetic stimulation was delivered. *Bottom*) Summarized graphs showing reduced amplitude of mPFC-BLA ESPCs across a range of stimulation intensities in PFFs-injected mice relative to controls at both 3 and 6 mpi. N = 44 cells/7 mice at 3 mpi and 57 cells/7 mice at 6 mpi. Two-way ANOVA followed by Sidak multiple comparisons test. D) Representative traces of mPFC-BLA EPSCs recorded at -80 mV and +40 mV from both controls and PFFs-injected mice. Red dots indicate where the AMPA receptor- and NMDA receptor-mediated EPSCs were measured at -80 mV and +40 mV, respectively. Blue dashed lines indicate when optogenetic stimulation was delivered. E-F) Summarized result showing reduced AMPA/NMDA ratios at mPFC-BLA synapses in PFFs-injected mice relative to controls at 3 mpi (E, control = 3.3 [2.7, 5.4], n = 29 cells/4 mice, PFFs = 2.8 [1.8, 4.0], n = 41 cells/7 mice, p = 0.05) and 6 mpi (F, control = 2.7 [1.9, 3.8], n = 28 cells/4 mice, PFFs = 1.9 [1.5, 2.5], n = 46 cells/6 mice, p = 0.0006) . G) Representative traces of mPFC-BLA EPSCs evoked by paired optogenetic stimulation pulses at -80 mV in both controls and PFFs-injected mice. Blue arrows indicate when the optogenetic stimulation was delivered. H-I) Summarized results showing reduced ratios of

523 EPSC2/EPSC1 at the mPFC-BLA synapses in PFFs-injected mice relative to controls at both 3 mpi (H, control = 1 [0.75,
524 1.32], n = 36 cells/5 mice; PFFs = 0.85 [0.67, 1.1], n = 48 cells/7 mice, p = 0.016, MWU) and 6 mpi (I, control = 1.04
525 [0.85, 1.32], n = 31 cells/4 mice, PFFs = 0.94 [0.72, 1.09], n= 57 cells/7 mice, p = 0.008, MWU test).
526

Supplementary Figure 1. Thalamic inputs to the BLA were not affected by the α-Syn pathology. A) Representative

AAV-ChR2-eYFP injection site in the thalamic region. **B**) Representative image showing eYFP-labeled thalamic axon

terminal field in the amygdala. **C-D**) Representative optogenetically-evoked thalamo-BLA EPSCs in controls and PFFs-

injected mice at 3 mpi (C) and the summarized results (D), Two-way ANOVA followed by Sidak multiple comparisons

test.

Social interaction behavior is impaired by α-Syn pathology and rescued by chemogenetic

activation of mPFC-BLA pathway

Given the robust disconnection between the mPFC and the BLA (**Figure 5**), we next attempted

to determine whether the impaired mPFC-BLA projection affects amygdala-dependent behavior.

We performed behavioral tests using both controls and PFFs-injected mice at 3 mpi when the α-

Syn pathology remained at peak level but has not yet resulted in robust presynaptic structural

changes at the cortico-BLA synapses and loss of BLA neurons (**Figures 2 and 3**) making

functional rescue still possible.

542   Considering the functional impairment of the mPFC-BLA connections at 3 mpi, we

further tested the hypothesis that development of α-Syn pathology leads to impaired social

interaction behavior. We chose the 3-chamber sociability test, as the performance in this test is

dependent on an intact amygdala microcircuit as well the interaction between the BLA and the

mPFC [44, 47, 48]. Each test began with 10 min habituation to the behavior apparatus with two

empty cages. During the habituation, both controls and PFF-injected mice spent comparable

amount of time in the left and right chambers of the empty cage. This result indicates that

neither controls nor PFFs-injected mice exhibited baseline preference of either chamber. Next, a

stimulus mouse was placed into one empty cage (S1, **Figure 6A**), and the test mouse was then

allowed to explore both chambers (session I in **Figure 6A**). Both controls and PFF-injected mice

spent significantly more time with the never-before-met stimulus mouse S1 than that with the

non-social empty cage (**Figure 6A, B, D**). This result suggests that PFFs-injected mice exhibit

normal sociability relative to controls. Next, we studied social novelty preference of PFFs-

injected mice. To do this, we added a second novel stimulus mouse 2 (S2) into the empty cage in

the presence of the familiar stimulus S1 to evaluate the test mouse's interest in the familiar

social stimulus *versus* the novel one when both were present (see the session 2 in **Figure 6A, C**).

