Spreading alpha-Synuclein Oligomers Trigger Astrocyte Reactivity and Astrocyte-glutamatergic Neuron system dysfunction in an Age-Dependent 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: 7

Extended Data Figures: 8

Word count: 3349

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

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. 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. We identified α-syn spreading to the substantia nigra and defined a transcriptional "Spreading Signature" associated with α-syn pathology. We found an age specific increase in reactive astrocytes, close interactions between reactive astrocytes and α-syn, and transcriptional dysregulation of the astrocyte-glutamatergic neuron network. We further identified two subtypes of glutamatergic neurons that are vulnerable to astrocytic changes. Comparative analysis with human PD snRNA-seq data revealed conserved astrocytic dysfunctions, underscoring the translational relevance of our findings. Based on our results, we propose a revised model of α-syn spreading and highlight 36 genes as potential therapeutic targets for mitigating astrocyte-neuron dysfunction in PD.

Introduction

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]. Based on observations by Heiko Braak et al., the α-syn pathology starts from 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 has 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-

44   specific effects of α-syn oligomer spreading during aging *in-vivo*, we integrated single-

45   nucleus RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) with spatial transcriptomics in this model,

46   enabling us to assess the direct consequences of α-syn oligomer propagation.

Results

Defining a Spreading Area and "Spreading Signature"

To study the *in-vivo* 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, 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-CaMKIIa transgene (ON) and single-transgenic mice lacking the tTA-CaMKIIa transgene (OFF) as control (Figure 1 A). After filtering and clustering the integrated data (Ext. Data Fig. 1) we identified spatially distinct cell clusters (Figure 1 B, Ext. Data Fig. 2).

Figure 1. Spatial transcriptomics enables identification of a "Spreading Area" at the Substantia Nigra (SN) 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-CaMKIIa transgene) and OFF (single-transgenic mice without tTA-CaMKIIa). The Visium 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,** Brain slices in the Visium dataset were annotated using Louvain clustering, regional markers obtained from mousebrain (mousebrain.org)[21] or published sources, and anatomical information from the allen mouse brain atlas[19,20]. This approach enabled the assignment of anatomically relevant cluster annotations. **c,** Among these, a specific subcortical region including the SN was identified, which showed high V1S/SV2 protein expression (green Venus signal) but low V1S/SV2 mRNA levels, suggesting V1S/SV2 spreading into this area. This region was defined as the "Spreading Area". In contrast, a neighboring region with comparable V1S/SV2 mRNA levels but low Venus signal was identified and designated as the "No Spreading Area".

We first focused on the 20M samples and annotated clusters to their respective anatomical brain regions using the Allen mouse brain atlas[19,20] and regional marker data (Suppl. Table 1) from mousebrain (mousebrain.org)[21] (Figure 1 B, Ext. Data Fig. 2). Notably, this approach identified one subcortical region with low V1S/SV2 mRNA levels but high V1S/SV2 protein levels as indicated by elevated Venus fluorescence signal, thus implying α-syn oligomer spreading to this region (named "Spreading Area"). In contrast, another subcortical region exhibited comparable low V1S/SV2 mRNA expression but also low V1S/SV2 protein (named "No Spreading Area") (Figure 1 B, C).

This distinction provided a unique framework to investigate transcriptional changes associated specifically 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 and functional consequences of propagation of α-syn oligomers.

For 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 (Suppl.

Table 2). Only DEGs that were significant in the ON condition but not in the OFF

condition were included (Ext. Data Fig. 3). Second, using the aforementioned DEGs,

transcription factors (TFs) that actively regulate these DEGs were inferred by using the

decoupleR[22] framework (Figure 2 A, Ext. Data Fig. 3 A). Together, these analyses

resulted in a transcriptional "Spreading Signature" encompassing a total of 135

genes/TFs (Figure 2 A, Suppl. Table 3).

Figure 2. "Spreading Area" obtains α-syn oligomer spreading specific transcriptional profile and shows increased interactions with dopaminergic neuron enriched region

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[22]

framework. Relevant TFs and the 20M ON-specific DEGs were consolidated to define the "Spreading

Signature." **b,** Heatmaps depicting similarities among annotated Visium spatial regions are shown. The

left heatmap illustrates region similarities based on Pearson correlation of the log2 fold changes of the

"Spreading Signature". 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,

derived from the Aitchison similarity of the deconvoluted cell type compositions of the regions. This

grouping pattern suggests that transcriptional differences between regions are partially explainable by

variations in cell type composition. **c,** Changes in region-to-region LR interactions from OFF to ON

conditions visualized on an exemplary sample. Notably, interactions between "Spreading Area" and

"Dopaminergic Region" increased nearly six-fold.

To examine whether the "Spreading Signature" was unique to the "Spreading Area" we

performed likeness analysis using the "Spreading Signature" between the annotated

regions. We found that the "Spreading Signature" was mostly specific to the "Spreading

Area" (Figure 2B). We hypothesized that these differences were primarily attributable

to variations in cell type composition between regions, therefore we deconvoluted the

visium spatial spots using snRNA-seq data from the same mouse model to compare

cell type compositions between the regions. Indeed, the comparison indicated that the

differences in DEGs of the "Spreading Area" from the cortical or hippocampal regions

were largely explained by cell type composition differences (Figure 2 B, Ext. Data Fig.

3).

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" (Suppl. Table 4). Notably, intercellular communication between the "Spreading Area" and the tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) enriched "Dopaminergic Region" increased nearly six-fold in 20M old mice when α-syn oligomers are present, pointing to a strong impact of α-syn oligomers on the interactions between dopaminergic neurons 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 functional network with PIDC[23] using the "Spreading Signature" and transcriptional data from the "Spreading Area" in 20M ON mice. We found that the resulting functional 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 (EAAT) critical for glutamate clearance and processing at synapses (Suppl. Table 3, Figure 3 A). The second subnetwork was linked to astrocyte–neuron interaction dysfunctions, such as the astrocyte-neuron pre-protein/neurotransmitter *Penk* (Suppl. Table 3). Together, functional network analysis suggested a central role of astrocytes in α-syn spreading.

