Transcriptional Diversity of Medium Spiny Neurons in the Primate Striatum

Authors: Jing He[1], Michael Kleyman[2], Jianjiao Chen[1], Aydin Alikaya[1], Kathryn M. Rothenhoefer[1], Bilge Esin Ozturk[3], Morgan Wirthlin[2], Kenneth Fish[4], Leah C.T. Byrne[3]*, Andreas R. Pfenning[2]*, William R. Stauffer[1]*.

Affiliations:

[1]Department of Neurobiology, Systems Neuroscience Center, Brain Institute, Center for Neuroscience, Center for the Neural Basis of Cognition, University of Pittsburgh.

[2]Department of Computational Biology, School of Computer Science, Neuroscience Institute, Center for the Neural Basis of Cognition, Carnegie Mellon University.

[3]Department of Ophthalmology, Brain Institute, Center for Neuroscience, Center for the Neural Basis of Cognition, University of Pittsburgh.

[4]Department of Psychiatry, University of Pittsburgh.

*Correspondence to: wrs@pitt.edu (W.R.S.), apfenning@cmu.edu (A.R.P.), lbyrne@pitt.edu (L.C.T.B.)

Abstract

The striatum is the neural interface between dopamine reward signals and cortico-basal ganglia circuits responsible for value assignments, decisions, and actions. Medium spiny neurons (MSNs) make up the vast majority of striatal neurons and are traditionally classified as two distinct types: direct- and indirect-pathway MSNs. The direct- and indirect-pathway model has been useful for understanding some aspects of striatal functions, but it accounts for neither the anatomical heterogeneity, nor the functional diversity of the striatum. Here, we use single nucleus RNA-sequencing and Fluorescent In-Situ Hybridization to explore MSN diversity in the Rhesus macaque striatum. We identified MSN subtypes that correspond to the major subdivisions of the striatum. These include dorsal striatum subtypes associated with striosome and matrix compartments, as well as ventral striatum subtypes associated with the shell of the nucleus accumbens. We also describe a cell type that is anatomically restricted to "Neurochemically Unique Domains in the Accumbens and Putamen (NUDAPs)". Together, these results help to advance nonhuman primate studies into the genomics era. The identified cell types provide a comprehensive blueprint for investigating cell type-specific information processing, and the differentially expressed genes lay a foundation for achieving cell type-specific transgenesis in the primate striatum.

Main Text:

The striatum serves as the major input nucleus for the basal ganglia and the principal neural interface between dopamine reward signals and cortico-basal ganglia-thalamic circuits. Medium Spiny Neurons (MSNs), also known as Spiny Projection Neurons (SPNs), account for the vast majority of all striatal neurons (DiFiglia et al., 1976). D1-MSNs express dopamine receptor type 1 (*DRD1*) and their monosynaptic projections to the basal ganglia output nuclei form the "direct pathway." D2-MSNs express dopamine receptor type 2 (*DRD2*) and form the "indirect pathway," via di-synaptic projections to the basal ganglia output nuclei (Parent and Hazrati, 1995). Broadly, activity in the direct and indirect pathways produces opposing effects on thalamocortical projections. This cell type-specific circuit model has been crucial to understanding the role of the basal ganglia in the control of movement and the mechanisms of Parkinson's disease (Albin et al., 1989; DeLong and Wichmann, 2015), but it does not account for the anatomical and functional variation between the distinct neurochemical compartments in the dorsal striatum, nor does it explain the neurochemical heterogeneity or functional diversity of the ventral striatum.

