DISTINCT LYSOSOMAL DYSFUNCTION PATTERNS OF PROGRANULIN DEFICIENCY IN THE CNS IMPLICATE PROGRANULIN IN CELL TYPE-SPECIFIC PROTEIN SORTING

Gordon C Werthmann[1,2,5] and Joachim Herz[1,2,3,4,6]

[1] Department of Molecular Genetics, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX, USA.

[2] Center for Translational Neurodegeneration Research, Dallas, TX, USA.

[3] Department of Neuroscience, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX, USA.

[4] Department of Neurology and Neurotherapeutics, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX, USA.

[5] Corresponding author: gwerthmann@mgb.org

[6] Corresponding author: Joachim.herz@utsouthwestern.edu

Keywords: Neurodegeneration, Neural Ceroid Lipofuscinosis, Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration, Lysosomal Proteome, Endo-lysosomal Dysfunction

Abstract

Loss-of-function mutations in Progranulin *(GRN)* cause neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis

(NCL) and hereditary frontotemporal dementia, presumably through lysosomal dysfunction. The

effect of progranulin deficiency on cell type-specific lysosomal composition in the mammalian

brain has not been examined. We used cell type-specific LysoIP to perform tandem-mass-tag

mass-spectrometry and detected distinct aberrant proteomic signatures in progranulin-deficient

astrocytes, neurons, and microglia, indicating cell type-specific dysregulation of key lysosomal

proteins with crucial functions in sphingolipid metabolism and lysosome organization. These

proteins markedly differed from progranulin-deficient RNAseq data sets, suggesting progranulin

regulates lysosomal composition through post-translational mechanisms including the sorting of

nascent proteins to the lysosome. Validation experiments confirmed that Mfsd8 and Ppt1, proteins

whose mutation on their own cause NCL, were essentially absent from progranulin-deficient

neuronal and microglial lysosomes, respectively. Our findings suggest that progranulin may

function as an essential hub protein during endolysosomal sorting and highlight the necessity of

restoring stoichiometric levels of progranulin expression in the secretory pathway for the

development of effective therapeutic strategies.

Introduction

Frontotemporal dementia (FTD) is the second most common form of pre-senile dementia and presents with a myriad of symptoms including behavioral abnormalities, impaired executive function, and aphasia [1, 2]. Up to 40% of FTD cases are thought to be inherited, and haploinsufficiency of the *GRN* gene on chromosome 17 is one of the most common causes of familial FTD, termed GRN-FTD [3, 4]. Patients with GRN-FTD primarily develop the behavioral variant of FTD, and on autopsy, the brains of these patients commonly contain TDP-43 aggregates. *GRN* codes for the protein progranulin, a lysosome resident protein comprised of 7 disulfide bond-rich, full length granulin domains and an N-terminal half-granulin domain. While targeted to the lysosome through various membrane protein interactions [5, 6], progranulin is also known to be secreted into the extracellular space where it is either cleaved into individual granulins or endocytosed and delivered to the lysosome through the endocytic pathway [7, 8].

While haploinsufficiency of *GRN* leads to GRN-FTD, homozygous loss of progranulin leads to a classic lysosomal storage disorder termed CLN11 (neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis 11) [9]. Unlike most proteins associated with lysosomal storage disorders, progranulin or granulins do not appear to have any catalytic function and thus likely function as regulatory proteins within the lysosome. The exact nature of how progranulin regulates the lysosomes, and why loss of progranulin leads to a lysosomal storage disorder are currently unknown, but the links between progranulin and lysosomal function are evident. Loss of progranulin leads to impaired cathepsin D activity [10, 11], aberrant lysosomal lipid composition including decreased levels of the lysosome-specific lipid BMP (bis(monoacylglycerol)phosphate), increased levels of tri-acyl glycerol species [12-14], lysosomal alkalinization [15], and impaired lysosomal protein content *in vitro* [16] and *in vivo* [17]. Progranulin deficiency also activates the CLEAR (coordinated lysosomal expression and regulation) gene network by increasing the nuclear localization of the lysosomal gene master regulator TFEB (transcription factor EB) [18, 19].

Progranulin has further been shown to regulate various cellular functions including neurite

outgrowth, immune regulation, and cell migration [20-24]. As both a resident lysosomal protein as

well as a secreted protein, the mechanism by which progranulin effects such a large range of

cellular processes has yet to be fully determined. However, previous work has demonstrated non-

secreted, lysosome-targeted progranulin recapitulates the excitotoxic protective effects of wild

type progranulin on cultured neurons [25]. This suggests the lysosomal function of progranulin is

– at least in part – responsible for the non-lysosomal effects of progranulin. Loss of progranulin

also leads to a proinflammatory phenotype. Progranulin deficient mice demonstrate microgliosis

and increased secretion of inflammatory cytokines such as C1qa and C3 [22]. *In vitro*, these

microglia are sufficient to induce aggregation of TDP-43 in co-cultured neurons [26].

How progranulin regulates lysosomal function remains to be understood; however,

previous work has demonstrated loss of progranulin leads to aberrations of the lysosomal

proteome, dysregulating key lysosomal proteins that are also implicated in lysosomal storage

disorders [16, 17]. To expand on this, we utilized a new technology termed LysoTag which allows

for the isolation of lysosomes *in vivo* in a cell type-specific manner in order to investigate the

effects of progranulin deficiency on the lysosomal proteome [27]. The specificity of this technique

allowed for precise isolation and investigation of the lysosomal proteome in progranulin-deficient

neurons, microglia, and astrocytes, revealing cell-type dependent protein aberrations not evident

upon whole brain analysis nor at the transcript level, and demonstrating the ability of progranulin

to regulate cell-specific lysosomal protein homeostasis in the mammalian brain.

Results

LysoIP isolates lysosomes from specific cell types in *Grn* WT, Het, and KO mice

In order to investigate the effects of progranulin deficiency on the lysosomal proteome *in*

vivo, we bred four specific Cre recombinase lines with previously defined TMEM192-3xHA fl/fl [27,

28] and *Grn* KO mouse lines [13]. These included *Ubc-*, *Syn-*, *Cx3cr1-*, and *Aldh1l1-Cre* lines for

pancellular, neuron-, microglia-, and astrocyte-specific LysoIP, respectively (Figure 1a). LysoIP

was performed on the brains of 2 to 3-month-old *Ubc-*, *Syn-*, and *Cx3cr1-Cre* mice or 6-month-

old *Aldh1l1-Cre* mice. 6-month-old *Aldh1l1-Cre* mice were used, because progranulin was

undetectable in any 3-month-old *Aldh1l1-Cre* mouse LysoIP sample including those derived from

Grn WT mice. This is in line with progranulin being primarily expressed in neurons and microglia

[29]. Protein concentrations were normalized prior to tandem mass tag mass spectrometry (TMT-

MS). Splenic macrophage-derived lysosomes were also obtained from *Cx3cr1-Cre* mice to further

characterize the effect of progranulin loss on immune cell lysosomes. Western blot verification

demonstrated reliable and specific isolation of lysosomes from all four Cre lines (Figure 1b-e).

Interestingly, in *Cx3cr1-Cre* LysoIP samples, Lamp1, a marker for lysosomal membranes,

demonstrated a molecular weight shift from ~75 kDa to ~110 kDa (Figure 1c). This was seen in

both whole-cell lysate and LysoIP samples from mouse spleens – an organ primarily comprised

of immune cells (Supplemental Figure 1a), suggesting this shift is specific to immune cells and is

thus unlikely to be seen in whole-brain lysates. Lamp1 has various glycosylation sites which likely

lead to this mass shift [30].

After TMT-MS, raw protein intensities were processed and normalized as described in

Methods (Supplemental Figure 1b-e). Several thousand proteins were detected in each TMT-MS

run (*Ubc-Cre*: 2310 proteins, *Cx3cr1-Cre* (Brain): 2302 proteins, *Cx3cr1-Cre* (Spleen): 1972

proteins, *Aldh1l1-Cre*: 2263 proteins, and *Syn-Cre*: 2219 proteins). To ensure stringent analysis

of the lysosomal proteome only, LysoIP samples were compared to no *Cre* control samples added

to each TMT-MS run (Figure 1f-i, Supplemental Figure 1f), and proteins were only included for

further analysis if they were significantly enriched in LysoIP samples compared to no *Cre* controls

and if their normalized abundance was at least 1.5x that of no *Cre* controls. This resulted in

hundreds of proteins per *Cre* line (*Ubc-Cre*: 332 proteins, *Cx3cr1-Cre* (Brain): 111 proteins,

Cx3cr1-Cre (Spleen): 147 proteins, *Aldh1l1-Cre*: 285 proteins, and *Syn-Cre*: 295 proteins). Gene

ontology analysis of the resultant proteins demonstrated significant enrichment for lysosomal

compartments (Figure 1j-m).

Between all TMT-MS runs, 526 unique lysosomal proteins were detected in both *Grn* WT

and *Grn* KO LysoIP samples. Several of these proteins were shared between at least 2 individual

Cre lines; however, 45.4% of all proteins detected were only detected in a single Cre line (Figure

1f). This most likely represents a cell type-specific lysosomal proteomic landscape [28]. These

proteins were then compared between *Grn* WT, *Grn* heterozygous, and *Grn* KO LysoIP samples

of the same Cre using ANOVA and multiple comparison correction as outlined in Methods. Any

protein with an adjusted p-value < 0.05 was considered significant. Comparing significantly

altered proteins between Cre lines, most significantly altered proteins were detected in neuronal

lysosomes (*Syn-Cre*) (Figure 1o, j). When comparing the number of significantly altered proteins

in individual Cre lines to the total number of proteins detected, microglial and neuronal lysosomes

demonstrated the highest percentage of significantly altered proteins (26.1% and 40.0%,

respectively) (Supplemental Figure 1h-k). This is consistent with progranulin primarily being

expressed in microglia and neurons. Gene ontology analysis of all significantly altered lysosomal

proteins across Cre lines – using all 526 lysosomal proteins as background – highlights

carbohydrate derivative catabolism, lipid storage, lysosomal organization, glycoprotein

catabolism, and cholesterol efflux as some of the most highly enriched cellular processes affected

by progranulin deficiency (Figure 1p; Supplemental Table 1).

Changes to progranulin-deficient lysosomes are not reflected in mRNA or whole-cell lysate

changes

Comparing *Ubc-Cre+ Grn* WT and *Grn* KO samples, progranulin deficiency significantly

altered 13/332 proteins with 8 of these proteins being upregulated and 5 downregulated (Figure

2a-c; Supplemental Table 2) while lysosomes from *Grn* heterozygous mouse brains did not

demonstrate any significant changes (Figure 2b). Proteins associated with endo-lysosomal

trafficking such as Tspan7 were significantly upregulated in *Grn* KO *Ubc-Cre* LysoIP samples [31,

32]. Tspan 7 has also been associated with synaptic transmission [33, 34]. Interestingly, Tthy2

and Ttyh3 are also significantly upregulated in *Grn* KO *Ubc-Cre* LysoIP samples. Tthy2 was

recently shown to interact with ApoE and facilitate endosomal lipid transfer [35]. The APOE4 allele

is the strongest genetic predictor for Alzheimer's disease (AD), and patients with GRN mutations

are also genetically predisposed to AD, suggesting the effect of progranulin deficiency on

lysosomal Tthy2 may contribute to this increased risk of developing AD [36, 37].