Figure 3. *In-silico* analysis of "Spreading Signature" and "Spreading Area" show 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[67] and STRING[68] via the PIDC[23] 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 using tascCODA[70]. 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 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[24] 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, * 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 changed significantly in the "Spreading Area" between conditions. Indeed, based on transcriptomic data, we observed 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[24] 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 or as a response

182 to α-syn oligomer expression (Figure 3 C). This suggests that the "Spreading Area"

183 has a predisposition being vulnerable for age related changes compared to the "No

184 Spreading Area". This might be responsible for the accumulation of spread α-syn

185 oligomers in the "Spreading Area" eventually leading to the observed transcriptional

186 changes in astrocytic function (Figure 3 A).

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

188 and to verify the increase of astrocyte numbers, we conducted immunohistochemical

189 (IHC) staining of 20M brain slices of our mouse model visualizing reactive astrocytes

190 using GFAP, α-syn oligomers by GFP, and dopaminergic neurons with TH (Figure 4,

191 Ext. Data Fig. 5). Manual counting indeed confirmed our *in-silico* findings and revealed

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

193 the SN of aged mice. Moreover, astrocytes displayed clear morphological changes

194 towards reactive hypertrophic astrocytes with thickened and elongated processes.

195 (Figure 4 A, B).

Figure 4. Expression of α-syn oligomers lead to increase in reactive astrocytes and uptake of α-syn oligomers by reactive astrocytes in the SN

a, Using brain slices from 20-months old mice from our PD model we performed IHC staining of reactive astrocytes (GFAP, red) and cell nuclei (DAPI, blue). Number of reactive astrocytes were manually counted. Microscopy images on the left show representative images of the OFF and ON conditions with

withe arrows highlighting reactive astrocytes included in the count. White boxes are zoomed in images

of the white arrow astrocytes. Quantification of reactive astrocytes in the SN revealed a significant

increase in their numbers in response to α-syn oligomer expression (n = 6; mean ± SD; unpaired t-test,

*p < 0.05, 40× magnification). **b,** Surface rendering of reactive astrocytes, V1S/SV2 α-syn oligomers

(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,

reactive 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 reactive astrocytes being enclosed but not taken up by folding astrocytes and

(Colocalization) colocalized within reactive 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: reactive astrocytes, GFP: V1S/SV2, TH: Dopaminergic neuron

Interestingly, we also found in the transcriptional data multiple central genes in the

"Spreading Signature" being related to reactive astrocytes such as e.g. *Egr1*, *Dgkk*,

Rela, Ppargc1a, Tgfbr1, Bmpr1a or *Hmgb3*. (Suppl. Table 3) further supporting the

involvement of reactive astrocytes.

Extracellular α-syn was mostly found at the end feet of reactive astrocytes and synaptic

ends (Figure 4 B). We further observed two distinct localization patterns of α-syn

oligomers in the context of reactive astrocytes: (1) Colocalization: α-syn taken up by

reactive astrocytes and (2) Engulfing: α-syn engulfed by astrocytes but not taken up

(Figure 4 C, D).

Taken together, using both transcriptional data as well as IHC data we could validate

in-vivo the increase of reactive astrocyte numbers and their close functional interaction

with α-syn oligomer spreading in the SN.

Astrocytic dysfunction driven by α-syn spreading emerges only in aged mice

To further specify the vulnerable cell types affected by α-syn spreading in the aged mice we utilized snRNA-seq data of the same mouse model to calculate a Module Score[25] for the "Spreading Signature" across all cell types and conditions in our snRNA-seq dataset (Suppl. Table 6). Only the astrocytic subtypes - Astro-Slc1a2 and Astro-Slc6a1 - exceeded the significance threshold (FDR < 0.05 & Effect size > 0.15; Figure 5 A) again cementing the strong role of astrocytes in α-syn spreading found by visium spatial data analysis. Notably, among the astrocyte subtypes the Astro-Slc1a2 subtype exhibited a much higher number of DEGs when comparing ON and OFF condition (Ext. Data Fig. 7 E, Suppl. Table 6). This finding aligns with the central role of *Slc1a2*, identified as a key gene in the "Spreading Signature" (Figure 3 A).

a Module Score of "Spreading Signature" in Mouse snRNA

b Comparing age dependent differences within the "Spreading Signature" 20M

Down-regulated Genes

Comparing Absolute Scaled Slope values

Up-regulated Genes

c

3M "Spreading Signature"   20M "Spreading Signature"

170   14   111

d Rotarod performance by age and condition

e Enriched GO and KEGG terms based on 3M "Spreading Signature"

down-regulated 3M "Spreading Signature"

up-regulated 3M "Spreading Signature"

Figure 5. Motoric deficits and α-syn oligomer spreading related transcriptional changes of astrocytes are age specific

a, Using snRNA data from 23-months old mice of our PD mouse model we calculated a Module Score of our "Spreading Signature" for all annotated cell types using the Seurat[25] function *AddModuleScore*. Comparing the scores between the conditions, only the astrocytic subtypes cleared the significance threshold of FDR < 0.05 and effect size > 0.15. **b,** We investigated our "Spreading Signature" of interest at 20-months across the ages by comparing the log2 Fold Changes of the "Spreading Area" vs. "No Spreading Area" comparison 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. **c,** Comparing the α-syn oligomer spreading specific "Spreading Signature" between 3 months and 20 months old mice showed an age specific split in the "Spreading Signature". **d,** 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 the ON mice showed a significant motoric deficit compared to the OFF mice. The statistical testing was done by an unpaired student´s t-test with significance set at a p value lower than 0.05. **e,** 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

Next, we analyzed the "Spreading Area" also in younger mice and asked whether related transcriptional changes also occur in young mice. Using the same methods as for the 20M mice, we confirmed α-syn oligomer spreading in the same region in the 3M spatial transcriptomics data (Ext. Data Fig. 6 C). Notably, the down-regulated genes from the 20M "Spreading Signature" were similarly regulated in 3M and 20M. In contrast to this, the up-regulated genes were highly elevated upon aging (Figure 5 B). Moreover, Module Scores, stratified by up-regulated and down-regulated genes

showed that especially the up-regulated genes from the 20M old animals are enriched in the astrocyte subtypes (Ext. Data Fig. 8 A). This suggests that aging is necessary for astrocyte transcriptional changes to occur 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. There was only a miniscule overlap between the 20M "Spreading Signature" and the 3M "Spreading Signature" (Figure 5 C). Furthermore, we observed motoric disabilities for PD mice only on the aged cohort (Figure 5 D) pointing to a connection between differing transcriptional changes and the motoric deficits.