In the dorsal striatum, direct and indirect pathway information processing occurs within segregated neurochemical compartments known as striosome and matrix (Graybiel and Ragsdale, 1978). Functionally, these compartments are thought to reflect their respective inputs and participate in limbic and sensorimotor functions (Gerfen, 1984; Graybiel and Ragsdale, 1978; Hong et al., 2019). The ventral striatum includes the nucleus accumbens (NAc), olfactory tubercle, and interface islands (Daunais et al., 2001; Haber and McFarland, 1999; Heimer and Wilson, 1975; Voorn et al., 1996). Moreover, the NAc itself is divided into core and shell territories that contribute differentially to reward processing, action selection, and decision making (Floresco, 2015). Together, these anatomically segregated striatal regions suggest that there is greater MSN heterogeneity than is predicted by D1- and D2- MSNs. To address these discrepancies, recent studies have employed single cell technologies that classify cell types

according to their gene expression (Tang et al., 2009). Single cell studies have revealed new types of MSNs and striatal interneurons (Gokce et al., 2016; Krienen et al., 2020; Martin et al., 2019; Muñoz-Manchado et al., 2018; Saunders et al., 2018; Stanley et al., 2019). Moreover, single cell studies are providing novel insights into cell type-specific mechanisms for diseases involving the striatum, including drug addiction (Savell et al., 2020) and Huntington's disease (Lee et al., 2020). Despite these advances, we know neither the extent of MSN diversity in the primate striatum, nor how that diversity corresponds to the anatomical or neurochemical divisions of the highly articulated primate brain.

NHP brains and behaviors are more human-like than those of any other animal species in which invasive neurophysiological experiments are possible. Thus, NHP studies are indispensable for understanding the cell types, circuits, and systems that coordinate sophisticated behaviors and malfunction during debilitating neurological, neurodegenerative, and psychiatric diseases. Here, we set out to identify MSN subtypes in Rhesus macaque monkeys. We used single nucleus RNA-sequencing (snRNA-Seq) and Fluorescent In-Situ Hybridization (FISH) to characterize the transcriptional and anatomical diversity of MSNs and closely related neurons. Our results indicate that the MSN subtypes, each of which was distinguished by subtype-specific differentially expressed genes, reflect the major anatomical and neurochemical divisions, including striosome and matrix compartments of the dorsal striatum, the core and shell regions of the NAc, and the ventral interface islands including the Islands of Calleja (ICj) and Neurochemically Unique Domains in the Accumbens and Putamen (NUDAPs) (Voorn et al., 1996). The cell type-specific gene expression within these subtypes provide insights into their functions and indicate potential molecular access points for cell type-specific applications of genetically coded tools to primate brains in scientific or translational settings.

Results

Major cell classes in primate striatum

To investigate the cell type-specific transcriptional architecture of the NHP striatum, we isolated the caudate (Cd), putamen (Pt), and ventral striatum (VS) from coronal sections of two monkeys and prepared single nuclei suspensions (Fig. 1a, Methods). We performed droplet-based RNA capture and sequenced the resulting barcoded cDNA libraries (Methods). To optimally align and count the transcripts, we re-annotated the Rhesus macaque reference genome (rheMac10) using a 'lift-over' of the human transcriptome

Figure 1. Cell type taxonomy in striatum. (a) MRI image of a Rhesus macaque coronal brain section (left) showing three striatal regions labeled by three patches (blue, caudate; green, putamen; pink, ventral striatum). Schematic striatum (right) marked by Cd (caudate), Pt (putamen), and VS (Ventral Striatum). **(b)** UMAP visualizations of the samples from the two subjects. **(c)** UMAP visualizations of striatal nuclei colored by the three regions. **(d)** Feature plots of canonical neuronal and astrocyte marker gene expression in striatal nuclei. **(e)** UMAP visualization colored according to eight major classes in the NHP. **(f)** Heat map of differentially expressed genes. Color bar at the top corresponds to the major classes identified in **e**. **(g)** Violin plots of distributions of marker gene expression across nine clusters, with MSNs being divided into D1- and D2-MSNs.

annotation (see Methods); a process that improves comparisons across species (Zhu et al.,

2014). The custom annotation increased the reads confidently mapped to the genome by more

than 10% (Fig. S1). We used Seurat to integrate the datasets from both monkeys (Methods).

Side by side comparison of the nuclei from both subjects confirmed successful integration (Fig.

1b). After removing artifacts, we recovered the gene expression profiles from approximately

70,000 nuclei in two monkeys (F and P). These profiles were used for all subsequent analysis.