We next compared progranulin-deficient LysoIP samples against TMT-MS results of

progranulin-deficient whole brain lysates (Figure 2d-e) [38]. 237 proteins were shared between

these datasets; however, only progranulin was found to be significantly altered in both LysoIP and

whole brain samples. There was overall poor correlation between progranulin-dependent changes

from these datasets, suggesting the effects of progranulin deficiency on the lysosomal proteome

can primarily only be detected by directly measuring lysosomal proteins as previously reported

[39]. Further, comparisons between log_2FC's of the 301 proteins detected in both our *Grn* KO

LysoIP samples and *Grn* KO RNA-Seq datasets from Evers *et al.* 2017 similarly demonstrate lack

of overlap in significantly altered proteins (Figure 2f) [13], and when comparing all proteins

detected in *Ubc-Cre* LysoIP samples to their respective mRNA transcripts from whole-brain RNA-

Seq data, no significant correlation can is detected (Figure 2g). This implies progranulin deficiency

alters the lysosomal proteome at the post-transcriptional level.

<u>Progranulin deficiency causes minor changes in astrocyte lysosomes</u>

Progranulin expression in astrocytes is relatively low compared to other cell types in the

brain [29]. In fact, TMT-MS analysis of 3-month-old *Aldh1l1-Cre* LysoIP samples did not detect

progranulin. However, progranulin was detected in 6-month-old *Aldh1l1-Cre* LysoIP samples, and

comparisons of these samples demonstrated 15/285 significantly altered lysosomal proteins

between *Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO mouse brains, with 3 being significantly upregulated and 12 being

significantly downregulated (Figure 2h-i, Supplemental Table 3). Similar to *Ubc-Cre* experiments,

the membrane protein Ttyh2 is upregulated in *Grn* KO astrocyte lysosomes, and several proteins

involved in sphingolipid metabolism such as Galc and Gba1 are downregulated [40, 41]. Galc and

Gba1 mutations have also both been implicated in Parkinsons disease [42, 43].

<u>Progranulin deficiency dysregulates various disease-related proteins in the neuronal lysosome</u>

In contrast to the minimal effect of progranulin loss on *Ubc-Cre+* and *Aldh1l1-Cre+* LysoIP

samples, progranulin deficiency heavily influences the neuronal lysosomal proteome, leading to

118/295 proteins being significantly altered with 59 proteins being upregulated and 59 being

downregulated (Figure 3a-b; Supplemental Table 4). PCA demonstrates clear delineation

between *Grn* WT and *Grn* KO neuronal lysosomes while *Grn* heterozygous lysosomes are more

heterogeneous between samples (Figure 3c). When investigating the cellular functions related to

significantly altered proteins in *Grn* KO neuronal lysosomes, gene ontology analysis demonstrates

sphingolipid biosynthesis, lipid biosynthesis, and lysosome organization as the most highly

enriched terms (Figure 3d; Supplemental Table 5). Proteins associated with ceramide metabolism

such as Neu4, Asah1, Asah2, and Gba1 are all downregulated in *Grn* KO neuronal lysosomes

(Figure 3e). Key autophagy proteins that are part of mTORC1 including mTor, Mlst8, and Rptor

are all significantly upregulated in *Grn* KO neuronal lysosomes while the adaptor proteins

Lamtor2, Lamtor4, and the amino acid transporter Slc38a9 are all significantly downregulated

[44]. This dysregulation may contribute to the impaired autophagy previously described in models

of progranulin deficiency [45, 46].

Several mitochondrial proteins including Vdac1/2/3 and Samm50 are all upregulated in

Grn KO neuronal lysosomes (Supplemental Figure 2a) [47-50]. Progranulin deficiency has been

implicated in mitophagy defects [51, 52], so we performed Seahorse analysis to determine if

mitochondria in *Grn* KO mouse brains demonstrated decreased function. We did not observe any

overt mitochondrial deficits using this method (Supplemental Figure 2b-c). However, we did detect

a significantly decreased NAD+/NADH ratio from *Grn* KO mouse brains compared to *Grn* WT

(Supplemental Figure 2d-f). This was driven by both an increase in NADH and a decrease in

NAD+ in *Grn* KO mouse brains and demonstrates how progranulin deficiency alters brain energy

homeostasis.

Mfsd8 was the most significantly downregulated protein between *Grn* WT and *Grn* KO

LysoIP samples. Homozygous MFSD8 nonsense mutations lead to a classic lysosomal storage

disorder (CLN7), and missense mutations have also been found to be associated with FTD in a

small subset of patients [53]. Western blot analysis verified Mfsd8 was heavily decreased in *Grn*

KO neuronal lysosomes (Figure 3f-g). Mfsd8 was not detected in either astrocyte or microglial

LysoIP samples, suggesting it is specific to neuronal lysosomes and thus only regulated by

neuronal progranulin.

Of the proteins significantly dysregulated in *Grn* KO neuronal lysosomes, 32 of them are

known lysosomal proteins associated with known neurologic disorders based on the OMIM

database (Figure 3h, Table 1) [28]. This includes proteins associated with lysosomal storage

disorders such as Mfsd8, Smpd1, Galc, and Asah1 [40, 54-56].

<u>Progranulin deficiency dysregulates disease-relevant proteins in the microglial lysosome</u>

While fewer total lysosomal proteins were detected in *Cx3cr1-Cre* LysoIP samples – likely

due to less starting material – several key lysosomal proteins were found to be dysregulated

secondary to progranulin deficiency with a total of 29/111 proteins being significantly altered with

14 proteins being upregulated and 15 being downregulated (Figure 4a-c; Supplemental Table 6).

Based on GO analysis, progranulin deficiency in microglia primarily affects lysosomal proteins

associated with lipid catabolism and tissue regeneration, both processes known to be

dysregulated in models of progranulin deficiency [13, 57] (Figure 4d; Supplemental Table 7).

To test whether the effects of progranulin deficiency on lysosomal protein composition

were specific to microglia or were universal to all immune cells, we performed TMT-MS analysis

on LysoIP samples derived from spleens of *Cx3cr1-Cre+*; *Grn* WT and KO mice. This analysis

revealed several proteins significantly altered in *Grn* KO splenic macrophage lysosomes

compared to *Grn* WT (Supplemental Figure 3a-c; Supplemental Table 8). However, when

comparing proteins between *Grn* KO microglial and splenic macrophages by principal component

analysis, the two tissue types clustered separately (Figure 4e) and several proteins were found

to be significantly different (Figure 4f). This suggests the effects of progranulin deficiency on

immune cells are in part dependent on the tissue of origin. Of note, Pld4 is significantly

downregulated in progranulin deficient microglia ($\log_2$FC = -1.00, adjusted p-value = 0.003). Pld4

was recently discovered to be a synthetic protein for BMPs within the lysosomes of immune cells

[58]. BMPs are also significantly downregulated in models of progranulin deficiency and are key

lysosomal lipids that act as mediators of catabolic processes [12, 14]. These data suggest loss of

BMPs in progranulin deficient brains may be in part secondary to progranulin-dependent Pld4

deficiency.

We were also interested to test whether the changes we saw in the microglial lysosomal

proteome were reflected in microglial RNA-Seq data. To accomplish this, we compared the

log2FC's of *Cx3cr1-Cre+*;*Grn* KO LysoIP samples to *Grn* KO mRNA samples from a previously

published microglial RNA-Seq datasets (Figure 4g) [59]. 80 of the 111 LysoIP proteins were

detected in the RNA-Seq dataset. This included 18 proteins that are significantly altered in the

Cx3cr1-Cre LysoIP dataset. However, the log2FC values of these proteins did not correlate to the

log2FC values of their accompanying transcripts (r^2 = 0.029). This suggests the majority of the

effects of progranulin deficiency on the microglial lysosomal proteome are not secondary to

alterations at the mRNA level.

One of the proteins most significantly downregulated in *Grn* KO microglial lysosomes is

palmitoyl protein thioesterase 1 (Ppt1). Mutation of this protein leads to neuronal ceroid

lipofuscinosis 1 (CLN1), an early onset lysosomal storage disorder with severe symptoms such

as microcephaly, hypotonia, and epilepsy [60]. Western blot analysis of LysoIP samples from

brains of *Cx3cr1-Cre+*, *Syn-Cre+*, and *Ubc-Cre+* mice demonstrates Ppt1 is effectively absent

from microglial lysosomes but not significantly altered in whole-brain or neuronal lysosomes

(Figure 4h-k). In our TMT-MS datasets, Ppt1 is significantly down-regulated in *Syn-Cre+*;*Grn* KO

LysoIP samples compared to *Grn* WT controls, and while Western blot analysis of these samples

does not recapitulate these findings, there is certainly a trend for decreased Ppt1 in *Grn* KO

neuronal lysosomes. Regardless, the effect of progranulin deficiency on microglial Ppt1 is much

larger than the effect on neuronal Ppt1 in both TMT-MS and western blot analysis.

While Ppt1 is absent in *Grn* KO microglial lysosomes, it is plausible progranulin deficiency

leads to accumulation of Ppt1 in non-lysosomal compartments. To test this possibility, we isolated

microglia and microglial lysosomes from the left and right hemibrains of 9 to 12-month-old *Cx3cr1-*

Cre+ mice, respectively (see Methods). Western blot analysis of both whole microglial and

microglial lysosome samples demonstrated significantly decreased levels of Ppt1 in *Grn* KO mice

compared to *Grn* WT (Figure 5l-n). This decrease was not significantly different between whole

microglia and microglial lysosomes, suggesting progranulin deficiency does not lead to

accumulation of missorted lysosomal proteins but instead causes overall decreases of microglial

lysosomal proteins.

Progranulin deficiency has also been associated with hyperinflammatory states [24, 61,

62]. Further, mutations in several other CLN-related proteins – including Ppt1 – have been shown

to increase the activation of the cGAS-STING pathway [63, 64]. Ppt1 has also been shown to

remove the palmitoyl moiety from phosphorylated STING in order to abrogate STING activation

[65]. To determine if progranulin deficiency led to increased STING signaling similar to other CLN

genes, we produced *GRN* KO HeLa cells and measured phosphorylated STING as a function of

time after activation with the STING agonist diABZI [66]. In the presence of prolonged STING

activation, p-STING is known to peak and decline as it becomes digested by the lysosome [67].

However, in *GRN* KO cells, STING activation (measured by p-STING levels) was significantly

prolonged (Supplemental Figure 4a-d). This suggests progranulin deficiency leads to

hyperinflammation in part through prolonged activation of the STING pathway potentially caused

by decreased Ppt1-mediated pSTING depalmitoylation. Overall, our data indicate progranulin

deficiency impairs microglial lysosomal homeostasis leading to a secondary hyperinflammatory

state.

