# Spreading alpha-synuclein Oligomers Trigger Astrocyte Changes and Astrocyte-Glutamatergic Neuron system dysfunction in an Age-related Manner

Jaehyun LeeBae[*2], Verena Bopp[*1], Alicia Goreth[2], Veselin Grozdanov[1], Julia K. Kühlwein[1], Ermanno Gazzola[2], Daniel Rombach[2], Laura Meier[1], Leda Dimou[1], Karin M. Danzer[1,2]

[1] Department of Neurology, University Clinic Ulm, 89081 Ulm, Germany
[2] German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE), 89081 Ulm, Germany
* These authors contributed equally

**Figures: 6**

**Additional Files: 22**

**Word count: 3521**

**Keywords:** Parkinson's disease, transgenic mouse model, α-synuclein, spreading, spatial transcriptomics, single-nuclei RNA-sequencing, aging, visium spatial, astrocyte, glutamate

**Correspondence:**

Prof. Dr. Karin Danzer

DZNE Ulm

Albert-Einstein-Allee 11

89081 Ulm

Karin.danzer@dzne.de

# Abstract

Background

Parkinson's disease (PD) is characterized by the progressive accumulation and spatio-temporal spread of α-synuclein (α-syn) oligomers and a progressive loss of dopaminergic neurons. Many studies showed a direct cytotoxic effect of α-syn oligomers on neurons. Other cell types including astrocytes were also reported to show specific responses to α-syn and are believed to play a role in the spreading of PD pathology.

Methods

To investigate the transcriptional and cellular consequences of α-syn oligomer spreading, we employed spatial transcriptomics and single-nucleus RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) in a transgenic PD mouse model expressing human α-syn in neurons. We further compared our findings to published public snRNA-seq datasets from human PD patients

Results

Our analysis identified α-syn spreading mostly to the substantia nigra and defined a transcriptional "Spreading Signature" associated with α-syn pathology. We found an age correlated increase in astrocytes, close interactions between astrocytes and α-syn, and transcriptional dysregulation of the astrocyte-glutamatergic neuron axis. We further identified two subtypes of glutamatergic neurons that are vulnerable to astrocytic changes. Comparative analysis with human PD snRNA-seq data showed concordant transcriptional changes related to astrocytic dysfunctions and diminished neuronal signaling.

Conclusion

25    Based on our results, we propose a model of α-syn oligomer spreading involving

26    astrocytes, glutamatergic synapses, and a disturbance in the astrocyte-glutamatergic

27    neuron axis.

## Background

Parkinson's disease (PD), a chronic progressive neurodegenerative disease, is

characterized pathologically by loss of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra

(SN) and the accumulation of aggregated α-synuclein (α-syn) in the form of Lewy

bodies(1). Histopathological postmortem studies suggest that the α-syn pathology

starts in the olfactory bulb and brainstem and then spreads progressively to axonally

connected areas throughout the CNS in a spatio-temporal manner, eventually

reaching the SN(2). Subsequent studies supported this theory as they reported the

propagation of α-syn pathology from host to graft in PD patients(3-5) and the cell-to-

cell spread of α-syn to anatomically connected regions in PD mouse models(6-9).

A substantial number of studies have demonstrated direct cytotoxic effects of

pathologic α-syn on neurons, e.g. by pore formation and calcium influx, sequestering

of the $Na^+/K^+$-ATPase, oxidative stress and mitochondrial damage(10-12). However,

other cell types can also be affected: microglia, astrocytes, oligodendrocytes and

infiltrating immune cells show specific responses to extracellular α-syn and are

believed to modulate the spread of pathology(13-15).

A powerful tool to investigate cellular changes by an extrinsic trigger is the study of

transcriptomic changes, which can illuminate mechanistic insights and therapeutic

targets in affected cells. Recent developments have enabled the resolution of

transcriptomic changes to single-cells or spatial domains(16, 17), which might help to

elucidate the exact pathological cascade involving α-syn aggregation and

transmission.

In a previous study, we established a transgenic PD human α-syn oligomer mouse model, showing neuronal cell-to-cell propagation of α-syn aggregates and α-syn pathology in SN, midbrain, and other regions(18). To investigate the spatial and cell-type-specific effects of α-syn oligomer spreading during aging *in-vivo*, we integrated single-nucleus RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) with spatial transcriptomics in this model, enabling us to assess the direct consequences of α-syn oligomer propagation.

## Methods

### *Generation and Housing of Transgenic Animals*

The transgenic mouse model B6.Cg-Tg(Camk2a-tTA)Mmay/DboJ x B6-Tg(ind alpha-syn split Venus)D1 GVO was established in collaboration with Dr. Björn von Einem (Department of Neurology) and Olena Sakk (Core Facility for Transgenic Animals) under the guidance of Dr. Bernd Baumann (Institute of Physiological Chemistry, Ulm University). Detailed phenotypic characterization of these transgenic mice has been previously published(18).

Mice were maintained under standardized environmental conditions at the Animal Research Center of Ulm University. The double-transgenic animals express V1S/SV2 and calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II alpha (Camk2a)(19), with transgene expression regulated by doxycycline in a Tet-off system(18). To suppress transgene expression, mice received 100 mg/ml doxycycline and 10 g/l glucose in drinking water; to activate expression, water contained glucose alone. Animals were group-housed in open polycarbonate type II long cages under controlled temperature, humidity and a 12-hour light/dark cycle, with food and water *ad libitum*. Cages were enriched with nesting material and polycarbonate shelters.

The V1S/SV2 model employs a bioluminescent protein complementation assay for

detecting α-syn aggregation. It expresses human wild-type α-syn fused to either the

N-terminal or C-terminal fragment of yellow fluorescent protein (YFP), termed V1S

and SV2, respectively. Co-expression of these two fragments enables reconstitution

of functional fluorescent protein upon aggregation of α-syn.

*Rotarod experiments*

All mice performed accelerating rotarod (Panlab Harvard LE8205) on the same days

and in the same order. The experiment was adjusted to increase from 4 to 40 rpm

over a period of 300 s and was carried out in three consecutive trials with a 5 min

break in between. The latency to fall was recorded and mean values were used for

analysis.

*Nuclei Isolation*

Approximately 100 mg of brain material was dissected from a single hemisphere (0 to

-5 mm relative to Bregma) using a mouse coronal brain matrix (Cell Point Scientific).

Tissue from two animals was pooled per preparation. All steps were carried out on

ice to maintain sample integrity. Samples were homogenized in 1,400 µl

homogenization buffer (320 mM Sucrose, 5 mM $CaCl_2$, 3 mM $Mg(Ac)_2$, 10 mM Tris

HCl pH 8, 0.1 mM EDTA pH 8, 0.1 % Nonidet P40 Substituent (NP-40), 1 mM β-

mercaptoethanol, 0.4 U/µl RiboLock in $H_2O$) using a douncer (pestles A and B). The

homogenate was filtered through 70 µm and 40 µm Flowmi cell strainers to eliminate

debris. 700 µl of the filtrate was combined with 450 µl working solution (50 % Opti-

Prep, 5 mM $CaCl_2$, 3 mM $Mg(Ac)_2$, 10 mM Tris HCl pH 8, 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 mM β-

mercaptoethanol in $H_2O$). A density gradient was prepared using 300 µl of 40 % Opti-

Prep, 750 µl of 30 % Opti-Prep and 700 µl of the homogenized tissue mixture. The

density gradient was centrifuged at 10,000 g for 5 min at 4 °C. 200 µl of the isolated

nuclei was transferred into a 1.5 ml low-DNA-binding tube and mixed with 250 µl 2 %

BSA/0.12 U/µl RiboLock in PBS. The mixture was centrifuged twice at 2,000 g for 3

min at 4 °C, resuspending each time in the same buffer. After a final filtration through

a 40 µm Flowmi cell strainer, nuclei were pelleted once more under identical

conditions. The pellet was resuspended in 50 µl of 1x nuclei buffer (10X Genomics

nuclei buffer diluted with 1 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and 1 U/µl RiboLock in $H_2O$). DAPI

staining confirmed nuclear membrane integrity before use in snRNA-seq

experiments. Procedures were done for three mice per condition.

*Single-nuclei RNA Sequencing*

Single-nucleus libraries were prepared using the "Chromium 3' Single Cell Gene

Expression and Library Kit" (10x Genomics) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. 22,000 nuclei from mouse brain tissue were loaded into the Chromium

Controller to generate Gel Beads-in-Emulsion (GEMs). Following GEM-RT

incubation, cDNA samples underwent recovery, purification and amplification. Quality

assessments on the amplified cDNA were conducted using a High Sensitivity DNA Kit

(Agilent) on a TapeStation platform.

Libraries were generated through fragmentation, adaptor ligation and Sample Index

PCR, then purified and re-evaluated on the TapeStation for fragment quality.

Sequencing was performed by Novogene (United Kingdom) on an Illumina NovaSeq

6000.

*Visium spatial brain slice preparation*

Fresh-frozen brain tissue was prepared for visium spatial gene expression analysis.

Animals were euthanized by fast cervical dislocation and brains were immediately

dissected. A metal beaker of isopentane was chilled in liquid nitrogen, ensuring full

contact between the two. Brains were embedded in TissueTek within cryomolds,

rapidly frozen in the cooled isopentane, transferred to dry ice and stored at -80 °C in a sealed container.

For sectioning, tissues were equilibrated in a -20 °C cryostat and cut into 10-12 µm sections. Each section was mounted onto a Visium gene expression slide by gently touching the active surface, then immediately stored at -80 °C to preserve RNA integrity and spatial organization. Preparations were performed for three mice per condition, with 3-4 brain slices per mouse.

*Visium spatial immunofluorescence staining*

Before visium spatial gene expression, the sections were incubated for 1 min at 37 °C and fixed in cold methanol for 30 min at -20 °C. All following steps were carried out in the Visium slide cassette. Sections were blocked with 70 µl of 1x Blocking Buffer (3x SSC Buffer, 2 % BSA, 0.1 % Triton X-100 (w/v), 1 U/µl RNase inhibitor, 10 % Ribonucleoside Vanadyl Complex in $H_2O$) for 5 min at RT. After removal, 50 µl of Primary Antibody Solution (3x SSC Buffer, 2 % BSA, 0.1 % Triton X-100, 6.4 U/µl RNase inhibitor in $H_2O$ with GFP antibody (Aves Lab, GFP-1010) diluted 1:50) was applied and incubated 30 min at RT. Following five washes with 100 µl of Wash Buffer (same composition as Blocking Buffer), sections were incubated with 50 µl of Secondary Antibody Solution (3x SSC Buffer, 2 % BSA, 0.1 % Triton X-100, 6.4 U/µl RNase inhibitor in $H_2O$ with secondary antibody (diluted 1:100 and DAPI 1:220) for 30 min at RT, followed by another five washes. Slides were removed from the cassette, dipped 20 times in 50 ml of 3x SSC buffer, and covered with 200 µl of Mounting Medium (85 % Glycerol, 2 U/µl Rnase inhibitor in $H_2O$) and a coverslip for immediate imaging. Afterwards, coverslips were detached in 3x SSC, and slides were returned to a clean Visium cassette for spatial gene expression analysis.

