Targeting Lysosomal pH Restores Mitochondrial Quality Control in GBA1-Mutant Parkinson's Disease

Preethi Sheshadri[1,†],

Maria Alicia Costa Besada[1,#],

Alessia Fisher[1],

Szilvia Kiraly[2],

Kritarth Singh[1],

Ioanna Kourouzidou[1,‡],

Thomas S. Blacker[3]

Jialiu Zeng[5]

Orian S Shirihai[4],

Mark W Grinstaff[5],

Michael R Duchen[1,*].

1- University College London, Department of Cell and Developmental Biology, WC1E 6BT and UCL Consortium for Mitochondrial Research. .
2- UCL Institute of Ophthalmology, Bath Street, London EC1V9EL.
3- UCL, Department of Structural and Molecular Biology, London, WC1E 6BT.
4- Department of Medicine, David Geffen School of Medicine, University of California, Los Angeles, CA 90095.
5- Departments of Biomedical Engineering and Chemistry, Boston University, MA 02215.

* - Correspondence to Michael R. Duchen; email – m.duchen@ucl.ac.uk
†- Current address - UK Dementia Research Institute, Cardiff University, CF24 4HQ.
#- Current address - Research Center for Molecular Medicine and Chronic Diseases (CIMUS), Research Health Institute of Santiago (IDIS), University of Santiago de Compostela, Santiago de Compostela, Spain. Networking Research Center on Neurodegenerative Diseases (CIBERNED), Madrid, Spain.
‡- Current address - Biofabrics, Rua do Campo Lindo, Porto, Portugal.

Abstract

Heterozygous mutations in the Glucocerebrosidase gene (*GBA1*), encoding the lysosomal
hydrolase β-glucocerebrosidase (GCase), are a genetic risk factor for Parkinson's disease (PD).
To explore the pathophysiological consequences of these mutations, we have used fibroblasts
and dopaminergic neurons generated from induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) derived from
patients with *GBA1* related PD. GCase activity, lysosomal acidification, protease activity,
mitophagy and mitochondrial bioenergetic function were all impaired. Mitochondria were
fragmented, with reduced membrane potential and oxygen consumption. We propose that
impaired bioenergetic function is a consequence of impaired lysosomal acidification and
compromised mitophagy. The V-ATPase complex drives lysosomal acidification. Its assembly
is regulated by MTORC1, which is constitutively phosphorylated in mutant cells. FLIM-FRET
measurements confirmed impaired V-ATPase assembly which reversed following rapamycin
treatment. Acidic nanoparticles, which accumulate in lysosomes, rescued lysosomal pH, and
restored mitophagy and mitochondrial membrane potential in *GBA1* mutant dopaminergic
neurons. These data identify a core pathway as a potential therapeutic target for the treatment
of *GBA1*-mediated Parkinson's Disease. (160 words)

Keywords: GBA1, mitochondria, lysosomes, lysosomal pH, MTOR, acidic nanoparticles

Introduction

Genome-wide association studies have revealed that mutations of the glucocerebrosidase (*GBA1*) gene constitute a significant risk factor in the development of Parkinson's Disease (PD)[60]. The *GBA1* gene encodes the enzyme β-glucocerebrosidase (GCase), which generates glucose and ceramide from glucosylceramide within lysosomes. While homozygous *GBA1* mutations cause Gaucher Disease, which may include a significant neurodegenerative component[23], heterozygous mutations are associated with an increased risk of developing PD. The two most prevalent *GBA1* mutations associated with PD are the N370S and L444P mutations[39]. Intriguingly, the less common E326K mutation in *GBA1* exhibits a relatively mild effect on GCase activity, does not cause Gaucher's Disease, but is correlated with PD risk[18].

Mitochondrial dysfunction appears to constitute a defining characteristic of PD[28]. The adverse impact of dysfunctional mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) on the viability of dopaminergic (DA) neurons is substantiated by experimental models of PD that result from toxins that target complex I[28]. The *Gba1* mouse knockout model, a model of severe neurodegeneration, exhibited severe mitochondrial dysfunction in primary neurons and astrocytes in culture, alongside neurological pathologies associated with PD, including disruption of autophagy-lysosomal pathways, and the accumulation of ubiquitinated proteins and α-synuclein[49].

The autophagosome-lysosome axis and ubiquitin proteasome systems accomplish degradation of dysfunctional organelles and protein degradation and together play a critical role in cellular quality control[34]. Lysosomal acidification generating pH values between 4.5 to 4.7[52] is essential for normal lysosomal function and is required for the activity of lysosomal hydrolytic enzymes and effective protein degradation[44,12]. The acidification is generated by the vacuolar-type H^+ ATPase (V-ATPase), a proton pump composed of a peripheral V_1 domain, which hydrolyses ATP, and a membrane-integrated V_o domain, responsible for the translocation of protons into the lysosomal lumen[17]. Disrupted V-ATPase assembly and V-ATPase dysfunction have been reported associated with multiple disorders[20], including Juvenile-onset Parkinson's Disease[55], Alzheimer's Disease[8, 70], Epilepsy[21, 26] and Down's syndrome[30].

GBA1-linked pathologies such as Gaucher's disease and PD are associated with a dysfunctional autophagy-lysosome pathway, including impaired lysosomal regeneration from autolysosomes during macroautophagy[58,59]. These investigations suggest that targeting the dysfunctional lysosomal system and the autophagy-lysosome pathway may serve as a potential therapeutic strategy for PD linked to *GBA1* mutations. Although numerous studies indicate that impaired lysosomal acidification plays a role in neuronal pathologies associated with various neurodegenerative disorders[38] and that GBA1-PD is characterised by lysosomal dysfunction [44], the effects of compromised lysosomal acidification in GBA1-PD have not been extensively examined.

In this study, we have characterised the consequences of *GBA1* mutations associated with PD for mitochondrial and lysosomal function in patient-derived fibroblasts and DA neurons

generated from patient-derived induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSC). As GBA1 is a lysosomal enzyme, we hypothesised that lysosomal dysfunction as a consequence of the mutations, might lead to impaired mitochondrial function, initiating a pathophysiological cascade culminating in cell injury. Furthermore, we found that constitutive and inappropriate activation of mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 1 (MTORC1) contributes to impaired lysosomal acidification through aberrant assembly of the V-ATPase complex, leading to lysosomal dysfunction. Additionally, we demonstrate that the restoration of lysosomal pH ameliorates autophagy and rescues both lysosomal and mitochondrial function in cells carrying GBA1-PD mutations.

Results

To characterise the impact of PD-related *GBA1* mutations on lysosomal and mitochondrial function, we examined three lines of human dermal fibroblasts and six iPSC lines derived from GBA1-PD patients carrying E326K or N370S mutations, along with two healthy controls. We also included one CRISPR-corrected isogenic control iPSC line each for GBA1-N370S and GBA1-E326K iPSCs. (Table 1).

Lysosomal function is impaired in cells with PD-related GBA1 mutations

As GBA1 is a lysosomal enzyme, our investigation began by characterising the lysosomes in fibroblasts and DA neurons from both control and PD patient-derived iPSCs. The GBA1 protein expression levels measured by western blot were not significantly different between the control and *GBA1* mutant neurons; however, GCase enzymatic activity was significantly reduced in iPSC-DA neurons and fibroblasts carrying either *GBA1* mutation (Fig 1A, B, S1A, B). Lysosomal acidification was measured using the ratiometric pH-sensitive dye, Lysosensor Yellow/Blue DND160. These data revealed impaired acidification in both E326K and N370S DA neurons and fibroblasts (Fig 1C, S1C, D). Calibration of the lysosomal pH (see methods) gave values of 4.74±0.03 - 4.77±0.02 in control cells but between 4.89±0.02 and 5.06±0.03 in the mutant fibroblasts (Fig 1D). The function of endocytic trafficking and lysosomal proteolytic activity was measured using the DQ-Red BSA assay. DQ-Red BSA intensity was significantly reduced in the *GBA1* mutant neurons, indicating impaired lysosomal degradative function in GBA1-PD cells (Fig 1E, S1E). Autofluorescence excited at 355nm and imaged between 400-600nm showed an unusually bright extramitochondrial component in GBA1-PD fibroblasts (Fig 1F) that was significantly greater than control cells. Spectral scanning and linear unmixing separated the expected mitochondrial NADH signal with an emission peak at 450nm and an extensive non-mitochondrial signal with a peak emission at 480nm, attributed to accumulated lipofuscin. Lipofuscins are cytoplasmic granules generated as a consequence of autophagy and phagocytosis processes, which show auto-fluorescence over a broad spectrum ranging from 480nm to 700nm when excited by ultraviolet or blue light[15]. While the accumulation of lipofuscin serves as an indicator of ageing, abnormal accumulation is consistent with impaired lysosomal acidification and defective autophagy[64]. Accumulation of lipofuscin is also a hallmark of Batten Disease (neuronal ceroid-lipofuscinoses), a severe early-onset neurodevelopmental disorder with progressive neurodegeneration also associated with

126 lysosomal dysfunction [27]. These data collectively indicate significant lysosomal dysfunction
127 in the GBA1-PD cells.

Mitochondria are dysfunctional in cells with GBA1-PD mutations

To determine whether the impaired lysosomal activity in the *GBA1* mutations has a secondary
impact on mitochondrial form and function, we measured mitochondrial membrane potential
($\Delta\Psi$m) using the potentiometric fluorescent reporter tetramethyl-rhodamine methyl ester
(TMRM). $\Delta\Psi$m was significantly reduced in E326K and N370S *GBA1* mutant DA neurons and
fibroblasts (Fig 2A, S2A, C). The lower $\Delta\Psi$m was accompanied by mitochondrial
fragmentation in the N370S and E326K DA neurons and fibroblasts (Fig 2Aii c,d, S2Aii b).
Ultrastructure analysis using electron microscopy revealed significant differences in
mitochondrial morphology in the *GBA1* mutant neurons, including reduced cristae density and
increased mitochondrial area, indicating mitochondrial swelling in the *GBA1* mutant iPSC DA
neurons (Fig 2B). Measurements of oxygen consumption rates using the 'Seahorse'
respirometry system revealed ~40% decrease in basal oxygen consumption rate in the *GBA1*
mutant DA neurons with the isogenic controls (Fig 2C). To exclude changes in mitochondrial
mass and to explore the substrate dependence of mitochondrial respiration, we used
mitochondria isolated from the cultures. This allowed measurements of respiratory rates with
different substrates, favouring complex I (pyruvate/malate) or complex II (rotenone/succinate).
ADP-stimulated respiration (State 3) rate using both CI and CII-dependent substrates was
significantly reduced in the *GBA1* mutant neurons compared to the control neurons (Fig 2D,
S2C). Western Blots of the OXPHOS complex proteins using a cocktail of antibodies to
respiratory chain proteins, revealed a significant increase in the expression of Complex IV in
E326K DA neurons (Fig 2Eii a and S2Dii a) and increased expression of Complex I proteins
in N370S neurons compared to the isogenic controls (Fig 2Eii b and S2Dii b). Expression levels
of the other respiratory chain proteins were unaltered in the E326K and N370S DA neurons.
None of these data suggested any defect in complex I assembly or function. These data
collectively point to impaired mitochondrial bioenergetic function in fibroblasts and neurons
carrying *GBA1* mutations.

Mitophagy is impaired in cells with GBA1-PD mutations

We then set out to explore the underlying mechanisms that link impaired lysosomal function to
impaired mitochondrial bioenergetics in the GBA1-PD fibroblasts and DA neurons. A logical
mechanism linking impaired lysosomal function with mitochondrial dysfunction might operate
through dysfunctional mitophagy and our earlier work also established dysfunctional
mitophagy in *Gba1* KO mice[49]. We quantified mitophagy using the dual excitation probe mt-
Keima (Fig 3A). mt-Keima is a pH-sensitive probe that measures the fraction of mitochondria
in neutral (pH 7 - 7.8 in the mitochondrial matrix) versus acidic pH (pH 4.5-4.7 in lysosomes)
environment[67]. The mt-Keima signal ratio was significantly reduced in fibroblasts and DA
neurons in the fibroblasts and DA neurons carrying both the GBA1-N370S and GBA1-E326K
mutations indicating impaired mitophagy (Fig 3Aii. S3Aii, Bii). Western blotting to quantify
the status of autophagy pathways in the *GBA1* mutant neurons revealed increased LAMP1
levels in E326K and N370S neurons, along with increased MTORC1 phosphorylation in the

two mutant types. While LC3 flux, and expression of p62 and TOM20 were increased in the E326K mutant iPSC DA neurons, these were not significantly altered in the N370S DA neurons (Fig 3B). Since the lysosomal pH is increased in GBA1-PD cells (Fig 1D), the reduced mt-Keima signal in GBA1-PD cells could be attributed either to the altered lysosomal pH or to the impaired fusion of autophagosomes to lysosomes. To address this, we performed triple staining of fibroblasts against citrate synthase (CiS, for mitochondria), LAMP1 (for lysosomes), and LC3 (for autophagosomes). Subsequent imaging revealed that although there was no significant difference in mitophagosome (mitochondria and autophagosome colocalisation) density between *GBA1* mutant and control fibroblasts, mitolysosome (colocalisation of mitochondria and lysosomes) density was significantly increased in the *GBA1* mutant fibroblasts (Fig 3C). Characterisation of electron micrographs for specific autophagic vesicle types based on Neikirk et al.,2023[47], showed that autophagic vesicles, specifically the autolysosome and lysosome number, were significantly increased in both *GBA1* mutant fibroblasts and neurons. (Fig 3Dii, S3Cii a and b). From the micrographs, the autophagosomes also appeared to be fully enclosed, ruling out incomplete phagophore formation as the underlying mechanism of autophagy defect. These data indicated that mitophagy is significantly impaired in cells carrying the GBA1-PD mutations and the decrease in mitophagy is likely due to impaired pH and not improper phagophore formation.