Discussion

Progranulin deficiency has long been known to affect lysosomal function with loss of

progranulin leading to impaired lysosomal size and shape, impaired lysosomal lipid composition,

impaired lysosomal pH regulation, and impaired lysosomal protein activity [10, 12-15]. Previous

work by our lab and others has further shown that progranulin deficiency leads to aberrations of

the lysosomal proteome [16, 17, 68]. However, the effect of progranulin deficiency on lysosomal

composition in the mammalian brain has not been studied in a cell type-dependent manner. To

this end, we utilized an immunoprecipitation-based system to isolate lysosomes from specific cell

types in *Grn* WT, heterozygous, and KO mouse brains and spleens. TMT-MS analysis of these

samples demonstrated that neuronal and microglial lysosomes were most affected by progranulin

deficiency; however, progranulin deficiency led to diverging effects between these cell types.

When comparing *Grn* KO LysoIP samples, PCA demonstrates clear separation between

lysosomes of different cell types (Figure 5a, Supplemental Table 9). Further analysis

demonstrates several proteins whose log_2FC's between *Grn* WT and *Grn* KO are significantly

different between *Cx3cr1-Cre+* and *Aldh1l1-Cre+*, *Aldh1l1-Cre+* and *Syn-Cre+*, and *Cx3cr1-Cre+*

and *Syn-Cre+* (Figure 5b-d. Supplemental Table 10) LysoIP samples.

Progranulin deficiency leads to some proteins such as Naaa and Arsg being significantly

downregulated in one cell type and unchanged or even upregulated in another; however,

comparisons of proteins significantly altered between *Grn* WT and *Grn* KO LysoIP samples in at

least one Cre line demonstrate overall trends of most proteins being consistently up- or

downregulated between cell types (Figure 5e-f). Despite this, most proteins affected by

progranulin deficiency exhibit cell type-specific sensitivities to this deficiency. For instance, Ppt1,

while downregulated between *Grn* WT and *Grn* KO LysoIP samples in all cell types, is more

downregulated in microglia compared to astrocytes or neurons. In line with these findings, we

propose a hypothetical model where certain proteins are either entirely dependent, somewhat

dependent, or independent on progranulin for proper localization and/or stability within the

lysosome in a cell type-dependent manner (Figure 6). This model is supported by progranulin

being found to physically interact with secretory proteins such as the inflammatory mediator

sPLA2-IIa as well as the lysosomal proteins Ctsd, Smpd1, and Gba1, the latter two of which are

down-regulated in progranulin deficient lysosomes within the mouse brain [11, 69-71]. Of note,

these protein-protein interaction studies were performed at neutral pH, suggesting they could

occur in the less acidic ER or Golgi apparatus.

How progranulin affects the lysosomal proteome in a cell type-sensitive manner is not yet

understood; however, this could be achieved by composition-dependent multiprotein complex

formation or by certain cell types possessing unknown proteins whose functions are redundant to

progranulin, while other cell types are entirely dependent on progranulin for lysosomal localization

and/or stability of certain lysosomal proteins. This suggests progranulin may function similarly to

CLN6 and CLN8, which are responsible for promoting egress of lysosomal proteins from the ER-

Golgi complex, or to prosaposin, the precursor for the lysosomal enzyme activating saposins, an

established interaction partner for progranulin that is required in precise stoichiometric proportions

for efficient transport of progranulin to the lysosome [6, 72, 73].

Endo-lysosomal dysfunction has been implicated not just in GRN-FTD, but in several

neurodegenerative disorders such as Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease as well [74].

As post-mitotic cells, neurons do not have the ability to dilute impaired lysosomes through cell

division. Lysosome membrane repair is also impaired in an age-dependent manner [75]. This

leads to accumulation of faulty lysosomes in older neurons, impairing proper macromolecule

degradation and nutrient signaling. Why some endo-lysosomal defects lead to the accumulation

of certain aggregate-prone proteins (e.g., alpha-synuclein, tau, TDP-43, etc.) is yet to be

understood, but the correlation between impaired lysosome function and neurodegeneration is

well established and may provide a therapeutic avenue for not just GRN-FTD, but for multiple

neurodegenerative disorders.

Currently, despite progranulin deficiency leading to 20% of familial FTD, there is no

approved treatment for GRN-FTD. Considering the vast network of lysosomal proteins affected

by progranulin deficiency in a cell-type sensitive manner, progranulin replacement at the protein

synthesis level, and not attempts to correct secondary consequences to lysosomal function or

composition, may be the best treatment strategy. Several potential treatments including protein

replacement, AAV-technologies, biologics, and small molecule inducers of progranulin expression

have emerged in both pre-clinical and clinical trials [14, 16, 76-79]. Pathological markers of

neurodegenerative diseases appear to accumulate well before the onset of symptoms [80-82],

and preventive treatment for these disorders, whenever possible, is likely to provide the best

protection against neurodegeneration. Because of its familial inheritance pattern, GRN-FTD is a

strong candidate for preventive treatment with progranulin-enhancing agents that aim at

increasing the expression of the full-length protein form the remaining functional allele to

normalize progranulin levels prior to disease onset. This treatment strategy could potentially stave

off the lysosomal aberrations seen in progranulin deficiency and even stall disease onset entirely.

    Figure Legends

Figure 1: *In vivo* LysoIP isolates cell-type-specific lysosomes from progranulin deficient

mice. a Experimental design for cell-type-specific lysosomal isolation from progranulin deficient

mice followed by TMT-MS. **b-e** Western blot verification of *in vivo* LysoIP from all brain cells (*Ubc-*

Cre, **b**), microglia (*Cx3cr1-Cre*, **c**), astrocytes (*Aldh1l1-Cre*, **d**), and neurons (*Syn-Cre*, **e**). **f-i**

Volcano plots comparing LysoIP samples to no *Cre* controls (adjusted p-value < 0.05, one-sample

t-test followed by Benjamini-Hochberg correction). Known lysosomal proteins are marked as blue

triangles. **j-m** Gene ontology analysis of LysoIP samples from four separate *Cre* lines after

processing of raw TMT-MS peak intensities. **n** Venn diagram that demonstrates overlap of all

brain-derived, lysosomal proteins found in four separate *Cre* lines. **o** Venn diagram that

demonstrates overlap of significantly altered brain-derived, lysosomal proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn*

KO, adjusted p-value < 0.05) in four separate *Cre* lines. **p** Gene ontology analysis of significantly

altered, brain-derived lysosomal proteins found in all four *Cre* lines (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO, adjusted

p-value < 0.05).

Figure 2. *In vivo* LysoIP analysis of 3-month-old *Ubc-Cre* mouse brains demonstrates post-

translational alterations in key lysosomal proteins. a Volcano plot demonstrating significantly

altered proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO adjusted p-value < 0.05) from whole-brain LysoIP TMT-MS

samples (n = 3 *Grn* WT, n = 3 *Grn* Het, n = 3 *Grn* KO). **b** Principal component analysis comparing

log_2FC values between *Grn* WT, *Grn* Het, and *Grn* KO brain-derived, lysosomal proteins in *Ubc-*

Cre mice. **c** Heatmap demonstrating log_2FC values for significantly altered, brain-derived

lysosomal proteins found in brain-derived *Ubc-Cre* LysoIP TMT-MS samples (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO,

adjusted p-value < 0.05). **d** Venn diagram of the overlap of significantly altered proteins (*Grn* WT

vs *Grn* KO, adjusted p-value < 0.05) between brain-derived *Ubc-Cre* LysoIP and previously

published whole brain, whole cell lysate TMT-MS experiments. **e** Venn diagram of the overlap of

significantly altered proteins/transcripts (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO, adjusted p-value/q-value < 0.05)

between brain-derived *Ubc-Cre* LysoIP TMT-MS samples and previously published whole brain

RNA-Seq data. **f** Comparison of all log$_2$FC values (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO) for proteins found in both

brain-derived *Ubc-Cre* LysoIP TMT-MS samples and previously published whole brain TMT-MS

datasets **g** Comparison of all log$_2$FC values (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO) for proteins/transcripts found in

both brain-derived *Ubc-Cre* LysoIP TMT-MS samples and previously published whole brain RNA-

Seq datasets. **h** Volcano plot demonstrating significantly altered proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO

adjusted p-value < 0.05) from whole-brain *Aldh1l1-Cre* LysoIP TMT-MS samples (n = 5 *Grn* WT,

n = 5 *Grn* Het, n = 5 *Grn* KO). **i** Heatmap demonstrating log$_2$FC values for significantly altered,

brain-derived lysosomal proteins found in brain-derived *Aldh1l1-Cre* LysoIP TMT-MS samples

(*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO, adjusted p-value < 0.05).

Figure 3. *In vivo* LysoIP analysis of 3-month-old *Syn-Cre* mouse brains demonstrates

aberrations in disease-relevant lysosomal proteins in progranulin-deficient neurons. a

Volcano plot demonstrating significantly altered proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO adjusted p-value <

0.05) from neuronal LysoIP TMT-MS samples (n = 5 *Grn* WT, n = 5 *Grn* Het, n = 5 *Grn* KO). **b**

Heatmap demonstrating log$_2$FC values for significantly altered neuronal LysoIP samples (*Grn* WT

vs *Grn* KO, adjusted p-value < 0.05). **c** Principal component analysis comparing log$_2$FC values in

neuronal lysosomal proteins between *Grn* WT, *Grn* Het, and *Grn* KO mice. **d** Gene ontology

analysis of significantly altered neuronal lysosomal proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO, adjusted p-value

< 0.05). **e** Significantly altered neuronal lysosomal proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO, adjusted p-value

< 0.05) which are associated with sphingolipid metabolic processes based on gene ontology

analysis. **f-g** Western blot (**f**) and densitometry analysis (**g**) of Mfsd8 in neuronal lysosomes (n =

5 *Grn* WT, n = 4 *Grn* KO; ***p < 0.001, Students' t-test) **h** Significantly altered neuronal lysosomal

proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO, adjusted p-value < 0.05) whose mutations are associated with

neurologic disease.