*Visium Spatial Gene Expression experiment*

Following fluorescence staining, spatial transcriptomic profiling was carried out using

the "Visium Spatial Gene Expression Slide & Reagent Kit" (10X Genomics) in

accordance with the manufacturer's protocol. Tissue sections underwent  controlled

permeabilization to release intracellular RNA, followed by reverse transcription and

second strand synthesis to generate double-stranded cDNA. After denaturation,

cDNA was PCR-amplified and purified to remove by-products. The purified cDNA was

then subjected to fragmentation, end repair and A-tailing to create 3' ends compatible

with adapter ligation. Post-ligation cleanup removed excess adapters, and a sample

index PCR introduced unique sample indices for multiplexed sequencing.

*Immunohistochemistry imaging of sagittal brain slices*

Animals were anesthetized via intraperitoneal injection of 10% ketamine and 2%

xylazine, followed by transcardial perfusion with 1x PBS for 8 min and 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 20 min (flow rate 3 ml/min). Brains were dissected and

post-fixed in 4% PFA for 30 min at room temperature (RT) followed by incubation in

30% sucrose at 4°C for 2 days. To generate slices, brains were partially embedded in

Tissue Tek and frozen at -20 °C for 30 min. Sagittal sections (30 µm) were cut using

a Leica CM1950 Cryostat (chamber temperature -20 °C; block temperature -20 °C)

and immediately stored in 1x PBS.

Sagittal brain slices were washed three times with 1X PBS for 10 min and

blocked/permeabilized with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) and 0.5% Triton-X in

PBS for 1 h. Primary antibodies were diluted in blocking/permeabilization solution

and incubated over night at 4°C. After washing three times with 1X PBS for 10 min

secondary antibodies were diluted in blocking/permeabilization solution and

incubated for 2 h at RT. Slices were washed three times with 1X PBS for 10 min and

incubated in DAPI (dilution 1:1000 in PBS) for 10 min. For quenching slices were

dried on a slide and incubated in TrueBlack solution (20X TrueBlack to 1X in 70%
ethanol). After washing with 1X PBS, slices were mounted with Fluoromount-G.
Imaging was done using a confocal LSM980 microscope and formatted using Imaris
10.1.1. Astrocytes were manually counted and statistical testing was performed via
unpaired Student´s t-test in GraphPad Prism 9.5.1.

*Sequencing and alignment of single nucleus samples*

Paired 150bp snRNA-seq was performed using the 10X Genomics Gene Expression
(GEX) 3´protocol with a NovaSeq 6000 sequencer. For the alignment of reads, a
custom reference was created by adding the sequences of the V1S/SV2 transgene
and the *Camk2a* promoter to the mm10 mouse reference genome. Count matrices
were obtained using the *cellranger count 7.1*(20) pipeline, including introns.

*Sequencing and alignment of visium spatial samples*

Sequences were fiducially aligned to spots using Loupe Browser ver. 8. All aligned
sequences were mapped using *spaceranger count* 3.0.1 with a custom reference,
which included sequences for the promotor and transgene (Camk2aTTA, V1S/SV2)
to the mouse genome mm39.

*Quality Control of snRNA*

Count matrices generated by *cellranger count 7.1(20)* were loaded into an AnnData
object and processed using the Python-based framework *Scanpy 1.10.2(21)*.
Integration with R, where needed, was facilitated through the rpy2 package. Raw
count matrices were corrected for ambient RNA contamination using the *SoupX*
*1.6.2(22)*. To remove potential doublets, *scDblFinder 1.18.0(23)* was employed with a
fixed seed (123). Nuclei with nUMI and nGenes values exceeding three median
absolute deviations (MADs) from the median were excluded. Genes detected in
fewer than five nuclei across the dataset were excluded. The resulting dataset was

normalized via *scanpy.pp.normalize_total* and *scanpy.pp.log1p*. Highly variable

genes were identified using the function *scanpy.pp.highly_variable_genes* with the

Seurat v3 flavor, selecting the top 4,000 genes. Dimensionality reduction was

performed using principal component analysis (PCA) and batch effects were

corrected using the python-implemented version of Harmony via the function

*scanpy.external.pp.harmony_integrate*. Harmony embeddings were then used to

construct a k-nearest neighbor (kNN) graph with *scanpy.pp.neighbors*. Clustering

was performed using Leiden clustering with standard parameters via the function

*scanpy.tl.leiden*.

*Quality Control of visium spatial*

We filtered each sample of the visium spatial dataset based on the MAD filtering of

number of reads (nUMI), number of genes (nGene), and percentage of mitochondrial

genes (percent.mt). A spot was filtered out if it was outside of 3x MAD value in at

least two metrics. Filtered samples were merged into one Seurat 5.1.0 object(24) and

we obtained normalized counts by the *SCTransform* function of Seurat. Integration

was performed using *Harmony 1.2.0(25)* on 50 PCA embeddings and clustering was

done using Leiden clustering based on 30 harmony embeddings. Integrated clusters

were visualized using the UMAP method. Samples that were not successfully

integrated (based on similarity measures of the harmony embeddings) and showed

high percentage.mt or low nUMI levels compared to other samples, were removed

from subsequent analysis. A final integration and clustering were performed after

filtering.

*Annotation of Cell types in snRNA*

Clusters were annotated using literature, the mousebrain (mousebrain.org)(26), and

markers identified via the *FindConservedMarkers* function in Seurat. First, neurons

and non-neuronal cells were distinguished using mainly canonical markers, such as

but not limited to *Rbfox3* (neurons), *Mbp* (oligodendrocytes), *Acsbg1* (astrocytes),

*Pdgfra* (oligodendrocyte precursor cells), *Inpp5d* (microglia), *Colec12* (vascular cells),

and *Ttr* (choroid plexus cells). Neurons were further classified into Vglut1 (*Slc17a7*),

Vglut2 (*Slc17a6*), GABA (*Gad2*), cholinergic (*Scube1*), and dopaminergic (*Th*)

neurons. Vglut1 and GABA neurons were further annotated into subtypes based on

subclustering and *FindConservedMarkers* markers. A full list of markers and cell

types can be found in the Suppl. Table 5.

*Annotation of Regions in visium spatial*

Regions were first annotated based on a 0.1 resolution clustering to get high level

region annotation (Cortex, Hippocampus, Subcortex). Each high-level region was

further annotated based on either more granular resolutions or subclustering. Marker

genes from mousebrain (mousebrain.org)(26) and literature were used in

combination with the Allen mouse brain atlas(27, 28) to obtain anatomically relevant

annotations. All used markers can be seen in Suppl. Table 1.

*Differential Gene Expression Analysis for snRNA*

Counts were pseudo-bulked to sample level and filtered for counts above three in at

least two samples. Mitochondrial and ribosomal genes were also removed. We

created a *Deseq2 1.44.0* object(29, 30) to normalize counts and calculate covariates

using *sva 3.52.0*(31). Sva covariates and condition were included into the design (~

SV1 + condition) to perform Wald testing. P-values were recalculated using *fdrtool*

*1.2.18*(32) with the "stat" values and adjusted p-values were obtained by Benjamini-

Hochberg(33) procedure as applied in the R function *p.adjust*. A gene was

considered significantly differentially expressed if the change was below an FDR of

0.05.

*Differential Gene Expression Analysis for visium spatial*

Counts were pseudo-bulked to Sample-Region. For the "Spreading Signature" we

compared Sample-Spreading Area to Sample-No Spreading Area. Counts were

filtered for counts above three in at least three samples and mitochondrial genes

were removed. Covariates were calculated using sva on a sample wise paired

design, which led to the final design: ~ SV1 + condition + condition:sample.n +

condition:region. Wald testing was performed, p-values were recalculated using

fdrtool with the "stat" values and adjusted p-values were obtained by Benjamini-

Hochberg procedure as applied in the R function *p.adjust*. Cell number differences

between the regions were accounted for by subsampling to a maximum number of

cells of two-fold difference. Subsampling was performed accordingly and everything

was run 100 times. Only genes that were below 0.05 FDR in at least 95 of 100 runs

were deemed as significant. All differential results can be seen in the Suppl. Table 2.

*Ligand-Receptor Analysis for visium spatial*

Ligand-Receptor (LR) interactions were calculated using *stlearn 0.4.12(34)* on an

object of raw counts. Counts were filtered by pp.*filter_genes* function with the

*min_cells* parameter of 3. Normalization was performed by pp.*normalize_total*

function. The used LR database was downloaded from stlearn via *tl.cci.load_lrs* with

species set as "mouse" for the "connectomeDB2020_lit" database. Spatially relevant

significant LR pairs were calculated by *tl.cci.run* with parameters *min_spots = 20,*

*distance = None,* and *n_pairs = 10,000* followed by *tl.cci.run_cci* with the parameters

*min_spots = 3, spot_mixtures = False, sig_spots = True,* and *n_perms = 1,000.*

*Transcription Factor Analysis*

Transcription factors were found using *decoupleR 2.10.0* architecture(35). We used

the Deseq2 output for the Spreading Signature as input into the function run_ulm()

with the standard parameters. We used the collectTRI mouse database as *net* and

set minsize to 5.

<u>*Inference of Networks*</u>

Using PIDC, the most interconnected genes were chosen based on T. E. Chan et al..

PIDC, based on Partial Information Decomposition (PID), infers statistical

dependencies between triplets of genes from a single-cell gene expression matrix by

assigning a confidence score to each interaction. Only the genes with a top 5%

confidence score were used to build an interaction network using curated public

databases of known interactions. Central genes were defined based on the

betweenness centrality scores calculated via the *igraph 2.0.3(36)* architecture.

<u>*Finding Interactions in interaction databases*</u>

The OmniPath database(37) was accessed using *OmnipathR 3.11.16(37)* and

combined with interactions having a confidence score above 0.600 from full network

type STRING(38). We included protein complexes and post translational

modifications from OmniPath as interactions. An interaction was considered "Found"

in the database, if the connection had a maximum of one bridge gene between the

two interactors.

<u>*Spot deconvolution*</u>

Visium spatial spots were deconvoluted using an annotated snRNA dataset from the

same mouse model. We used the *CARD 1.1* package(39) to deconvolute sample

wise each spot for astrocyte, microglia, oligodendrocyte, OPC, vascular cells, choroid

plexus, cholinergic neurons, dopaminergic neuron, GABAergic neuron, Vglut1

neuron, and Vglut2 neuron. The default parameters were used for creating and

deconvoluting CARD object with minCountGene set to 100 and minCountSpot to 5.