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 E).

Taken together, our findings suggest that the neuronal function has some disruptions already at 3M that further progress during aging (Figure 5 E). During aging reactive astrocytes get affected by α-syn oligomers (Figure 4; Figure 5 A, B; Ext. Data Fig. 8 A), which may enhance the disruptive load on neuronal function, eventually leading to PD phenotype (Figure 5 D).

Dysregulations in the astrocyte-neuron glutamate system is recapitulated in PD patients

To investigate whether the observed astrocytic changes extend to neuronal changes we used our snRNA-seq data from 23-months old mice and performed Gene Ontology (GO) and KEGG pathway enrichment analyses of the Astro-Slc1a2 DEGs. Since the

PD motoric phenotype was only observed in the aged mice groups we focused on the

aged mice for further analysis.

GO and KEGG pathway analysis highlighted glutamatergic synapses, neurotransmitter

cycles and TCA-cycle metabolism (Figure 6 A, Suppl. Table 3). Furthermore, using the

same methodology as for the network inference from the 20M "Spreading Signature",

we constructed a functional network for the Astro-Slc1a2 DEGs from the snRNA-seq

data (Ext. Data Fig. 8 B) and found *Grm5* as a prominent central gene which

corresponds to the metabotropic glutamatergic receptor 5 (mGluR5) on a protein level.

Interestingly, mGluR5 plays an essential role in glutamate signaling and astrocyte-

neuron interactions[26-28] (Suppl. Table 3).

a — Enriched terms in Astro-Slc1a2 cell type in snRNA

b — Dotplot of enriched Astrocyte/Synapse Terms across glutamatergic Neuron subtypes

c — Comparison of astrocytes between PD mice model and human PD patient snRNA data

Figure 6. Single nucleus RNA data indicates α-syn oligomer related disruptions in the Astrocyte-glutamatergic neuron system (Astro-GluN) in specific glutamatergic neuron subtypes and in both mouse and human astrocytes

a, Enriched Gene Ontology (GO) and KEGG terms of the Astro-Slc1a2 DEGs showed terms related to glutamatergic synapses, neurotransmitter cycles and Astro-GluN system. **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 used the Smajic et al. snRNA dataset that included astrocytes from the SN of six PD patients and six sex-age matched controls. The labelled genes are the top 5 most central genes of the Astro-Slc1a2 DEG network. While all DEGs show moderate concordance, the central genes related to Astro-GluN system display strong concordance between mouse and human snRNA data.

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.

Since we were capable to show transcriptional changes in astrocytes related to Astro-GluN interactions via multiple modalities, we next focused on glutamatergic neurons. We used our snRNA-seq dataset and annotated 13 distinct glutamatergic neuron subtypes to study enriched GO and KEGG terms for each glutamatergic subtype (Ext. Data Fig. 7 C). Although the analysis was based on DEGs between conditions in glutamatergic neuron subtypes, 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*, 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 have an increased vulnerability to astrocytic changes and potentially to the aforementioned dysfunctions in the Astro-GluN system, with mGluRs possibly playing a pivotal role in the transmission of pathology between astrocytes and neurons.

Based on our *in-vivo* analysis of spatial data, snRNA-seq data, and confocal imaging from our PD mouse model, we could pinpoint the effects of α-syn oligomer spreading to reactive astrocytes and changes in the Astro-GluN system in two distinct glutamatergic subtypes. Next, we compared our findings to human data and found comparable transcriptional changes between our snRNA-seq mouse data and human PD data related to Astro-GluN interactions.

We employed the PD snRNA-seq dataset from Smajic et al.[16], which includes major glial cell types from the SN of PD patients and age-/sex-matched controls and compared the log2 fold changes of Astro-Slc1a2 DEGs between mouse Astro-Slc1a2 cells to human astrocyte cells.

While the DEGs exhibited moderate concordance overall, the central genes from our snRNA-seq mouse network (Ext. Data Fig. 8 B) -particularly those involved in Astro-GluN system- displayed strong concordance between mouse and human data (Figure 6 C).

As genes from the Astro-GluN system, including the aforementioned *Grm5*, show solid concordance between mouse and human astrocyte data, we suggest that the diminished function of the Astro-GluN system through transcriptional changes, is also present in human PD patients. This supports the translational importance of astrocytes and the Astro-GluN system in PD pathology.

Figure 7. Revised model of α-syn oligomer spreading including the Astrocyte-GluN system dysfunctions

Proposed model for PD pathology associated with α-syn oligomer spreading. We hypothesize that the accumulation of α-syn oligomers at the synaptic cleft arises from both neuronal spreading and impaired astrocytic degradation of α-syn oligomers. This impairment may stem from diminished signaling pathways and cell-cell junctions in astrocytes. The accumulation of α-syn oligomers leads to an increase of reactive astrocyte numbers. The main damage of astrocytic impairment seems to be the astrocyte-neuron glutamate system, in which the synaptic accumulation of α-syn oligomers disrupts glutamatergic recycling and signaling in both astrocytes and glutamatergic neurons/synapses. Especially the genes *Slc1a2* (EAAT: Glutamate channel) and the mGluR genes *Grm3* and *Grm5* (mGluR3/mGluR5) are major players in this pathology. With less signaling occurring at the synapses, the affected synapses will start to degrade and lead to known PD effects. In summary, the spread of α-syn oligomers drives synaptic dysfunction and degeneration, alongside the activation of astrocytes, culminating in the progression of PD pathology.