While controls spent much more time with the novel stimulus (S2) relative to the familiar one

(S1), PFFs-injected mice spent similar amount of time with either the familiar stimulus (S1) or

the novel stimulus (S2) (**Figure 6C, E**).

Figure 6. Social interaction behavior was impaired by α-Syn pathology and rescued by chemogenetic activation of mPFC-BLA pathway. A) Diagram showing overall behavioral experimental design. **B**) Representative heatmap plots showing social interaction behavior of controls and PFFs-injected mice in the Session 1 when S1 was paired with an empty cage for sociability. **C**) Representative heatmap plots showing social interaction behavior of controls and PFFs-injected mice in the Session 2 when familiar S1 was paired with a novel stimulus S2 for social novelty preference. **D-E**) Summarized graphs showing a normal sociability (D, controls empty = 177 [147, 191] sec, control S1 = 309 [273, 326] sec, n = 9 mice, p < 0.0001; PFFs empty = 181 [142, 211] sec, PFFs S1 = 290 [245, 331] sec, n = 10 mice, p = 0.001, MWU) but impaired social novelty preference behavior of PFFs-injected mice relative to controls (E, control S1 = 179 [170, 207] sec, control S2 = 256 [210, 298] sec, n= 9 mice, p = 0.01, MWU; PFFs S1 = 213 [179, 251] sec, PFFs S2 = 182 [146, 276] sec, n = 10 mice, p = 0.49, MWU). **F**) Representative image showing AAV-fDIO-hM3D(Gq)-mCherry infection site in the mPFC and the mCherry-labeled mFPC axon terminal field in the BLA. **G**) Representative heatmap plots showing sociability of PFFs-injected mice receiving either saline or DCZ (DREADDs agonist) administration. **H**)

Representative heatmap plots showing social novelty preference of PFFs-injected mice receiving either saline or DCZ

(DREADDs agonist) administration. **I-J)** Summarized graphs showing that PFFs-injected mice receiving saline

injections exhibit impairment in their social novelty preference behavior of (I, saline-injected control, S1 = 198 [178,

220] sec, S2 = 275 [260, 338] sec, n = 5 mice, p = 0.008; saline-injected PFFs, S1 = 294 [244, 335] sec, S2 = 214 [168,

278] sec, n = 5 mice, p = 0.09, MWU), which was rescued by DREADDs agonist DCZ injection (J, DCZ-injected controls,

S1 = 180 [166, 213] sec, S2 = 294 [284, 347] sec, n = 5 mice, p = 0.008; DCZ-injected PFFs, S1 = 176 [134, 201] sec, S2

= 371 [280, 438] sec, n = 5 mice, p = 0.008, MWU).

It is important to note that relative to controls, PFFs-injected mice at 3 mpi showed

comparable general motor activity in locomotion test and rotarod test and similar levels of

anxiety elevated plus maze as measured by the time spent in open arms (**Supplementary Figure**

2). These data were consistent with previous report [3, 39, 40] and suggested that PFFs-injected

mice do not develop parkinsonian motor deficits or enhanced anxiety, which is important as

such behaviors could confound the social interaction behavioral test. Taken together, these

results suggested that PFFs-injected mice exhibited impaired social novelty preference and were

not able to distinguish between familiar- and novel-stimuli.

Supplementary Figure 2. PFFs-injected mice showed normal motor function and anxiety level at 3 mpi. A-C)

Summarized graphs showing no difference between controls and PFFs-injected mice in the locomotion test (A,

distance travelled, control = 33 [24, 44] m, n = 9 mice, PFFs = 33 [26, 37], n = 10 mice, p = 0.7, MWU), the rotarod

test (B, latency to fall, control = 58 [41, 71] sec, n = 9 mice, PFFs = 66 [51, 74] sec, n = 10 mice, p = 0.5, MWU) and

the elevated plus maze (C, % of time in open arm, control = 1 [1, 4.5]%, n= 9 mice, PFFs = 5 [3, 6]%, n = 10 mice, p =

0.08, MWU).