<u>*Analysis of Cell type composition differences*</u>

Cell type composition was based on the percentages from deconvoluted spots by

CARD. Most probable changes were calculated using *tascCODA 0.1.3(40)* by using

all cell types as a reference once. Changes were deemed significant if it was

changed in at least 66% of reference iterations with a maximum p-value of 0.2.

*Module Score Analysis*

Module score of "Spreading Signature" for snRNA dataset was obtained using the

Seurat function AddModuleScore. The difference of Module Scores between

conditions per cell type was tested for significance using the Wilcoxon-mann-Whitney

test(41) via the R function *wilcox.test().* We calculated the effect size for each

comparison using the *cliff.delta()* R function(42).

*Term Enrichment analysis*

GO and KEGG term enrichment was performed using the R packages *clusterProfiler*

*4.12.1(43)* and *pathfindR 2.4.1(44)* respectively. Both were run with default

parameters, with minGSSize for enrichGO function set to 15. Enriched KEGG terms

containing one of the terms "Addiction, Corona, Infection, Invasion, Cancer, Alcohol,

Chagas disease, Cushing, Glioma, Melano, Oocyte, Hepatitis, Tuberculosis, African,

Viral, Carcinoma, Circadian, Cardiomyocytes, Leukemia, cardiomyopathy" were not

considered for downstream analysis. For enriched GO or KEGG terms from Vglut1

subtypes we only considered terms relevant containing one of the terms "synapse,

synaptic, neurotransmitter, vesicle, transmitter, astrocyte, astrocytic, transmembrane

signaling, cell adhesion"

*Comparing with Human data*

We used three published human snRNA-seq datasets(16, 17, 45). For comparing

mouse Astro-Slc1a2 data to human data, we used the original annotation from the

original publications, isolated the Astrocyte, ran *Deseq2 1.44.0*(29, 30) on each

dataset (pseudo-bulked on sample level) and compared the log2 fold changes to the

mouse data. For comparing the "Spreading Signature" we pseudo-bulked every

human dataset on a sample level and ran *Deseq2 1.44.0*(29, 30) to compare log2

fold changes.

## Results

**Defining a Spreading Area and "Spreading Signature"**

To study the spatial characteristics of α-syn spreading in PD, we utilized our

transgenic α-syn PD mouse model that recapitulates α-syn oligomer propagation and

accumulation at synapses within specific forebrain and midbrain regions, including

the SN(18).

Transcriptional changes in response to α-syn oligomer spreading were determined

using visium spatial transcriptomics on brain slices of 20-months (20M) and 3-months

(3M) old mice from the previously described PD mouse model with an age and α-syn

oligomer dependent motoric phenotype (Additional File 1), which is based on a

human α-syn protein complementation system expressing α-syn fused to non-

fluorescent Venus YFP halves (V1S and SV2). Fluorescent Venus YFP (V1S/SV2) is

reconstituted when α-syn oligomerization takes place (Figure 1 a). We included two

conditions: Double-transgenic mice expressing V1S/SV2 under the control of the tTA-

Camk2a transgene (ON) and single-transgenic mice lacking the tTA-Camk2a

transgene (OFF) as control (Figure 1 a). Our model enabled the visualization of the

presence of α-syn protein (V1S/SV2 signal) on a spatial level (Figure 1 b) and visium

spatial transcriptomics supplying the corresponding mRNA levels of V1S/SV2 (Figure

1 c).

After filtering and clustering the integrated data (Additional File 1) we annotated

spatially distinct cell clusters based on transcriptional mouse brain markers(26) and

regional annotations from the Allen mouse brain atlas(27, 28) (Figure 1 d, Additional

File 2 a, Additional File 3).

**Figure 1. Identification of a "Spreading Area" with spreading α-syn oligomers in an *in-vivo* PD**

**mouse model**

**a,** Schematic representation of the experimental design. Brain tissues from aged mice in a Venus-

tagged human α-syn oligomer-based PD model was used to generate two datasets: Visium spatial

transcriptomics and snRNA. Both datasets included two conditions: ON (double-transgenic mice with

V1S/SV2 α-syn oligomer expression under the control of tTA-Camk2a transgene) and OFF (single-

transgenic mice without tTA-Camk2a). The visium spatial dataset comprised 3–4 brain slices per

mouse, with samples from three mice per condition, while the snRNA-seq dataset included samples

from three mice per condition. **b,** Using the V1S/SV2 signal, which only emerges if at least two α-syn

combine together, we evaluated visually the presence of V1S/SV2 proteins on mouse brain slices. c,

The mRNA levels of V1S/SV2 was also obtained on a spatial level using visium spatial

transcriptomics. d, Brain slices in the visium spatial dataset were annotated using Louvain clustering,

regional markers obtained from mousebrain (mousebrain.org)(26) or comparing obtained markers

from Wilcoxon rank sum test to published markers (Additional File 3), and anatomical information from

the allen mouse brain atlas(27, 28). This approach enabled the assignment of anatomically relevant

cluster annotations. **e,** As we used the same brain slices for V1S/SV2 Signal and V1S/SV2 mRNA

levels, we could calculate a protein to mRNA ratio per annotated region. The Subcortex showed the

highest protein to mRNA ratio, suggesting V1S/SV2 spreading into the Subcortex. f, To further

characterize the Subcortex we subclustered the Subcortex and obtained four clusters. Notably, Cluster

2 was the sole cluster to be regionally distinct and representative of the region with the highest

V1S/SV2 protein levels. g, Thus, we split the annotation of the Subcortex into the regions of interest

(ROI) "Spreading Area" and "No Spreading Area". Indeed, the higher ratio between signal and mRNA

was clearly driven by the "Spreading Area".

As we used the same brain slices for both V1S/SV2 protein and V1S/SV2 mRNA

detection, we calculated the ratio between the V1S/SV2 protein (mean Venus

intensity by ImageJ(46)) and V1S/SV2 mRNA levels (Figure 1 e). Notably, the

Subcortex showed elevated ratio levels, implying α-syn oligomer spreading to the

Subcortex (Figure 1 e).

To further investigate the Subcortex we subclustered the Subcortex into 4

transcriptionally distinct clusters (Figure 1 f). Only cluster 2 showed a spatially distinct

character and was representative of the region with a high ratio between V1S/SV2

protein to V1S/SV2 mRNA levels (Figure 1 f, g). We named the cluster 2 "Spreading

Area" and the rest of the Subcortex "No Spreading Area" (Figure 1 g). It should be

mentioned that the "Spreading Area" overlapped with both the substantia nigra (SN)

pars compacta and pars reticulata and non-SN regions based on Allen mouse brain

atlas(27, 28) (Additional File 2).

This distinction provided a framework to investigate transcriptional changes

associated with the spreading of α-syn oligomers. By comparing the transcriptional

profiles of the "Spreading Area" and "No Spreading Area" we aimed to elucidate

transcriptional consequences of propagation of α-syn oligomers.

For the characterization of the "Spreading Area", we defined a "Spreading Signature"

comprising two components: First, differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were

identified by comparing the "Spreading Area" and "No Spreading Area" regions

(Additional File 4, Additional File 5). Only DEGs that were significant in the ON

condition but not in the OFF condition were included (Figure 2 a, Additional File 6).

Second, using the aforementioned DEGs, transcription factors (TFs) that actively

regulate these DEGs were inferred (Figure 2 a). Together, these analyses resulted in

a transcriptional "Spreading Signature" encompassing a total of 135 genes/TFs (Figure 2 a, Additional File 7).

**Figure 2. α-syn oligomer spreading related transcriptional changes differ between "Spreading Area" and α-syn mRNA expressing regions**

**a,** To investigate transcriptional changes associated with spreading, we conducted a differential gene expression analysis comparing the "Spreading Area" and "No Spreading Area" regions. We retained only DEGs that were unique to the ON condition ("ON-Spreading Area" vs. "ON-No Spreading Area"), subtracting those already identified in the OFF condition ("OFF-Spreading Area" vs. "OFF-No Spreading Area"). These ON-specific DEGs were subsequently analyzed for TF activity using the decoupleR(35) framework. Relevant TFs and the 20M ON-specific DEGs were consolidated to define the "Spreading Signature." **b,** Heatmaps depicting similarities between annotated regions are shown. The left heatmap illustrates region similarities based on Pearson correlation of the log2 fold changes between annotated regions and "No Spreading Area" of the "Spreading Signature" genes. Notably, the "Spreading Signature" was absent in regions with native high expression of V1S/SV2 mRNA. This grouping pattern was mirrored in the right similarity heatmap for the high V1S/SV2 mRNA level regions, derived from the Aitchison similarity of the deconvoluted cell type compositions of every annotated region. This grouping pattern suggests that transcriptional differences between regions are partially explainable by variations in cell type composition for cortical and hippocampal regions. **c,** Changes in region-to-region LR interactions from OFF to ON conditions visualized on an exemplary sample. Notably, interactions between "Spreading Area" and the ventral tegmental area (VTA) increased nearly six-fold.

To examine whether the "Spreading Signature" was unique to the "Spreading Area" we performed likeness analysis by comparing how the "Spreading Signature" was expressed in every annotated region compared to the "No Spreading Area". We found that the "Spreading Signature" was similarly changed in the "Spreading Area", "Cortex Cluster 4", and "Hippocampus Cluster" (Figure 2 b heatmap left). The other cortical and hippocampal regions with high mRNA levels of V1S/SV2 did not show

similarities to the "Spreading Area" but instead obtained high correlation between

each other (Figure 2 b heatmap left). This indicates that the α-syn oligomer spreading

related transcriptional changes in the "Spreading Area" are not present in regions

with high mRNA expression of V1S/SV2.

We hypothesized that these differences were primarily attributable to variations in cell

type composition between regions, thus visium spatial spots were deconvoluted

using snRNA-seq data from the same mouse model and cell type compositions

between the regions were compared. Indeed, the comparison indicated that the

differences in the "Spreading Signature" between the "Spreading Area" and the

cortical or hippocampal regions were largely explained by cell type composition

differences (Figure 2 b heatmap right, Additional File 6).

Additionally, ligand-receptor (LR) analysis revealed significant alterations in

interregional communications between different regions in response to V1S/SV2

oligomers mainly involving the "Spreading Area" (Figure 2 c, Additional File 8).

Notably, intercellular communication between the "Spreading Area" and the tyrosine

hydroxylase (TH) enriched ventral tegmental area (VTA) increased nearly six-fold in

20M mice when α-syn oligomers were present, pointing to a strong impact of α-syn

oligomers on the interactions between VTA and the "Spreading Area" (Figure 2 c).

**α-syn spreading promotes astrocyte/neuron dysfunction**

To understand the biological and molecular meaning of the "Spreading Signature",

we constructed a transcriptional network with PIDC(47) using the "Spreading

Signature" and transcriptional data from the "Spreading Area" in 20M ON mice. We

found that the resulting network was composed of two subnetworks (Figure 3 a): The

first subnetwork was predominantly associated with astrocytic uptake and

neurotransmitter processing, including genes such as *Slc1a2*, an astrocyte-enriched

glutamate/excitatory amino acid transporter (EAAT2) critical for glutamate clearance

and processing at synapses (Figure 3 a, Additional File 7). The second subnetwork

was linked to astrocyte–neuron interaction dysfunctions, such as the astrocyte-

neuron pre-protein/neurotransmitter *Penk* (Additional File 7). Together, network

analysis suggested a central role of astrocytes in α-syn spreading.