Discussion

Based on multiple modalities this study demonstrates transcriptional and physiological changes of the SN *in-vivo* in response to α-syn oligomer spreading. We confirmed activation of astrocytes, transcriptional changes in astrocytes related to the Astro-GluN system, and vulnerable subtypes of glutamatergic neurons. Notably, we observed that astrocyte changes only occur in aged mice and provide evidence that these changes might be linked to motoric phenotypes. Based on our findings, we propose a model of α-syn oligomer spreading involving reactive astrocytes, glutamatergic synapses, and a damaged Astro-GluN system (Figure 7) and report 36 genes centrally involved in this model of α-syn oligomer spreading (Suppl. Table 3).

Multiple studies consistently reported the importance of astrocytes in PD and their interactions with α-syn[29-35]. Moreover, Loria et al.[32] 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 EAAT channel when injected into mice[36].

Extending on previous findings, we show *in-vivo* that in response to α-syn oligomer spreading, astrocytes become reactive, 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. This molecular architecture could confirm the previously reported astrocytic changes involving *Slc1a2*/EAAT 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[31,37,38], such as Trudler et al.[38] showing that

α-syn oligomers induced astrocytes to release more glutamate and thereby increase

glutamatergic signaling in human primary neurons from induced pluripotent stem cells.

Our data are in line with these prior findings, moreover, we report the underlying

transcriptional changes including downregulation of genes related to glutamate

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

vulnerable glutamatergic neurons. This might offer specific central targets to rescue

the Astro-GluN system. 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

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

astrocytes or the more vulnerable glutamatergic neuron subtypes. Importantly,

mGluR3 and mGluR5 have already been shown to be of importance in human

astrocytes for the Astro-GluN system[39].

Previously, mGluRs have been implicated in PD multiple times[40-42] with for example

mGluR5 antagonists being protective of dopaminergic neurons in PD animal

models[43,44]. We align mGluRs into α-syn oligomer spreading related Astro-GluN

dysfunctions and suggest that the disruptions in mGluR signaling, diminished 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[45],

the synapses and neurons with less signaling activity devolve and are eliminated.

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

with sufficient aging and that this involvement is necessary for PD phenotypes to

emerge. We observed higher vulnerability to age related effects in our "Spreading

Area" by enrichment of the SenMayo gene set pointing to senescence. 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[46] and age related neurodegenerative diseases like PD or Alzheimer´s Disease[47,48]. Of note, α-syn aggregates have been shown to spread in patterns correlating with regional senescence markers in PD[49]. Thus, our data further emphasizes reactive 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[50-52].

Here we report a unique gene set found to be central players in the transcriptional changes of astrocytes and vulnerable GluN subtypes 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 system dysfunction in the context of spreading of α-syn oligomers *in-vivo* and suggest that these 36 central genes as a potential therapeutic target to combat PD related Astro-GluN dysfunction.

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 from the Department of Neurology and Olena Sakk from the Core Facility for Transgenic Animals. The process was conducted with guidance of Dr. Bernd Baumann from the Institute of Physiological Chemistry at Ulm University. Detailed phenotypic characterization of these transgenic mice has been previously published[18].

The animals were maintained under standardized environmental conditions at the Animal Research Center of Ulm University. The mice used in this study were double-transgenic for V1S/SV2 and calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II alpha (CamKIIa)[53], with transgene expression being regulated by doxycycline in a Tet-off system[18]. To suppress transgene expression, 100 mg/ml doxycycline was administered via the drinking water, which was supplemented with 10 g/l glucose to improve palatability. For mice in which transgene expression was to be activated, drinking water contained only glucose (10 g/l) without doxycycline.

The animals were housed in groups within open polycarbonate type II long cages. Environmental parameters were stringently controlled, including temperature, humidity and a 12-hour light/dark cycle. Food and water were provided *ad libitum* to ensure unrestricted access. To promote animal welfare, the cages were enriched with nesting material and polycarbonate shelters.

The V1S/SV2 mouse model employs a bioluminescent protein complementation assay that facilitates the detection of α-syn aggregation. This system involves the expression of human wild-type α-syn fused to either the N-terminal or C-terminal fragment of

yellow fluorescent protein (YFP), referred to as V1S and SV2, respectively. The simultaneous expression of these two fragments enables their reconstitution into a functional fluorescent protein upon aggregation of α-syn.

Rotarod experiments

All mice performed accelerating rotarod (Panlab Harvard LE8205) at the same days 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 5 min break in between. The latency to fall was recorded and mean values were used for analysis.

Nuclei Isolation

To isolate nuclei from murine brain tissue, approximately 100 mg of brain material was dissected from a single hemisphere, spanning the region from 0 to -5 mm relative to Bregma, using a mouse coronal brain matrix (Cell Point Scientific). Brain tissue from two animals was pooled to ensure sufficient material for subsequent isolation procedures. All experimental steps were carried out on ice to maintain sample integrity.

Initially, 1,400 µl of 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) was added to a douncer containing the dissected brain tissue. The tissue was mechanically homogenized using pestle A, followed by further homogenization with pestle B. The resulting homogenate was filtered sequentially through 70 µm and 40 µm Flowmi cell strainers to eliminate debris and large particles.

Subsequently, 700 µl of the filtered homogenate was combined with 450 µl of a 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 (with 96 mM Sucrose, 5 mM $CaCl_2$, 3 mM $Mg(Ac)_2$, 10 mM Tris

HCl pH 8, 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.03 % NP-40, 0.12 U/µl RiboLock in H_2O), 750 µl of 30 %

Opti-Prep (with 134 mM Sucrose, 5 mM $CaCl_2$, 3 mM $Mg(Ac)_2$, 10 mM Tris HCl pH 8,

0.1 mM EDTA pH 8, 1 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 0.04 % NP-40, 0.17 U/µl RiboLock in

H_2O) and 700 µl of the homogenized tissue mixture. The density gradient was

centrifuged at 10,000 g for 5 min at 4 °C.