To identify the major cell classes in the striatum, we clustered the nuclei based on their

gene expression counts (see Methods). Side-by-side comparison of nuclei from the two

monkeys demonstrated broad similarities between the samples (Fig. 1b). Each major cluster

had nuclei derived from the caudate, putamen, and ventral striatum, indicating broad similarities

between the cell type compositions of each region (Fig. 1c). We made feature plots of well-

known marker genes, including *DRD1* and *DRD2* for D1- and D2-MSNs, *LHX6* for interneurons,

and *TNC* for astrocytes (Fig. 1d). Similarly, we identified oligodendrocytes, oligodendrocyte

precursors, microglia, and other non-neuronal cell types (Fig. S2). Each major cell class was

signified by groups of differentially expressed genes that were specifically enriched in that

cluster (Fig. 1e,f and Table S1). We compared the intersection of differentially expressed genes

from each cluster with marker gene lists from several databases (Gokce et al., 2016; Saunders

et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2014). This comparison confirmed the identity of the clusters and that

they corresponded to the major cell classes in the striatum ($P < 0.05$, Benjamini-Hochberg

corrected, Hypergeometric test). Violin plots showing the expression levels of marker genes in

each major class including *DRD1* and *DRD2* for different types of MSNs confirmed the basic

validity of our experimental and analytic methods (Fig. 1g). Together, these results provide a

broad transcriptional catalog of cell classes in the NHP striatum.

Transcriptional diversity of Medium Spiny Neurons

According to our primary interest in MSN diversity, we sought to isolate and analyze MSN nuclei. We identified all neurons according to the expression of *RBFOX3*, the gene that codes for the neuron-specific marker NeuN (Fig. S3a). The *RBFOX3*-positive population included interneurons and MSNs. Interneurons were signified by their expression of *LHX6* (Fig. 1d), whereas MSNs were signified by well-known MSN-specific genes, including *PP1R1B*, *BCL11B*, and *PDE1B* (Fig. S3b-d) (Arlotta et al., 2008; Xie et al., 2006). We used these MSN markers to isolate MSN nuclei. Differential gene analysis of the isolated MSNs versus all other cell types revealed several other MSN markers, including *KIAA1211L*,

Figure 2. MSN transcriptional diversity. **(a)** UMAP projection of MSN nuclei. Each dot represents a nucleus and the colors represent the different MSN subtypes. **(b)** Feature plots for the expression of *DRD1*, *TAC1*, *DRD2*, *PENK* show the separation of D1- and D2-MSNs. **(c)** Feature plots showing marker genes most enriched in each cluster. **(d)** (left) MSN subtype identifications colored according to **a**. (right) Violin plots showing cell type and compartment specific marker gene expression. **(e)** Heatmap showing the top ten most enriched genes in each MSN subtype. Colored bar at the top corresponds to the colors in **a**.

PDE2A, SLIT3, and *NGEF* (Fig. S3e-h).

We clustered the MSNs at a resolution that best reflected the functional divisions in the striatum, including direct and indirect pathways, striosome and matrix compartments, and core and shell territories (methods). This resulted in nine clusters (Fig. 2a). Feature plots of canonical D1- and D2-MSN markers showed that the clusters maintained clear separation between *DRD1*- and *DRD2*-expressing nuclei (Fig. 2b). To identify and annotate the clusters, we used previously described marker genes for striatal regions (Crittenden and Graybiel, 2011; Märtin et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2016), the distributions of nuclei derived from dorsal and ventral striatum, and subsequent FISH labeling of markers from differential gene analysis (Fig. 2c, 3-5). The clusters corresponded to D1- and D2-MSNs in the matrix, D1- and D2-MSNs in striosome, D1- and D2-MSNs in the NAc shell, and MSN-like neurons located in the interface islands (Fig. 2c,d). One cluster was enriched with *DRD1*, *DRD2*, and *CASZ1* and therefore likely corresponded to a hybrid MSN type previously described in rodents (D1H or eccentric-SPN) (Saunders et al., 2018; Stanley et al., 2019). Each MSN subtype cluster was signified by groups of differentially expressed genes that were specifically enriched in that cluster (Fig. 2e, and Table S2). Thus, snRNA-Seq indicates that there are MSN-like subtypes that correspond to the major organizational features of the striatum.