**Figure 3. *In-silico* analysis indicate central role of astrocytes in response to α-syn oligomer**

**spreading.**

**a,** A network was constructed using the "Spreading Signature," transcriptional data from the

"Spreading Area", and known interactions from omniPath(37) and STRING(38) via the PIDC(47)

algorithm. The network revealed two distinct subnetworks, with central genes identified based on

betweenness centrality scores for both subnetworks. Functional annotations of the network genes,

linked both subnetworks to astrocyte–neuron interactions, including astrocytic uptake and

neurotransmitter glutamate processing (Suppl. Table 3). **b,** Significant changes in cell type composition

between the OFF and ON conditions were assessed by taking the deconvoluted cell type ratios per

region as cell type numbers and using tascCODA(40). Shown here are the top three most represented

cell types in the "Spreading Area". Astrocytes exhibited a significant (*: FDR < 0.2 in 60% of

tascCODA(40) iterations) increase in numbers in the "Spreading Area", whereas no significant

changes were observed in the "No Spreading Area". **c,** Comparison of senescence levels across

conditions and regions using the SenMayo(48) gene set. Scores are scaled to the mean of 3M OFF

set to one. We only observed in the "Spreading Area" a significant (unpaired t-test on a sample level, *

FDR < 0.05) increase in senescence between the age groups. "No Spreading Area" showed no

significant changes.

To further elucidate the central role of astrocytes, we investigated whether the

astrocyte numbers were altered in the "Spreading Area" between On and OFF

conditions. We used the deconvoluted ratios of cell types per region (Additional File

9) as cell type numbers to run tascCODA(40) between conditions. Indeed, we could

observe a significant increase of astrocyte numbers in the "Spreading Area" in

response to α-syn oligomers (Figure 3 b). This increase in astrocyte numbers was not

observed in the "No Spreading Area".

Furthermore, we also found senescence changes to differ between the "Spreading

Area" and "No Spreading Area". We employed the SenMayo gene set(48)  and

studied possible changes of senescence in the "Spreading Area" between ages and

α-syn oligomer presence. We observed a significantly higher enrichment of the

SenMayo gene set in the "Spreading Area" during aging (Figure 3 c), while α-syn

oligomer expression had no notable effect on senescence (Figure 3 c). The "No

Spreading Area" showed no significant changes in the senescence during aging nor

as a response to α-syn oligomer expression (Figure 3 c). This suggests that the

"Spreading Area" has a predisposition being vulnerable for age related changes

compared to the "No Spreading Area". This might be responsible for the

accumulation of spread α-syn oligomers in the "Spreading Area" eventually leading to

the observed transcriptional changes in astrocytic function (Figure 3 a).

To further characterize interactions between astrocytes and α-syn oligomers in the

SN   and   to   verify   the   increase   of   astrocyte   numbers,   we   conducted

immunohistochemical (IHC) staining of 20M brain slices of our V1S/SV2 mice

visualizing astrocytes, α-syn oligomers, and dopaminergic neurons (Figure 4,

Additional File 10). Manual counting indeed confirmed our *in-silico* findings and

revealed a significant increase in astrocyte numbers in response to α-syn oligomers

in the SN of aged PD mice. Moreover, astrocytes displayed morphological changes

towards hypertrophic astrocytes with thickened and elongated processes. (Figure 4 a,

b).

**Figure 4. Expression of α-syn oligomers leads to increase in astrocytes in the SN**

**a,** Using brain slices from 20M mice from our PD model we performed IHC staining of astrocytes (GFAP, red) and cell nuclei (DAPI, blue). Number of astrocytes were manually counted. Microscopy images on the left show representative images of the OFF and ON conditions with white arrows highlighting astrocytes included in the count. White boxes are zoomed in images of the white arrow astrocytes. Quantification of astrocytes in the SN revealed a significant increase in their numbers in response to α-syn oligomer expression (n = 6 per condition; mean ± SD; unpaired t-test, *p < 0.05, 40× magnification). **b,** Surface rendering of astrocytes, V1S/SV2 α-syn oligomers (Venus signal amplified by GFP, green), and dopaminergic neurons (TH, orange) staining using the Imaris software on a representative 20M ON brain slice. We observed contacts and close proximity between neurons, astrocytes and V1S/SV2. **c,** Z-stack maximum intensity projections of IHC staining in 20M ON SN showed two distinct localization patterns of the V1S/SV2: (Engulfing) V1S/SV2 was found in close proximity to astrocytes being enclosed but not taken up by folding astrocytes and (Colocalization) colocalized within astrocytes. **d,** Magnified orthogonal projections of "Colocalization" and "Engulfing" arrows in C. Bottom image: XZ-plane, right image: YZ-plane, middle image: XY-plane. DAPI: Nucleus, GFAP: astrocytes, GFP: V1S/SV2, TH: Dopaminergic neuron

Extracellular α-syn was mostly found at the end feet of astrocytes and synaptic ends (Figure 4 b).   We further observed two distinct localization patterns of α-syn oligomers in the context of astrocytes: (1) Colocalization: α-syn taken up by astrocytes and (2) Engulfing: α-syn engulfed by astrocytes but not taken up (Figure 4 c, d).

While visium spatial offers reliable spatial transcriptomic information, it does not offer cell type specific data. Thus, to further strengthen the central role of astrocytes affected by α-syn spreading we utilized snRNA-seq data from the same mouse model at 23 months to obtain cell type specific data.  After thorough quality control and annotation (Additional File 11, Additional File 12), we quantified the expression of the "Spreading Signature" (split into up and down regulated) across all cell types and conditions in our snRNA-seq dataset (Figure 5 a). Only the astrocytic subtypes - Astro-Slc1a2 and Astro-Slc6a1 - exceeded the significance threshold (FDR < 0.05 &

Effect size > 0.15; Figure 5 a) but notably only for the up regulated "Spreading

Signature" genes. This again cemented the strong role of astrocytes in α-syn

spreading found by visium spatial data analysis with an added focus on the up

regulated genes in the context of astrocytes.

Taken together, using spatial transcriptomics data, IHC data, as well as snRNA-seq

data we could show the increase of astrocyte numbers, their interaction with α-syn

oligomer in the SN in aged PD mice, and the importance of astrocytes in the context

of α-syn oligomer spreading.

**Figure 5. Motoric deficits and α-syn oligomer spreading related transcriptional changes of**

**astrocytes are age related**

**a,** Using snRNA data from 23M old mice of our PD mouse model we calculated a Module Score of our

"Spreading Signature" for all annotated cell types using the Seurat(24) function *AddModuleScore*.

Comparing the scores between the conditions, only the astrocytic subtypes cleared the significance

threshold of FDR < 0.05 and effect size (cliff delta) > 0.15 (Wilcoxon rank sum test) in the up regulated

"Spreading Signature" genes. **b,** We investigated our "Spreading Signature" of interest from 20M

across the ages by comparing the log2 Fold Changes of the "Spreading Area" vs. "No Spreading Area"

comparison in the visium spatial data between 3M and 20M. While the down-regulated genes were

similar in the 3M and 20M, we observed heightened up-regulation in the up-regulated genes at 20M.

**c,** We checked the function of the 3M "Spreading Signature" by GO and KEGG term enrichment

analysis. For visualization enriched GO and KEGG terms (FDR < 0.05) were clustered by similarity

and only representative terms of the clusters were visualized. Down-regulated genes were linked to

neuronal, synaptic, and calcium signaling terms while up-regulated genes were enriched in ribosomal,

cytoskeleton, and mitochondrial functions

**Astrocytic dysfunction driven by α-syn spreading is correlated with aging**

Next, we went back to the visium spatial data to analyze the "Spreading Area" also in

younger mice (3M) and asked whether related transcriptional changes also occur in

young mice. Using the same methods as for the 20M PD mice, we confirmed α-syn

oligomer spreading in the same region in the 3M PD visium spatial data (Additional

File 14). Notably, the down-regulated genes from the 20M "Spreading Signature"

were similarly regulated in 3M and 20M while, the up-regulated genes were highly

elevated upon aging (Figure 5 b). We had already shown that especially the up

regulated genes in the "Spreading Signature" from the 20M old animals are enriched

in the astrocyte subtypes (Figure 5 a). This suggests that aging amplifies the

transcriptional changes of astrocytes in response to α-syn oligomer spreading.

To get a more holistic transcriptional comparison between the age groups, we

determined the transcriptional characteristics of the 3M "Spreading Area" and defined

a "Spreading Signature" for the 3M old mice as for the 20M mice (Additional File 16,

Additional File 17). There was only a miniscule overlap between the 20M "Spreading

Signature" and the 3M "Spreading Signature" (Additional File 15).

We further investigated the function of the 3M "Spreading Signature" and found

genes related to neuronal, synaptic, and calcium signaling function to be down-

regulated, while up-regulated genes were involved in ribosome, cytoskeleton, and

mitochondrial function (Figure 5 c).

Taken together, our findings suggest that the neuronal function has some disruptions

already at 3M that further progress during aging (Figure 5 c). During aging,

astrocytes get affected by α-syn oligomers (Figure 4; Figure 5 a, b; Additional File

15), which may enhance the disruptive load on neuronal function (Figure 5 c).

**Dysregulation of the astrocyte-neuron glutamate system**

As the Astro-Slc1a2 subtype had most of the significant DEGs when comparing ON

vs OFF conditions in astrocytes (Additional File 13) and due to the presence of

*Slc1a2* as a central gene in the "Spreading Signature" (Figure 3 a) we focused further

downstream analysis on the Astro-Slc1a2 cell type.

Our special interest was to study a potential impact of astrocyte dysfunction on

neurons. We used our snRNA-seq data from 23M old mice and obtained DEGs

between PD ON vs. OFF. Using the DEGs we performed Gene Ontology (GO) and

KEGG pathway enrichment analyses.

GO and KEGG pathway analysis highlighted glutamatergic synapses,

neurotransmitter cycles and TCA-cycle metabolism (Figure 6 a). Furthermore, we

constructed a network for the Astro-Slc1a2 DEGs from the mouse snRNA-seq data

(Additional File 15) and found *Grm5* as a prominent central gene which corresponds

to the metabotropic glutamatergic receptor 5 (mGluR5) on a protein level that plays

an essential role in glutamate signaling and astrocyte-neuron interactions(49-51)

(Additional File 18).