Following centrifugation, 200 µl of the isolated nuclei were carefully aspirated and

transferred into a 1.5 ml low-DNA-binding tube. To preserve nuclear integrity, 250 µl of

a solution containing 2 % BSA and 0.12 U/µl RiboLock in PBS was added. The mixture

was centrifuged at 2,000 g for 3 min at 4 °C, and the supernatant was discarded. The

resulting pellet was resuspended in 250 µl of the same 2 % BSA/RiboLock solution

and subjected to a second round of centrifugation under identical conditions. The

supernatant was discarded, and the pellet was resuspended in 250 µl of 2 %

BSA/RiboLock solution. The suspension was filtered through a 40 µm Flowmi cell

strainer into a fresh low-DNA binding tube. A final centrifugation at 2,000 g for 3 min at

4 °C was performed to pellet the nuclei.

The resulting pellet was resuspended in 50 µl of 1x nuclei buffer, prepared by diluting

10X Genomics nuclei buffer with the addition of 1 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and 1 U/µl

RiboLock in H_2O. To evaluate the integrity and quantity of the isolated nuclei, a DAPI

stain was applied to visualize nuclear membrane integrity. The isolated nuclei were

subsequently used for snRNA-seq experiments. This was done for three mice per

condition.

Single-nuclei RNA Sequencing

The "Chromium 3' Single Cell Gene Expression and Library Kit" (10x Genomics) was

used to generate the Gel Beads-In-Emulsion (GEMs), following the guidelines provided

by the manufacturer. Shortly, 22,000 of the isolated nuclei from mouse brain tissue

were introduced into barcoded Gel Beads using the Chromium Controller. Following

GEM-RT incubation, cDNA samples underwent recovery, purification and amplification

through a cDNA amplification reaction. Quality assessments on the amplified cDNA

were conducted using a High Sensitivity DNA Kit (Agilent) on a TapeStation platform.

Libraries were subsequently generated through the processes of fragmentation and

adaptor ligation. Sample Index PCR was executed and the resulting purified libraries

underwent assessment on TapeStation using a High Sensitivity DNA Kit to evaluate

fragment quality. The single-nucleus libraries were then sent to Novogene (United

Kingdom) for sequencing with the NovaSeq 6000.

Visium spatial brain slice preparation

To prepare tissue samples for visium spatial gene expression experiments, fresh-

frozen tissue specimens were utilized. The animals were euthanized using fast cervical

dislocation and the brain was immediately dissected. A metal beaker was filled with

isopentane and placed into a liquid nitrogen dewar to allow for rapid cooling. Sufficient

contact between the isopentane and the liquid nitrogen was ensured. The fresh tissue

sample was positioned in a cryomold and coated with TissueTek embedding medium.

The cryomold containing the embedded tissue was lowered into the chilled isopentane

and held in place until the TissueTek medium had fully solidified. Once the tissue was

completely frozen, it was transferred to dry ice and afterwards stored in a sealed

container at -80 °C for long-term preservation.

For sectioning, the cryostat was set to -20 °C. The frozen tissue block was removed

from storage and allowed to equilibrate briefly at cryostat temperature. The tissue block

was sectioned into slices with a thickness of 10-12 µm using the cryostat. Each section

was carefully transferred onto a visium gene expression slide by gently touching the

section to the active surface of the slide. After mounting the tissue section, the slide

was immediately placed into a storage container at -80 °C. The slides were maintained

at this temperature until further processing to preserve RNA integrity and spatial

organization. This was done for three mice per condition and we included 3-4 brain

slices per mice.

Visium spatial immunofluorescence staining

Prior to the visium spatial gene expression protocol, the sections were incubated for 1

min at 37 °C and subsequently fixed in cold methanol for 30 min at -20 °C. All following

steps were carried out in the visium slide cassette. The sections were then stained with

a fluorescent anti-GFP antibody to visualize the V1S/SV2 aggregates. A total of 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) was added to each slide, and

the sections were incubated for 5 min at RT. After that time, the Blocking buffer was

removed and 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 to each well. The sections were incubated for 30 min at RT.

The Primary Antibody Solution was removed, and 100 µl of Wash 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) was added to each well. The Wash Buffer was directly

removed and the washing step was repeated for a total of five washes. Next, 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) was

added to each well and incubated for 30 min at RT. The Secondary Antibody Solution

was removed, and 100 µl of Wash Buffer was added again. The Wash Buffer was

removed and the washing step was repeated for a total of five washes. After removing

the slide from the visium slide cassette, it was immersed 20 times in 50 ml of 3x SSC

buffer, and 200 µl of Mounting Medium (85 % Glycerol, 2 U/µl Rnase inhibitor in H_2O)

was added to cover the tissue, followed by the application of a coverslip. Imaging was

performed immediately. Afterwards, the coverslip was removed by immersing the slide

in 3x SSC buffer until it slowly detached. The slide was placed back in a clean visium

slide cassette for the visium spatial gene expression experiment.

Visium Spatial Gene Expression experiment

The experiments following fluorescence staining were carried out using the "Visium

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

manufacturer's protocol. In summary, the procedure involved several key steps to

ensure successful library preparation and gene expression analysis. Initially, tissue

sections were subjected to controlled permeabilization to allow access to intracellular

RNA. This was followed by reverse transcription. Next, second strand synthesis was

performed to generate double-stranded cDNA. The resulting cDNA was denatured to

separate the strands, and the single-stranded cDNA was subsequently amplified

through a series of PCR cycles. The amplified cDNA underwent a cleanup process to

remove reaction by-products. Following cDNA purification, the samples were subjected

to a step of fragmentation, end repair and A-tailing to create suitable 3' ends for adaptor

ligation. Adaptors were then ligated to the DNA fragments to facilitate downstream

sequencing. Post-ligation cleanup was performed to eliminate excess adapters.

Finally, a sample index PCR was carried out to introduce unique sample indices,

enabling the multiplexing of samples during 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*[54] pipeline, including introns.

Sequencing and alignment of Visium Spatial samples

Paired 150bp snRNA-seq was performed using the NovaSeq 6000 sequencer.