V-ATPase complex formation is impaired in GBA1-PD

Since our data showed an accumulation of lysosomes and autolysosomes in GBA1-PD fibroblasts and iPSC-DA neurons, we suspected this was a result of impaired lysosomal acidification. Assembly of the pH regulatory component in lysosomes – the Vacuolar-type H+ ATPase (V-ATPase) is regulated by MTORC1[53], which was constitutively phosphorylated in the GBA1-PD mutant cells. Ratto et al.[53] demonstrated that under nutrient-rich conditions, MTORC1 is distributed in the cytosol, enabling the peripheral $ATP6V_1$ to bind to the membrane-bound $ATP6V_0$ domain, forming a functional V-ATPase complex allowing proton exchange and acidification of the lysosomes. Upon nutrient deprivation, MTORC1 is phosphorylated and remains on the lysosomal membrane, preventing the formation of a functional V-ATPase complex[53]. While the V-ATPase maintains lysosomal pH, disruption of the complex does not hamper autolysosome formation[43]. Total protein estimation through western blotting revealed no significant difference in the expression of $ATP6V_0D2$ and $ATP6V_1A$ or $ATP6V_1H$ between the control and mutant DA neurons (Fig 4A). To examine their expression levels in lysosomes specifically, we performed a lysosomal enrichment assay and probed for pMTORC1, LAMP1, and the $ATP6V_0$ and $ATP6V_1$ components (Fig 4Bi). pMTORC1 expression was increased up to two-fold, and LAMP1 expression was increased ~1.5 fold in the GBA1-mutant DA neurons. However, $ATP6V_1A$ expression was reduced by ~40% and $ATP6V_1H$ by ~15% within the lysosomes fractionated from *GBA1* mutant DA neurons, while $ATP6V_0D2$ levels remained unchanged between the control and mutant iPSC-DA neurons (Fig 4Bii). Furthermore, overnight treatment of *GBA1* iPSC-DA neurons with the MTORC1 inhibitor rapamycin (200nM) decreased the pMTORC1 and LAMP1 levels, while increasing $ATP6V_1A$ and $ATP6V_1H$ expression in the lysosomes and the $ATP6V_0D2$ levels remained constant (Fig 4Bi b and Bii).

In order to assess the V-ATPase assembly, we transfected the cells with ATP6V$_1$B2-mNeongreen and ATP6V$_0$a3-mScarlet and quantified their FRET interaction using fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy (FLIM)[66]. The data were best fit to a biexponential decay function. The ATP6V$_0$a3 construct utilises the more rapidly maturing but photophysically heterogeneous acceptor variant mScarlet-I[3]. This exhibits at least two fluorescence lifetimes, meaning the biexponential decay of the donor is an oversimplification given the likelihood of contrasting FRET rates to each acceptor species [4, 41]. The results are therefore presented as the mean (amplitude weighted) fluorescence lifetime -τ_m- which will nevertheless respond to variations in FRET without having to interpret the meaning of individual decay components and amplitudes. τ_m of ATP6V$_1$B2-mNeongreen averaged 617.72$\pm$ 25.3 ps in control fibroblasts but increased to 760.88$\pm$ 20.36 ps in N370S and 811.03$\pm$ 17.04 ps in E326K mutant fibroblasts, indicating an increased distance between ATP6V1B2-mNeongreen and ATP6V0a3-mScarlet signalled by a reduction in FRET. Overnight treatment with 200nM rapamycin significantly decreased τ_m to 652.7$\pm$ 19.69 ps and 726.05$\pm$ 21.2 ps in E326K and N370S fibroblasts respectively while the τ_m control fibroblasts was at 590.5$\pm$ 32.7 ps (Fig 4C). To validate the subcellular localisation process within a condensed timeframe, we administered 1 μM rapamycin to the cells and performed FLIM every 10 minutes for 40 minutes. The mean fluorescence lifetime of ATP6V1B2-mNeongreen exhibited a progressive decline in the *GBA1* mutant fibroblasts, decreasing from ~850 ps at 0 min to ~580 ps at 40 minutes, while τ_m in control fibroblasts showed only a small reduction, decreasing from ~675 ps at 0 min to ~588 ps at 40 minutes (Fig 4Dii). The FLIM-FRET data thus confirmed impaired assembly of the V -ATPase complex in *GBA1* mutant cells.

All these data are consistent with a model in which phosphorylation of MTORC1 at the lysosome membrane limits the formation of a functional V-ATPase complex in the GBA1-PD cells. Employing rapamycin as a potent MTORC1 inhibitor reduced MTORC1 activity and facilitated the formation of a functional V-ATPase complex.

Acidification of lysosomes is sufficient to restore lysosomal, mitochondrial function and mitophagy in GBA1-PD

Our data show that *GBA1* mutations lead to significantly impaired lysosomal acidification and mitophagy and suggest that this failure of cellular homeostasis may underlie the mitochondrial dysfunction seen in GBA1-PD cells. We therefore wondered whether restoring lysosomal pH could rescue these defects in GBA1-PD cells. Since impaired V-ATPase complex formation may be a consequence of MTORC1 hyperphosphorylation, we explored the impact of treatment with rapamycin (overnight treatment with 200 nM) on lysosomal and mitochondrial function. As an independent pH modulator, we employed novel poly(ethylene tetrafluorosuccinate-co-succinate) nanoparticles (NPs), which acidify lysosomes[73].

We first validated the effects of rapamycin and the nanoparticles in patient-derived fibroblasts (Fig S4). To confirm that the NPs were localised to the lysosomes, we loaded the fibroblasts with rhodamine-tagged NPs and stained the cells with Lysotracker blue DND22 (Fig S4A) which confirmed the localisation of the NPs to lysosomes. Overnight treatment with 180 μg/mL acidic NPs composed of poly(ethylene tetrafluorosuccinate-co-succinate) restored lysosomal

pH in *GBA1* mutant cells to levels comparable to those of control fibroblasts as measured using
the pH-sensing ratiometric probe Lysosensor Yellow/Blue DND160. Treatment with non-acidic
control NPs did not significantly affect the lysosomal pH in the *GBA1* mutant fibroblasts (Fig.
S4B, C). TMRM staining demonstrated that both rapamycin and the acidic NPs significantly
rescued the $\Delta\Psi$m in the mutant fibroblasts (Fig S4F, G). We also found that the $\Delta\Psi$m was
increased in control 2 and E326K fibroblasts upon control NP treatment (Fig S4G). We
wondered whether the effect of control NPs on $\Delta\Psi$m could be due to the succinate component
in the poly(ethylene succinate) control NPs. However, treatment with 3mM Diethyl Succinate
for 30 minutes did not have any effect on the $\Delta\Psi$m in control and *GBA1* mutant fibroblasts (Fig
S4H).

We then assessed the impact of rapamycin and acidic NPs on *GBA1* mutant iPSC-derived DA
neurons (Fig 5). Treatment with 200nM rapamycin and 180 µg/mL acidic NPs restored
lysosomal pH, $\Delta\Psi$m, and mitophagy in the E326K and N370S iPSC DA neurons (Fig 5A, B,
C). Although there was no change in GBA1 expression levels, GCase activity was increased in
GBA1 mutant DA neurons following treatment with either rapamycin or acidic NPs (Fig S4 D,
E). Additionally, western blotting of OXPHOS complexes indicated that the reduced
mitochondrial Complex IV levels in E326K DA neurons and the reduced Complex I levels in
the N370S DA neurons were normalised upon treatment with either rapamycin or acidic NPs.
(Fig S4I).

As rapamycin restores the assembly of the V-ATPase complex in *GBA1* mutant cells (Fig 4D-
F), we asked whether the acidic NPs also function through the V-ATPase complex formation.
FLIM-FRET experiments conducted on control and acidic NP-treated *GBA1* mutant fibroblasts
transduced with ATP6V$_1$B2-mNeongreen and ATP6V$_0$a3-mScarlet plasmids demonstrated a
further increase in the τ_m of ATP6V1B2 in both control and mutant fibroblasts treated with
acidic NPs, confirming that the acidic NPs operate independently of V-ATPase (Fig S4J).

Thus, the data presented here suggest that constitutive phosphorylation of MTORC1 in GBA1-
PD cells leads to impaired lysosomal pH and compromised lysosomal proteolytic function.
This results in the accumulation of mitolysosomes and impaired mitophagy. The compromised
mitophagy culminates in mitochondrial dysfunction in *GBA1* mutant cells. Furthermore,
inhibiting MTORC1 activity or pharmacologically increasing lysosomal pH using acidic NPs
enhances lysosomal proteolytic activity, rescuing mitochondrial dysfunction in *GBA1* mutant
iPSC-DA neurons and fibroblasts.

Discussion:

We report a range of abnormalities in the lysosomes and mitochondria of GBA1-PD fibroblasts
and iPSC-DA neurons carrying E326K or N370S *GBA1* mutations. Given that GBA1 is a
lysosomal resident enzyme, we hypothesised that mitochondrial dysfunction is likely to reflect
a primary lysosomal defect. We used the ratiometric probe Lysosensor Yellow/Blue DND 160
to measure lysosomal pH. When calibrated, these measurements revealed that lysosomal pH in
control cells ranged from 4.74 ± 0.03 to 4.77 ± 0.02, while in mutant cells it showed a
significant shift to a range of 4.89 ± 0.02 to 5.06 ± 0.03. Reports in the literature indicate that
the optimal pH for lysosomal function ranges between 4.2 and 4.8, depending on the cell type

[52, 74]. Although the difference between control and mutant cells seems modest, the data we present suggest that this difference in mutant cells is functionally significant. In line with other studies, we observed a pH-dependent decrease in the lysosomal enzyme activity, an increase in lysosomal number, and disruption of mitophagy and mitochondrial metabolism [2, 7, 24, 31, 40, 46, 51, 58].

Very few reports discuss mitochondrial abnormalities associated with GBA1-PD [1, 24, 25, 32, 54], and even fewer discuss mitophagy [35]. We noted reduced $\Delta\Psi$m and mitochondrial fragmentation alongside swollen mitochondrial structures, decreased cristae density, and a reduced oxygen consumption rate, all indicating dysfunctional mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation. This was also associated with reduced mitophagy in the E326K and N370S GBA1-PD fibroblasts and iPSC-DA neurons.

Numerous studies have suggested mechanistic evidence for a connection between PD and *GBA1* mutations. For example, dysfunctional mitochondria in primary neurons and astrocytes were described in the *Gba1* mouse knockout model, associated with an impaired autophagy-lysosomal pathway, resulting in the accumulation of ubiquitinated proteins and α-synuclein[49]. Various studies have explored the mechanisms behind the PD pathology in *GBA1* mutant models. A recent study emphasised that decreased GCase activity in GBA1-PD midbrain dopaminergic neuronal cells leads to defective modulation of the untethering protein TBC1D15, which regulates Rab7 GTP hydrolysis for contact untethering. This impairment results in prolonged mitochondria-lysosome contacts, potentially affecting mitochondrial dynamics and function in GBA1-linked PD[32]. Baden et al. proposed an alternative function of GBA1 in the mitochondria in maintaining the integrity of complex I and support of energy metabolism[1], although in the present study we found no evidence for mitochondrial localisation of GBA1 nor impaired assembly of complex I.

Our respirometry assays using isolated mitochondria revealed a marked reduction in both maximal respiratory capacity and ATPase-linked oxygen consumption in GBA1-E326K and N370S mutant DA neurons, upon stimulation with complex I (pyruvate/malate) and complex II (rotenone/succinate) substrates. The impairment across both complexes points to a global mitochondrial dysfunction, potentially arising from structural abnormalities such as mitochondrial enlargement and decreased cristae density—features observed in these mutants—or as a downstream consequence of lysosomal dysfunction. Notably, lysosome-related mitochondrial impairment has also been reported in Tre-2/Bub2/Cdc16 (TBC1) domain containing Kinase (TBCK) encephaloneuronopathy, supporting a broader link between lysosomal defects and mitochondrial pathology[68].