Figure 4. *In vivo* LysoIP analysis of 3-month-old *Cx3cr1-Cre* mouse brains demonstrates cell-specific loss of lysosomal storage disease-related protein in progranulin-deficient microglia. a Volcano plot demonstrating significantly altered proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO adjusted p-value < 0.05) from microglial LysoIP TMT-MS samples (n = 4 *Grn* WT, n = 7 *Grn* Het, n = 6 *Grn* KO). **b** Gene ontology analysis of significantly altered microglial lysosomal proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO, adjusted p-value < 0.05). **c** Principal component analysis comparing log$_2$FC values in microglial lysosomal proteins between *Grn* WT, *Grn* Het, and *Grn* KO mice. **d** Heatmap demonstrating log$_2$FC values for significantly altered microglial LysoIP samples (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO, adjusted p-value < 0.05). **e** Principal component analysis comparing log$_2$FC (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO) between brain- and spleen-derived *Cx3cr1-Cre* LysoIP samples. **f** Volcano plot demonstrating significantly altered proteins (brain vs spleen adjusted p-value < 0.05) from brain- and spleen-derived *Cx3cr1-Cre* LysoIP TMT-MS samples (n = 6 brain-derived, n = 6 spleen-derived). **g** Comparison of log2FC values (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO) between *Cx3cr1-Cre* LysoIP samples and microglial mRNA transcripts from a previously published RNA-Seq dataset. Red circles indicate proteins significantly altered in *Cx3cr1-Cre+*;*Grn* KO LysoIP samples. **h-j** Western blot analysis of Ppt1 in whole-brain (**h**) neuronal (**i**), and microglial (**j**) lysosomes derived from *Grn* WT and KO mouse brains. **k** Densitometry analysis of Ppt1 protein in whole-brain, neuronal, and microglial lysosomes derived from *Grn* WT and KO mouse brains. Values were standardized to Lamp1 and normalized to *Grn* WT (whole-brain: n = 5 3-month-old *Grn* WT and n = 5 3-month-old *Grn* KO; neuronal: n = 5 3-month-old *Grn* WT and n = 5 3-month-old *Grn* KO; microglia: n = 3 6-month-old *Grn* WT and n = 7 6-month-old *Grn* KO; ****p < 0.0001, Students' t-test). **l-m** Western blot analysis of Ppt1 in microglial lysosomes (**l**) and whole microglia (**m**). Psd95, Eeat2, and Iba1 act as neuronal, astrocyte, and microglial markers, respectively. **n** Densitometry analysis of Ppt1 blots. Values were standardized to Lamp1 (**l**) or beta-actin (**m**) and normalized to *Grn* WT (n = 3

9-12-month-old *Grn* WT and n = 3 9-12-month-old *Grn* KO; **p < 0.01, two-way ANOVA with

Fisher's LSD test).

Figure 5. *In vivo* LysoIP datasets demonstrate progranulin-dependent aberrations to the

lysosomal proteome are unique across brain cell types. a Principal component analysis of

Grn KO LysoIP log$_2$FC values (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO) from four separate *Cre* lines. **b** Heatmap

depicting log$_2$FC values (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO) of all proteins detected as significantly altered in

Grn KO LysoIP samples (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO adjusted p-value < 0.05) in at least one *Cre* line. **c-**

e Volcano plots comparing log$_2$FC values of significantly altered proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO

adjusted p-value < 0.05) between *Cx3cr1-Cre* and *Aldh1l1-Cre* (**c**), *Aldh1l1-Cre* and *Syn-Cre* (**d**),

and *Cx3cr1-Cre* vs *Syn-Cre* (**e**) *Grn* KO LysoIP samples. **f** Bar plot comparing log$_2$FC values (*Grn*

WT vs *Grn* KO) of key lysosomal proteins detected as significantly altered in *Grn* KO LysoIP

samples (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO adjusted p-value < 0.05) in at least one *Cre* line.

Figure 6. Hypothetical model of how progranulin deficiency potentially alters the

lysosomal proteome in a cell-type specific way. Hypothetical model depicting how in certain

cell-types, lysosomal proteins may be fully dependent, partially dependent, or independent of

progranulin for sorting to the lysosome. The variation between cell types may depend on yet

unknown cell-type specific redundant proteins that, like progranulin, also sort lysosomal proteins

to the lysosome. Some proteins, such as Mfsd8 in neurons or Ppt1 in microglia, are entirely or

nearly entirely dependent upon progranulin for their lysosomal delivery (left panels).   Other

lysosomal proteins require progranulin for their efficient delivery, but can still complete their

journey there, albeit at reduced overall efficiency (middle panels).   For other proteins, sorting to

the lysosome is undiminished even in the complete absence of progranulin (right panels).

 Supplemental Figure Legends

Supplemental Figure 1. TMT-MS analysis of LysoIP samples demonstrates progranulin-

dependent changes primarily in microglia and neurons. a-d Violin plots of median-normalized

TMT-MS intensity measurements from *Ubc-Cre* (**a**), *Cx3cr1-Cre* (**b**), *Aldh1l1-Cre* (**c**), and *Syn-*

Cre (**d**) mice. Gm130 was used as a marker for Golgi apparatus, Lamp1 was used as a marker

for lysosomal membrane, calnexin was used as a marker for ER, Cathepsin B was used as a

marker for lysosomal lumen, and CoxIV was used as a marker for mitochondria. For *Cx3cr1-Cre*+

samples, cathepsin D was used as a marker for lysosomal lumen due to these samples being

imaged on Licor which was not compatible with our cathepsin B antibody. **e** Volcano plot

comparing spleen-derived *Cx3cr1-Cre* LysoIP samples to no *Cre* controls (adjusted p-value <

0.05, one-sample t-test followed by Benjamini-Hochberg correction). Known lysosomal proteins

are marked as blue triangles. **f** Gene ontology analysis of spleen-derived *Cx3cr1-Cre* LysoIP

samples after processing of raw TMT-MS peak intensities. **g** Lamp1 western blot of spleen- and

brain-derived *Cx3cr1-Cre* whole lysate, LysoIP, and no *Cre* control samples. **h-k** Pie charts

demonstrating percent of proteins significantly up- and down-regulated in whole-brain (**h**),

microglial (**i**), astrocyte (**j**), and neuronal (**k**) lysosomes.

Supplemental Figure 2. Progranulin deficiency leads to aberrant mitochondrial protein

levels in neuronal lysosomes alongside energetic alterations. a Log$_2$FC values of

mitochondrial proteins significantly increased in *Grn* KO neuronal lysosomes compared to *Grn*

WT (adjusted p-value < 0.05). **b-c** Seahorse analysis of electron flow (**b**) and electron coupling

(**c**) of isolated mitochondria from 15-month-old *Grn* WT and *Grn* KO mouse brains (n = 3 *Grn* WT

and n = 3 *Grn* KO; two-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons and Sidak correction). **d-f** Levels

of NADH (**d**), NAD+ (**e**), and NAD+/NADH ratios (**f**) from 15-month-old *Grn* WT, *Grn* Het, and *Grn*

KO mouse brains (n = 5 *Grn* WT, n = 4 *Grn* Het, n = 5 *Grn* KO; one-way ANOVA with multiple

comparisons and Dunnett correction, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.0001).

Supplemental Figure 3. *In vivo* LysoIP analysis of 3-month-old *Cx3cr1-Cre* mouse spleens

demonstrates progranulin-dependent changes in key lysosomal proteins. a Volcano plot

demonstrating significantly altered proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO, adjusted p-value < 0.05) from

splenic macrophage LysoIP TMT-MS samples (n = 6 *Grn* WT, n = 5 *Grn* Het, n = 5 *Grn* KO). **b**

Principal component analysis comparing $\log_2$FC values in splenic macrophage lysosomal proteins

between *Grn* WT, *Grn* Het, and *Grn* KO mice. **c** Venn diagram comparing significantly altered

proteins (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO, adjusted p-values < 0.05) in splenic macrophage and microglial

lysosomes.

Supplemental Figure 4. Progranulin deficiency leads to altered STING dynamics *in vitro*. a

Representative western blot of diABZI-mediated STING activation time course on *GRN* WT and

GRN KO HeLa cells. Beta-actin is used as a loading control. **b-d** Quantification of p-STING (**b**),

total STING (**c**), and phospho/total STING (**d**) of diABZI-mediated STING activation time course

(n = 4 *GRN* WT, n = 4 *GRN* KO; two-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons and Sidak correction,

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01).

Supplemental Tables

Supplemental Table 1: Gene ontology analysis of LysoIP proteins significantly altered (*Grn* WT

vs *Grn* KO) in at least one Cre line

Supplemental Table 2: Log$_2$FC and p-values for TMT-MS data for individual mouse LysoIP data

from all *Ubc-Cre+* lines compared to one another

Supplemental Table 3: Log$_2$FC and p-values for TMT-MS data for individual mouse LysoIP data

from all *Aldh1l1-Cre+* lines compared to one another

Supplemental Table 4: Log$_2$FC and p-values for TMT-MS data for individual mouse LysoIP data

from all *Syn-Cre+* lines compared to one another

Supplemental Table 5: Gene ontology analysis of LysoIP proteins significantly altered (*Grn* WT

vs *Grn* KO) in *Syn-Cre+*;*Grn* KO LysoIP samples

Supplemental Table 6: Log$_2$FC and p-values for TMT-MS data for individual mouse, brain

derived LysoIP data from all *Cx3cr1-Cre+* lines compared to one another

Supplemental Table 7: Gene ontology analysis of brain-derived LysoIP proteins significantly

altered (*Grn* WT vs *Grn* KO) in *Cx3cr1-Cre+*;*Grn* KO LysoIP samples

Supplemental Table 8: Log$_2$FC and p-values for TMT-MS data for individual mouse, spleen

derived LysoIP data from all *Cx3cr1-Cre+* lines compared to one another

Supplemental Table 9: Log$_2$FC and p-values for TMT-MS data for individual mouse, brain-

derived LysoIP data from all all Cre lines

Supplemental Table 10: Log$_2$FC and p-values for TMT-MS data for individual mouse, brain-

derived LysoIP data comparing log$_2$FC (vs *Grn* WT) values of *Grn* KO samples between Cre

lines

Materials used in the study

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Mouse anti-Golgin 97	Santa Cruz	Cat #: sc-73619
Rat anti-Lamp1	DSHB	Clone 1D4B
Rabbit anti-Calreticulin	Cell Signaling	Cat #: 12238
Rabbit anti-Cathepsin B	Cell Signaling	Cat #: 31718
Rabbit anti-CoxIV	Cell Signaling	Cat #: 4850
Rabbit anti-Gm130	Invitrogen	Cat #: MA5-35107
Rabbit anti-Calnexin	Enzo	Cat #: ADI-SPA-860
Rabbit anti-Cathepsin D	Abcam	Cat #: ab75852
Rabbit anti-Mfsd8 (Cln7)	Proteintech	Cat #: 24298-1-AP
Rabbit anti-Progranulin	Sigma	Cat #: HPA008763
Rabbit anti-Ppt1 (Cln1)	Proteintech	Cat #: 29653-1-AP
Rabbit anti-Psd95	Cell Signaling	Cat #: 2507
Rabbit anti-Eaat2	Abcam	Cat #: ab41621
Rabbit anti-Iba1	Wako FujiFilm	Cat #: 019-19741
Rabbit anti-beta-Actin	Abcam	Cat #: ab8227
Rabbit anti-Sting	Cell Signaling	Cat #: 13647
Rabbit anti-phospho-STING (S366)	Cell Signaling	Cat #: 19781
Bacterial and virus strains		
pX330-U6-Chimeric_BB-CBh-hSpCas9	Addgene	Plasmid #: 42230