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*[54] were loaded into an AnnData

object and processed using the Python-based framework *Scanpy 1.10.2*[55]. 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*[56]. To remove

potential doublets, *scDblFinder 1.18.0*[57] 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[25] and we

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

performed using *Harmony 1.2.0*[58] 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)[21], 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)[21] and literature were used in combination

with the Allen mouse brain atlas[19,20] 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[59,60] to normalize counts and calculate covariates using *sva*

3.52.0[61]. Sva covariates and condition were included into the design (~ SV1 +

condition) to perform Wald testing. P-values were recalculated using *fdrtool 1.2.18*[62]

with the "stat" values and adjusted p-values were obtained by Benjamini-Hochberg[63]

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[64]* 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[22]. 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.

Inference of Networks

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

al.[23,65]. 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[66]* architecture.

Finding Interactions in interaction databases

The OmniPath database[67] was accessed using *OmnipathR 3.11.16*[67] and combined

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

STRING[68]. 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.

Spot deconvolution

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

same mouse model. We used the *CARD 1.1* package[69] 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.

Analysis of Cell type composition differences

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

CARD. Most probable changes were calculated using *tascCODA 0.1.3*[70] 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[71] via the R function *wilcox.test()*. We calculated the effect size for each comparison

using the *cliff.delta()* R function[72].

Term Enrichment analysis

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

4.12.1[73] and *pathfindR 2.4.1*[74] 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, Infection, 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 the snRNA dataset from Smajic et al., 2022[16]. DEG analysis was performed

on pseudo-bulked samples with Deseq2 Wald testing for each cell type using the

annotation from the original publication. The astrocyte PD vs. Control results were

compared to our astrocyte ON vs OFF from snRNA-seq data of mice.

Data and code availability

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

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, GRK 1789 (CEMMA) and SFB 1506 (Aging at Interfaces).

Author Contribution

K.M. Danzer and J. LeeBae designed the project. V. Bopp, A. Goreth, J.K. Kühlwein, L. Meier, and D. Rombach performed experiments and analyzed the data. V. Bopp, A. Goreth, and J. LeeBae prepared graphs and designed figures. E. Gazzola performed quality control and annotation of cell types for snRNA-seq data. J. LeeBae performed all other bioinformatic analysis. V. Grozdanov, L. Dimou provided intellectual input. J. LeeBae and K.M. Danzer wrote the manuscript. All authors have revised or critically reviewed the article.

References

1. Lewy FH. Paralysis agitans. I. Pathologische Anatomie. In: Lewandowsky M, ed. *Handbuch der Neurologie*. Springer; 1912:920 - 958.

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*. Mar-Apr 2003;24(2):197-211. doi:10.1016/s0197-4580(02)00065-9

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*. May 2008;14(5):504-6. doi:10.1038/nm1747

4. Li JY, Englund E, Holton JL, et al. Lewy bodies in grafted neurons in subjects with Parkinson's disease suggest host-to-graft disease propagation. *Nat Med*. May 2008;14(5):501-3. doi:10.1038/nm1746

5. Desplats P, Lee HJ, Bae EJ, et al. Inclusion formation and neuronal cell death through neuron-to-neuron transmission of alpha-synuclein. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. Aug 4 2009;106(31):13010-5. doi:10.1073/pnas.0903691106

6. Henderson MX, Cornblath EJ, Darwich A, et al. Spread of α-synuclein pathology through the brain connectome is modulated by selective vulnerability and predicted by network analysis. *Nat Neurosci*. Aug 2019;22(8):1248-1257. doi:10.1038/s41593-019-0457-5

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*. Mar 3 2015;10(8):1252-60. doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2015.01.060

8. Luk KC, Kehm V, Carroll J, et al. Pathological α-synuclein transmission initiates Parkinson-like neurodegeneration in nontransgenic mice. *Science*. Nov 16 2012;338(6109):949-53. doi:10.1126/science.1227157

9. Rey NL, George S, Steiner JA, 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*. Jan 2018;135(1):65-83. doi:10.1007/s00401-017-1792-9

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*. Apr 4 2008;283(14):9089-100. doi:10.1074/jbc.M710012200

11. Danzer KM, Haasen D, Karow AR, 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*. Aug 22 2007;27(34):9220-32. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2617-07.2007

12. Shrivastava AN, Redeker V, Fritz N, et al. α-synuclein assemblies sequester neuronal α3-Na+/K+-ATPase and impair Na+ gradient. *Embo j*. Oct 1 2015;34(19):2408-23. doi:10.15252/embj.201591397

13. Choi I, Zhang Y, Seegobin SP, et al. Microglia clear neuron-released α-synuclein via selective autophagy and prevent neurodegeneration. *Nat Commun*. Mar 13 2020;11(1):1386. doi:10.1038/s41467-020-15119-w

14. Lee HJ, Kim C, Lee SJ. Alpha-synuclein stimulation of astrocytes: Potential role for neuroinflammation and neuroprotection. *Oxid Med Cell Longev*. Jul-Aug 2010;3(4):283-7. doi:10.4161/oxim.3.4.12809

15. Reddy K, Dieriks BV. Multiple system atrophy: α-Synuclein strains at the neuron-oligodendrocyte crossroad. *Molecular neurodegeneration*. Nov 26 2022;17(1):77. doi:10.1186/s13024-022-00579-z

16. Smajić S, Prada-Medina CA, Landoulsi Z, et al. Single-cell sequencing of human midbrain reveals glial activation and a Parkinson-specific neuronal state. *Brain : a journal of neurology*. Apr 29 2022;145(3):964-978. doi:10.1093/brain/awab446