Recent evidence suggests that the primary cause of the pathologies associated with lysosomes and mitochondria in PD is the *GBA1* mutation. There appears to be a correlation between the onset of PD and lysosomal dysfunction caused by impaired GCase activity. Dysfunctional lysosomes disrupt cellular signalling networks, metabolic processes, autophagy, and the regulation of calcium (Ca^{2+}) signalling, all of which may contribute to PD pathology[17, 31, 34, 46, 59]. Furthermore, both lysosomal function and autophagy are intrinsically dependent on lysosomal acidification, which is influenced by the pH-dependence of lysosomal enzyme activity and substrate degradation, as well as the regulation of lysosomal calcium efflux[63].

Li et al. also suggest that autophagy in L444P mutant GBA1-PD neurons is impaired at two stages: the initial autophagy stage and the lysosomal degradation stage. While these reports indicate a relationship between *GBA1* mutations and autophagic, lysosomal, and mitochondrial dysfunction, a mechanistic dissection of these multi-organellar dysfunctions is lacking.

Dysregulation of the MTORC1 pathway is reported in various neurodegenerative diseases, including PD and Alzheimer's disease[36, 72]. A recent study by Chen et al. suggests that hyperphosphorylation of MTORC1 in striatal inhibitory neurons diminishes the disruption of dopamine receptor activity, alongside odour preference, in transgenic mice [11]. Liu et al. demonstrate the role of MTORC1 in dopamine dynamics and synaptic plasticity[37]. These results elucidate the additional impacts of increased phosphorylated MTORC1 on PD. Kaempferol, an MTORC1 inhibitor, has also been shown to promote autophagy and to protect DA neurons in the MPTP-induced C57BL/6J–PD mouse model [38]. All this literature suggests that hyperphosphorylated MTORC1 may play a central role in the development of PD associated with *GBA1* mutations. Our study also indicates increased MTORC1 phosphorylation in GBA1-PD fibroblasts and iPSC-DA neurons. While the link between MTORC1 hyperphosphorylation and *GBA1* mutations is unclear, it may reflect a cellular stress response to lipid substrate accumulation, indicating nutrient deprivation under *GBA1* mutant conditions[19, 29, 61].

Recent evidence underscores the significance of impaired lysosomal acidification in various disease processes. Notably, impaired lysosomal acidification is proposed to be a critical factor in the pathogenesis of multiple neurodegenerative diseases[13, 24, 27, 56]. Mutations in presenilin-1 (*PS1*) associated with familial Alzheimer's disease have been demonstrated to inhibit the lysosomal acidification of human *PS1* mutant fibroblasts, resulting in chronic alterations in autophagy and degradation, which may be restored through lysosomal reacidification[14]. Furthermore, it has been established that individuals with Down Syndrome, who are predisposed to early-onset dementia resembling Alzheimer's disease, exhibit increased levels of the β-cleaved carboxy-terminal fragment of the amyloid precursor protein due to the presence of an additional chromosome 21, which impairs lysosomal acidification and functionality via the inhibition of V-ATPase[30]. Collectively, these studies illuminate the connections between the impairment of lysosomal acidification in autophagic pathways and the pathogenesis of neurodegeneration, thereby presenting potential therapeutic avenues for targeting lysosomal function and pH to mitigate these debilitating diseases. Acidic NPs in the form of poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA) acidic NPs have been previously used to reduce lysosomal pH and disease progression in cells derived from GBA1-N370S PD patient fibroblasts and in PD mouse models[5]. Additionally, poly-succinate acidic NPs used in this study have been employed to restore lysosomal pH and rehabilitate metabolic and lysosomal functions in cases of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease[73].

As an MTORC1 inhibitor[56], rapamycin also acts as a prominent inducer of mitophagy and has been demonstrated to mitigate mitochondrial dysfunction in various disease models through inhibition of the MTOR pathway[9, 75]. Consistent with findings from other studies, we found that rapamycin rescues mitophagy and mitochondrial function in GBA1-PD fibroblasts and DA neurons as well. This could either be due to the role of MTOR as a regulator

of mitochondrial function[16, 45] or a downstream effect of lysosomal acidification by MTOR inhibition. To establish whether impaired lysosomal acidification is the cause of these dysfunctions, we employed an independent pH modulator in the form of novel acidic poly-succinate NPs, which rectify lysosomal pH in the cells while enhancing lysosomal and mitochondrial functions in GBA1-PD fibroblasts and DA neurons. Our data confirmed the efficacy of acidic NP treatment on lysosomal pH *in vitro*. We show that the ratio of alkaline vs acidic lysosomes decreased significantly in all mutants and most controls after the acidic NP treatment, demonstrating a decrease in mean lysosomal pH. The effect on controls could be due to the alkalinisation of the lysosomes with age, which can be reversed by the acidic NP treatment in healthy cells[10]. Importantly, treatment with acidic NP successfully eliminated the differences in lysosomal pH between the *GBA1* mutants and the controls. We conclude that the restoration of lysosomal acidification in the mutant cells improved lysosomal function.

Lysosomal acidification also rescued GCase activity in the cells despite mutations in the GBA1 protein. Other studies have also demonstrated the restoration of GCase activity despite *GBA1* mutations under acidic pH conditions[50, 65, 71]. The N370S mutation results in a structurally rigid protein with reduced intralysosomal stability and reduced GCase activity[71]and the E326K mutation has little effect on the active catalytic site of the protein but affects the dimerisation and quaternary structure formation due to folding defects, likely leading to a mild reduction in GCase activity at higher pH levels[50]. GCase activity depends on protonation of amino acids at the active sites and due to interaction of the protein with activators like saposin C[42], which is affected due to the mutation[50, 57]. Restoring the acidic pH in the lysosomes helps restore functional GCase activity despite the mutations possibly by stabilising protein structure, improving folding and optimising the active-site ionisation[48, 50]

To explore whether altered lysosomal pH is related to mitochondrial dysfunction in GBA1-PD, we evaluated $\Delta\Psi$m, redox levels, and oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) protein levels following treatment with NPs. Our results reveal a significant rescue of $\Delta\Psi$m among GBA-PD mutants after acidic NP treatment, indicating improved mitochondrial function. When compared to untreated healthy controls, the difference in $\Delta\Psi$m was no longer statistically significant in the mutants following treatment with acidic NPs. It is noteworthy that some control samples also exhibited alterations due to acidic NP treatment, resulting in a small but significant increase in $\Delta\Psi$m. We also found a significant increase in $\Delta\Psi$m in control 2 and E326K fibroblasts upon control NP treatment. Since the NPs are composed of poly(ethylene-succinate), we suspected this could be a substrate-mediated (succinate) effect in control NP treated conditions. However, 30-minute treatment with 3mM Diethyl Succinate did not alter the $\Delta\Psi$m in the control or mutant fibroblasts. Rescuing lysosomal pH also improved mitophagy in the GBA1-PD fibroblasts and iPSC-DA neurons.

Conclusions:

We have explored the relationship between lysosome biology, pH, mitophagy and mitochondria in cells carrying PD-associated mutations of *GBA1*. A detailed examination of the pathophysiology of these cells reveals a range of abnormalities in the lysosomes, including reduced GCase activity, an increased lysosomal number, impaired lysosomal acidification, and

impaired pH-dependent lysosomal proteolytic activity. Mitochondrial dysfunction is reflected by reduced mitochondrial membrane potential, swollen, fragmented mitochondria, decreased cristae density, and the accumulation of abnormal mitochondria, along with a reduced oxygen consumption rate. We also found a decrease in mitophagy and an accumulation of autolysosomes in the GBA1-PD cells. We show that increased pMTORC1 on the lysosomal membrane, possibly due to accumulation of substrates in the lysosomes, causing nutrient deprivation, hinders the formation of a functional V-ATPase complex in GBA1-PD cells, thereby compromising lysosomal acidification. We found that inhibiting MTORC1 using rapamycin rescues functional V-ATPase formation and lysosomal pH in the GBA1-PD neurons and rescues mitophagy and mitochondrial function. Independent modulation of lysosomal pH using acidic poly-succinate NPs, restored lysosomal pH, rescued mitophagy and restored mitochondrial function in the GBA1-PD fibroblasts and iPSC-DA neurons (Fig 6). Since rapamycin has broad effects, the comparison to NPs is valuable, adding a translational value for future applications. We thus unravel the mechanism behind impaired lysosomal pH in GBA1-PD cells and demonstrate that restoring lysosomal pH is sufficient to rescue both lysosomal and mitochondrial dysfunction, along with mitophagy in GBA1-PD fibroblasts and iPSC-DA neurons.

Figure legends:

Figure 1: Lysosomal abnormalities in GBA1-PD DA cells- Representative western blot images of GBA1 protein expression (Ai) and quantification (Aii a,b) in isogenic control and GBA1-E326K and N370S DA neurons. GCase activity in GBA1-E326K (Bi a) and GBA1-N370S (Bi b) DA neurons and respective isogenic controls. Representative ratioed images (Ci a, b) and quantification of fluorescence ratio of GBA1-E326K (Cii a) and GBA1-N370S (Cii b) DA neurons and respective isogenic controls labelled with Lysosensor Yellow/Blue DND 160 indicating lysosomal pH in cells. D) Histogram depicting mean lysosomal pH values in *GBA1* mutant fibroblasts. Representative confocal images (Ei a,b) and quantification of relative intensity of GBA1-E326K (Eii a) and GBA1-N370S (Eii b) DA neurons and respective isogenic controls stained with DQ-Red BSA indicative of proteolytic activity. Representative confocal images (Fi) and quantification (Fii) of lipofuscins which are seen upon autofluorescence. Data represented as mean±SEM; n=3; Statistics:**** - $p < 0.001$; *** - $p < 0.005$; ** - $p < 0.01$, * - $p < 0.05$; ns – not significant; Mann-Whitney's T test, One-way ANOVA.

Figure 2: Mitochondrial dysfunction in GBA1-PD DA neurons: Representative confocal images of GBA1-E326K (Ai a) and GBA1-N370S (Ai b) DA neurons along with isogenic controls stained with TMRM and subsequent quantification of fluorescent intensity to measure ΔΨm (Aii a, b) and mitochondrial fragmentation count (Aii c,d). Representative ultramicroscopic images of isogenic control and GBA1-E326K (Bi a) and GBA1-N370S (Bi b) DA neurons and subsequent quantification of morphological parameters including average number of mitochondria, average mitochondrial area and average cristae density in mitochondria (Bii a-f). The white arrow indicates normal mitochondria; black arrow indicates abnormal mitochondria. Histograms representing the basal respiration rate in *GBA1* mutant iPSC-DA neurons from GBA1-E326K (C a) and GBA1-N370S mutant lines(C b) and respective isogenic controls. Representative seahorse plots showing oxygen consumption rates in iPSC-DA neurons from GBA1-E326K (Di a) and GBA1-N370S (Di b) DA neurons and respective isogenic controls, using various substrates. Histograms representing State 3(ATP Production) in mitochondria isolated from GBA1-E326K (Dii a) and GBA1-N370S (Dii b) DA neurons and isogenic controls, as measured by seahorse assay. E i and ii) Representative immunoblotting images (Ei) with subsequent quantification of OXPHOS complex proteins in GBA1 E326K (Eii a) and N370S (Eii b) DA neurons. Data represented as mean±SEM; n=3; Statistics:**** - $p < 0.001$; *** - $p < 0.005$; ** - $p < 0.01$, * - $p < 0.05$; ns – not significant; Mann-Whitney's T-test, One-Way ANOVA or Two-Way ANOVA.

Figure 3: Mitophagy defects in GBA1-PD DA neurons: Representative images of GBA1-E326K (Ai a)and GBA1-N370S (Ai b) DA neurons and isogenic controls transduced with mt-Keima plasmid and imaged with excitation at 458 and 543nm and subsequent quantification of the ratio of signals at 543/458nm (Aii a,b). Representative western blot images of *GBA1* mutant and isogenic control lysates probed for autophagic proteins (Bi) and subsequent quantification of protein levels (Bii a,b) Representative Immunofluorescence images of Control and N370S fibroblasts probed against Citrate Synthase (CiS), LAMP1 and LC3, labelling mitochondria, lysosomes and autophagosomes respectively (Ci) and subsequent

quantification of colocalisation co-efficient of mitophagosomes (Cii a) and mitolysosomes(Cii b). Representative TEM images (Di) and quantification (Dii) of control and E326K mutant fibroblasts capture different autophagy phases in the cells. Black arrows indicate lipofuscins, yellow arrows indicate autolysosomes, red arrows indicate autophagosomes, and green arrows indicate lysosomes in the cells. Data represented as mean±SEM; n=3; Statistics:**** - $p<0.001$; *** - $p<0.005$; ** - $p<0.01$, * - $p<0.05$; ns – not significant; Mann-Whitney's T-test, One-Way ANOVA.