Biological samples		
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
Lipofectamine	Thermo Scientific	Cat #: 11668030
diabzi-Sting-Agonist-3-(Hydrochloride)	Cayman Chemical	Cat #: 28054-NC2223805
Rotenone	Sigma	Cat #: 557368
Sodium Succinate	Sigma	Cat #: S2378
Antimycin A	Thermo Scientific	Cat #: J63522.MA
Sodium Ascorbate	Sigma	Cat #: PHR1279
TMPD	Sigma	Cat #: T7394
ADP	Sigma	Cat #: 01905
Oligomycin	Sigma	Cat #: O4876
FCCP	Sigma	Cat #: C2920
Trypsin	Thermo Scientific	Cat #: 90056
Critical commercial assays		
MicroBCA Protein Assay Kit	Thermo Scientific	Cat #: 23235
NAD/NADH Assay Kit	Abcam	Cat #: ab65348

Deposited data		
Mass spectrometry proteomics data (Grn WT vs Het vs KO LysoIP raw data)	This paper	MassIVE: Dataset accession number: MSV000099828 Password: UTSW2025 ftp://MSV000099828@massive-ftp.ucsd.edu
Raw western blot and downstream proteomics analysis	This paper	Texas Data Repository
Bulk RNA-Seq data (Grn WT vs KO)	Evers et al.[13]	DOI: 10.1016/j.celrep.2017.08.056
Whole Brain TMT-MS (Grn WT vs KO)	Huang et al.[40]	DOI: 10.1186/s40478-020-01037-x

Microglial RNA-Seq (Grn WT vs KO)	Zhang et al.[56]	DOI: 10.1007/s00401-023-02578-w
Experimental models: Cell lines		
HeLa (WT)	ATCC	Cat #: CCL-2
HeLa Grn KO	This paper	N/A
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		
C57BL/6 (Grn WT, Het, KO)	Evers et al.[13]	N/A
B6.129S4-Gt(ROSA)26Sortm1(CAG-TMEM192)Dmsa/J	Jackson Labs	Strain #: 035401
B6.Cg-Ndor1Tg(UBC-cre/ERT2)1Ejb/2J	Jackson Labs	Strain #: 008085
B6.Cg-Tg(Syn1-cre)671Jxm/J	Jackson Labs	Strain #: 003966
B6.129P2(C)-Cx3cr1tm2.1(cre/ERT2)Jung/J	Jackson Labs	Strain #: 020940
B6;FVB-Tg(Aldh1l1-cre/ERT2)1Khakh/J	Jackson Labs	Strain #: 029655
Oligonucleotides		
Grn KO gRNA: 5'-GGATCGAGCCTTCACGTTGCAGG-3'	This paper	N/A
Primer: Grn WT For 5'-agtggggctggccacttct-3′	Evers et al.[13]	N/A
Primer: Grn Mut For 5'-aagattcctcgctgggacatg-3′	Evers et al.[13]	N/A
Primer: Grn WT/Mut Rev 5'-gaatgctggtgtcagagggcc-3′	Evers et al.[13]	N/A

Primer: TMEM192-3xHA wt/wt For 5'-CTGGCTTCTGAGGACCG-3'	Laqtom et al.[27]	N/A
Primer: TMEM192-3xHA wt/wt Rev 5'-AATCTGTGGGAAGTCTTGTCC-3'	Laqtom et al.[27]	N/A
Primer: TMEM192-3xHA fl/fl For 5'-TCCTTGGATATCACCCAGAGT-3'	Laqtom et al.[27]	N/A
Primer: TMEM192-3xHA fl/fl Rev 5'-CCACAAAATAACTTTCCCAAGG-3'	Laqtom et al.[27]	N/A
Primer: UBC-/Syn-/Aldh1l1-Cre For 5'-GCTGCCACGACCAAGTGACAGCAATG-3'	This paper	N/A
Primer: UBC-/Syn-/Aldh1l1-Cre Rev 5'-GTAGTTATTCGGATCATCAGCTACAC-3'	This paper	N/A
Primer: Cx3cr1-Cre WT For 5'-GTGGGAAATCTGTTGGTGGTCCTC-3'	This paper	N/A
Primer: Cx3cr1-Cre Mut For 5'-GTTAATGACCTGCAGCCAAG-3'	This paper	N/A
Primer: Cx3cr1-Cre WT/Mut Rev 5'-TAGTCACCCAGACACTCGTTGTCC-3'	This paper	N/A
Recombinant DNA		
Software and algorithms		

Prism	GraphPad	https://www.graphpad.com/features
ImageJ	Schneider et al.	https://imagej.net/ij/
RStudio	Posit Team (2024)	http://www.posit.co/
Limma	Ritchie et al.[89]	DOI: 10.18129/B9.bioc.limma
Other		
Anti-HA Dynabeads	Thermo Scientific	Cat # 88836
Anti-Cd11b MicroBeads	Miltenyi Biotec	Cat #: 130-093-636

Methods

<u>Cell Culture</u>

All cell culture reagents and plates were purchased from Corning (Corning, NY, USA). Cells were

maintained at 8.8% CO2 at 37 °C. HeLa cells were cultured in high glucose Dulbecco's Modified

Eagle's Medium (DMEM) with 10% FCS and Pen/Strep and supplied from ATCC (CCL-2).

<u>Generation of *GRN* KO HeLa cells</u>

HeLa cells were transfected with a plasmid containing both Cas9 and sgRNA targeting the R493

region of progranulin as this is one of the most commonly mutated residues [83]. Transfection

was performed with Lipofectamine 2000 in a ratio of 6:1 (6 μL Lipofectamine: 1 μg DNA). 48-72

hours after transfection, positive cells were selected using puromycin, and individual clones were

isolated, grown, and tested for progranulin via western blot.

STING activation assay

HeLa cells were grown in 6-well plates to 80-90% confluence and were treated with 1 μM diABZI

added to 1 mL fresh media for 0, 1, 2, 4, 8, or 12 hours at 37°C. At designated timepoints, cells

were rinsed three times with cold PBS on ice, and protein was harvested by scraping cells in 100

μL lysis buffer. Cells were incubated with lysis buffer for 15 minutes at 4°C, insoluble material was

pelleted by centrifugation at 21,130g for 10 minutes at 4°C, and supernatant was moved to fresh

tube. STING activation was measured by western blot analysis using antibodies to human

phospho-STING (Ser 366) and total STING.

Generation of Grn;TMEM192-3xHA fl/fl mice and animal husbandry

The *Grn* mutant mice were originally obtained from the Farese lab and were propagated for at

least 50 generations in the Herz lab. Their generation is previously described [13]. Animals were

maintained on a C57BL/6 J background by heterozygous intercrossing. *Grn* KO mice were bred

with TMEM192-3xHA fl/fl mice obtained from Jackson Labs (Strain #035401) [27]. *Grn*

KO;TMEM192-HA fl/fl mice were then crossbred with either *Ubc-Cre^{ERT2}* (Jackson Labs Strain

#008085), *Syn-Cre* (Jackson Lab Strain #003966), *Cx3cr1-Cre^{ERT2}* (Jackson Labs Strain

#020940), or *Aldh1l1-Cre^{ERT2}* (Jackson Labs Strain #029655) mice to establish *Grn* WT,

heterozygous, or KO; TMEM192-3xHA fl/fl; Cre+ mice. To induce expression of UBC-, Cx3cr1-,

and Aldh1l1-Cre, animals were injected at 8 weeks with tamoxifen (120 mg/kg) for up to 5 days.

Animals were maintained on a 12 h light/12-h dark cycle and fed a standard rodent chow diet (Diet

7001; Harlan Teklad, Madison, WI) and water ad libitum. No sexual dimorphism of phenotype was

observed, and both male and female mice were used for all experiments. All procedures were

performed in accordance with the protocols approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee of the University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center (IACUC APN 2015-101088-

G).

In vivo LysoIP

For isolation of lysosomes from mouse brain, a similar protocol was used as previously described

[27, 28]. Each LysoIP was individually completed before the next LysoIP was performed. 2-3-

month-old (for *Ubc-Cre*, *Cx3cr1-Cre*, and *Syn-Cre*) or 6-month-old (for *Aldh1l1-Cre*) mice were

anesthetized with isoflurane and immediately perfused with ice cold PBS (5 mL administered over

4-5 minutes). The brain was removed from the skull, and the olfactory bulbs were removed. Brains

were cut into 6 pieces and placed in 950 μL homogenization buffer (PBS + protease inhibitor +

phosphatase inhibitor). Brains were homogenized on ice with 25 strokes of plunger, and

homogenate was moved to 2 mL microcentrifuge tube. 25 μL of homogenate was moved to

separate tube for whole cell lysate. 1 mL of homogenization buffer was added to homogenate to

decrease pipetting errors. Insoluble material was spun down at 1000g for 2 min at 4°C. All further

steps were performed at 4°C.

1 mL homogenate was added to 100 μL anti-HA Dynabeads which had been pre-washed in 1 mL

cold PBS three times before experiment. Homogenate was incubated with Dynabeads with end-

over-end rotation for 15 minutes. After incubation, supernatant was removed from Dynabeads,

and Dynabeads were washed with 1 mL homogenization buffer three times. After the third wash,

Dynabeads were moved to fresh tube. 180 μL lysis buffer was added to Dynabeads and incubated

on ice for 15 minutes. Lysis buffer was removed from Dynabeads and moved into fresh tube.

For LysoIP of splenic macrophages, the same procedure was used as for the brain, except mice

were not perfused with PBS before dissection of the spleen, and 300 μL homogenization buffer

was added to homogenate (as opposed to 1 mL with brain LysoIP). All remaining steps were the

same as for brain LysoIP.

For whole cell lysate, 200 uL lysis buffer was added to lysate and incubated with end-over-end

rotation for 15 minutes. Insoluble material was spun down at 21,130g for 10 min at 4°C. Lysate

was moved to fresh tube, and both lysate and LysoIP were stored at -80°C until downstream

applications.

<u>Tandem mass tag mass spectrometry</u>

Sample concentrations were measured by micro-BCA assay and normalized to sample with

lowest concentration. Samples were dried for 30 min in a SpeedVac, after which 40 μl of 5% SDS

was added to each. Samples were then reduced with TCEP and alkylated with iodoacetamide in

the dark. Each sample was loaded onto an S-Trap Micro (Protifi), following which 2 μg of trypsin

(Pierce) was added and allowed to digest overnight at 37 °C. Peptides were eluted and dried in a

SpeedVac, then were reconstituted in 21 μl of 50 mM TEAB buffer. Samples were then each

labeled with 4 μl of TMTpro 16plex reagent (ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA, USA, A44520) and

quenched with 2 μl of 5% hydroxylamine and combined in equal peptide amount based on

NanoDrop A205 reading. These mixtures were dried in a SpeedVac and reconstituted in 2%

acetonitrile, 0.1% TFA buffer.