**Figure 6. snRNA shows α-syn oligomer related disruptions in the Astrocyte-glutamatergic**

**neuron axis (Astro-GluN)**

**a,** Enriched Gene Ontology (GO) and KEGG terms of the Astro-Slc1a2 DEGs showed terms related to

glutamatergic synapses, neurotransmitter cycles and Astro-GluN axis. **b,** GO and KEGG pathway

enrichment analyses were performed on DEGs from each glutamatergic subtype. We filtered for

significant terms (padj < 0.05) and visualized particularly terms related to "synapse" or "astrocyte" (s.

Methods: *Term Enrichment analysis*). Notably, only the Vglut1-Npas3 and Vglut1-Col19a1 subtypes

included "astrocyte projection" among its significant terms, highlighting a unique link between these

subtypes and astrocytic processes. **c,** Comparison of log2 foldchanges of Astro-Slc1a2 DEGs between

mouse and human snRNA datasets. We employed three published human snRNA-seq datasets(16,

17, 45) from the substantia nigra of PD patients and age-/sex-matched controls. Left compares the

log2 fold changes of Astro-Slc1a2 DEGs from our snRNA-seq data to the log2 fold changes between

PD and Control in astrocytes in each human dataset. The right compares the log2 fold changes

between "Spreading Area" and "No Spreading Area" at 20M ON from our mouse visium spatial data to

the log2 fold changes between PD and Control in each bulked human dataset. We saw 25 genes that

were changed concordantly on the left in all datasets and 32 genes on the right.

Together, we found *Grm5* – essential for glutamate signaling – as a central gene in

the vulnerable *Slc1a2* enriched astrocyte subtype, indicating dysfunctions in the

astrocyte-glutamatergic neurons (Astro-GluN) interactions in response to α-syn

oligomers.

Focusing on glutamatergic neurons, we used our mouse snRNA-seq dataset and

annotated 13 distinct glutamatergic neuron subtypes (Additional File 11) and studied

GO and KEGG terms for each glutamatergic subtype. Interestingly, we obtained the

term "astrocyte projection" as a significantly enriched term in the subtypes Vglut1-

Npas3 and Vglut1-Col19a1 (Figure 6 b). Both cell types also significantly

downregulated *Grm3* (Additional File 19, Additional File 20), a gene transcribing the

metabotropic glutamate receptor 3 (mGluR3). This aligned with our previous

observations since astrocytes already pointed to mGluR5 to be central in α-syn

oligomer related changes. These findings suggest that those two subtypes are more

affected by astrocytic changes and potentially to the aforementioned dysfunctions in

the Astro-GluN axis, with mGluRs possibly playing a pivotal role in the transmission

of pathology between astrocytes and neurons (Additional File 21, Additional File 22).

Based on our findings in PD mice including analysis of visium spatial data, snRNA-

seq data, and confocal imaging, we could center the effects of α-syn oligomer

spreading to astrocytes and changes in the Astro-GluN axis in two distinct

glutamatergic subtypes.

**Astro-GluN concordant changes between mouse and human data**

In the next approach we set out to test our "Spreading Signature" and Astro-Slc1a2

DEGs in human data from PD patients.

We employed three published human snRNA-seq datasets (16, 17, 45) from the

substantia nigra of PD patients and age-/sex-matched controls. First, we compared

the log2 fold changes of Astro-Slc1a2 DEGs from our mouse snRNA-seq data to the

log2 fold changes between PD and Controls in astrocytes in each human dataset.

While the DEGs exhibited moderate concordance overall, we obtained 25 genes that

were changed concordantly in all datasets (Figure 6 c). This included central genes

from our snRNA-seq mouse network (Additional File 15), particularly those involved

in the Astro-GluN axis such as *GRM5, CNTNAP4,* or *SV2C* (Figure 6 c left heat

map).

To compare our "Spreading Signature" from 20M visium spatial PD mice data, we

pseudo-bulked the human datasets(16, 17, 45) to a sample level. This was done to

make the cell type unspecific "Spreading Area" of our visium spatial data more

comparable to the cell type specific snRNA human data. We then compared the log2

fold changes between "Spreading Area" and "No Spreading Area" at 20M from our

mouse visium spatial data to the log2 fold changes between PD and Control in each

pseudo-bulked human dataset.

General concordance was again moderate, but we saw 32 genes changed

concordantly in all datasets (Figure 6 c). With genes for neuronal and synaptic

functions (*SV2B, RAB3A, SYT5, RAC3, GNG3, TUBB2A, TUBA1B)* being

downregulated and genes related to glial activation (*TRPM3*, *BMPR1A*, *SDC3*) being

upregulated.

These results suggest that the Astro-GluN axis, including the aforementioned *Grm5*,

at least partially is affected in human PD patients.

## Discussion

Based on multiple modalities this study demonstrates transcriptional changes of the

SN in response to α-syn oligomer spreading. We show importance of astrocytes,

relevant transcriptional changes in astrocytes related to the Astro-GluN axis, and

affected subtypes of glutamatergic neurons. Notably, we observed that these

changes in astrocyte changes mainly occur in aged PD mice. Based on our findings,

we propose a model of α-syn oligomer spreading affecting the astrocyte GluN axis

and report relevant genes in this network (Additional File 22).

Multiple studies consistently reported the importance of astrocytes in PD and their

interactions with α-syn(52-58). Moreover, Loria et al.(55) were able to demonstrate a

role for astrocytes in degradation of pathological α-syn fibrils in co-cultures of primary

neurons and astrocytes. In line with this, EVs derived from erythrocytes and

containing α-syn oligomers were shown to accumulate in astrocyte endfeet impairing

glutamate uptake likely via EAAT2 channel when injected into mice(59).

Extending on previous findings, we show that in response to α-syn oligomer

spreading, astrocytes increase in numbers and change their transcriptional profile in

the SN. We report a gene program in the SN specifically affected by α-syn oligomer

spreading in which its molecular architecture could confirm the previously reported

astrocytic changes involving *Slc1a2*/EAAT2 (60) and introduce new central genes in

the α-syn oligomer spreading specific transcriptional profile changes.

Furthermore, previous studies already reported the ability of α-syn oligomers to affect

astrocytic functions in recycling glutamate(54, 61, 62), such as Trudler et al.(62)

showing that α-syn oligomers induced astrocytes to release more glutamate and

thereby increase glutamatergic signaling in human primary neurons from iPSCs. Our

data complement these studies by downregulation of genes related to glutamate

receptors, astrocytic junctions, and glutamatergic signaling in both astrocytes and

affected glutamatergic neurons. This might offer specific central targets to rescue the

Astro-GluN axis. Indeed, we point to mGluRs to play a major role in the transition of

damage from astrocytes to GluNs and in the overall disruption of the Astro-GluN axis,

as we found mGluRs (*Grm3* and *Grm5*) as central players in either the affected

astrocytes or the glutamatergic neuron subtypes. Importantly, mGluR3 and mGluR5

have already been shown to be of importance in human astrocytes for the Astro-GluN

axis(63).

Previously, mGluRs have been implicated in PD multiple times(64-66) with for

example mGluR5 antagonists being protective of dopaminergic neurons in PD animal

models(67, 68). We align mGluRs into α-syn oligomer spreading related Astro-GluN

dysfunctions and speculate that the disruptions in mGluR signaling might affect

recycling of glutamate via astrocyte, and blockades due to accumulation of α-syn

oligomers in astrocytes, neurons, and extracellular space, lead to diminished

glutamatergic signaling between the synapses. Following the synapse

formation/elimination rules(69), the synapses and neurons with less signaling activity

devolve and are eliminated.

We further suggest that the involvement of astrocytes in our model only occur with

sufficient aging. We observed higher vulnerability to age related effects in our

"Spreading Area" by enrichment of the SenMayo gene set pointing to senescent

alterations. Whether and how senescence-driven mechanisms contribute to α-syn

accumulation and Astro-GluN dysfunctions has to be determined in future studies. It

might be that senescent glial cells may facilitate the cell-to-cell spread of pathological

proteins and senescence is surely well established as a factor in aging(70) and age

related neurodegenerative diseases like PD or Alzheimer´s Disease(71, 72). Of note,

α-syn aggregates have been shown to spread in patterns correlating with regional

senescence markers in PD(73). Thus, our data further emphasize astrocytes as an

age dependent player in the development of PD phenotypes through α-syn oligomer

spreading. Our findings are supported by previous studies that showed reactive

astrocyte/astrocytic vulnerabilities are highly correlated with aging in mouse and

human brains(74-76).

Here we report a unique gene set found to be central players in the transcriptional

changes of astrocyte-GluN network in response to α-syn oligomer spreading. These

include down-regulated genes related to glutamatergic signaling, astrocyte-neuron

junctions, and protein transport system and increased expression of genes involved

in activation of astrocytes, phagocytosis, synapse elimination, and elevated oxidative

stress.

In summary, we show the importance of the Astro-GluN axis dysfunction in the

context of spreading of α-syn oligomers and provide central genes (Additional File

22) in spreading processes involved for further research to understand PD related

Astro-GluN dysfunction.

**Conclusions**

In this study we investigated the transcriptional changes to α-syn oligomer spreading

in the SN using spatial transcriptomics and snRNA-seq with a PD mouse model. We

identified a transcriptionally distinct "Spreading Area" with age- and α-syn related astrocytic changes. We further describe the transcriptional changes to affect the Astro-GluN axis with glutamatergic subtypes being affected by astrocytic transcriptional disruptions and show that some Astro-GluN genes are changed concordantly in both mouse and human SN snRNA-seq datasets. Based on our findings we propose a model of Astro-GluN axis changes due to α-syn oligomer spreading with central genes, such as *Grm3* and *Grm5*, to investigate further.

## Limitations of the study

While our findings are supported by multiple modalities, they are based on our PD mouse model and even though our comparison with human datasets gives an indication of translational effect of our findings in human PD patients, a study with more PD patients is necessary to truly validate the findings. Indeed, the comparison between mice visium spatial data to the bulked snRNA-seq human data has multiple limitations. First, it is not given that a bulked snRNA-seq data is representative of the cell type composition on a visium spatial slide. Second, we compare the log2 fold changes in visium spatial between regions to the log2 fold changes in human snRNA-seq data between conditions. Even though, both comparisons compare "PD pathology to non-PD pathology" the pathology difference between conditions and the pathology difference between regions might differ. Moreover, a future study might include a more granular spatial transcriptomics method to enable true single cell resolution spatial transcriptomics.

## Availability of data and materials

The raw sequencing data that was generated in this study is available from ArrayExpress with the identifier E-MTAB-15216 for visium spatial data and the

identifier E-MTAB-15158 for snRNA data. Detailed metadata, processed seurat objects, counts, spatial images and so on can be found on Zenodo with the DOI *10.5281/zenodo.15274014* for 3-months visium spatial data and the DOI *10.5281/zenodo.14988055* for 20/23-months visium and snRNA data. The code, including helper objects and functions, for analysis and figure generation is available on GitHub: https://github.com/DanzerLab/PD_VisiumSpatial_MouseBrain_Aging. Human snRNA data from Smajic et al., 2022 can be accessed at GEO under GSE157783, data from Martirosyan et al., 2024 can be accessed at GEO under GSE243639, and data from Wang et al., 2022 can be accessed at GEO under GSE19950.

## Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

## Acknowledgements

We thank R. Bück for their excellent work and technical support.

## Funding Source

This work was supported and funded by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) Emmy Noether Research Group DA 1657/2-1, SFB 1149, and SFB 1506 (Aging at Interfaces).

## Author Contribution

K.M. D. and J. LB. designed the project. V. B., A. G., J.K. K., L. M., and D. R. performed experiments and analyzed the data. V. B., A. G., and J. LB. prepared graphs and designed figures. E. G. performed quality control and annotation of cell types for snRNA-seq data. J. LB. performed all other bioinformatic analysis. V. G. and L. D. provided intellectual input. J. LB. and K.M. D. wrote the manuscript. All authors have revised or critically reviewed the article.

## References

1.      Lewy FH. Paralysis agitans. I. Pathologische Anatomie. In: Lewandowsky M, editor. Handbuch
der Neurologie. 3. Berlin: Springer; 1912. p. 920 - 58.
2.      Braak H, Del Tredici K, Rub U, de Vos RA, Jansen Steur EN, Braak E. Staging of brain pathology
related to sporadic Parkinson's disease. Neurobiology of aging. 2003;24(2):197-211.
3.      Kordower JH, Chu Y, Hauser RA, Freeman TB, Olanow CW. Lewy body-like pathology in long-
term embryonic nigral transplants in Parkinson's disease. Nat Med. 2008;14(5):504-6.
4.      Li JY, Englund E, Holton JL, Soulet D, Hagell P, Lees AJ, et al. Lewy bodies in grafted neurons in
subjects with Parkinson's disease suggest host-to-graft disease propagation. Nat Med.
2008;14(5):501-3.
5.      Desplats P, Lee HJ, Bae EJ, Patrick C, Rockenstein E, Crews L, et al. Inclusion formation and
neuronal cell death through neuron-to-neuron transmission of alpha-synuclein. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S
A. 2009;106(31):13010-5.
6.      Henderson MX, Cornblath EJ, Darwich A, Zhang B, Brown H, Gathagan RJ, et al. Spread of α-
synuclein pathology through the brain connectome is modulated by selective vulnerability and
predicted by network analysis. Nat Neurosci. 2019;22(8):1248-57.
7.      Osterberg VR, Spinelli KJ, Weston LJ, Luk KC, Woltjer RL, Unni VK. Progressive aggregation of
alpha-synuclein and selective degeneration of lewy inclusion-bearing neurons in a mouse model of
parkinsonism. Cell Rep. 2015;10(8):1252-60.
8.      Luk KC, Kehm V, Carroll J, Zhang B, O'Brien P, Trojanowski JQ, et al. Pathological α-synuclein
transmission initiates Parkinson-like neurodegeneration in nontransgenic mice. Science.
2012;338(6109):949-53.
9.      Rey NL, George S, Steiner JA, Madaj Z, Luk KC, Trojanowski JQ, et al. Spread of aggregates
after olfactory bulb injection of α-synuclein fibrils is associated with early neuronal loss and is
reduced long term. Acta Neuropathol. 2018;135(1):65-83.
10.     Devi L, Raghavendran V, Prabhu BM, Avadhani NG, Anandatheerthavarada HK. Mitochondrial
import and accumulation of alpha-synuclein impair complex I in human dopaminergic neuronal
cultures and Parkinson disease brain. J Biol Chem. 2008;283(14):9089-100.
11.     Danzer KM, Haasen D, Karow AR, Moussaud S, Habeck M, Giese A, et al. Different species of
alpha-synuclein oligomers induce calcium influx and seeding. The Journal of neuroscience : the
official journal of the Society for Neuroscience. 2007;27(34):9220-32.
12.     Shrivastava AN, Redeker V, Fritz N, Pieri L, Almeida LG, Spolidoro M, et al. α-synuclein
assemblies sequester neuronal α3-Na+/K+-ATPase and impair Na+ gradient. Embo j.
2015;34(19):2408-23.
13.     Choi I, Zhang Y, Seegobin SP, Pruvost M, Wang Q, Purtell K, et al. Microglia clear neuron-
released α-synuclein via selective autophagy and prevent neurodegeneration. Nat Commun.
2020;11(1):1386.
14.     Lee HJ, Kim C, Lee SJ. Alpha-synuclein stimulation of astrocytes: Potential role for
neuroinflammation and neuroprotection. Oxid Med Cell Longev. 2010;3(4):283-7.
15.     Reddy K, Dieriks BV. Multiple system atrophy: α-Synuclein strains at the neuron-
oligodendrocyte crossroad. Molecular neurodegeneration. 2022;17(1):77.
16.     Smajić S, Prada-Medina CA, Landoulsi Z, Ghelfi J, Delcambre S, Dietrich C, et al. Single-cell
sequencing of human midbrain reveals glial activation and a Parkinson-specific neuronal state. Brain :
a journal of neurology. 2022;145(3):964-78.
17.     Martirosyan A, Ansari R, Pestana F, Hebestreit K, Gasparyan H, Aleksanyan R, et al. Unravelling
cell type-specific responses to Parkinson's Disease at single cell resolution. Molecular
neurodegeneration. 2024;19(1):7.
18.     Kiechle M, von Einem B, Höfs L, Voehringer P, Grozdanov V, Markx D, et al. In Vivo Protein
Complementation Demonstrates Presynaptic α-Synuclein Oligomerization and Age-Dependent
Accumulation of 8-16-mer Oligomer Species. Cell Rep. 2019;29(9):2862-74.e9.

19.    Mayford M, Bach ME, Huang YY, Wang L, Hawkins RD, Kandel ER. Control of memory
formation through regulated expression of a CaMKII transgene. Science. 1996;274(5293):1678-83.
20.    Zheng GX, Terry JM, Belgrader P, Ryvkin P, Bent ZW, Wilson R, et al. Massively parallel digital
transcriptional profiling of single cells. Nat Commun. 2017;8:14049.
21.    Wolf FA, Angerer P, Theis FJ. SCANPY: large-scale single-cell gene expression data analysis.
Genome Biol. 2018;19(1):15.
22.    Young MD, Behjati S. SoupX removes ambient RNA contamination from droplet-based single-
cell RNA sequencing data. Gigascience. 2020;9(12).
23.    Germain PL, Lun A, Garcia Meixide C, Macnair W, Robinson MD. Doublet identification in
single-cell sequencing data using scDblFinder. F1000Res. 2021;10.
24.    Hao Y, Stuart T, Kowalski MH, Choudhary S, Hoffman P, Hartman A, et al. Dictionary learning
for integrative, multimodal and scalable single-cell analysis. Nature Biotechnology. 2024;42(2):293-
304.
25.    Korsunsky I, Millard N, Fan J, Slowikowski K, Zhang F, Wei K, et al. Fast, sensitive and accurate
integration of single-cell data with Harmony. Nature Methods. 2019;16(12):1289-96.
26.    Zeisel A, Hochgerner H, Lönnerberg P, Johnsson A, Memic F, van der Zwan J, et al. Molecular
Architecture of the Mouse Nervous System. Cell. 2018;174(4):999-1014.e22.
27.    Science AlfB. Allen Mouse Brain Atlas. In: Science AlfB, editor. 2004.
28.    Science AlfB. Allen Reference Atlas - Mouse Brain. In: Science AlfB, editor. 2011.
29.    Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-
seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biology. 2014;15(12):550.
30.    Love M, Anders S, Huber WJGB. Differential analysis of count data–the DESeq2 package.
2014;15(550):10-1186.
31.    Leek JT. svaseq: removing batch effects and other unwanted noise from sequencing data.
Nucleic Acids Res. 2014;42(21):e161.
32.    Strimmer K. fdrtool: a versatile R package for estimating local and tail area-based false
discovery rates. Bioinformatics. 2008;24(12):1461-2.
33.    Benjamini Y, Hochberg Y. Controlling the False Discovery Rate: A Practical and Powerful
Approach to Multiple Testing. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Methodological).
1995;57(1):289-300.
34.    Pham D, Tan X, Balderson B, Xu J, Grice LF, Yoon S, et al. Robust mapping of spatiotemporal
trajectories and cell–cell interactions in healthy and diseased tissues. Nature Communications.
2023;14(1):7739.
35.    Badia-i-Mompel P, Vélez Santiago J, Braunger J, Geiss C, Dimitrov D, Müller-Dott S, et al.
decoupleR: ensemble of computational methods to infer biological activities from omics data.
Bioinformatics Advances. 2022;2(1):vbac016.
36.    Nepusz GCaT. The igraph software package for complex network research. InterJournal.
2006;Complex Systems:1695.
37.    Türei D, Valdeolivas A, Gul L, Palacio-Escat N, Klein M, Ivanova O, et al. Integrated intra- and
intercellular signaling knowledge for multicellular omics analysis. Mol Syst Biol. 2021;17(3):e9923.
38.    Szklarczyk D, Kirsch R, Koutrouli M, Nastou K, Mehryary F, Hachilif R, et al. The STRING
database in 2023: protein-protein association networks and functional enrichment analyses for any
sequenced genome of interest. Nucleic Acids Res. 2023;51(D1):D638-d46.
39.    Ma Y, Zhou X. Spatially informed cell-type deconvolution for spatial transcriptomics. Nature
Biotechnology. 2022;40(9):1349-59.
40.    Ostner J, Carcy S, Müller CL. tascCODA: Bayesian Tree-Aggregated Analysis of Compositional
Amplicon and Single-Cell Data. Front Genet. 2021;12:766405.
41.    Mann HB, Whitney DR. On a Test of Whether one of Two Random Variables is Stochastically
Larger than the Other. The Annals of Mathematical Statistics. 1947;18(1):50-60.
42.    Torchiano M. Effsize - a package for efficient effect size computation.
https://zenodo.org/records/14806242016.