Figure 4: Impaired V-ATPase complex formation in GBA1-PD cells- Representative images of western blots (Ai) and quantification of protein levels in total cell lysates from isogenic control and GBA1-E326K (Aii a) and GBA1-N370S (Aii b) mutant DA neurons probed against LAMP1 and V-ATPase complex proteins. Representative immunoblotting images of cell supernatant and lysosomes separated by lysosome enrichment assay in untreated (Bi a) and 200nM rapamycin-treated (Bi b) GBA1-PD DA neurons and isogenic controls, and subsequent quantification (Bii) of V-ATPase complex proteins, pMTOR. Representative FLIM images of ATP6V$_1$B2-mNeonGreen in control and GBA1-PD fibroblasts co-transfected with ATP6V$_0$a3-mScarlet and treated with/without 200nM rapamycin (Ci) and subsequent quantification of mean lifetime (τ_m) (Cii b). Cii a) Representative decay plots and exponential fit of ATP6V1B2-mNeongreen in the Control and N370S and E326K mutant fibroblasts. D i) Time point images of ATP6V$_1$B2-mNeongreen in control and GBA1-PD fibroblasts co-transfected with ATP6V$_0$a3-mScarlet and treated with 1 µM rapamycin and imaged over a period of 40 mins and subsequent quantification of τ_m shown in Dii) Data represented as mean±SEM; n=3; Statistics:**** - $p<0.001$; *** - $p<0.005$; ** - $p<0.01$, * - $p<0.05$; ns – not significant; Mann-Whitney's T-test, One-Way ANOVA or Two-Way ANOVA.

Figure 5: Rapamycin and acidic NPs rescue lysosomal and mitochondrial dysfunction in *GBA1* mutant DA neurons: Representative ratioed images of GBA1-E326K (Ai a) and GBA1-N370S (Ai b) DA neurons and respective isogenic controls treated overnight with 200nM rapamycin or 180µg/mL acidic NPs and stained with Lysosensor Yellow/Blue DND 160 (Ai a,b) and quantification of fluorescence ratio (Aii a-d) indicating lysosomal pH. Representative confocal images of GBA1-E326K (Bi a) and GBA1-N370S (Bi b) DA neurons and respective isogenic controls treated with 200nM rapamycin or 180µg/mL acidic NPs and stained with TMRM to measure changes in ΔΨm (Bii a-d). Representative confocal Images of GBA1-E326K (Ci a) and GBA1-N370S (Ci b) DA neurons and respective isogenic controls treated with 200nM rapamycin or 180µg/mL acidic NPs and probed with mt-Keima plasmid and imaged with excitation at 458 and 543nm and subsequent quantification of the ratio of signals at 543/458nm (Cii a-d). Data represented as mean±SEM; n=3; Statistics:**** - $p<0.001$; *** - $p<0.005$; ** - $p<0.01$, * - $p<0.05$; ns – not significant; One-Way ANOVA.

Figure 6: Cartoon to illustrate the proposed pathophysiological cascade in GBA1-related Parkinson's Disease and how the phenotype can be corrected by targeting lysosomal pH - GBA1-PD cells exhibit a range of abnormalities in lysosomal biology, including reduced GCase activity, increased lysosomal numbers, elevated lysosomal pH, and decreased pH-dependent proteolytic activity. Mitochondrial dysfunction is evidenced by a decreased ΔΨm, decreased oxygen consumption rate, swollen mitochondria, reduced cristae density, and the

accumulation of abnormal mitochondria. Mitophagy is suppressed and autolysosomes accumulate within the GBA1-PD cells. Restored acidification of lysosomes with rapamycin or acidic poly-succinate NPs enhances lysosomal function and improves mitophagy, thereby rescuing mitochondrial dysfunction in GBA1-PD fibroblasts and lysosomes.

Supplementary Figure 1: Lysosomal abnormalities in GBA1-PD DA neurons and fibroblasts- GBA1 protein expression (Ai) and subsequent quantification of GBA1 levels in control and GBA1-E326K (Aii a) and N370S (Aii b) DA neurons. GCase activity in GBA1-E326K (Bi a) and GBA1-N370S (Bi b) DA neurons and fibroblasts (Bii). Representative ratioed images of GBA1-E326K and GBA1-N370S fibroblasts (Ci) and DA neurons (Di a,b) stained with Lysosensor Yellow/Blue DND 160, subsequent quantification of fluorescence ratio measuring lysosomal pH (Cii, D ii a,b). Histogram representing quantification of DQ-Red BSA intensity in GBA1-E326K (E a) and GBA1-N370S (E b) and control DA neurons indicating lysosomal proteolytic activity. Data represented as mean±SEM; n=4; Statistics:**** - p<0.001; *** - p<0.005; ** - p<0.01, * - p<0.05; ns – not significant; Mann-Whitney's T test, One-way ANOVA.

Supplementary Figure 2: Mitochondrial dysfunction in GBA1-PD DA neurons and fibroblasts: Representative images of GBA1-E326K and GBA1-N370S fibroblasts (Ai) and DA neurons (Bi a,b) along with controls, stained with TMRM to measure changes in $\Delta\Psi$m (Aii a, Bii a,b) and the mitochondrial fragmentation count (Aii b). Histograms representing State 3 (ATP Production) in mitochondria isolated from GBA1-E326K (C a) and GBA1-N370S (C b) DA neurons and controls, as measured by Seahorse assay. Representative images of western blots probed for OXPHOS complex proteins (Di) and subsequent quantification of protein expression levels in GBA1 E326K (Dii a) and N370S(Dii b) DA neurons. Data represented as mean±SEM; n=5; Statistics:**** - p<0.001; *** - p<0.005; ** - p<0.01, * - p<0.05; ns – not significant; Mann-Whitney's T-test, One-Way ANOVA or Two-Way ANOVA.

Supplementary Figure 3: Mitophagy defects in GBA1-PD DA neurons and fibroblasts: Representative ratioed images of control and GBA1-E326K and GBA1-N370S fibroblasts (Ai) and DA neurons (Bi a,b) transduced with mt-Keima plasmid and imaged imaged with excitation at 458 and 543nm and subsequent quantification of the ratio ratio of signals at 543/458nm respectively (Aii, Bii a,b). Representative TEM images of GBA1-E326K (Ci a) and GBA1-N370S (Ci b) DA neurons and respective isogenic controls depicting autophagic vesicles and subsequent quantification (Cii a,b). Yellow Arrows indicate autolysosomes, red arrows indicate autophagosomes, and green arrows indicate lysosomes in the cells. Data represented as mean±SEM; n=3; Statistics:**** - p<0.001; *** - p<0.005; ** - p<0.01, * - p<0.05; ns – not significant; Mann-Whitney's T-test, One-Way ANOVA.

Supplementary Figure 4: Effect of acidic NPs and rapamycin on GBA1 – PD fibroblasts and DA neurons: Representative Confocal images (Ai) of control and mutant fibroblasts treated with Rhodamine-tagged acidic NPs (Rhod-acidic NPs) and stained with Lysotracker Blue and subsequent quantification of colocalisation coefficient (Aii). Representative images of control and GBA1-E326K and GBA1-N370S fibroblasts treated with control and acidic NPs (Bi) and stained with the ratiometric Lysosensor Yellow/Blue DND160 subsequent quantification of fluorescence ratio (Bi) to measure lysosomal pH and. C) Calibration of

lysosomal pH in *GBA1* mutant fibroblasts treated with and without acidic nanoparticles. Representative images of western blots and quantification of GBA1 protein levels in GBA1-E326K (Di a; Dii a,b) and GBA1-N370S (Di b; Dii c,d) DA neurons and respective isogenic controls treated with acidic NPs or rapamycin and probed for GBA1 and B-ACTIN. GCase activity in GBA1-E326K and GBA1-N370S DA neurons and respective isogenic controls treated with Acidic NPs (E a, c)/rapamycin (E b, d). Images representing rapamycin treated (Fi) and Acidic NPs treated (Gi) control and GBA1-E326K and GBA1-N370S fibroblasts and stained with TMRM and subsequent quantification of $\Delta\Psi m$ (Fii and Gii respectively). Histogram representing quantification of mitochondrial membrane potential in *GBA1* mutant and control fibroblasts upon 3mM Diethyl succinate treatment for 30 minutes (H). Representative images of western blots (Ii a,b) and subsequent quantification of OXPHOS complex proteins in GBA1 E326K and N370S DA neurons and respective isogenic controls treated with Acidic NPs (Iii a,b) and rapamycin (Iii c,d). Representative FLIM images of ATP6V$_1$B2-mNeongreen in Control and GBA1-PD fibroblasts co-transfected with ATP6V$_0$a3-mScarlet and treated with/without acidic NPs (Ji) and subsequent quantification of mean lifetime (τ_m) of ATP6V$_1$B2 (Jii). Data represented as mean±SEM; n=3; Statistics:**** - $p<0.001$; *** - $p<0.005$; ** - $p<0.01$, * - $p<0.05$; ns – not significant; Mann-Whitney's T test, One Way ANOVA.

Methodology:

Cell lines and ethics committee approval:

The human iPSC (hiPSC) and fibroblast lines used in the study, along with their sources, are detailed in Table 1. Fibroblasts were cultured in DMEM (1x) + GlutaMAX™ basal media (Gibco 2206106), 10% (v/v) Foetal Bovine Serum (Gibco 10270098), and 1% antibiotic-antimycotic (Gibco 15240096), and incubated at 37 ºC with 5% CO_2. The media was changed every 72 hours, and the cells were passaged upon reaching 80% confluency using 0.25% Trypsin-EDTA (Gibco 25200056). Passages between 9 and 15 were used for experimental purposes. Human GBA1 patient-derived iPSC lines were cultured under feeder-free conditions on Geltrex-coated 6-well plates, using mTeSR Plus medium and were passaged every 4-5 days with a 0.5 mM EDTA solution or upon reaching 80% confluency. Passage numbers between 20 and 30 were employed for differentiation purposes

Human pluripotent stem cell-derived DA neurons

DA neurons were generated from iPSCs using a step-by-step differentiation protocol, as previously described[69]. Briefly, 90-95% confluent hiPSCs were cultured on Geltrex-coated plates and maintained in N2B27 medium, which is a 1:1 mix of Neurobasal (Gibco, 21103049) supplemented with 1X B27 (Gibco, 17504044), Glutamax (Gibco, 35050-038), and 0.5X Anti-anti (Gibco, 15240096), and DMEM-F12 (Gibco, 10565018) supplemented with 1X N2 supplement (Gibco, 17502048), 1X MEM Non-Essential Amino Acids (Gibco, 11140-050), 0.5X Anti-anti (Gibco, 15420096), 50 μM β-mercaptoethanol (Gibco, 21985-023), and human Insulin Solution (Sigma, I9278). Daily media changes were conducted for the first 14 days. On day 0, the media was supplemented with 5 μM SB431542 (Tocris Bioscience, 1614/10), 2 μM Dorsomorphin (Tocris Bioscience, 3093/10), and 1 μM CHIR99021 until day 2. From day 2 to day 7, 1 μM Purmorphamine (Merck Millipore, SML0868) was added to the mix. From day 8 to day 14, CHIR99021 and SB431542 were removed from the medium, and the cells were maintained with Dorsomorphin and Purmorphamine in N2B27. Cells were dissociated with 1 mg/mL Dispase (Gibco, 17105041) on days 4 and 14. After patterning for 14 days, the midbrain DA neuronal precursor cells (NPCs) were maintained in N2B27 medium until day 18. On day 19, the cells were dissociated with Accutase (Gibco, A1110501) and plated onto Geltrex-coated plates at a density of 2×10^5 cells/cm² and terminally differentiated with N2B27 medium supplemented with Compound E (Enzo Lifesciences, ALX-270-415-C250) and 10 μM Rho-kinase inhibitor, Y-27632 dihydrochloride (Tocris, 1254) from day 20 until day 70-75, with media changes twice a week. DA neurons between days 70 and 75 were used for downstream experiments.

Nanoparticle, rapamycin and diethyl succinate treatment

Control and acidic NPs, composed of poly(ethylene-succinate) and poly(ethylene tetrafluorosuccinate-co-succinate) respectively, were obtained from Prof. Mark Grinstaff and Prof. Orian Shirihai. The synthesis of the nanoparticles is described in [73]. The nanoparticles were stored at -80°C in aliquots and thawed fresh prior to treatment. Aliquots of 75 mg/mL nanoparticles were thawed to room temperature, vortexed thoroughly, and added to the cells at a concentration of 180 μg/mL in fresh culture medium for 12-16 hours before the experiment.

A stock solution of 200 µM rapamycin (Sigma, R0395) was prepared in DMSO and sterile filtered before being stored as aliquots at -20ºC. This stock solution was diluted to 200 nM in medium before being added to the cells. The cells were treated with 200 nM rapamycin for 12-16 hours before proceeding with the experiments unless mentioned otherwise. Diethyl Succinate (Merck, 112402) was diluted to 3 mM in culture media and sterile-filtered and added onto cells 30 minutes prior to measuring the $\Delta\Psi m$ using TMRM.