Peptides were analyzed on a Thermo Orbitrap Eclipse MS system coupled to an Ultimate 3000

RSLC-Nano liquid chromatography system. Samples were injected onto a 75 um i.d., 75-cm long

EasySpray column (Thermo) and eluted with a gradient from 0-28% buffer B over 180 min at a

flow rate of 250 nL/min. Buffer A contained 2% (v/v) ACN and 0.1% formic acid in water, and buffer

B contained 80% (v/v) ACN, 10% (v/v) trifluoroethanol, and 0.1% formic acid in water. at a flow

rate of 250 nl/min. Spectra were continuously acquired in a data-dependent manner throughout

the gradient, acquiring a full scan in the Orbitrap (at 120,000 resolution with a standard AGC

target) followed by MS/MS scans on the most abundant ions in 2.5 s in the ion trap (turbo scan

type with an intensity threshold of 5,000, CID collision energy of 35%, standard AGC target,

maximum injection time of 35 ms and isolation width of 0.7 m/z). Charge states from 2-6 were

included. Dynamic exclusion was enabled with a repeat count of 1, an exclusion duration of 25 s

and an exclusion mass width of ± 10 ppm. Real-time search was used for selection of peaks for

SPS-MS3 analysis, with searched performed against a list of proteins from the mouse reviewed

protein database from UniProt. Up to 2 missed tryptic cleavage was allowed, with

carbamidomethylation (+57.0215) of cysteine and TMTpro reagent (+304.2071) of lysine and

peptide N-termini used as static modifications and oxidation (+15.9949) of methionine used as a

variable modification. MS3 data were collected for up to 10 MS2 peaks which matched to

fragments from the real-time peptide search identification, in the Orbitrap at a resolution of 50,000,

HCD collision energy of 65% and a scan range of 100–500.

Protein identification and quantification were done using Proteome Discoverer v.3.0 SP1

(Thermo). Raw MS data files were analyzed against the mouse reviewed protein database from

UniProt. Both Comet and SequestHT with INFERYS Rescoring were used, with

carbamidomethylation (+57.0215) of cysteine and TMTpro reagent (+304.2071) of lysine and

peptide N-termini used as static modifications and oxidation (+15.9949) of methionine used as a

variable modification. Reporter ion intensities were reported, with further normalization performed

by using the total intensity in each channel to correct discrepancies in sample amount in each

channel. A co-isolation threshold of 75% and an SPS Mass Matches threshold of 65% was used,

and the false-discovery rate (FDR) cutoff was 1% for all peptides.

<u>Analysis of TMT-MS results</u>

For each TMT-MS run, at least one sample from a Cre- mouse was included as a negative control.

All samples were normalized to total protein abundance. LysoIP samples were compared to the

Cre- control by one-sample t-test followed by Benjamini-Hochberg procedure with FDR set at

0.05. Proteins were only included in downstream analysis if they were significantly different

compared to Cre- control, had an average $\log_2$FC value > 0.58 compared to Cre- control, and all

individual LysoIP sample intensities were greater than no Cre control. Normalized abundances of

the Cre- controls were subtracted from the normalized abundances of each sample. Protein

quantities were log2 transformed, and the median quantity of protein intensities for each LysoIP

sample was subtracted from individual protein intensities to account for differences in cell number

and LysoIP efficiency. Differential protein abundance was determined using an ANOVA test

applied to the normalized protein quantities using limma [84, 85]. Correction for multiple testing

was performed using the Benjamini Hochberg method with an FDR set at 0.05. Any protein with

adjusted p-value < 0.05 was considered significant. Gene ontology analysis was performed using

ShinyGO [86] to compare LysoIP samples and Cre- controls or Metascape to compare *Grn* WT

and *Grn* KO LysoIP samples. For ShinyGO, all proteins detected in a single TMT-MS run were

used as background proteins to determine enrichment of lysosomal proteins. For Metascape, all

526 proteins detected as LysoIP proteins after filtering were included as background.

<u>Western blotting</u>

For STING activation assay, cell lysate was first normalized to match lowest concentration as

determined by Lowry assay. For all western blotting (except for Mfsd8 immunoblotting), 5x sample

buffer was added per sample, and samples were boiled at 95°C for 10 minutes. 10-14 µl per

sample was added to pre-cast gel, and electrophoresis was performed at 120V for 70-90 minutes.

Samples were transferred to 0.22 µm nitrocellulose membranes using Bio-Rad semi-dry transfer

(25V, 1.3-2.5A, 15 minutes). Membranes were blocked with 5% milk in TBS-T and incubated with

primary antibody in 3% BSA in TBS-T + 0.02% NaN$_3$ either at room temperature for 60 minutes

or overnight at 4°C. Membranes were rinsed in TBS-T, and secondary was applied for 60 minutes

in 5% milk TBS-T. Membranes were rinsed in TBS-T and either imaged using Licor or ECL.

For Mfsd8 immunoblotting, 5x sample buffer was added to samples and were heated at 37°C for

10 minutes. Samples were run on pre-cast gels as previously described and were transferred to

0.22 µm PVDF membranes using wet transfer apparatus (40V overnight at 4°C). Membranes

were blocked with 5% milk in TBS-T and incubated with primary antibody in 3% BSA in TBS-T +

0.02% NaN$_3$ overnight at 4°C. Membranes were rinsed in TBS-T, and secondary was applied for

60 minutes in 5% milk TBST. Membranes were rinsed in TBS-T and imaged using ECL.

<u>Isolation of microglia</u>

Microglia were isolated from *Grn;TMEM192-3xHA fl/fl;Cx3cr1-Cre^{ERT2}* was performed on 10-12-

month-old mice. Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and perfused with ice cold PBS (10 mL

delivered over 4-5 minutes). Brain was harvested and left and right hemibrains were separated.

LysoIP was immediately performed on left hemibrain while right hemibrain was left in dissociation

buffer on ice. No more than 4 LysoIPs were performed before microglial isolation was performed.

To isolate single cell solution, hemibrains were dissociated by mincing tissue in dissociation buffer

on ice until no pieces larger than 1 mm remained. Tissue was moved to 50 mL conical tube and

rocked at 37°C for 30 minutes. Dissociated tissue was pressed through pre-wet 70 µm nylon filter

using rubber end of a syringe plunger. 2 mL sample preparation media was used to rinse

remaining cells through filter. Suspension was centrifuged for at 300g for 10 minutes at 4°C with

brake set to low. Supernatant was removed, and cell pellet was resuspended in 4 mL 30% percoll

solution. Solution was transferred to 15 mL conical tube and spun at 700g for 10 minutes at room

temperature with brake set to zero. Upper myelin layer was removed with 5 mL serologic pipette,

and remainder of supernatant was removed. Cells were resuspended in 1 mL sample preparation

media, and suspension was moved to fresh tube. Suspension was spun down at 300g for 10

minutes at $4^{\circ}C$ with brake set to low. Supernatant was removed.

To isolate microglia, pellet was resuspended in 135 μL MACS buffer and 15 μL CD11b beads and

was incubated on ice for 15 minutes. 1 mL of MACS buffer was added, and sample was

centrifuged at 300g for 10 minutes at $4^{\circ}C$. 70 μm pre-wet nylon filter was placed on LS columns,

and both were attached to MACS magnetic stand. Column was prewet with 3 mL MACS buffer.

Supernatant was removed from pellet, and pellet was resuspended in 500 μL MACS buffer.

Sample was run over column. Tube was rinsed with 2 mL MACS buffer, and rinse was also run

over column. 3 mL MACS buffer was run over column.

Column was removed from magnet, 5 mL MACS buffer was added, and buffer was immediately

plunged into fresh tube. This was repeated with another 5 mL MACS buffer. This tube now

contained isolated microglia. Cells were spun at 300g for 10 minutes at $4^{\circ}C$ with low brake.

Supernatant was removed, and pellet was resuspended in 50 μL lysis buffer.

NAD+/NADH Assay

Procedure is described on Abcam website for kit (Cat# ab65348). In brief, ~20 mg whole brain

from fasted mice was homogenized in 400 μL Extraction Buffer in Dounce homogenizer (40

passes). Samples were centrifuged for 5 minutes $4^{\circ}C$ at top speed. Supernatant was passed

through a 10 kDa spin column (Millipore Sigma) 30 minutes $4^{\circ}C$ at 14,000g to remove NAD-

consuming enzymes. Half of sample was reserved as "NAD Total" and half was heated at 60°C

for 30 minutes to degrade NAD+ ("NADH"). Added 50 µL sample to 100 µL reaction mix (98 µL

NAD cycling buffer + 2 uL NAD cycling enzyme) and incubated at room temp for 5 minutes to

convert NAD to NADH. 10 µL of developer solution was added, and colorimetric readout was

measured at OD 450 nm at multiple times between 1-4 hours. Samples were compared to 0-100

pmol NAD standards. NAD+ was calculated by subtracting NADH from NAD Total, and

NAD+/NADH ratios were calculated for each sample.

<u>Seahorse Assay</u>

To isolate mitochondria from 12-month-old *Grn* WT and Grn KO mice, mice were anesthetized

with isoflurane and perfused with cold PBS (5 mL over 4-5 minutes). Brains were extracted,

minced on ice, and placed in ~10 volumes of isolation buffer. Brains were homogenized by 2-3

slow strokes of a Dounce homogenizer. Sample was moved to fresh tube and spun at 800g for

10 minutes at 4°C. Supernatant was moved to fresh tube and spun at 8000g for 10 minutes at

4°C. Supernatant was removed, pellet was resuspended in 5 mL isolation buffer, and samples

were spun at 8000g for 10 minutes for 4°C. Supernatant was removed, and pellet containing

mitochondria was resuspended in 100 µL Seahorse buffer. Protein was quantified with BCA, and

mitochondria were diluted to a concentration of 100 µg protein/mL. 50 µL (5 µg)

mitochondria/sample was transferred to XFe24 Tissue Culture Plate. 4 wells contained 50 µL

Seahorse buffer alone as negative controls. Mitochondria were spun down onto plate surface at

3600g for 15 minutes at 4°C. 450 µL of starting buffer was added to each well while Seahorse is

calibrated according to manual. Starting buffers and injection port compounds are listed below.

Electron Flow Starting Buffer:

Seahorse Buffer + 10 mM pyruvate + 2 mM malate + 4 µM FCCP

Electron Flow Injection Ports:

Port A: 20 µM (10x) rotenone/injection volume 50 µL

Port B: 100 µM (10x) succinate/injection volume 55 µL

Port C: 40 µM (10x) actimycin A/injection volume 60 µL

Port D: 100mM (10x) ascorbate + 1 mM (10x) TMPD/injection volume 65 µL

Electron Coupling Starting Buffer:

Seahorse Buffer + 10 mM succinate + 2 µM rotenone

Port A: 40 mM (10x) ADP 50 µL

Port B: 20 µM (10x) oligomycin 55 µL

Port C: 40 µM (10x) FCCP/injection volume 60 µL

Port D: 40 µM (10x) antimycin A/injection volume 65 µL

<u>Quantification and Statistical Analysis</u>

Data analysis was conducted using ImageJ (NIH) and Odyssey Imaging Systems (Li-Cor).

GraphPad Prism was used for all statistical analysis except TMT-MS analysis which was

performed with the limma package which uses the R programming language. Data are displayed

as means ± standard errors (SE). Specific statistical tests including number of samples/condition

are specified in individual figure legends.