Interestingly, while the mPFC-BLA projections showed significant functional impairment

in PFFs-injected mice at 3 mpi, their presynaptic axonal terminals remained largely intact

(**Figures 3 and 5**). Given the critical role of mPFC inputs to the BLA in regulating social

interaction, we sought to determine whether the deficient social novelty preference behavior

could be rescued via activation of mPFC-BLA connections in PFFs-injected mice. To this end, we

injected retrograde AAV-FlpO into the BLA and AAV-fDIO-hM3D(Gq)-mCherry into the mFPC

(**Figure 6F**). This intersectional approach allows us to selectively stimulate mPFC-BLA synaptic

neurotransmission using a chemogenetic approach. Three weeks after viral infections, PFFs-

injected mice were subject to intraperitoneal injections of saline or deschlorozapine (DCZ)

followed by social novelty preference behavior test. After saline injection, while controls

showed normal social novelty preference, PFFs-injected mice were not able to distinguish novel-

versus familiar-stimulus mice (i.e., S2 *vs* S1, **Figure 6F**), consistent with our data from previous

cohort of animals (**Figure 6A-D**). In contrast, when PFFs-injected mice were subject to social

novelty preference test after DCZ injection, they showed strong preference to S2 *versus* S1

(**Figure 6I**), suggesting that their impaired social novelty preference has been rescued by

chemogenetic stimulation of mPFC-BLA connection (**Figure 6H, J**). Control mice showed normal

social novelty preference following DCZ injection (**Figure 6J**).

Altogether, the above data suggest that the social novelty preference was disrupted by

α-Syn pathology in PFFs-injected mice at 3 mpi. Importantly, such disruption correlated with

impaired mPFC-BLA synaptic connection, which was then rescued by chemogenetic stimulation

of the mPFC-BLA connection in the PFFs-injected mice.

Discussion

The present work studies circuitry events associated with the development of α-Syn pathology in mouse brain. By performing detailed anatomical and physiological analyses at multiple time points after triggering α-Syn pathology, we provided novel insight into how α-Syn aggregation impairs the connectivity and function of complex amygdala microcircuits. While most research in the field has focused on the processes that initiate, facilitate, and/or exacerbate α-Syn pathology formation and propagation, the present work highlights the less explored, yet important, circuitry dysfunction associated with α-Syn aggregation that can underlie some of the symptoms manifested by individuals afflicted by synucleinopathies. These studies are of clinical relevance as strategies to prevent worsening of α-Syn pathology and to repair the damaged circuits could make the current treatments for diseases like PD and DLB more effective.

Synaptic dysfunction occurs earlier than neurodegeneration in the BLA

We demonstrated that α-Syn aggregation compromises synaptic function before structural changes occur, including the loss of presynaptic axon terminal markers. In the context of our recent work, even though functional deficits of cortico-BLA synapse may occur as early as 1 mpi [26], but loss of cortico-BLA presynaptic marker vGluT1 was only detected at the 6 mpi timepoint (**Figure 3**). Moreover, BLA neurons are also prone to accumulating α-Syn aggregates, which perhaps results in the loss of spines at 3 mpi (**Figure 4**) and their degeneration at much later stages, i.e., 12 mpi (**Figure 2**). These observations are consistent with reports from the

nigrostriatal system in parkinsonian animals, showing deficits in dopamine release and

degeneration of axons prior to severe degeneration of dopaminergic neurons [4, 6, 21, 49, 50].

It is important to note that while BLA neurons exhibited loss of dendritic spines, the

initial release probability at cortico-BLA synapses increased at 3 and 6 mpi (**Figure 5**). This

observation is consistent with earlier findings from cultured hippocampal neurons, in which the

loss of postsynaptic spines and a paradoxical increase of presynaptic glutamate release were

reported [51]. Froula *et al* suggested that the enhanced presynaptic release probability might be

due to an increased size of readily releasable pool of neurotransmitters. Surprisingly, our

analysis showed that the dendritic spine density of BLA neurons returned to control levels at 12

mpi (**Figure 4**). It is however worth mentioning that this unexpected observation (as well as no

change in dendritic length of BLA neurons, Figure. 4G) can be the result of sampling bias during

our cell selection process for biocytin labeling at 12 mpi, because targeting dying and shrunk

cells is technically challenging. Overall, this can lead to an overrepresentation of healthier BLA

neurons in our dataset that are resilient to α-Syn pathology.