Generation of lentivirus and transduction:

pLV-Ef1a-3xHA-ATP6V1B2-mNeonGreen and pLV-Ef1a-3xFlag-ATP6Voa3-mScarlet plasmids were kindly provided by Dr. Wilhelm Palm (EPR 462 and EPR 475, European Plasmid Repository). pHAGE-mt-mKeima was a generous gift from Prof. Richard Youle (131626, Addgene). Lentiviral plasmids were packaged using psPAX2 and pMD2.G in HEK293T cells with Xtremegene-HP transfection reagent (Merck, 6366236001), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The media supernatant containing viruses was collected 48 and 72 hours post-transfection and concentrated using Lenti-X transfection reagent (Takara, 631231) with overnight incubation, followed by centrifugation at 2000 rpm for 1 hour at 4ºC. The pellet was then resuspended in DMEM-F12 medium and stored at -80ºC for further use. 72-96 hours prior to imaging, fibroblasts or DA neurons were treated with lentiviral particles. 24 hours post-treatment, the media was replaced with regular culture medium and incubated for another 48 hours before imaging.

Confocal imaging

DMEM-F12 medium (Gibco, 21041025) or BrainPhys medium (Stem Cell Technologies, 05796) served as a recording buffer for live cell imaging of fibroblasts and DA neurons. All images were acquired using a Carl Zeiss LSM 880 Confocal Laser Scanning microscope with Zen Black Software and a 63×/1.40 oil immersion lens at 37°C. Fixed and stained fibroblasts were also imaged with the same equipment.

Lysosensor Yellow/Blue DND 160
The cells were washed with DPBS and incubated for 4 minutes in the recording buffer containing 3 µM Lysosensor Yellow/Blue DND 160 (Invitrogen, L7545) at 37°C. After incubation, the dye was washed twice with PBS and imaged in fresh recording buffer using the UV laser at 355 nm. The dual emission maxima of the dye (440 nm/540 nm) were detected using spectral scanning (lambda scan mode) on the Zeiss LSM 880. Images were subsequently linearly unmixed employing the ZEN Black software to separate the 440 nm and 540 nm emission images. The ratio of 440/540 nm was then calculated using the Ratio Plus plugin on ImageJ/Fiji software to determine the lysosomal acidity of fibroblasts and DA neurons

Lysosomal pH measurement
The lysosomal pH was measured using Lysosensor Yellow/Blue DND-160 (L7545, Invitrogen). Fibroblasts cultured on fluorodishes were treated with pH calibration buffer containing Monensin (Sigma, M5273) and Nigericin (Sigma, N7143), with a pH ranging from 3.5 to 7.0 and stained with Lysosensor Yellow/Blue DND 160. The cells were incubated with 2 µM for 5 minutes at room temperature (RT) and imaged as previously mentioned. The 440/540

661 fluorescence ratio was measured for each calibration buffer. A lysosomal pH calibration curve
662 was established by correlating the 440/540 nm ratio with the corresponding pH values using
663 ImageJ/Fiji software.

Measurement of lysosomal proteolytic activity by DQ Red BSA
The DQ-Red BSA trafficking assay dye (Invitrogen, D12051) was utilised to examine
lysosomal proteolytic activity. DA neurones were washed with DPBS, and pre-warmed medium
containing DQ-Red BSA was added to the fluorodishes. The dishes were incubated at 37°C for
three hours. Following the incubation period, the cells were washed with DPBS and replaced
with the recording buffer prior to imaging. Cells stained with DQ-Red BSA were excited using
a 561 nm Argon laser, and the emitted fluorescence was collected within the 564–740 nm range.
The fluorescence intensity was quantified per cell using ImageJ/Fiji software with consistent
threshold settings across all samples.

Measurement of ΔΨm using TMRM
Fibroblast or DA neurons were washed with DPBS and incubated in recording buffer containing
20 nM TMRM (Thermofisher Scientific, T668) at 37°C for 30 minutes. Following incubation,
fresh recording buffer containing 20 nM TMRM was added before proceeding with imaging.
The cells were excited for TMRM fluorescence at 561nm, and images were acquired as Z-
stacks. Maximum intensity projection images were then utilised to quantify the fluorescence
intensity using ImageJ/Fiji software with consistent threshold settings across all samples. The
TMRM images were also used to analyse the mitochondrial morphology [44].

Measurement of Lipofuscin levels
Lipofuscins are excited at 355 nm and fluoresce across a range from 480 to 700 nm[15].
Fibroblasts were washed with the recording buffer and imaged using UV illumination at 355
nm, with images obtained through spectral scanning. The images were subsequently linearly
unmixed using ZEN Black software to separate the 460 nm and 480 nm emission images, thus
distinguishing NAD(P)H from lipofuscins. The spectrally unmixed images at 480 nm were then
utilised to calculate lipofuscin density per cell using ImageJ/Fiji software.

Colocalization of the Rhodamine-B labelled aNPs with the lysosomes
Rhodamine B-labelled acidic nanoparticles were treated for 12-16 hours prior to imaging the
fibroblasts. On the imaging day, cells were washed with the recording buffer and incubated
with 50 nM LysoTracker Blue DND-22 dye (Invitrogen, L7525) for 2 hours at 37°C.
Following the incubation, the cells were washed with the recording buffer and imaged in fresh
buffer. Images were acquired using sequential excitation (405 nm for LysoTracker Blue and
561 nm for Rhodamine) and emission ranges set to 420–480 nm and 570–620 nm,
respectively. Colocalisation Pearson's coefficient was quantified using ImageJ/Fiji software
with consistent threshold settings across all samples.

Measurement of mitophagy using mt-Keima reporter

698 Measurement of mitophagy was performed as previously described[13]. Untreated fibroblasts
699 and DA neurons were tranduced with lentiviral mt-Keima particles 72 hrs prior to imaging.

12-16 hours before imaging, the cells were treated with acidic nanoparticles or rapamycin. The cells were imaged using two sequential excitation wavelengths (458 nm for green fluorescence and 561 nm for red fluorescence) with an emission range of 570–695 nm. The laser power was set at the minimum output to allow the clear visualization of the mt-Keima signal. The ratio of the high F_{543}:F_{458} ratio values were generated using the Ratio Plus plugin in ImageJ/Fiji and was used as an index of mitophagy.

Fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy (FLIM) quantification of ATP6V₁B2-mNeonGreen

Fluorescence lifetime imaging was conducted using single-photon excitation on a multimodal time-resolved fluorescence microscope as previously described[22]. This setup encompassed an 80 MHz, near-infrared, femtosecond excitation source (Insight X3, Spectra Physics, Crewe, UK), a second harmonic generation unit (Harmonixx SHG, APE, Berlin, Germany), a laser scanning unit (DCS-120, Becker & Hickl, Berlin, Germany), an inverted microscope (Axio Observer 7, Zeiss, Cambridge, UK) featuring a high numerical aperture objective (Plan-Apochromat 63x/1.4 Oil M27, Zeiss, Cambridge, UK), an ultrafast hybrid detector (HPM-100-07, Becker & Hickl, Berlin, Germany), and time-correlated single photon counting (TCSPC) electronics (SPC-180NX, Becker & Hickl, Berlin, Germany). Images were acquired using 473 nm excitation to minimise the ratio of acceptor to donor excitation, along with 500–540 nm emission filtering to isolate fluorescence from the mNeonGreen donor. Photon counts were acquired for two minutes and histogrammed at 14.6ps intervals. Curve fitting analysis was performed in SPCImage (Becker & Hickl, Berlin, Germany).

Lysosomal enrichment assay

A lysosomal enrichment assay was conducted using the Lysosome Enrichment Kit for Tissues and Cultured Cells (Thermo Scientific, 89839) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, the DA neurons were pelleted and lysed with lysosome enrichment reagent A, which contained 1X protease and phosphatase inhibitors. The solution was then sonicated on ice, applying 12 bursts at 9W of power (Thermo Scientific) and mixed with lysosome enrichment reagent B. The solution was subsequently centrifuged at 500g for 10 minutes. 200 µL of supernatant was then aliquoted for use as cell supernatant for western blotting. Lysosomes were isolated from the remaining solution through gradient centrifugation. The protein concentrations of the lysosomes and cell supernatant were then quantified using a BCA assay and proceeded for western blotting as discussed below.

SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting

Fibroblasts and DA neurons were washed with ice-cold PBS, followed by the addition of 150 µl of ice-cold RIPA lysis buffer (Sigma-Aldrich, R0278), which was supplemented with protease inhibitors (Roche 4693116001), PMSF (Sigma, 93482), and phosphatase inhibitors (Roche 4906837001). Cells were scraped using a plastic scraper, and the lysates were transferred to 1.5 ml tubes. The lysates were rotated at 4°C for 30 minutes and sonicated (3 cycles, 3 seconds each at 40% amplitude, with 5-minute intervals). Samples were centrifuged at 16,000 g for 30 minutes at 4°C, and the supernatant was collected. Protein concentration was determined using a BCA assay kit (Thermo Scientific, 23227). A total of 20-30 µg of

protein was diluted with RIPA buffer and mixed with NuPAGE 4X sample buffer
(Invitrogen, NP0007). The samples were heated at 95°C for 5 minutes (for OXPHOS
proteins, the lysates were heated at 45ºC for 5 minutes). Proteins were separated on 4–12%
NuPAGE Bis-Tris polyacrylamide gels (Invitrogen, NP0335) immersed in MOPS running
buffer (Invitrogen, NP0001). Proteins were transferred to PVDF membranes (Millipore,
IPFL00010) activated in methanol using a wet transfer system. Membranes were blocked in
Superblock blocking buffer (Invitrogen, 37545) for 1 hour at room temperature. Primary
antibodies were diluted in 1X blocking buffer and incubated with the membranes overnight at
4°C. After three 10-minute washes in TBST, the membranes were incubated with secondary
antibodies (Li-COR Biosciences; 1:10000; IRDye® 680RD Goat anti-Mouse IgG, 926-
68070; IRDye® 800CW Goat anti-Rabbit IgG, 926-32211) diluted in 1% BSA/TBST for 1
hour at room temperature. The membranes were washed three additional times with TBST.
Fluorescent signals were developed using a LiCOR Odyssey CLx system. The details of the
antibodies are listed in Table 2.

Immunostaining
Fibroblasts were grown on coverslips, treated, and fixed with 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde.
After fixation, the cells were permeabilised with 50 µg/ml digitonin in PBS for 10 minutes.
The cells were then washed, blocked with 3% BSA, and incubated with the following primary
antibodies: citrate synthase, LAMP1, and LC3 in 3% BSA for 1 hour at room temperature,
followed by incubation with Alexa Fluor 488/594/647-conjugated secondary antibodies for 1
hour at room temperature. Coverslips were mounted on glass slides, and images were acquired
using appropriate excitation and emission filters to capture fluorescent signals. Colocalisation
Pearson's coefficient (Mito vs LC3 and Mito vs LAMP1), lysosomal number (LAMP1
particles/cell), and autophagosome number (LC3 particles/cell) were quantified using
ImageJ/Fiji with consistent threshold settings across all samples. The catalogue number and
dilution range of the antibodies are listed in Table 2.

Mitochondrial isolation
Mitochondria were isolated according to the method described earlier [62] and modified for the
neuronal cultures. Briefly, DA neuron cell pellets were resuspended in mitochondria isolation
buffer (MIB1: 225 mM Mannitol, 75 mM Sucrose, 5 mM HEPES, 1 mM EGTA and 1 mg/ml
fatty acid free BSA) and homogenised using a ice-cold Dounce tissue grinder tube (appropriate
for 1-1.5 ml homogenisation volume). The homogenate was centrifuged, and the mitochondrial
pellet was washed and pellet down in MIB without BSA (MIB2) according to the protocol. The
final pellet was resuspended in a very small volume of MIB2, and the protein concentration
was determined using BCA Protein assay kit (Thermofisher Scientific, 23227) according to the
manufacturer's specifications.The isolated mitochondria were then used for respiratory
measurements.

Measurement of oxygen consumption rate
Measurements of mitochondrial respiration were conducted with the Seahorse Bioscience
XFe96 bioanalyzer using the Seahorse XF Cell Mito Stress Test Kit (Agilent #103015-100).
Final maturation of iPSCs into DA neurons were performed in XF96 cell culture microplates
(Agilent #102416-100). On the day of the experiment, the culture medium was replaced with

Seahorse XF Base medium (Agilent #103334-100) supplemented with 1 mM pyruvate (Gibco #11360070), 2 mM glutamine (Gibco #25030081) and 10 mM glucose (Gibco #A2494001) and incubated for 30 min at 37 °C in a CO_2-free incubator before loading into the Seahorse Analyser. After measuring basal respiration, the drugs oligomycin (5 µM), FCCP (1.5 µM), and rotenone/antimycin A (0.5 µM/0.5 µM) were added to each well in sequential order. After the assay, cells were stained with Hoechst 33342 (5 µM; Thermo Scientific #62249) for 30 min. ImageXpress was then used to count the number of cell nuclei (cell numbers) in each well and normalised to get the basal respiration rate values.