Dorsal Striatum

We used FISH to explore the anatomical distribution of MSN subtypes in the dorsal striatum. To establish a baseline, we double-labeled whole coronal sections with *DRD1* and *DRD2* FISH probes (Fig. 3a). As expected, the majority of neurons expressed either *DRD1* or *DRD2* (Fig. 3b). We counted 325 ± 99 *DRD1*-expressing nuclei/mm^2, and 320 ± 99 *DRD2*-expressing nuclei/mm^2 (Fig. S4a, Fig. 3c). These data illustrate the distribution of the two main classes of MSNs in the NHP striatum. Furthermore, the agreement of our MSN density estimations with previos studies is validation for our methods (Aubert et al., 2000).

Next, we aimed to highlight MSN subtypes in the striosome and matrix compartments. D1-MSN nuclei derived from the dorsal striatum split into one larger cluster and one smaller cluster. Likewise, D2-MSN nuclei derived from the dorsal striatum split into one larger cluster and one smaller cluster. As the matrix compartment has much greater volume than the striosome compartment (Gimenez-Amaya and Graybiel, 1991; Mikula et al., 2009),

Figure 3. Dorsal Striatum: (a) FISH labeling of *DRD1* (green) and *DRD2* (magenta). White box indicates the ROI shown in **b**. **(b)** High resolution image of region highlighted in **a**. **(c)** Quantification of cell density of neurons expressing *DRD1* (green), *DRD2* (magenta), or both (orange) in the caudate and putamen. Error bars are SD across ROIs. **(d)** FISH labeling of *KCNT1* (yellow) and *STXBP6* (blue) distinguishes striosome and matrix, respectively. **(e)** Detail of the white square in **d**. **(f)** As in **e**, for characteristic striosome and matrix markers, *KHDRBS3* and *SEMA3A.* Scale bars are indicated on images. Abbreviations: Cd, caudate; Pt, putamen; IC, internal capsule.

we reasoned that the larger D1- and D2-MSN clusters corresponded to the matrix (Fig. 2a, dark

and light blue clusters, respectively), whereas the smaller clusters corresponded to D1- and D2-

MSNs in striosome (Fig. 2a, light and dark red clusters, respectively). We identified marker

genes for striosome and matrix compartments, each of which included D1- and D2-MSNs. The

genes most enriched in NHP striosomes were *KCNT1*, *KHDRBS3*, *FAM163A*, *BACH2*, and

KCNIP1. The genes most enriched in NHP matrix were *EPHA4, GDA*, *STXBP6*, and *SEMA3E*

(Fig. 2e, S4b). Further analysis revealed cell type-specific markers within the striosome

compartment – *PDYN* was specifically enriched with striosome D1-MSNs, and *POU6F2* was

specifically enriched in striosome D2-MSNs (Fig. S4b). To verify our analysis, we performed

double FISH labeling with two potential marker genes, one from striosome and one from matrix.

Labeling with *KCNT1* and *STXBP6* showed the characteristic, large-scale pattern of the

striosome and matrix compartments (Fig 3d,e), and similar results were obtained for other

markers (Fig 3f, S4c). Together, these results highlight marker genes for striosome and matrix

compartments of the NHP striatum, and indicate potential molecular access points for achieving

cell type specific transgenesis in wild-type subjects.

Ventral Striatum

Four MSN clusters were highly enriched with nuclei from the ventral striatum (Fig. 2d).

Three of the clusters were *DRD1* positive, whereas the fourth cluster was *DRD2* positive.

Differential gene analysis of the two largest clusters (Fig. 2a, light and dark green) revealed

selectively enriched marker genes, including *GREB1L*, *ARHGAP6*, and *GRIA4* (Fig. 2e. Fig.