17.   Martirosyan A, Ansari R, Pestana F, et al. Unravelling cell type-specific responses to
Parkinson's Disease at single cell resolution. *Molecular neurodegeneration*. Jan 20 2024;19(1):7.
doi:10.1186/s13024-023-00699-0
18.   Kiechle M, von Einem B, Höfs L, et al. In Vivo Protein Complementation Demonstrates
Presynaptic α-Synuclein Oligomerization and Age-Dependent Accumulation of 8-16-mer Oligomer
Species. *Cell Rep*. Nov 26 2019;29(9):2862-2874.e9. doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2019.10.089
19.   Science AIfB. Data from: Allen Mouse Brain Atlas. 2004.
20.   Science AIfB. Data from: Allen Reference Atlas - Mouse Brain. 2011.
21.   Zeisel A, Hochgerner H, Lönnerberg P, et al. Molecular Architecture of the Mouse Nervous
System. *Cell*. Aug 9 2018;174(4):999-1014.e22. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2018.06.021
22.   Badia-i-Mompel P, Vélez Santiago J, Braunger J, et al. decoupleR: ensemble of computational
methods to infer biological activities from omics data. *Bioinformatics Advances*. 2022;2(1):vbac016.
doi:10.1093/bioadv/vbac016
23.   Chan TE, Stumpf MP, Babtie ACJCs. Gene regulatory network inference from single-cell data
using multivariate information measures. 2017;5(3):251-267. e3.
24.   Saul D, Kosinsky RL, Atkinson EJ, et al. A new gene set identifies senescent cells and predicts
senescence-associated pathways across tissues. *Nature Communications*. 2022/08/16
2022;13(1):4827. doi:10.1038/s41467-022-32552-1
25.   Hao Y, Stuart T, Kowalski MH, et al. Dictionary learning for integrative, multimodal and
scalable single-cell analysis. *Nature Biotechnology*. 2024/02/01 2024;42(2):293-304.
doi:10.1038/s41587-023-01767-y
26.   Purgert CA, Izumi Y, Jong YJ, Kumar V, Zorumski CF, O'Malley KL. Intracellular mGluR5 can
mediate synaptic plasticity in the hippocampus. *J Neurosci*. Mar 26 2014;34(13):4589-98.
doi:10.1523/jneurosci.3451-13.2014
27.   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*. Jul 5 1992;267(19):13361-8.
28.   Uematsu K, Heiman M, Zelenina M, et al. Protein kinase A directly phosphorylates
metabotropic glutamate receptor 5 to modulate its function. *J Neurochem*. Mar 2015;132(6):677-86.
doi:10.1111/jnc.13038
29.   Hua J, Yin N, Xu S, et al. Enhancing the Astrocytic Clearance of Extracellular α-Synuclein
Aggregates by Ginkgolides Attenuates Neural Cell Injury. *Cell Mol Neurobiol*. Oct 2019;39(7):1017-
1028. doi:10.1007/s10571-019-00696-2
30.   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. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0185989
31.   Sonninen TM, Hämäläinen RH, Koskuvi M, et al. Metabolic alterations in Parkinson's disease
astrocytes. *Sci Rep*. Sep 2 2020;10(1):14474. doi:10.1038/s41598-020-71329-8
32.   Loria F, Vargas JY, Bousset L, et al. α-Synuclein transfer between neurons and astrocytes
indicates that astrocytes play a role in degradation rather than in spreading. *Acta Neuropathol*. Nov
2017;134(5):789-808. doi:10.1007/s00401-017-1746-2
33.   Tsunemi T, Ishiguro Y, Yoroisaka A, et al. Astrocytes Protect Human Dopaminergic Neurons
from α-Synuclein Accumulation and Propagation. *J Neurosci*. Nov 4 2020;40(45):8618-8628.
doi:10.1523/jneurosci.0954-20.2020
34.   Rostami J, Holmqvist S, Lindström V, et al. Human Astrocytes Transfer Aggregated Alpha-
Synuclein via Tunneling Nanotubes. *J Neurosci*. Dec 6 2017;37(49):11835-11853.
doi:10.1523/jneurosci.0983-17.2017
35.   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*. Sep 2007;114(3):231-41. doi:10.1007/s00401-007-0244-3

36.   Sheng L, Stewart T, Yang D, et al. Erythrocytic α-synuclein contained in microvesicles regulates
astrocytic glutamate homeostasis: a new perspective on Parkinson's disease pathogenesis. *Acta*
Neuropathol Commun. Jul 8 2020;8(1):102. doi:10.1186/s40478-020-00983-w
37.   Banerjee R, Raj A, Potdar C, 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. Jun 8 2023;12(12)doi:10.3390/cells12121592
38.   Trudler D, Sanz-Blasco S, Eisele YS, et al. α-Synuclein Oligomers Induce Glutamate Release
from Astrocytes and Excessive Extrasynaptic NMDAR Activity in Neurons, Thus Contributing to
Synapse Loss. *J Neurosci*. Mar 10 2021;41(10):2264-2273. doi:10.1523/jneurosci.1871-20.2020
39.   Aronica E, Gorter JA, Ijlst-Keizers H, 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. May 2003;17(10):2106-18. doi:10.1046/j.1460-9568.2003.02657.x
40.   Ossowska K, Konieczny J, Wardas J, et al. An influence of ligands of metabotropic glutamate
receptor subtypes on parkinsonian-like symptoms and the striatopallidal pathway in rats. *Amino*
Acids. Feb 2007;32(2):179-88. doi:10.1007/s00726-006-0317-y
41.   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. Jan 2006;23(1):151-60. doi:10.1111/j.1460-9568.2005.04550.x
42.   Cuomo D, Martella G, Barabino E, 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*. May 2009;109(4):1096-105. doi:10.1111/j.1471-
4159.2009.06036.x
43.   Masilamoni GJ, Bogenpohl JW, Alagille D, et al. Metabotropic glutamate receptor 5 antagonist
protects dopaminergic and noradrenergic neurons from degeneration in MPTP-treated monkeys.
Brain : a journal of neurology. Jul 2011;134(Pt 7):2057-73. doi:10.1093/brain/awr137
44.   Battaglia G, Busceti CL, Molinaro G, 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*. Jan 28 2004;24(4):828-35.
doi:10.1523/jneurosci.3831-03.2004
45.   Südhof TC. The cell biology of synapse formation. *J Cell Biol*. Jul 5
2021;220(7)doi:10.1083/jcb.202103052
46.   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*. 2021/02/01
2021;22(2):75-95. doi:10.1038/s41580-020-00314-w
47.   Ma Y, Erb ML, Moore DJ. Aging, cellular senescence and Parkinson's disease. *Journal of*
Parkinson's Disease. 2025/03/01 2025;15(2):239-254. doi:10.1177/1877718X251316552
48.   Chinta SJ, Woods G, Demaria M, et al. Cellular Senescence Is Induced by the Environmental
Neurotoxin Paraquat and Contributes to Neuropathology Linked to Parkinson's Disease. *Cell Rep*. Jan
23 2018;22(4):930-940. doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2017.12.092
49.   Lee SJ, Lim HS, Masliah E, Lee HJ. Protein aggregate spreading in neurodegenerative diseases:
problems and perspectives. *Neurosci Res*. Aug 2011;70(4):339-48. doi:10.1016/j.neures.2011.05.008
50.   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*. 2018/02// 2018;115(8):E1896-E1905.
doi:10.1073/pnas.1800165115
51.   Ishii T, Takanashi Y, Sugita K, et al. Endogenous reactive oxygen species cause astrocyte
defects and neuronal dysfunctions in the hippocampus: a new model for aging brain. *Aging Cell*. Feb
2017;16(1):39-51. doi:10.1111/acel.12523
52.   Ferrer I. Diversity of astroglial responses across human neurodegenerative disorders and
brain aging. *Brain Pathol*. Sep 2017;27(5):645-674. doi:10.1111/bpa.12538