The respiratory measurements of isolated mitochondria from mixed neuronal cultures were performed using a modified method described earlier[6] for Seahorse XFe96 cell culture plates assay. Briefly, 5 or 10 µg of mitochondrial protein was resuspended in 30 µL (1 well) of individual substrate mix (for example, pyruvate/malate substrate + mitochondria assay solution - MAS) and plated into each well. The cell culture plate was centrifuged at 2,000g for 20 minutes at 4 °C to form a uniform layer of mitochondria at the bottom. After centrifugation, 150 µL of substrate solution was carefully added to each well. Fresh injection solutions were made in MAS without BSA and loaded into the cartridge, and calibrated according to the manufacturer's specifications. After calibration, the culture plate with mitochondria was inserted, and the assay was run essentially as described in the method.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

TEM was performed as previously described [13]. Briefly, fibroblasts and DA neurons grown on coverslips were fixed in electron microscopy (EM) fixative containing 2% glutaraldehyde (EMS, 16365) and 2% paraformaldehyde (EMS, 15710) in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate for 1 hour. Following fixation, cells were washed with 0.1 M cacodylate buffer (EMS, 11650) and then fixed in a solution of 1% osmium tetroxide (EMS, 19150) and 1% potassium ferricyanide (EMS, 25120-20) in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate. This was followed by sequential dehydration using ethanol. Coverslips were then embedded in epoxy resin (Araldite Kit, Agar Scientific Ltd., CY212) according to standard protocols. The embedded samples were sectioned into 50 nm slices using an ultramicrotome equipped with a diamond knife and mounted onto copper grids suitable for TEM. The grids were stained with lead citrate for 3 minutes before imaging. Images were captured using a Jeol 1400 Transmission Electron Microscope at magnifications ranging from 800× to 1200× (digital magnification). Images were imported into ImageJ/Fiji to quantify mitochondrial area, mitochondrial cristae density, and the number of autophagosomes, autolysosomes, and lysosomes per field. Mitochondria and autophagic vesicles were manually traced to determine the area.

Quantification and statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism. For comparisons between two groups, a two-tailed unpaired t-test was applied to normally distributed data. Multi-group comparisons were analysed using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test or two-way ANOVA. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. from at least three independent replicates, with 50-70 cells per repeat for DA neurons and 10-15 cells per repeat for fibroblasts for live cell imaging experiments. For immunoblotting or TMRM data, control sample means were normalised to one to facilitate comparisons. Statistical significance was defined as

825   p < 0.05. p-values are reported as follows: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.005, and
826   ****p < 0.001, ns – not significant.

Acknowledgements
This project was funded by the Michael J Fox Foundation (Project number E27234 to MRD)
and the Parkinson's UK Foundation (G-2103 to MRD and PS). The authors would also like to
express their gratitude to the members of the Michael Duchen and Gyorgy Szabadkai labs for
their feedback, as well as to students, including Shail Bhatt and Oriane Marguet, for their
assistance with the preliminary data. We acknowledge the MRC Centre for Neuromuscular
Diseases Biobank (supported by the National Institute for Health Research Biomedical
Research Centres at Great Ormond Street Hospital for Children, NHS Foundation Trust) for
providing the age- and sex-matched healthy controls and GBA1-E326K fibroblasts used in this
study. Figure 6 was created using Biorender.com. We thank Dr. Elizabeth Slavik-Smith from
the Electron Microscopy facility at UCL, Division of Biosciences, for her assistance with EM.

Author Contributions
840   P.S., M.R.D - Conceptualisation, funding acquisition, investigation, visualization,
841   methodology, writing–original draft, project administration, writing–review and editing. A.C.B
842   –methodology, investigation, visualisation and data analysis. S.K, A.F, I.K, K.S and T.S.B–
843   Methodology, investigation and data analysis. O.S, J.Z and M.G – Resources.

Declaration of Interests
846   No competing interests in this research were declared by the authors.

References:

1. Baden P, Perez MJ, Raji H, Bertoli F, Kalb S, Illescas M, Spanos F, Giuliano C, Calogero AM, Oldrati M, Hebestreit H, Cappelletti G, Brockmann K, Gasser T, Schapira AHV, Ugalde C, Deleidi M (2023) Glucocerebrosidase is imported into mitochondria and preserves complex I integrity and energy metabolism. Nat Commun 14:1930. doi: 10.1038/s41467-023-37454-4

2. Bae E-J, Yang NY, Lee C, Lee H-J, Kim S, Sardi SP, Lee S-J (2015) Loss of glucocerebrosidase 1 activity causes lysosomal dysfunction and α-synuclein aggregation. Exp Mol Med 47:e153–e153. doi: 10.1038/emm.2014.128

3. Bindels DS, Haarbosch L, Van Weeren L, Postma M, Wiese KE, Mastop M, Aumonier S, Gotthard G, Royant A, Hink MA, Gadella TWJ (2017) mScarlet: a bright monomeric red fluorescent protein for cellular imaging. Nat Methods 14:53–56. doi: 10.1038/nmeth.4074

4. Blacker TS, Chen W, Avezov E, Marsh RJ, Duchen MR, Kaminski CF, Bain AJ (2017) Investigating State Restriction in Fluorescent Protein FRET Using Time-Resolved Fluorescence and Anisotropy. J Phys Chem C 121:1507–1514. doi: 10.1021/acs.jpcc.6b11235

5. Bourdenx M, Daniel J, Genin E, Soria FN, Blanchard-Desce M, Bezard E, Dehay B (2016) Nanoparticles restore lysosomal acidification defects: Implications for Parkinson and other lysosomal-related diseases. Autophagy 12:472–483. doi: 10.1080/15548627.2015.1136769

6. Boutagy NE, Rogers GW, Pyne ES, Ali MM, Hulver MW, Frisard MI (2015) Using Isolated Mitochondria from Minimal Quantities of Mouse Skeletal Muscle for High throughput Microplate Respiratory Measurements. J Vis Exp e53216. doi: 10.3791/53216

7. Burbulla LF, Jeon S, Zheng J, Song P, Silverman RB, Krainc D (2019) A modulator of wild-type glucocerebrosidase improves pathogenic phenotypes in dopaminergic neuronal models of Parkinson's disease. Sci Transl Med 11:eaau6870. doi: 10.1126/scitranslmed.aau6870

8. Byrns CN, Bonini NM (2021) An Integrated Multi-omics Approach Identifies Therapeutic Potential for ATP6V1A in Late Onset Alzheimer's Disease. Neuron 109:193–194. doi: 10.1016/j.neuron.2020.12.015

9. Capristo M, Del Dotto V, Tropeano CV, Fiorini C, Caporali L, La Morgia C, Valentino ML, Montopoli M, Carelli V, Maresca A (2022) Rapamycin rescues mitochondrial dysfunction in cells carrying the m.8344A > G mutation in the mitochondrial tRNALys. Mol Med 28:90. doi: 10.1186/s10020-022-00519-z

10. Carmona-Gutierrez D, Hughes AL, Madeo F, Ruckenstuhl C (2016) The crucial impact of lysosomes in aging and longevity. Ageing Research Reviews 32:2–12. doi: 10.1016/j.arr.2016.04.009

11. Chen L, Saito R, Noda-Narita S, Kassai H, Aiba A (2024) Hyperactive mTORC1 in striatum dysregulates dopamine receptor expression and odor preference behavior. Front Neurosci 18:1461178. doi: 10.3389/fnins.2024.1461178

12. Chin MY, Ang K-H, Davies J, Alquezar C, Garda VG, Rooney B, Leng K, Kampmann M, Arkin MR, Kao AW (2022) Phenotypic Screening Using High-Content Imaging to Identify Lysosomal pH Modulators in a Neuronal Cell Model. ACS Chem Neurosci 13:1505–1516. doi: 10.1021/acschemneuro.1c00804

13. Chung C-Y, Singh K, Sheshadri P, Valdebenito GE, Chacko AR, Costa Besada MA, Liang XF, Kabir L, Pitceathly RDS, Szabadkai G, Duchen MR (2024) Inhibition of the PI3K-AKT-MTORC1 axis reduces the burden of the m.3243A>G mtDNA mutation by promoting mitophagy and improving mitochondrial function. Autophagy 1–16. doi: 10.1080/15548627.2024.2437908

14. Coffey EE, Beckel JM, Laties AM, Mitchell CH (2014) Lysosomal alkalization and dysfunction in human fibroblasts with the Alzheimer's disease-linked presenilin 1 A246E mutation can be reversed with cAMP. Neuroscience 263:111–124. doi: 10.1016/j.neuroscience.2014.01.001

15. Croce AC, Bottiroli G (2014) Autofluorescence spectroscopy and imaging: a tool for biomedical research and diagnosis. Eur J Histochem. doi: 10.4081/ejh.2014.2461

16. De La Cruz López KG, Toledo Guzmán ME, Sánchez EO, García Carrancá A (2019) mTORC1 as a Regulator of Mitochondrial Functions and a Therapeutic Target in Cancer. Front Oncol 9:1373. doi: 10.3389/fonc.2019.01373

17. Dehay B, Martinez-Vicente M, Caldwell GA, Caldwell KA, Yue Z, Cookson MR, Klein C, Vila M, Bezard E (2013) Lysosomal impairment in Parkinson's disease. Movement Disorders 28:725–732. doi: 10.1002/mds.25462

18. Duran R, Mencacci NE, Angeli AV, Shoai M, Deas E, Houlden H, Mehta A, Hughes D, Cox TM, Deegan P, Schapira AH, Lees AJ, Limousin P, Jarman PR, Bhatia KP, Wood NW, Hardy J, Foltynie T (2013) The glucocerobrosidase E326K variant predisposes to Parkinson's disease, but does not cause Gaucher's disease. Movement Disorders 28:232–236. doi: 10.1002/mds.25248

19. Ebner M, Fröhlich F, Haucke V (2025) Mechanisms and functions of lysosomal lipid homeostasis. Cell Chemical Biology 32:392–407. doi: 10.1016/j.chembiol.2025.02.003

20. Falace A, Volpedo G, Scala M, Zara F, Striano P, Fassio A (2024) V-ATPase Dysfunction in the Brain: Genetic Insights and Therapeutic Opportunities. Cells 13:1441. doi: 10.3390/cells13171441

21. Fassio A, Esposito A, Kato M, Saitsu H, Mei D, Marini C, Conti V, Nakashima M, Okamoto N, Olmez Turker A, Albuz B, Semerci Gündüz CN, Yanagihara K, Belmonte E, Maragliano L, Ramsey K, Balak C, Siniard A, Narayanan V, C4RCD Research Group, Ohba C, Shiina M, Ogata K, Matsumoto N, Benfenati F, Guerrini R (2018) De novo mutations of the ATP6V1A gene cause developmental encephalopathy with epilepsy. Brain 141:1703–1718. doi: 10.1093/brain/awy092

22. Félix SS, O'Toole P, Oliveira NAS, Pinho BR, Blacker TS, Fernandes F, Oliveira JMA, Oroz J, Laurents DV, Cabrita EJ (2025) Pathological mutation in SMN impairs modulation of GAR1 phase separation linking condensate dysfunction to Spinal Muscular Atrophy

931   23.   Furderer ML, Hertz E, Lopez GJ, Sidransky E (2022) Neuropathological Features of
932   Gaucher Disease and Gaucher Disease with Parkinsonism. IJMS 23:5842. doi:
933   10.3390/ijms23105842

934   24.   García-Sanz P, Orgaz L, Bueno-Gil G, Espadas I, Rodríguez-Traver E, Kulisevsky J,
935   Gutierrez A, Dávila JC, González-Polo RA, Fuentes JM, Mir P, Vicario C, Moratalla R
936   (2017) N370S -*GBA1* mutation causes lysosomal cholesterol accumulation in Parkinson's
937   disease. Movement Disorders 32:1409–1422. doi: 10.1002/mds.27119

938   25.   Gegg ME, Schapira AHV (2016) Mitochondrial dysfunction associated with
939   glucocerebrosidase deficiency. Neurobiology of Disease 90:43–50. doi:
940   10.1016/j.nbd.2015.09.006

941   26.   Guerrini R, Mei D, Kerti-Szigeti K, Pepe S, Koenig MK, Von Allmen G, Cho MT,
942   McDonald K, Baker J, Bhambhani V, Powis Z, Rodan L, Nabbout R, Barcia G, Rosenfeld
943   JA, Bacino CA, Mignot C, Power LH, Harris CJ, Marjanovic D, Møller RS, Hammer TB,
944   The DDD Study, Keski Filppula R, Vieira P, Hildebrandt C, Sacharow S, Undiagnosed
945   Diseases Network, Maragliano L, Benfenati F, Lachlan K, Benneche A, Petit F, De Sainte
946   Agathe JM, Hallinan B, Si Y, Wentzensen IM, Zou F, Narayanan V, Matsumoto N,
947   Boncristiano A, La Marca G, Kato M, Anderson K, Barba C, Sturiale L, Garozzo D, Bei
948   R, ATP6V1A collaborators, Masuelli L, Conti V, Novarino G, Fassio A (2022) Phenotypic
949   and genetic spectrum of ATP6V1A encephalopathy: a disorder of lysosomal homeostasis.
950   Brain 145:2687–2703. doi: 10.1093/brain/awac145