S5a). Double FISH labeling of the striatum with *DRD1* and *ARHGAP6* revealed that *ARHGAP6*

was selectively enriched in the most ventral portion of the ventral striatum, a region that

corresponds to the NAc shell (Fig. 4a-d). To confirm this finding, we performed double FISH

labeling with DRD1 and *GREB1L* and an immunofluorescence stain for calbindin on an adjacent

Figure 4. Gene marker enriched in NAc Shell. (a) Double labeling with *DRD1* (left) and *ARHGAP6* (middle) of the NAs shell shows that *ARHGAP6* is selectively enriched in the shell. Lettered boxes indicated ROIs shown in **b-c**. **(b)** High-resolution image of the ROI indicated with the letter "b" in **a**, left. **(c)** As in **b**, for ROI indicated with letter "c". **(d)** As in **b**, for an ROI located in the putamen

section. Calbindin marks the boundary of the NAc shell (Meredith et al., 1996). The *GREB1L*

intensity was similar to the *ARHGAP6* intensity and traced the outline of the transition from the

calbindin-poor shell to the calbinin rich core (Fig. S5c,d). There were a significant number of

ventral striatum D1- and D2-MSNs that clustered together with D1- and D2-MSNs derived from

the matrix compartment of the dorsal striatum. These MSNs may correspond to the 'core'

territory, however futher analysis is needed to confirm.

One of the most remarkable features of the *DRD1* and *DRD2* labelling of the striatum

was the presence of discrete 'islands' in the ventral striatum that included many *DRD1*-positive

cells, but few to no *DRD2*-positive cells (Fig. 5a). We wondered whether these D1-exclusive

islands corresponded the two small clusters derived from the ventral striatum (Fig. 2a, light and

dark orange). Both clusters expressed many markers commonly associated with MSNs (Fig.

5b). Nevertheless, both clusters where characterized by sets of differentially expressed genes

specifically enriched in each cluster (Fig. 2c). *RXFP1* and *CPNE4* were two of the most

selective genes for these two respective clusters (Fig. 5b). We used FISH probes directed at

RXFP1 and *CPNE4*, together with the *DRD1* probe to triple-label the striatum (Fig. 5c). Triple-

labeling with *DRD1*, *RXFP1*, and *CPNE4* probes on one coronal section revealed that *RXFP1*

and *CPNE4* probes labeled distinct D1-exclusive cell islands (Fig. 5c). High resolution confocal

scanning microscopy verified that *RXFP1* and *DRD1* colocalized in the same cells in one island

(Fig. 5d), whereas *CPNE4* and *DRD1* colocalized in the same cells of another island (Fig. 5e).

Triple labeling outside of the D1-exclusive islands revealed no detectable co-localization

between *DRD1* and *CPNE4***.** Likewise, outside of the D1-exclusive islands, we observed only

rare *DRD1* and *RXFP1* colocalizations in nuclei that might correspond with "D1H" or "eSPN"

cells (Fig. 5f) (Saunders et al., 2018; Stanley et al., 2019). These results suggested that the

RXFP1 positive and *CPNE4* positive MSN subtypes are located in distinct anatomical islands

within the ventral striatum.

To determine how these types of D1-exclusive islands were distributed throughout the

striatum, we performed the triple *DRD1*, *RXFP1*, and *CPNE4* FISH labeling on five coronal

sections distributed along the rostro-caudal axis (Fig. 5g). We defined the caudal and ventral

borders of the NAc by comparison of Nissl stained sections with a high-resolution MRI and DTI

Rhesus macaque brain atlas, and we mapped all clusters within and near the borders of the

ventral striatum (Bakker et al., 2015; Calabrese et al., 2015). The *CPNE4* positive islands

corresponded with the Islands of Calleja (ICj) and the olfactory tubercle; this was verified by

strong *CPNE4* and *DRD1* colocalization in the major Island of Celleja (mICj). Correspondingly,

visual inspection of these clusters under Nissl staining revealed many of these cells to be

granule cells. The *RXFP1* islands, on the other hand, had larger nuclei that were less densely

packed together. Cells within these islands co-expressed *DRD1*, *RXFP1*, and high levels of

OPRM1, the gene for the mu-opioid receptor (Fig. 5b). Triple labeling of *DRD1*, *DRD2* and

RXFP1 confirmed that cells in these cluster exclusively express *DRD1* and not *DRD2* (Fig S6b).