Acknowledgments

J. Herz was supported by grants from the NIA (RF1/RF3 AG053391), the NINDS and NIA (R01

NS093382 and R01 NS108115), NIAMS (1R43AR081762) and NINDS (1R43AG084450),

BrightFocus (A2013524S & A2016396S), the Bluefield Project to Cure FTD, Harrington Discovery

Institute (HDI2019-SI-4479), Alzheimer's Association (ABA-22-970304), the Presbyterian Village

North Foundation, and the Robert J. Kleberg Jr. & Helen C. Kleberg Foundation, Texas

Alzheimer's Research and Care Consortium (TARCC) 1271166 and 1280583. We also thank

Tamara Terrones, Brian Emmerson, and Patricia Strackbein for their unrivaled support and brilliant

technical assistance.

Contributions

GCW and JH planned and conceived the project. GCW performed all experiments, analyzed data,

and wrote the manuscript. JH edited the manuscript, obtained funding, and oversaw the execution

of the project.

Declaration of Interests

J.H. is a co-founder of Reelin Therapeutics Inc. and coinventor of a patent related to isoxazoles

with the ability to increase progranulin expression (Application Number: US15/127,603 and

Publication Number: US10149836B2). The remaining authors declare no competing interest.

References

1.   Bang, J., S. Spina, and B.L. Miller, *Frontotemporal dementia.* Lancet, 2015. **386**(10004):
p. 1672-82.

2.   Ratnavalli, E., et al., *The prevalence of frontotemporal dementia.* Neurology, 2002. **58**(11):
p. 1615-21.

3.   Baker, M., et al., *Mutations in progranulin cause tau-negative frontotemporal dementia*
linked to chromosome 17. Nature, 2006. **442**(7105): p. 916-9.

4.   Rohrer, J.D., et al., *The heritability and genetics of frontotemporal lobar degeneration.*
Neurology, 2009. **73**(18): p. 1451-6.

5.   Hu, F., et al., *Sortilin-mediated endocytosis determines levels of the frontotemporal*
dementia protein, progranulin. Neuron, 2010. **68**(4): p. 654-67.

6.   Zhou, X., et al., *Prosaposin facilitates sortilin-independent lysosomal trafficking of*
progranulin. J Cell Biol, 2015. **210**(6): p. 991-1002.

7.   Bai, X.H., et al., *ADAMTS-7, a direct target of PTHrP, adversely regulates endochondral*
bone growth by associating with and inactivating GEP growth factor. Mol Cell Biol, 2009.
29(15): p. 4201-19.

8.   Kessenbrock, K., et al., *Proteinase 3 and neutrophil elastase enhance inflammation in*
mice by inactivating antiinflammatory progranulin. J Clin Invest, 2008. **118**(7): p. 2438-47.

9.   Smith, K.R., et al., *Strikingly different clinicopathological phenotypes determined by*
progranulin-mutation dosage. Am J Hum Genet, 2012. **90**(6): p. 1102-7.

10.   Valdez, C., et al., *Progranulin-mediated deficiency of cathepsin D results in FTD and NCL-*
like phenotypes in neurons derived from FTD patients. Hum Mol Genet, 2017. **26**(24): p.
4861-4872.

11.   Zhou, X., et al., *Regulation of cathepsin D activity by the FTLD protein progranulin.* Acta
Neuropathol, 2017. **134**(1): p. 151-153.

12.   Boland, S., et al., *Deficiency of the frontotemporal dementia gene GRN results in*
791   *gangliosidosis.* Nat Commun, 2022. **13**(1): p. 5924.

792   13.   Evers, B.M., et al., *Lipidomic and Transcriptomic Basis of Lysosomal Dysfunction in*
793   *Progranulin Deficiency.* Cell Rep, 2017. **20**(11): p. 2565-2574.

794   14.   Logan, T., et al., *Rescue of a lysosomal storage disorder caused by Grn loss of function*
795   *with a brain penetrant progranulin biologic.* Cell, 2021. **184**(18): p. 4651-4668 e25.

796   15.   Tanaka, Y., et al., *Progranulin regulates lysosomal function and biogenesis through*
797   *acidification of lysosomes.* Hum Mol Genet, 2017. **26**(5): p. 969-988.

798   16.   Tesla, R., et al., *Benzoxazole-derivatives enhance progranulin expression and reverse the*
799   *aberrant lysosomal proteome caused by GRN haploinsufficiency.* Nat Commun, 2024.
800   **15**(1): p. 6125.

801   17.   Hasan, S., et al., *Multi-modal proteomic characterization of lysosomal function and*
802   *proteostasis in progranulin-deficient neurons.* Mol Neurodegener, 2023. **18**(1): p. 87.

803   18.   Butler, V.J., et al., *Age- and stress-associated C. elegans granulins impair lysosomal*
804   *function and induce a compensatory HLH-30/TFEB transcriptional response.* PLoS Genet,
805   2019. **15**(8): p. e1008295.

806   19.   Tanaka, Y., et al., *Increased lysosomal biogenesis in activated microglia and exacerbated*
807   *neuronal damage after traumatic brain injury in progranulin-deficient mice.* Neuroscience,
808   2013. **250**: p. 8-19.

809   20.   Van Damme, P., et al., *Progranulin functions as a neurotrophic factor to regulate neurite*
810   *outgrowth and enhance neuronal survival.* J Cell Biol, 2008. **181**(1): p. 37-41.

811   21.   Gass, J., et al., *Progranulin regulates neuronal outgrowth independent of sortilin.* Mol
812   Neurodegener, 2012. **7**: p. 33.

813   22.   Lui, H., et al., *Progranulin Deficiency Promotes Circuit-Specific Synaptic Pruning by*
814   *Microglia via Complement Activation.* Cell, 2016. **165**(4): p. 921-35.

815   23.   He, Z., et al., *Progranulin (PC-cell-derived growth factor/acrogranin) regulates invasion*
816   *and cell survival.* Cancer Res, 2002. **62**(19): p. 5590-6.

817   24.   Gillett, D.A., et al., *Progranulin and GPNMB: interactions in endo-lysosome function and*
818   *inflammation in neurodegenerative disease.* J Neuroinflammation, 2023. **20**(1): p. 286.

819   25.   Davis, S.E., et al., *Delivering progranulin to neuronal lysosomes protects against*
820   *excitotoxicity.* Journal of Biological Chemistry, 2021. **297**(3).

821   26.   Zhang, J., et al., *Neurotoxic microglia promote TDP-43 proteinopathy in progranulin*
822   *deficiency.* Nature, 2020. **588**(7838): p. 459-465.

823   27.   Laqtom, N.N., et al., *CLN3 is required for the clearance of glycerophosphodiesters from*
824   *lysosomes.* Nature, 2022. **609**(7929): p. 1005-1011.

825   28.   Ghoochani, A., et al., *Cell-Type Resolved Protein Atlas of Brain Lysosomes Identifies*
826   *SLC45A1-Associated Disease as a Lysosomal Disorder.* bioRxiv, 2024.

827   29.   Petkau, T.L., et al., *Progranulin expression in the developing and adult murine brain.* J
828   Comp Neurol, 2010. **518**(19): p. 3931-47.

829   30.   Cawley, N.X., et al., *Abnormal LAMP1 glycosylation may play a role in Niemann-Pick*
830   *disease, type C pathology.* PLoS One, 2020. **15**(1): p. e0227829.

831   31.   Ghossoub, R., et al., *Tetraspanin-6 negatively regulates exosome production.* Proc Natl
832   Acad Sci U S A, 2020. **117**(11): p. 5913-5922.

833   32.   Lee, S.A., et al., *Functional expression of dopamine D2 receptor is regulated by*
834   *tetraspanin 7-mediated postendocytic trafficking.* FASEB J, 2017. **31**(6): p. 2301-2313.

835   33.   Bassani, S., et al., *The X-linked intellectual disability protein TSPAN7 regulates excitatory*
836   *synapse development and AMPAR trafficking.* Neuron, 2012. **73**(6): p. 1143-58.

837   34.   Salas, I.H., et al., *Tetraspanin 6: A novel regulator of hippocampal synaptic transmission*
838   *and long term plasticity.* PLoS One, 2017. **12**(2): p. e0171968.

839   35.   Sukalskaia, A., et al., *Interactions between TTYH2 and APOE facilitate endosomal lipid*
840   *transfer.* Nature, 2025.

36.   Reiman, E.M., V. Ghisays, and J.B. Langbaum, *The Risk of Alzheimer Disease in APOE4*

Homozygotes. JAMA Neurol, 2025. **82**(9): p. 879-880.

37.   Ingannato, A., et al., *GRN Missense Variants and Familial Alzheimer's Disease: Two Case*

Reports. J Alzheimers Dis, 2023. **96**(2): p. 767-775.

38.   Huang, M., et al., *Network analysis of the progranulin-deficient mouse brain proteome*

reveals pathogenic mechanisms shared in human frontotemporal dementia caused by

GRN mutations. Acta Neuropathol Commun, 2020. **8**(1): p. 163.

39.   Singh, J., et al., *Systematic Comparison of Strategies for the Enrichment of Lysosomes*

by Data Independent Acquisition. Journal of Proteome Research, 2019. **19**(1): p. 371-381.

40.   Bongarzone, E.R., et al., *Insights into the Pathogenesis and Treatment of Krabbe Disease.*

Pediatr Endocrinol Rev, 2016. **13 Suppl 1**: p. 689-96.

41.   Brady, R.O., J. Kanfer, and D. Shapiro, *The Metabolism of Glucocerebrosides. I.*

Purification and Properties of a Glucocerebroside-Cleaving Enzyme from Spleen Tissue.

J Biol Chem, 1965. **240**: p. 39-43.

42.   Senkevich, K., et al., *GALC variants affect galactosylceramidase enzymatic activity and*

risk of Parkinson's disease. Brain, 2023. **146**(5): p. 1859-1872.

43.   Zhang, X., et al., *Clinical, mechanistic, biomarker, and therapeutic advances in GBA1-*

associated Parkinson's disease. Transl Neurodegener, 2024. **13**(1): p. 48.

44.   Liu, G.Y. and D.M. Sabatini, *mTOR at the nexus of nutrition, growth, ageing and disease.*

Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol, 2020. **21**(4): p. 183-203.

45.   Nader, W.O., et al., *TFEB overexpression alleviates autophagy-lysosomal deficits caused*

by progranulin insufficiency. Sci Rep, 2025. **15**(1): p. 26217.

46.   Chang, M.C., et al., *Progranulin deficiency causes impairment of autophagy and TDP-43*

accumulation. J Exp Med, 2017. **214**(9): p. 2611-2628.

47.   Shoshan-Barmatz, V., et al., *VDAC, a multi-functional mitochondrial protein regulating cell*

life and death. Mol Aspects Med, 2010. **31**(3): p. 227-85.

48.   Humphries, A.D., et al., *Dissection of the mitochondrial import and assembly pathway for human Tom40.* J Biol Chem, 2005. **280**(12): p. 11535-43.

49.   Cardoso, R., et al., *APOEvarepsilon4-TOMM40L Haplotype Increases the Risk of Mild Cognitive Impairment Conversion to Alzheimer's Disease.* J Alzheimers Dis, 2020. **78**(2): p. 587-601.

50.   Sen, A., et al., *Mitochondrial membrane proteins and VPS35 orchestrate selective removal of mtDNA.* Nat Commun, 2022. **13**(1): p. 6704.