951   27.   Haltia M, Goebel HH (2013) The neuronal ceroid-lipofuscinoses: A historical
952   introduction. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Molecular Basis of Disease
953   1832:1795–1800. doi: 10.1016/j.bbadis.2012.08.012

954   28.   Henrich MT, Oertel WH, Surmeier DJ, Geibl FF (2023) Mitochondrial dysfunction in
955   Parkinson's disease – a key disease hallmark with therapeutic potential. Mol
956   Neurodegeneration 18:83. doi: 10.1186/s13024-023-00676-7

957   29.   Hosios AM, Wilkinson ME, McNamara MC, Kalafut KC, Torrence ME, Asara JM,
958   Manning BD (2022) mTORC1 regulates a lysosome-dependent adaptive shift in
959   intracellular lipid species. Nat Metab 4:1792–1811. doi: 10.1038/s42255-022-00706-6

960   30.   Im E, Jiang Y, Stavrides PH, Darji S, Erdjument-Bromage H, Neubert TA, Choi JY, Wegiel
961   J, Lee J-H, Nixon RA (2023) Lysosomal dysfunction in Down syndrome and Alzheimer
962   mouse models is caused by v-ATPase inhibition by Tyr[682] -phosphorylated APP βCTF.
963   Sci Adv 9:eadg1925. doi: 10.1126/sciadv.adg1925

964   31.   Kilpatrick BS, Magalhaes J, Beavan MS, McNeill A, Gegg ME, Cleeter MWJ, Bloor-
965   Young D, Churchill GC, Duchen MR, Schapira AH, Patel S (2016) Endoplasmic
966   reticulum and lysosomal Ca2+ stores are remodelled in GBA1-linked Parkinson disease
967   patient fibroblasts. Cell Calcium 59:12–20. doi: 10.1016/j.ceca.2015.11.002

968   32.   Kim S, Wong YC, Gao F, Krainc D (2021) Dysregulation of mitochondria-lysosome
969   contacts by GBA1 dysfunction in dopaminergic neuronal models of Parkinson's disease.
970   Nat Commun 12:1807. doi: 10.1038/s41467-021-22113-3

33. Kim S-H, Cho Y-S, Kim Y, Park J, Yoo S-M, Gwak J, Kim Y, Gwon Y, Kam T, Jung Y-K (2023) Endolysosomal impairment by binding of amyloid beta or MAPT/Tau to V-ATPase and rescue via the HYAL-CD44 axis in Alzheimer disease. Autophagy 19:2318–2337. doi: 10.1080/15548627.2023.2181614

34. Lawrence RE, Zoncu R (2019) The lysosome as a cellular centre for signalling, metabolism and quality control. Nat Cell Biol 21:133–142. doi: 10.1038/s41556-018-0244-7

35. Li H, Ham A, Ma TC, Kuo S-H, Kanter E, Kim D, Ko HS, Quan Y, Sardi SP, Li A, Arancio O, Kang UJ, Sulzer D, Tang G (2019) Mitochondrial dysfunction and mitophagy defect triggered by heterozygous *GBA* mutations. Autophagy 15:113–130. doi: 10.1080/15548627.2018.1509818

36. Lipton JO, Sahin M (2014) The Neurology of mTOR. Neuron 84:275–291. doi: 10.1016/j.neuron.2014.09.034

37. Liu X, Li Y, Yu L, Vickstrom CR, Liu Q (2018) VTA mTOR Signaling Regulates Dopamine Dynamics, Cocaine-Induced Synaptic Alterations, and Reward. Neuropsychopharmacol 43:1066–1077. doi: 10.1038/npp.2017.247

38. Liu Z, Zhuang W, Cai M, Lv E, Wang Y, Wu Z, Wang H, Fu W (2022) Kaemperfol Protects Dopaminergic Neurons by Promoting mTOR-Mediated Autophagy in Parkinson's Disease Models. Neurochem Res. doi: 10.1007/s11064-022-03819-2

39. Lwin A (2004) Glucocerebrosidase mutations in subjects with parkinsonism. Molecular Genetics and Metabolism 81:70–73. doi: 10.1016/j.ymgme.2003.11.004

40. Magalhaes J, Gegg ME, Migdalska-Richards A, Doherty MK, Whitfield PD, Schapira AHV (2016) Autophagic lysosome reformation dysfunction in glucocerebrosidase deficient cells: relevance to Parkinson disease. Hum Mol Genet 25:3432–3445. doi: 10.1093/hmg/ddw185

41. Masters TA, Marsh RJ, Armoogum DA, Nicolaou N, Larijani B, Bain AJ (2013) Restricted State Selection in Fluorescent Protein Förster Resonance Energy Transfer. J Am Chem Soc 135:7883–7890. doi: 10.1021/ja312230b

42. Matassini C, Warren J, Wang B, Goti A, Cardona F, Morrone A, Bols M (2020) Imino- and Azasugar Protonation Inside Human Acid β-Glucosidase, the Enzyme that is Defective in Gaucher Disease. Angew Chem Int Ed 59:10466–10469. doi: 10.1002/anie.202002850

43. Mauvezin C, Nagy P, Juhász G, Neufeld TP (2015) Autophagosome–lysosome fusion is independent of V-ATPase-mediated acidification. Nat Commun 6:7007. doi: 10.1038/ncomms8007

44. Merrill RA, Flippo KH, Strack S (2017) Measuring Mitochondrial Shape with ImageJ. In: Strack S, Usachev YM (eds) Techniques to Investigate Mitochondrial Function in Neurons. Springer New York, New York, NY, pp 31–48

1009   45.   Morita M, Gravel S-P, Hulea L, Larsson O, Pollak M, St-Pierre J, Topisirovic I (2015)
1010   mTOR coordinates protein synthesis, mitochondrial activity and proliferation. Cell Cycle
1011   14:473–480. doi: 10.4161/15384101.2014.991572

1012   46.   Navarro-Romero A, Fernandez-Gonzalez I, Riera J, Montpeyo M, Albert-Bayo M, Lopez-
1013   Royo T, Castillo-Sanchez P, Carnicer-Caceres C, Arranz-Amo JA, Castillo-Ribelles L,
1014   Pradas E, Casas J, Vila M, Martinez-Vicente M (2022) Lysosomal lipid alterations caused
1015   by glucocerebrosidase deficiency promote lysosomal dysfunction, chaperone-mediated-
1016   autophagy deficiency, and alpha-synuclein pathology. npj Parkinsons Dis 8:126. doi:
1017   10.1038/s41531-022-00397-6

1018   47.   Neikirk K, Vue Z, Katti P, Rodriguez BI, Omer S, Shao J, Christensen T, Garza Lopez E,
1019   Marshall A, Palavicino-Maggio CB, Ponce J, Alghanem AF, Vang L, Barongan T, Beasley
1020   HK, Rodman T, Stephens D, Mungai M, Correia M, Exil V, Damo S, Murray SA, Crabtree
1021   A, Glancy B, Pereira RO, Abel ED, Hinton AO (2023) Systematic Transmission Electron
1022   Microscopy-Based Identification and 3D Reconstruction of Cellular Degradation
1023   Machinery. Advanced Biology 7:2200221. doi: 10.1002/adbi.202200221

1024   48.   Offman MN, Krol M, Silman I, Sussman JL, Futerman AH (2010) Molecular Basis of
1025   Reduced Glucosylceramidase Activity in the Most Common Gaucher Disease Mutant,
1026   N370S.   Journal   of   Biological   Chemistry   285:42105–42114.   doi:
1027   10.1074/jbc.M110.172098

1028   49.   Osellame LD, Rahim AA, Hargreaves IP, Gegg ME, Richard-Londt A, Brandner S,
1029   Waddington SN, Schapira AHV, Duchen MR (2013) Mitochondria and Quality Control
1030   Defects in a Mouse Model of Gaucher Disease—Links to Parkinson's Disease. Cell
1031   Metabolism 17:941–953. doi: 10.1016/j.cmet.2013.04.014

1032   50.   Pietrafesa D, Casamassa A, Benassi B, Santoro M, Marano M, Consales C, Rosati J,
1033   Arcangeli C (2024) Investigating the Impact of the Parkinson's-Associated GBA1 E326K
1034   Mutation on β-Glucocerebrosidase Dimerization and Interactome Dynamics Through an
1035   In Silico Approach. IJMS 25:11443. doi: 10.3390/ijms252111443

1036   51.   Pitcairn C, Wani WY, Mazzulli JR (2019) Dysregulation of the autophagic-lysosomal
1037   pathway in Gaucher and Parkinson's disease. Neurobiology of Disease 122:72–82. doi:
1038   10.1016/j.nbd.2018.03.008

1039   52.   Ponsford AH, Ryan TA, Raimondi A, Cocucci E, Wycislo SA, Fröhlich F, Swan LE, Stagi
1040   M (2021) Live imaging of intra-lysosome pH in cell lines and primary neuronal culture
1041   using a novel genetically encoded biosensor. Autophagy 17:1500–1518. doi:
1042   10.1080/15548627.2020.1771858

1043   53.   Ratto E, Chowdhury SR, Siefert NS, Schneider M, Wittmann M, Helm D, Palm W (2022)
1044   Direct control of lysosomal catabolic activity by mTORC1 through regulation of V-
1045   ATPase assembly. Nat Commun 13:4848. doi: 10.1038/s41467-022-32515-6

1046   54.   Rubilar JC, Outeiro TF, Klein AD (2024) The lysosomal β-glucocerebrosidase strikes
1047   mitochondria: implications for Parkinson's therapeutics. Brain 147:2610–2620. doi:
1048   10.1093/brain/awae070

55. Rujano MA, Cannata Serio M, Panasyuk G, Péanne R, Reunert J, Rymen D, Hauser V,
Park JH, Freisinger P, Souche E, Guida MC, Maier EM, Wada Y, Jäger S, Krogan NJ,
Kretz O, Nobre S, Garcia P, Quelhas D, Bird TD, Raskind WH, Schwake M, Duvet S,
Foulquier F, Matthijs G, Marquardt T, Simons M (2017) Mutations in the X-linked
ATP6AP2 cause a glycosylation disorder with autophagic defects. Journal of
Experimental Medicine 214:3707–3729. doi: 10.1084/jem.20170453

56. Sabers CJ, Martin MM, Brunn GJ, Williams JM, Dumont FJ, Wiederrecht G, Abraham
RT (1995) Isolation of a Protein Target of the FKBP12-Rapamycin Complex in
Mammalian Cells. Journal of Biological Chemistry 270:815–822. doi:
10.1074/jbc.270.2.815

57. Salvioli R, Tatti M, Scarpa S, Moavero SM, Ciaffoni F, Felicetti F, Kaneski CR, Brady
RO, Vaccaro AM (2005) The N370S (Asn370→Ser) mutation affects the capacity of
glucosylceramidase to interact with anionic phospholipid-containing membranes and
saposin C. Biochemical Journal 390:95–103. doi: 10.1042/BJ20050325

58. Schöndorf DC, Aureli M, McAllister FE, Hindley CJ, Mayer F, Schmid B, Sardi SP,
Valsecchi M, Hoffmann S, Schwarz LK, Hedrich U, Berg D, Shihabuddin LS, Hu J,
Pruszak J, Gygi SP, Sonnino S, Gasser T, Deleidi M (2014) iPSC-derived neurons from
GBA1-associated Parkinson's disease patients show autophagic defects and impaired
calcium homeostasis. Nat Commun 5:4028. doi: 10.1038/ncomms5028

59. Settembre C, Fraldi A, Medina DL, Ballabio A (2013) Signals from the lysosome: a
control centre for cellular clearance and energy metabolism. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol
14:283–296. doi: 10.1038/nrm3565

60. Sidransky E, Nalls MA, Aasly JO, Aharon-Peretz J, Annesi G, Barbosa ER, Bar-Shira A,
Berg D, Bras J, Brice A, Chen C-M, Clark LN, Condroyer C, De Marco EV, Dürr A, Eblan
MJ, Fahn S, Farrer MJ, Fung H-C, Gan-Or Z, Gasser T, Gershoni-Baruch R, Giladi N,
Griffith A, Gurevich T, Januario C, Kropp P, Lang AE, Lee-Chen G-J, Lesage S, Marder
K, Mata IF, Mirelman A, Mitsui J, Mizuta I, Nicoletti G, Oliveira C, Ottman R, Orr-
Urtreger A, Pereira LV, Quattrone A, Rogaeva E, Rolfs A, Rosenbaum H, Rozenberg R,
Samii A, Samaddar T, Schulte C, Sharma M, Singleton A, Spitz M, Tan E-K, Tayebi N,
Toda T, Troiano AR, Tsuji S, Wittstock M, Wolfsberg TG, Wu Y-R, Zabetian CP, Zhao Y,
Ziegler SG (2009) Multicenter Analysis of Glucocerebrosidase Mutations in Parkinson's
Disease. N Engl J Med 361:1651–1661. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa0901281