43.    Wu T, Hu E, Xu S, Chen M, Guo P, Dai Z, et al. clusterProfiler 4.0: A universal enrichment tool
for interpreting omics data. The Innovation. 2021;2(3).
44.    Ulgen E, Ozisik O, Sezerman OU. pathfindR: An R Package for Comprehensive Identification of
Enriched Pathways in Omics Data Through Active Subnetworks. Frontiers in Genetics. 2019;Volume 10
- 2019.
45.    Wang Q, Wang M, Choi I, Sarrafha L, Liang M, Ho L, et al. Molecular profiling of human
substantia nigra identifies diverse neuron types associated with vulnerability in Parkinson's disease.
2024;10(2):eadi8287.
46.    Schindelin J, Arganda-Carreras I, Frise E, Kaynig V, Longair M, Pietzsch T, et al. Fiji: an open-
source platform for biological-image analysis. Nature Methods. 2012;9(7):676-82.
47.    Chan TE, Stumpf MP, Babtie ACJCs. Gene regulatory network inference from single-cell data
using multivariate information measures. 2017;5(3):251-67. e3.
48.    Saul D, Kosinsky RL, Atkinson EJ, Doolittle ML, Zhang X, LeBrasseur NK, et al. A new gene set
identifies senescent cells and predicts senescence-associated pathways across tissues. Nature
Communications. 2022;13(1):4827.
49.    Purgert CA, Izumi Y, Jong YJ, Kumar V, Zorumski CF, O'Malley KL. Intracellular mGluR5 can
mediate synaptic plasticity in the hippocampus. J Neurosci. 2014;34(13):4589-98.
50.    Abe T, Sugihara H, Nawa H, Shigemoto R, Mizuno N, Nakanishi S. Molecular characterization
of a novel metabotropic glutamate receptor mGluR5 coupled to inositol phosphate/Ca2+ signal
transduction. J Biol Chem. 1992;267(19):13361-8.
51.    Uematsu K, Heiman M, Zelenina M, Padovan J, Chait BT, Aperia A, et al. Protein kinase A
directly phosphorylates metabotropic glutamate receptor 5 to modulate its function. J Neurochem.
2015;132(6):677-86.
52.    Hua J, Yin N, Xu S, Chen Q, Tao T, Zhang J, et al. Enhancing the Astrocytic Clearance of
Extracellular α-Synuclein Aggregates by Ginkgolides Attenuates Neural Cell Injury. Cell Mol Neurobiol.
2019;39(7):1017-28.
53.    Morales I, Sanchez A, Rodriguez-Sabate C, Rodriguez M. Striatal astrocytes engulf
dopaminergic debris in Parkinson's disease: A study in an animal model. PLoS One.
2017;12(10):e0185989.
54.    Sonninen TM, Hämäläinen RH, Koskuvi M, Oksanen M, Shakirzyanova A, Wojciechowski S, et
al. Metabolic alterations in Parkinson's disease astrocytes. Sci Rep. 2020;10(1):14474.
55.    Loria F, Vargas JY, Bousset L, Syan S, Salles A, Melki R, et al. α-Synuclein transfer between
neurons and astrocytes indicates that astrocytes play a role in degradation rather than in spreading.
Acta Neuropathol. 2017;134(5):789-808.
56.    Tsunemi T, Ishiguro Y, Yoroisaka A, Valdez C, Miyamoto K, Ishikawa K, et al. Astrocytes Protect
Human Dopaminergic Neurons from α-Synuclein Accumulation and Propagation. J Neurosci.
2020;40(45):8618-28.
57.    Rostami J, Holmqvist S, Lindström V, Sigvardson J, Westermark GT, Ingelsson M, et al. Human
Astrocytes Transfer Aggregated Alpha-Synuclein via Tunneling Nanotubes. J Neurosci.
2017;37(49):11835-53.
58.    Braak H, Sastre M, Del Tredici K. Development of alpha-synuclein immunoreactive astrocytes
in the forebrain parallels stages of intraneuronal pathology in sporadic Parkinson's disease. Acta
Neuropathol. 2007;114(3):231-41.
59.    Sheng L, Stewart T, Yang D, Thorland E, Soltys D, Aro P, et al. Erythrocytic α-synuclein
contained in microvesicles regulates astrocytic glutamate homeostasis: a new perspective on
Parkinson's disease pathogenesis. Acta Neuropathol Commun. 2020;8(1):102.
60.    Iovino L, Giusti V, Pischedda F, Giusto E, Plotegher N, Marte A, et al. Trafficking of the
glutamate transporter is impaired in LRRK2-related Parkinson's disease. Acta Neuropathol.
2022;144(1):81-106.
61.    Banerjee R, Raj A, Potdar C, Pal PK, Yadav R, Kamble N, et al. Astrocytes Differentiated from
LRRK2-I1371V Parkinson's-Disease-Induced Pluripotent Stem Cells Exhibit Similar Yield but Cell-

Intrinsic Dysfunction in Glutamate Uptake and Metabolism, ATP Generation, and Nrf2-Mediated
Glutathione Machinery. Cells. 2023;12(12).
62. Trudler D, Sanz-Blasco S, Eisele YS, Ghatak S, Bodhinathan K, Akhtar MW, et al. α-Synuclein
Oligomers Induce Glutamate Release from Astrocytes and Excessive Extrasynaptic NMDAR Activity in
Neurons, Thus Contributing to Synapse Loss. J Neurosci. 2021;41(10):2264-73.
63. Aronica E, Gorter JA, Ijlst-Keizers H, Rozemuller AJ, Yankaya B, Leenstra S, et al. Expression and
functional role of mGluR3 and mGluR5 in human astrocytes and glioma cells: opposite regulation of
glutamate transporter proteins. Eur J Neurosci. 2003;17(10):2106-18.
64. Ossowska K, Konieczny J, Wardas J, Pietraszek M, Kuter K, Wolfarth S, et al. An influence of
ligands of metabotropic glutamate receptor subtypes on parkinsonian-like symptoms and the
striatopallidal pathway in rats. Amino Acids. 2007;32(2):179-88.
65. Phillips JM, Lam HA, Ackerson LC, Maidment NT. Blockade of mGluR glutamate receptors in
the subthalamic nucleus ameliorates motor asymmetry in an animal model of Parkinson's disease.
Eur J Neurosci. 2006;23(1):151-60.
66. Cuomo D, Martella G, Barabino E, Platania P, Vita D, Madeo G, et al. Metabotropic glutamate
receptor subtype 4 selectively modulates both glutamate and GABA transmission in the striatum:
implications for Parkinson's disease treatment. J Neurochem. 2009;109(4):1096-105.
67. Masilamoni GJ, Bogenpohl JW, Alagille D, Delevich K, Tamagnan G, Votaw JR, et al.
Metabotropic glutamate receptor 5 antagonist protects dopaminergic and noradrenergic neurons
from degeneration in MPTP-treated monkeys. Brain : a journal of neurology. 2011;134(Pt 7):2057-73.
68. Battaglia G, Busceti CL, Molinaro G, Biagioni F, Storto M, Fornai F, et al. Endogenous activation
of mGlu5 metabotropic glutamate receptors contributes to the development of nigro-striatal damage
induced by 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine in mice. J Neurosci. 2004;24(4):828-35.
69. Südhof TC. The cell biology of synapse formation. J Cell Biol. 2021;220(7).
70. Di Micco R, Krizhanovsky V, Baker D, d'Adda di Fagagna F. Cellular senescence in ageing: from
mechanisms to therapeutic opportunities. Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology. 2021;22(2):75-95.
71. Ma Y, Erb ML, Moore DJ. Aging, cellular senescence and Parkinson's disease. Journal of
Parkinson's Disease. 2025;15(2):239-54.
72. Chinta SJ, Woods G, Demaria M, Rane A, Zou Y, McQuade A, et al. Cellular Senescence Is
Induced by the Environmental Neurotoxin Paraquat and Contributes to Neuropathology Linked to
Parkinson's Disease. Cell Rep. 2018;22(4):930-40.
73. Lee SJ, Lim HS, Masliah E, Lee HJ. Protein aggregate spreading in neurodegenerative diseases:
problems and perspectives. Neurosci Res. 2011;70(4):339-48.
74. Clarke LE, Liddelow SA, Chakraborty C, Münch AE, Heiman M, Barres BA. Normal aging
induces A1-like astrocyte reactivity. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2018;115(8):E1896-E905.
75. Ishii T, Takanashi Y, Sugita K, Miyazawa M, Yanagihara R, Yasuda K, et al. Endogenous reactive
oxygen species cause astrocyte defects and neuronal dysfunctions in the hippocampus: a new model
for aging brain. Aging Cell. 2017;16(1):39-51.
76. Ferrer I. Diversity of astroglial responses across human neurodegenerative disorders and
brain aging. Brain Pathol. 2017;27(5):645-74.

## **Additional Data**

Additional File 1.pdf: **Quality control of visium spatial of 20-months mice**

**a,** We checked for motoric deficits in our PD mouse model by measuring time on the rotarod. Using 10

control (OFF) and 9 PD (ON) mice, their time on the rotarod after training was measured between 13-

14 months and 16-17 months of age. Only at the older time point did the ON mice show a significant

motoric deficit compared to the OFF mice. The statistical testing was done by using a linear mixed-

effects model of the condition x age effect with sex as a covariate and sample as a random intercept

with significance set at a p value lower than 0.05. **b,** Scatter plot shows the ratio between unique

number of detected genes (nGene) and unique molecular identifiers (nUMI). Each dot represents one

visium spatial spot. Every spot that was kept after QC is marked red. **c**, The plot further supports the

comparability between conditions as the overall distribution of nUMI peak for both conditions at around

12,000. **d,** After harmony integration and clustering the cluster 1, consisting of our region of interest

the "Spreading Area" and the most similar region to our region of interest, was subclustered. We

observed that integration enabled us to assign computationally the subcluster 2 as being

representative of the "Spreading Area". All other subclusters were used as "No Spreading Area".

Additional File 2.pdf: **Annotation of 20-months visium spatial samples**

**a,** Left figure shows a schematic UMAP visualization of annotated clusters. The annotated regions

reflect the anatomical characteristics based on their similarity, which can be seen on the right

dendrogram. **b,** Furthermore, we were able to assign a canonical regional marker from mousebrain

(mousebrain.org)(26) to each region. **c,** We observed some region to region differences in the nUMI

but this mostly reflected their anatomical characteristics. Moreover, the differences were low enough

that we deemed it as non-influential on our observations. **d**, Comparison of the final annotation of our

visium spatial slides to the most similar slice from the Allen Mouse Brain Atlas(27, 28). Our annotations

reflected known anatomical regions and the "Spreading Region" was part of the Substantia Nigra.

1001

1002 Additional File 3.xlsx: **Regional annotation markers found by wilcoxon rank sum test**

1003 Markers found for each annotated region by using the FindMarkers function from Seurat(24) . Only

1004 some exemplary markers were then used for visualization.

1005

1006 Additional File 4.xlsx: **Differential analysis results between OFF20M "Spreading Area" vs**
1007 **OFF20M "No Spreading Area"**

1008 All 100 iterations of the differential analysis. Columns are named xxx-seed with the seed used for that

1009 specific iteration. Last 10 columns show the number of NA values per row, how many time a gene was

1010 significant (FDR < 0.05) and mean or median of log2 fold change, stat, p-value, and FDR.

1011

1012 Additional File 5.xlsx: **Differential analysis results between ON20M "Spreading Area" vs**
1013 **ON20M "No Spreading Area"**

1014 All 100 iterations of the differential analysis. Columns are named xxx-seed with the seed used for that

1015 specific iteration. Last 10 columns show the number of NA values per row, how many time a gene was

1016 significant (FDR < 0.05) and mean or median of log2 fold change, stat, p-value, and FDR.