53.   Mayford M, Bach ME, Huang YY, Wang L, Hawkins RD, Kandel ER. Control of memory
formation through regulated expression of a CaMKII transgene. *Science*. Dec 6 1996;274(5293):1678-
83. doi:10.1126/science.274.5293.1678
54.   Zheng GX, Terry JM, Belgrader P, et al. Massively parallel digital transcriptional profiling of
single cells. *Nat Commun*. Jan 16 2017;8:14049. doi:10.1038/ncomms14049
55.   Wolf FA, Angerer P, Theis FJ. SCANPY: large-scale single-cell gene expression data analysis.
Genome Biol. Feb 6 2018;19(1):15. doi:10.1186/s13059-017-1382-0
56.   Young MD, Behjati S. SoupX removes ambient RNA contamination from droplet-based single-
cell RNA sequencing data. *Gigascience*. Dec 26 2020;9(12)doi:10.1093/gigascience/giaa151
57.   Germain PL, Lun A, Garcia Meixide C, Macnair W, Robinson MD. Doublet identification in
single-cell sequencing data using scDblFinder. *F1000Res*.
2021;10doi:10.12688/f1000research.73600.2
58.   Korsunsky I, Millard N, Fan J, et al. Fast, sensitive and accurate integration of single-cell data
with Harmony. *Nature Methods*. 2019/12/01 2019;16(12):1289-1296. doi:10.1038/s41592-019-0619-
0
59.   Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-
seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biology*. 2014/12/05 2014;15(12):550. doi:10.1186/s13059-014-0550-
8
60.   Love M, Anders S, Huber WJGB. Differential analysis of count data–the DESeq2 package.
2014;15(550):10-1186.
61.   Leek JT. svaseq: removing batch effects and other unwanted noise from sequencing data.
Nucleic Acids Res. Dec 1 2014;42(21):e161. doi:10.1093/nar/gku864
62.   Strimmer K. fdrtool: a versatile R package for estimating local and tail area-based false
discovery rates. *Bioinformatics*. 2008;24(12):1461-1462. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btn209
63.   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. doi:10.1111/j.2517-6161.1995.tb02031.x
64.   Pham D, Tan X, Balderson B, et al. Robust mapping of spatiotemporal trajectories and cell–cell
interactions in healthy and diseased tissues. *Nature Communications*. 2023/11/25 2023;14(1):7739.
doi:10.1038/s41467-023-43120-6
65.   Chan TE, Stumpf MPH, Babtie AC. Gene Regulatory Network Inference from Single-Cell Data
Using Multivariate Information Measures. *Cell Syst*. Sep 27 2017;5(3):251-267.e3.
doi:10.1016/j.cels.2017.08.014
66.   Nepusz GCaT. The igraph software package for complex network research. *InterJournal*.
2006;Complex Systems:1695. doi:https://igraph.org
67.   Türei D, Valdeolivas A, Gul L, et al. Integrated intra- and intercellular signaling knowledge for
multicellular omics analysis. *Mol Syst Biol*. Mar 2021;17(3):e9923. doi:10.15252/msb.20209923
68.   Szklarczyk D, Kirsch R, Koutrouli M, et al. The STRING database in 2023: protein-protein
association networks and functional enrichment analyses for any sequenced genome of interest.
Nucleic Acids Res. Jan 6 2023;51(D1):D638-d646. doi:10.1093/nar/gkac1000
69.   Ma Y, Zhou X. Spatially informed cell-type deconvolution for spatial transcriptomics. *Nature*
Biotechnology. 2022/09/01 2022;40(9):1349-1359. doi:10.1038/s41587-022-01273-7
70.   Ostner J, Carcy S, Müller CL. tascCODA: Bayesian Tree-Aggregated Analysis of Compositional
Amplicon and Single-Cell Data. *Front Genet*. 2021;12:766405. doi:10.3389/fgene.2021.766405
71.   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*. 3/1 1947;18(1):50-60.
doi:10.1214/aoms/1177730491
72.   *Effsize - a package for efficient effect size computation*. 2016.
73.   Wu T, Hu E, Xu S, et al. clusterProfiler 4.0: A universal enrichment tool for interpreting omics
data. *The Innovation*. 2021;2(3)doi:10.1016/j.xinn.2021.100141

74.   Ulgen E, Ozisik O, Sezerman OU. pathfindR: An R Package for Comprehensive Identification of

Enriched Pathways in Omics Data Through Active Subnetworks. Methods. *Frontiers in Genetics*.

2019;Volume 10 - 2019