61. Sillence DJ (2013) Glucosylceramide modulates endolysosomal pH in Gaucher disease.
Molecular Genetics and Metabolism 109:194–200. doi: 10.1016/j.ymgme.2013.03.015

62. Singh K, Duchen MR (2022) Analysis of Organization and Activity of Mitochondrial
Respiratory Chain Complexes in Primary Fibroblasts Using Blue Native PAGE. Methods
Mol Biol 2497:339–348. doi: 10.1007/978-1-0716-2309-1_25

63. Song Q, Meng B, Xu H, Mao Z (2020) The emerging roles of vacuolar-type ATPase-
dependent Lysosomal acidification in neurodegenerative diseases. Transl Neurodegener
9:17. doi: 10.1186/s40035-020-00196-0

1089 64. Song SB, Shim W, Hwang ES (2023) Lipofuscin Granule Accumulation Requires
1090   Autophagy Activation. Molecules and Cells 46:486–495. doi:
1091   10.14348/molcells.2023.0019

1092 65. Steet RA, Chung S, Wustman B, Powe A, Do H, Kornfeld SA (2006) The iminosugar
1093   isofagomine increases the activity of N370S mutant acid β-glucosidase in Gaucher
1094   fibroblasts by several mechanisms. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 103:13813–13818. doi:
1095   10.1073/pnas.0605928103

1096 66. Suhling K, Hirvonen LM, Levitt JA, Chung P-H, Tregidgo C, Le Marois A, Rusakov DA,
1097   Zheng K, Ameer-Beg S, Poland S, Coelho S, Henderson R, Krstajic N (2015)
1098   Fluorescence lifetime imaging (FLIM): Basic concepts and some recent developments.
1099   Medical Photonics 27:3–40. doi: 10.1016/j.medpho.2014.12.001

1100 67. Sun N, Malide D, Liu J, Rovira II, Combs CA, Finkel T (2017) A fluorescence-based
1101   imaging method to measure in vitro and in vivo mitophagy using mt-Keima. Nat Protoc
1102   12:1576–1587. doi: 10.1038/nprot.2017.060

1103 68. Tintos-Hernández JA, Santana A, Keller KN, Ortiz-González XR (2021) Lysosomal
1104   dysfunction impairs mitochondrial quality control and is associated with
1105   neurodegeneration in *TBCK* encephaloneuronopathy. Brain Communications 3:fcab215.
1106   doi: 10.1093/braincomms/fcab215

1107 69. Virdi GS, Choi ML, Evans JR, Yao Z, Athauda D, Strohbuecker S, Nirujogi RS, Wernick
1108   AI, Pelegrina-Hidalgo N, Leighton C, Saleeb RS, Kopach O, Alrashidi H, Melandri D,
1109   Perez-Lloret J, Angelova PR, Sylantyev S, Eaton S, Heales S, Rusakov DA, Alessi DR,
1110   Kunath T, Horrocks MH, Abramov AY, Patani R, Gandhi S (2022) Protein aggregation
1111   and calcium dysregulation are hallmarks of familial Parkinson's disease in midbrain
1112   dopaminergic neurons. npj Parkinsons Dis 8:162. doi: 10.1038/s41531-022-00423-7

1113 70. Wang M, Li A, Sekiya M, Beckmann ND, Quan X, Schrode N, Fernando MB, Yu A, Zhu
1114   L, Cao J, Lyu L, Horguzluoglu E, Wang Q, Guo L, Wang Y, Neff R, Song W, Wang E,
1115   Shen Q, Zhou X, Ming C, Ho S-M, Vatansever S, Kaniskan HÜ, Jin J, Zhou M-M, Ando
1116   K, Ho L, Slesinger PA, Yue Z, Zhu J, Katsel P, Gandy S, Ehrlich ME, Fossati V, Noggle
1117   S, Cai D, Haroutunian V, Iijima KM, Schadt E, Brennand KJ, Zhang B (2021)
1118   Transformative Network Modeling of Multi-omics Data Reveals Detailed Circuits, Key
1119   Regulators, and Potential Therapeutics for Alzheimer's Disease. Neuron 109:257-
1120   272.e14. doi: 10.1016/j.neuron.2020.11.002

1121 71. Wei RR, Hughes H, Boucher S, Bird JJ, Guziewicz N, Van Patten SM, Qiu H, Pan CQ,
1122   Edmunds T (2011) X-ray and Biochemical Analysis of N370S Mutant Human Acid β-
1123   Glucosidase. Journal of Biological Chemistry 286:299–308. doi:
1124   10.1074/jbc.M110.150433

1125 72. Yates SC, Zafar A, Hubbard P, Nagy S, Durant S, Bicknell R, Wilcock G, Christie S, Esiri
1126   MM, Smith AD, Nagy Z (2013) Dysfunction of the mTOR pathway is a risk factor for
1127   Alzheimer's disease. acta neuropathol commun 1:3. doi: 10.1186/2051-5960-1-3

1128 73. Zeng J, Acin-Perez R, Assali EA, Martin A, Brownstein AJ, Petcherski A, Fernández-del-
1129   Rio L, Xiao R, Lo CH, Shum M, Liesa M, Han X, Shirihai OS, Grinstaff MW (2023)
1130   Restoration of lysosomal acidification rescues autophagy and metabolic dysfunction in

non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. Nat Commun 14:2573. doi: 10.1038/s41467-023-38165-
6

74. Zhang J, Zeng W, Han Y, Lee W-R, Liou J, Jiang Y (2023) Lysosomal LAMP proteins
regulate lysosomal pH by direct inhibition of the TMEM175 channel. Molecular Cell
83:2524-2539.e7. doi: 10.1016/j.molcel.2023.06.004

75. Zheng W, Li K, Zhong M, Wu K, Zhou L, Huang J, Liu L, Chen Z (2024) Mitophagy
activation by rapamycin enhances mitochondrial function and cognition in 5×FAD mice.
Behavioural Brain Research 463:114889. doi: 10.1016/j.bbr.2024.114889

1139

    Table 1 – List of cell lines used

Cell Lines used	Cell Line ID	Age/Sex	Cell type	Mutation	Source	Ethics Committee Approval
CONTROL 1	CONTROL 1	77/Male	Fibroblasts	No Mutation	NHNN	PD Royal Free Ethics
N370S	ND34263	65/Male	Fibroblasts; source for NH50182 iPSCs	GBA1-N370S; Heterozygous	NIH-RUCDR	
CONTROL 2	CONTROL 2	55/Male	Fibroblasts; source for Control1 iPSCs	No Mutation	NHNN	PD Royal Free Ethics
E326K 1	Het1/ JS48753	58/Male	Fibroblasts; source for Het1/E326K 1 iPSCs	GBA1-E326K; Heterozygous	NHNN	PD Royal Free Ethics
E326K 2	ND41015	63/Male	Fibroblasts; source for ND50045 iPSCs	GBA1-E326K; Heterozygous	NIH-RUCDR	
Isogenic Control (IsoC)	NH50142	63/Male	iPSCs; Isogenic Control for ND50045	CRISPR corrected GBA1-E326K heterozygous mutation	NIH-RUCDR	
E326K	ND50045	63/Male	iPSCs	GBA1-E326K; Heterozygous	NIH-RUCDR	
Isogenic Control (IsoC)	NH50186	65/Male	iPSCs; Isogenic Control for NH50182	CRISPR corrected GBA1-N370S heterozygous mutation	NIH-RUCDR	
N370S	NH50182	65/Male	iPSCs	GBA1-N370S; Heterozygous	NIH-RUCDR	
Control	Control 1	55/Male	iPSCs	No Mutation	Derived from CONTROL 2 fibroblasts	PD Royal Free Ethics for CONTROL 2 fibroblasts
E326K 1	Het1/ JS48753	58/Male	iPSCs	GBA1-E326K; Heterozygous	Derived from Het1 fibroblasts	PD Royal Free Ethics

						for JS48753 fibroblasts
E326K 2	Het 2/ MB240649	63/Male	iPSCs	GBA1-E326K; Heterozygous	Derived from MB240649 fibroblasts	PD Royal Free Ethics (for MB240649 fibroblasts
Control	SFC156 (Control 2)	65/Male	iPSCs	No Mutation	EBiSC	
N370S 1	SFC834 (N370S1)	72/Male	iPSCs	GBA1-N370S; Heterozygous	EBiSC	
N370S 2	SFC848 (N370S2)	68/Male	iPSCs	GBA1-N370S; Heterozygous	EBiSC	

1141

1142 **Table 2 : List of antibodies used in the study**

Name	Catalogue no.	Host	Company	Application	Concentration
ATP6V0D2	AB194557	Mouse	Abcam	Western Blotting	1:1000
LAMP1 (H4A3)	sc-20011	Mouse	Santa Cruz	Western Blotting, Immunofluorescence	1:500
GBA (c-term)	64171	Rabbit	Sigma	Western Blotting	1:700
ATP6V1H	AB187706	Rabbit	Abcam	Western Blotting	1:1000
ATP6V1A	199326	Rabbit	Abcam	Western Blotting	1:1000
pMTOR	55365	Rabbit	Abcam	Western Blotting	1:1000
MTOR	45175	Mouse	Cell Signalling	Western Blotting	1:1000
ATG5 (D5F5U)	12994T	Rabbit	Cell Signalling	Western Blotting	1:1000
P62	610833	Mouse	BD Biosystems	Western Blotting	1:1000
LC3	L7543	Rabbit	Sigma	Western Blotting	1:1000
B-ACTIN	ab8226	Mouse	Cell Signalling	Western Blotting	1:5000
TOM20	ab186735	Rabbit	Abcam	Western Blotting	1:1000
LC3	PM036	Rabbit	MBL Biosystems	Immunofluorescence	1:500
Citrate Synthetase	ab96600	Rabbit	Abcam	Immunofluorescence	1:200
OXPHOS Cocktail	45-8199	Mouse	Thermoscientific	Western Blotting	1:1000
Alexa Fluor 488	A-11008	Goat	Thermoscientific	Immunofluorescence	1:1000
Alexa Fluor 594	A-11012	Goat	Thermoscientific	Immunofluorescence	1:1000
Alexa Fluor 647	A-21235	Goat	Thermoscientific	Immunofluorescence	1:1000
IRDye® 680RD Goat anti-Mouse	926-68070	Goat	Li-COR Biosciences	Western Blotting	1:10000
IRDye® 800CW Goat anti-Rabbit IgG	926-32211	Goat	Li-COR Biosciences	Western Blotting	1:10000

1143

1144

1145

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Ai)

	Isogenic Control	E326K	Isogenic Control	N370S
LAMP1				
ATP6V$_1$A				
ATP6V$_1$H				
ATP6V$_0$D2				
B-ACTIN				

A ii a)

Isogenic Control / E326K

Relative Protein Expression

LAMP1 ** ; ATP6V$_1$A ns ; ATP6V$_1$H ns ; ATP6V$_0$D2 ns

b)

Isogenic Control / N370S

Relative Protein Expression

LAMP1 * ; ATP6V$_1$A ns ; ATP6V$_1$H ns ; ATP6V$_0$D2 ns

Bi a) Untreated

	Control	GBA1
Cell Supernatent	+ −	+ −
Lysosomes	− +	− +
pMTORC1		
ATP6V$_1$A		
ATP6V$_1$H		
ATP6V$_0$D2		
LAMP1		
GAPDH		

b) Rapamycin (200nM; O/N)

	Control	GBA1
Cell Supernatent	+ −	+ −
Lysosomes	− +	− +

Bii)

Untreated Isogenic Control / Untreated GBA1 / Rapamycin Control / Rapamycin GBA1

Relative Protein Expression/ 25µg of Lysosomes

LAMP1 * ns ; pMTORC1 ** ns ; ATP6V$_1$A * ns ; ATP6V$_1$H * ns ; ATP6V$_0$D2 ns ns

Ci)

CONTROL / N370S / E326K — Untreated / Rapamycin (200nM; O/N)

400 — τ_m / ps — 1400

ATP6V$_1$B2-mNeongreen + ATP6V$_0$a3-mScarlet

Di)

CONTROL + Rapamycin (1µM) / GBA1 + Rapamycin (1µM)

0 min / 5 min / 10 min / 40 min

400 — τ_m / ps — 1400

ATP6V$_1$B2-mNeongreen + ATP6V$_0$a3-mScarlet

Cii a)

Photon Counts (Normalised) vs Time after excitation/ns

CONTROL ; N370S ; E326K ; fit_CONTROL ; fit_N370S ; fit_E326K

b)

Untreated / Rapamycin (200nM; O/N)

Avg τ_m of ATP6V$_1$B2 (Mean lifetime; picoseconds)

CONTROL 1 ns ; N370S **** * ; CONTROL 2 ns ; E326K1 ** * ; E326K2 * *

Dii)

CONTROL / GBA1

τ_m of ATP6V$_1$B2-mNeongreen (Mean lifetime; picoseconds) vs Time (minutes)

Figure 5

Figure 6

Supplementary Figure 1

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure 3

Supplementary Figure 4