1017

Additional File 6.pdf: **Region to region differences affect differential results and "Spreading**

**Signature" changes is driven by the "Spreading Area"**

**a,** Heatmap of the expression levels of all significant (p.adj < 0.05) genes that were shared between

ON20M and OFF20M across cell types. We see that a majority of those shared DEGs are cell type

specific and are probably due to region to region differences in cell type composition. Thus, we only

focused only on the ON20M specific DEGs by removing all shared DEGs between OFF20M and

ON20M from the "Spreading Signature". **b,** We further observe that the specific significance in ON20M

and not in OFF20M for the final "Spreading Signature" comes from a change in the "Spreading Area"

between conditions and not from "No Spreading Area". **c,** We compared the log2 fold changes of

"Spreading Signature" between all regions and "No Spreading Area" and observed that the difference

was correlated to the cell type composition differences between regions. This means that α-syn

oligomers affect the transcriptional landscape of regions differently due to their differences in cell type

composition.

1031

1032 Additional File 7.xlsx: **"Spreading Signature" with functional and network information**

1033 Every gene in the "Spreading Signature" with information about their function, the source for the

1034 function information, regulation direction in the "Spreading Area" to "No Spreading Area", and network

1035 information (presence, which subnetwork, betweenness centrality, counted as central).

1036

1037 Additional File 8.xlsx: **Ligand receptor results from stlearn**

1038 Ligand receptor results that was used for visualization from stlearn using their default ligand-receptor

1039 database

1040

1041 Additional File 9.pdf: **Spot deconvolution using CARD and changes in cell type composition**

**a,** Exemplary result plots of spot deconvolution by CARD based on our snRNA dataset. Cell type compositions reflected expected ratios based on anatomical characteristics. **b,** Changes of cell type composition in the "Spreading Area" from OFF20M to ON20M for cell types that were not in top 3 most changed cell types. Only cell type to show a significant pattern of downregulation was microglia. All other cell types obtained only miniscule differences.

Additional File 10.pdf: **Manual spatial annotation of Substantia Nigra using CLSM images**

**a,** Using sagittal brain slices of ON20M mice we stained for dopaminergic Neurons (TH) and V1S/SV2 (GFP). **b,** This enabled a clear manual annotation for Substantia nigra and its subparts Pars Compacta and Pars Reticulata.

Additional File 11.pdf: **Single nucleus RNA dataset quality control and annotation**

**a,** Annotation and similarity dendrogram based on harmony embeddings of our snRNA dataset. The dendrogram show a clear distinction between neuronal and non-neuronal cell types. **b,** Dot plot of a representative marker gene for each cell type. **c,** Cell type marker dot plot but for only Vglut1 neuron subtypes. **d,** With subclustering of astrocytes it was possible to get a distinction between *Slc1a2* enriched (glutamatergic) and *Slc6a11* enriched (GABAergic) astrocytes. **e,** Comparison of each cell type by their number of significant DEGs between OFF23M and ON23M and their summed nUMI count. Grey area represents the 95% confidence interval. Astro-Slc1a2 had many more DEGs compared to Astro-Slc6a11.

Additional File 12.xlsx: **Used markers for snRNA-seq annotation**
All used markers for snRNA-seq annotation including markers for subtypes of astrocytes,
glutamatergic neurons and GABAergic neurons.

Additional File 13.xlsx: **Differential analysis results from Astro-Slc1a2 ON vs OFF**
All results from DESeq2 based differential analysis of 23-months snRNA-seq samples. ON vs OFF
was tested using Wald testing. See methods for details.

Additional File 14.pdf: **Visium Spatial samples after QC and integration are comparable at 3M**

**a,** Left scatter plot shows the ratio between unique number of detected genes (nGene) and unique molecular identifiers (nUMI). Each dot represents one Visium Spatial spot. Every spot that was kept after QC is marked red. The right plot shows the nUMI across the annotated regions. **b,** After harmony integration and clustering the cluster 1, consisting of our region of interest the "Spreading Area" and the most similar region to our region of interest, was subclustered. We observed that integration enabled us to assign computationally the subcluster 2 as being representative of the "Spreading Area". All other subclusters were used as "No Spreading Area". **c,** "Spreading Area" and "No Spreading Area" showed the same difference between mRNA and protein expression of V1S/SV2 in the 3M mice as in the 20M mice.

Additional File 15.pdf: **snRNA results also point to astrocytic dysfunction in the glutamate cycle**

**a,** Venn diagram showing intersection between the "Spreading Signatures" at 3M and 20M. **b,** Network built from the DEGs between snRNA OFF23M and ON23M in Astro-Slc1a2 and expression data of ON23M. The top 10 central genes and the two shared genes also points to astrocytic dysfunction in the glutamate cycle at the synapses.

Additional File 16.xlsx: **Differential analysis results between OFF3M "Spreading Area" vs OFF3M "No Spreading Area"**

All 100 iterations of the differential analysis. Columns are named xxx-seed with the seed used for that specific iteration. Last 10 columns show the number of NA values per row, how many time a gene was significant (FDR < 0.05) and mean or median of log2 fold change, stat, p-value, and FDR.

Additional File 17.xlsx: **Differential analysis results between ON3M "Spreading Area" vs ON3M "No Spreading Area"**

All 100 iterations of the differential analysis. Columns are named xxx-seed with the seed used for that specific iteration. Last 10 columns show the number of NA values per row, how many time a gene was significant (FDR < 0.05) and mean or median of log2 fold change, stat, p-value, and FDR.

Additional File 18.xlsx: **Significant differential genes from Astro-Slc1a2 analysis with functional and network information**

1101    Every gene with genes deemed central in the network marked in red. Every central gene has

1102    information about their function, the source for the function information, regulation direction, and

1103    network information (presence, betweenness centrality, counted as central).

1104

1105

1106    Additional File 19.xlsx: **Differential analysis results from Vglut1-Col19a1 ON vs OFF**

1107    All results from DESeq2 based differential analysis of 23-months snRNA-seq samples. ON vs OFF

1108    was tested using Wald testing. See methods for details.

1109

1110

1111    Additional File 20.xlsx: **Differential analysis results from Vglut1-Npas3 ON vs OFF**

1112    All results from DESeq2 based differential analysis of 23-months snRNA-seq samples. ON vs OFF

1113    was tested using Wald testing. See methods for details.

1114

1115

1116    Additional File 21.xlsx: **Relevant significantly differential genes from ON vs OFF**
1117    **comparisons in Vglut1-Npas3 and Vglut1-Col19a1**

1118    Every relevant gene has information about their function, the source for the function information, and

1119    regulation direction.

1120

1121

1122    Additional File 22.xlsx: **Final list of genes deemed central to Astro-GluN dysfunctions**

1123    List of genes deemed central to our proposed model of Astro-GluN dysfunctions in the progression of

1124    α-syn oligomer pathology. Each row has information about one gene's function, observed regulation

1125    direction, source of the function information, and on which data the gene was deemed central.

1126

**a**

CaMKIIα ▸ tTA

tTA

doxycycline

inactive

V1S ◂ CMV$_{min}$ ◂ TRE ▸ CMV$_{min}$ ▸ SV2

N-term VenusYFP

C-term VenusYFP

V1S    V1S/SV2    SV2

Visium Spatial Cassette

10x Chromium Controller
Single Nuclei GEMs
3´snRNA

**b** V1S/SV2 Protein

**c** V1S/SV2 mRNA

V1S/SV2 mRNA    0    1    2    3

**d** Annotation

● Cortex Cluster1    ● Cortex Cluster3    ● Hippocampus Cluster    ● Subiculum
● Cortex Cluster2    ● Cortex Cluster4    ● CA1CA2    ● CA3    ● Dentate Gyrus
● Thalamus    ● VTA    ● Subcortex

**e** Ratio:
V1S/SV2 Protein
to
V1S/SV2 mRNA

Cortex Cluster 1
Cortex Cluster 2
Cortex Cluster 3
Cortex Cluster 4
Hippocampus Cluster
CA1CA2
CA3
Dentate Gyrus
Subiculum
Thalamus
VTA
Subcortex

0    20    40    60

**f** Isolated Subcortex overlayed on V1S/SV2 Protein

Subcortex

Spatialplot of Subclustered Subcortex

3    1
0

UMAP of Subclustered

1    0    2

UMAP2

UMAP1

**g** Ratio:
V1S/SV2 Protein
to
V1S/SV2 mRNA

Cluster 2
"Spreading Area"

Clusters 0, 1, 3
"No Spreading Area"

**a**

No Spreading
Area

Spreading Area

ON20M:
Spreading Area
vs.
No Spreading Area

OFF20M:
Spreading Area
vs.
No Spreading Area

Transcription
Factor Analysis
based on
ON20M specific

ON20M specific
gene set

+

Significant
Transcription
Factors

"Spreading Signature"

**b**

Region similarity based on "Spreading Signature"

Region similarity based on cell type composition

Dentate Gyrus
CA3
Cortex Cluster2
Cortex Cluster3
Cortex Cluster1
CA1CA2
Subiculum

Thalamus
VTA
Hippocampus Cluster
Cortex Cluster4
Spreading Area

Dentate Gyrus
CA3
Cortex Cluster2
Cortex Cluster3
Cortex Cluster1
CA1CA2
Subiculum

Thalamus
VTA
Hippocampus Cluster
Cortex Cluster4
Spreading Area

**Similarity**

0.5

Dentate Gyrus
CA3
Cortex Cluster2
Cortex Cluster3
Cortex Cluster1
CA1CA2
Subiculum

Thalamus
VTA
Hippocampus Cluster
Cortex Cluster4
Spreading Area

Dentate Gyrus
CA3
Cortex Cluster2
Cortex Cluster3
Cortex Cluster1
CA1CA2
Subiculum

Thalamus
VTA
Hippocampus Cluster
Cortex Cluster4
Spreading Area

**c**

CA1CA2

Cortex Cluster2

Cortex Cluster1

CA3

Cortex Cluster3

Hippocampus Cluster

Dentate Gyrus

Cortex Cluster4

Thalamus

Subiculum

Spreading Area

No Spreading Area

VTA

Interaction change OFF20M -> ON20M

6x

3x

1x

0.5x

0x

**a**

**Subnetwork Astrocyte**

**Subnetwork Astrocyte/Neuron**

**Centrality**

*Gene* — Top Central Genes

*Gene* — Other Genes

**Subnetworks:**

→ Subnetwork Astrocyte

→ Subnetwork Astrocyte/Neuron

**b**

Spreading Area

No Spreading Area

Percentage in spots

OFF20M

ON20M

Astrocyte    Oligodendrocyte    Vascular Cell

Astrocyte    Oligodendrocyte    Vascular Cell

**c**

**Module Scores of SenMayo across conditions**

Spreading Area

No Spreading Area

Module Score Scaled

OFF3M    ON3M    OFF20M    ON20M

OFF3M    ON3M    OFF20M    ON20M

OFF3M

ON3M

OFF20M

ON20M