Synaptic dysfunction is sufficient to drive the manifestation of behavioral phenotypes

At the early stage of α-Syn based models, functional alterations of nigrostriatal pathway have

been reported to underlie the manifestation of parkinsonian motor deficits [4, 21, 52, 53]. In

the present study, we found that, prior to the loss of BLA neurons, mPFC-BLA synapses exhibited

functional impairment in PFFs-injected mice at 3 mpi, which temporally correlated with the

manifestation of defected social interaction behavior (**Figures 5 and 6**). Interestingly, the

impaired social novelty preference behavior was rescued by chemogenetic stimulation of the

defected mPFC-BLA pathway. Together, these findings support the hypothesis that synaptic

dysfunction is sufficient to drive the manifestation of behavioral phenotypes. The intrastriatal

PFFs-injected mice exhibited very specific deficits in emotion related behavior. For example,

while they exhibited deficits in social novelty preference (**Figure 6**) and social dominance

behavior [39], no change in their anxiety levels in the elevated plus maze test were detected

(**Supplementary Figure 2**, also see [39, 40]). Though compelling evidence suggests that both

social behavior and anxiety are tightly regulated by the amygdala, it is plausible that

performance in the elevated plus maze test may involves distinct amygdala subcircuits from

those activated during the 3-chamber social interaction test [54, 55].

Cell type-specific α-Syn expression and its implications in circuit dysfunction

In a complex circuit, not all afferents within the same neurochemical category are

equally affected by α-Syn aggregation. For example, vGluT2$^+$ glutamatergic axons arising from

the thalamus are more resilient relative to vGluT1$^+$ axons in the BLA, even at a later stage (e.g.,

12 mpi, **Figure 4**). This observation is largely consistent with lower *Snca* mRNA levels in thalamic

neurons as well as α-Syn expression in their axon terminals [26, 56]. Moreover, evidence in the

literature consistently reports that Lewy body-like pS129$^+$ somatic aggregates are more

abundant in cerebral cortical regions relative to thalamic regions in intrastriatal PFFs models [3,

26, 40, 41, 57], suggesting that the cerebral cortex and thalamus are affected differently by α-

Syn pathology in diseased state. Of relevance to the present work, it is known that cooperative

activity and plasticity of cortical and thalamic inputs are essential to normal amygdala function

in the formation and long-term storage of emotion memory [58, 59]. It remains to be

determined how the disrupted balance or cooperation of cortical and thalamic inputs to the BLA

might impair emotion encoding and regulation by the amygdala circuits. Remarkably, human

imaging studies reported that PD individuals diagnosed with depression showed a reduced

activation of the amygdala in the presence of aversive stimulations as well as a disconnected

cortical (but not the thalamic) inputs to the amygdala [33, 36]. Our findings of weakened

cortical, but not thalamic inputs, to the BLA might be of relevance to this clinical observation in

PD individuals exhibiting neuropsychiatric symptoms.

The complicated interaction and impact of α-Syn pathology on circuit function can also

partially explain why emotion dysregulation, including anxiety and depression, can occur at any

stages of the disease in PD or DLB individuals (e.g., even before the onset of motor symptoms),

which might vary depending on where the α-Syn pathology starts and how it can affect specific

circuits. While the present studies focus on the impact of α-Syn pathology on the amygdala

function and related behavior, we must acknowledge that degeneration of key neuromodulators

and their inputs to the amygdala (e.g., dopaminergic and noradrenergic systems) also play key

roles in the development of neuropsychiatric symptoms in PD and DLB.

Conclusion

We presented a combination of anatomical and physiological evidence to demonstrate a series

of circuitry events occurred in the amygdala circuits associated with α-Syn pathology in mouse

brain. Our findings not only support several well-accepted concepts in the field (e.g., synaptic

deficits prior to neurodegeneration), but also highlight the fact that we need to consider circuit

complexity before we can gain a thorough understanding on the contribution of α-Syn to brain

function in health and in diseased states.

List of abbreviations

BLA   basolateral amygdala

α-Syn   α-synuclein

PD   Parkinson's disease

DLB   Dementia with Lewy bodies

SNc   Substantia nigra pars compacta

PFFs   α-Syn preformed fibrils (PFFs).

EPSCs   excitatory postsynaptic currents

mPFC   medial prefrontal cortex

DREADDs   designer receptors exclusively activated by designer drugs

IL-mPFC   infralimbic subregion of mPFC

aCSF   artificial cerebrospinal fluid

R_s series resistance

PFA   paraformaldehyde

ANOVA   analysis of variance

$pS129^+$ phospho-Ser129

LN   Lewy neurite

LB   Lewy body

mpi   months-post-injection

vGluT1   vesicular glutamate transporter 1

vGluT2   vesicular glutamate transporter 2

SNCA   Alpha Synuclein

DCZ   deschloroclozapine

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