51.   Rodriguez-Perinan, G., et al., *Progranulin Deficiency Induces Mitochondrial Dysfunction in Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration with TDP-43 Inclusions.* Antioxidants (Basel), 2023. **12**(3).

52.   Zhou, D., et al., *PGRN acts as a novel regulator of mitochondrial homeostasis by facilitating mitophagy and mitochondrial biogenesis to prevent podocyte injury in diabetic nephropathy.* Cell Death Dis, 2019. **10**(7): p. 524.

53.   Geier, E.G., et al., *Rare variants in the neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis gene MFSD8 are candidate risk factors for frontotemporal dementia.* Acta Neuropathol, 2019. **137**(1): p. 71-88.

54.   Siintola, E., et al., *The novel neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis gene MFSD8 encodes a putative lysosomal transporter.* Am J Hum Genet, 2007. **81**(1): p. 136-46.

55.   Zampieri, S., et al., *SMPD1 Mutation Update: Database and Comprehensive Analysis of Published and Novel Variants.* Hum Mutat, 2016. **37**(2): p. 139-47.

56.   Elsea, S.H., et al., *ASAH1 pathogenic variants associated with acid ceramidase deficiency: Farber disease and spinal muscular atrophy with progressive myoclonic epilepsy.* Hum Mutat, 2020. **41**(9): p. 1469-1487.

57.   Wang, X., et al., *Molecular mechanisms and targeted therapy of progranulin in metabolic diseases.* Front Endocrinol (Lausanne), 2025. **16**: p. 1553794.

58.   Singh, S., et al., *PLD3 and PLD4 synthesize S,S-BMP, a key phospholipid enabling lipid*

893   *degradation in lysosomes.* Cell, 2024. **187**(24): p. 6820-6834 e24.

894   59.   Zhang, T., et al., *Progranulin deficiency results in sex-dependent alterations in microglia*

895   *in response to demyelination.* Acta Neuropathol, 2023. **146**(1): p. 97-119.

896   60.   Hofmann, S.L., et al., *Neuronal ceroid lipofuscinoses caused by defects in soluble*

897   *lysosomal enzymes (CLN1 and CLN2).* Curr Mol Med, 2002. **2**(5): p. 423-37.

898   61.   Reifschneider, A., et al., *Loss of TREM2 rescues hyperactivation of microglia, but not*

899   *lysosomal deficits and neurotoxicity in models of progranulin deficiency.* EMBO J, 2022.

900   **41**(4): p. e109108.

901   62.   Pesamaa, I., et al., *A microglial activity state biomarker panel differentiates FTD-granulin*

902   *and Alzheimer's disease patients from controls.* Mol Neurodegener, 2023. **18**(1): p. 70.

903   63.   Wang, A., et al., *Innate immune sensing of lysosomal dysfunction drives multiple*

904   *lysosomal storage disorders.* Nat Cell Biol, 2024. **26**(2): p. 219-234.

905   64.   Chu, T.T., et al., *Tonic prime-boost of STING signalling mediates Niemann-Pick disease*

906   *type C.* Nature, 2021. **596**(7873): p. 570-575.

907   65.   Chowdhury, S.R., et al., *PPT1 is a negative regulator of STING signaling in cancer cells*

908   *and its inhibition reactivates immune surveillance in cold tumors.* Proc Natl Acad Sci U S

909   A, 2025. **122**(39): p. e2514948122.

910   66.   Ramanjulu, J.M., et al., *Design of amidobenzimidazole STING receptor agonists with*

911   *systemic activity.* Nature, 2018. **564**(7736): p. 439-443.

912   67.   Xu, Y. and W. Wan, *Lysosomal control of the cGAS-STING signaling.* Trends Cell Biol,

913   2024. **34**(8): p. 622-625.

914   68.   Hasan, S., et al., *Multi-modal Proteomic Characterization of Lysosomal Function and*

915   *Proteostasis in Progranulin-Deficient Neurons.* bioRxiv, 2023.

916   69.   Zhou, X., et al., *Progranulin deficiency leads to reduced glucocerebrosidase activity.* PLoS

917   One, 2019. **14**(7): p. e0212382.

70.   Boyle, N.R., et al., *Reduction of sphingomyelinase activity associated with progranulin deficiency and frontotemporal dementia.* Neurobiol Dis, 2025. **213**: p. 107024.

71.   Yang, C., et al., *sPLA2-IIA modifies progranulin deficiency phenotypes in mouse models.* Mol Neurodegener, 2025. **20**(1): p. 72.

72.   Bajaj, L., et al., *A CLN6-CLN8 complex recruits lysosomal enzymes at the ER for Golgi transfer.* J Clin Invest, 2020. **130**(8): p. 4118-4132.

73.   Devireddy, S. and S.M. Ferguson, *Efficient progranulin exit from the ER requires its interaction with prosaposin, a Surf4 cargo.* J Cell Biol, 2022. **221**(2).

74.   Udayar, V., et al., *Lysosomal dysfunction in neurodegeneration: emerging concepts and methods.* Trends Neurosci, 2022. **45**(3): p. 184-199.

75.   Gomez-Sintes, R., M.D. Ledesma, and P. Boya, *Lysosomal cell death mechanisms in aging.* Ageing Res Rev, 2016. **32**: p. 150-168.

76.   Sevigny, J., et al., *Progranulin AAV gene therapy for frontotemporal dementia: translational studies and phase 1/2 trial interim results.* Nat Med, 2024. **30**(5): p. 1406-1415.

77.   Kurnellas, M., et al., *Latozinemab, a novel progranulin-elevating therapy for frontotemporal dementia.* J Transl Med, 2023. **21**(1): p. 387.

78.   Rosenthal, Z.C., et al., *Epigenetic modulation through BET bromodomain inhibitors as a novel therapeutic strategy for progranulin-deficient frontotemporal dementia.* Sci Rep, 2024. **14**(1): p. 9064.

79.   Root, J., et al., *Granulins rescue inflammation, lysosome dysfunction, lipofuscin, and neuropathology in a mouse model of progranulin deficiency.* Cell Rep, 2024. **43**(12): p. 114985.

80.   Selkoe, D.J. and J. Hardy, *The amyloid hypothesis of Alzheimer's disease at 25 years.* EMBO Mol Med, 2016. **8**(6): p. 595-608.

81.   Morris, H.R., et al., *The pathogenesis of Parkinson's disease.* Lancet, 2024. **403**(10423): p. 293-304.

82.   Benussi, A., et al., *Conceptual framework for the definition of preclinical and prodromal*

945   *frontotemporal dementia.* Alzheimers Dement, 2022. **18**(7): p. 1408-1423.

946   83.   Frew, J. and H.B. Nygaard, *Neuropathological and behavioral characterization of aged*

947   *Grn R493X progranulin-deficient frontotemporal dementia knockin mice.* Acta Neuropathol

948   Commun, 2021. **9**(1): p. 57.

949   84.   Phipson, B., et al., *Robust Hyperparameter Estimation Protects against Hypervariable*

950   *Genes and Improves Power to Detect Differential Expression.* Ann Appl Stat, 2016. **10**(2):

951   p. 946-963.

952   85.   Ritchie, M.E., et al., *limma powers differential expression analyses for RNA-sequencing*

953   *and microarray studies.* Nucleic Acids Res, 2015. **43**(7): p. e47.

954   86.   Ge, S.X., D. Jung, and R. Yao, *ShinyGO: a graphical gene-set enrichment tool for animals*

955   *and plants.* Bioinformatics, 2020. **36**(8): p. 2628-2629.

958 **Table 1**

Gene Name	OMIM#	Disease	Log$_2$FC (*Grn* KO/*Grn* WT)
Abca2	600047	Intellectual developmental disorder with poor growth and with or without seizures or ataxia	-1.422
Abcd4	603214	Methylmalonic aciduria and homocystinuria, cblJ type	1.2586
Arsa	607574	Metachromatic leukodystrophy	-0.3898
Arsb	611542	Mucopolysaccharidosis type VI (Maroteaux-Lamy)	-0.3096
Arsg	610008	Usher syndrome, type IV	-1.14
Asah1	613468	Farber lipogranulomatosis	-0.8072
Atp6v0c	108745	Epilepsy, early-onset, 3, with or without developmental delay	1.424
Clcn6	602726	Ceroid lipofuscinosis, neuronal, 15	-0.5394
Ctsa	613111	Galactosialidosis	0.3282
Ctsc	602365	Haim-Munk syndrome	1.958
Dnase2	126350	Autoinflammatory-pancytopenia syndrome	1.35
Fuca1	612280	Fucosidosis	0.4864
Galc	606890	Krabbe disease	-0.6264
Gba1	606463	Gaucher Disease	-0.5804
Gm2a	613109	GM2-gangliosidosis, AB variant	0.3804
Grn	138945	Ceroid lipofuscinosis, neuronal, 11	-4.226

Hexb	606873	Sandhoff disease, infantile, juvenile, and adult forms	0.6222
Hgsnat	610453	Mucopolysaccharidosis type IIIC (Sanfilippo C)	0.8754
Ids	300823	Mucopolysaccharidosis II	-0.5634
Lamp2	309060	Danon disease	0.7078
Lipa	613497	Cholesteryl ester storage disease	0.2158
Mfsd8	611124	Ceroid lipofuscinosis, neuronal, 7	-2.568
Pld3	615698	Spinocerebellar ataxia 46	-0.5342
Ppt1	600722	Ceroid lipofuscinosis, neuronal, 1	-0.9972
Rab7a	602298	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease, type 2B	1.28
Scarb2	602257	Epilepsy, progressive myoclonic 4, with or without renal failure	0.7028
Smpd1	607608	Niemann-Pick disease, type A/B	-1.222
Sod1	147450	Parkinson's Disease	0.3346
Tmem165	614726	Congenital disorder of glycosylation, type IIk	-1.1058
Tmem63a	618685	Leukodystrophy, hypomyelinating, 19, transient infantile	-1.368
Tpp1	607998	Ceroid lipofuscinosis, neuronal, 2	1.0158
Vps33a	610034	Mucopolysaccharidosis-plus syndrome	-0.371

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Supplemental Figure 1

Supplemental Figure 2

Supplemental Figure 3

a

diABZI	Grn WT						Grn KO					
	0'	1'	2'	4'	8'	12'	0'	1'	2'	4'	8'	12'

75 kDa — Progranulin

50 kDa — Beta-actin

37 kDa — p-Sting

37 kDa — Sting

b

p-Sting

Genotype: p = 0.0089

y-axis: p-STING (norm. to WT at 1')

x-axis: Time (Hours)

Grn WT, Grn KO

**

c

Total Sting

Genotype: p = 0.5452

y-axis: Total STING (norm. to WT at 0')

x-axis: Time (Hours)

Grn WT, Grn KO

d

Sting (phospho/total)

Genotype: p < 0.0001

y-axis: p-STING/total STING (norm. to WT at 1')

x-axis: Time (Hours)

Grn WT, Grn KO

*

Supplemental Figure 4