Moreover, *RXFP1* islands were not restricted to the border of the NAc, as are ICjs. Rather they

were found throughout the NAc and even in the putamen (Fig. 5g, orange arrows, S6a). For

these reasons, we concluded that these *RXFP1* positive cell type islands likely corresponded

with "Neurochemically Unique Domains in the Accumbens and Putamen (NUDAPs)"(Daunais et

al., 2001; Voorn et al., 1996). Using colocalization of *DRD1* and *RXFP1*, we observed NUDAPs

to the caudal extent of the NAc (Fig. 5h, orange arrows). FISH labeling verified these clusters in

a second Rhesus monkey (Fig. S6c). Therefore, *RXFP1* positive islands represent a persistent

feature of the ventral striatum.

Figure 5. MSNs in the interface islands. (a) FISH stain of *DRD1* (green) and *DRD2* (magenta) highlights *DRD1* exclusive islands. Inset, White area indicates striatum and the red box highlights the area shown in **a** and **c**. **(b)** Violin plots of relevant marker genes in ventral striatum MSN subtypes. **(c)** FISH stain of *DRD1* (top), *RXFP1* (middle top) and *CPNE4* (middle bottom) and merged channels (bottom) on immediately adjacent section shown in **a**. **(d-f)** Maximum intensity projections (MIP) from high-resolution confocal images of the three locations indicated in **c**, bottom. Colors and order as in **c**. **(g)** Distribution of *RXFP1* and *CPNE4* clusters across five rostral-caudal regions identified by multichannel FISH. AC = anterior commissure, mICj = major Island of Calleja. **(h)** Caudal section (AC-1) of triple labeled NHP striatum shows four *RXFP1* positive clusters, indicated by orange arrows, that fall within the most caudal potion of the NAc. Note, at this level we observed no ICjs, so the *CPNE4* channel is not shown. Abbreviations: AC, anterior commissure; GPe, External portion of the Globus Pallidus; VP, Ventral Pallidum.

Discussion

Here we investigated the cell type-specific structure of the Rhesus macaque striatum with a primary focus on the transcriptional and anatomical diversity among MSN and MSN-like neurons. snRNA-Seq revealed a clear distinction between MSN subtypes located in the dorsal and ventral striatum. The dorsal striatum included MSN subtypes specific to the striosome and matrix compartments (Fig. 2a). We found marker genes, including *BACH2* and *KCNT2* (Fig. 2e,3)*,* that were expressed in all striosome MSNs, but we also found markers for compartment-specific cell types, including *PDYN* and *POU6F2* that were enriched in D1- and D2-Striosome MSNs, respectively. The ventral striatum also yielded distinct MSN clusters. Two of the clusters corresponded to D1- and D2-MSNs located in the NAc shell (Fig 2a, 4). Transcriptional and FISH analysis of the other two clusters revealed them to be associated with the 'interface islands' – dense cellular islands located within and near the ventral border of the striatum. One of those clusters was highly enriched with *CPNE4* an*d* strongly labeled the Islands of Calleja and the olfactory tubercle. The D1-MSN cluster marked by expression of *RXFP1* mapped to NUDAPs, regions previously identified in human and NHP NAc and putamen via mu-opioid receptor ligand binding (Daunais et al., 2001; Voorn et al., 1996). Together, these cell types provide a roadmap for studying cell type-specific functions during sophisticated primate behaviors, and the cell type specific marker genes define potential molecular access points to enable the application of genetically coded tools in scientific or translational contexts.

Each of the MSN subtypes had differentially expressed genes that were specifically enriched in each cluster (Fig. 2c, e and Table S2). Gene functional analyses revealed that all MSN subtypes were enriched with similar gene pathways that support well known MSN functions. These included gene pathways related to neuropeptide signaling, ion channels, and synaptic transmission. However, within each of these gene pathways, the MSN subtypes showed specialized expression of unique gene pathway members, providing possible molecular evidence for functional divergence between MSN subtypes. Most notably, the *RXFP1* positive

subtype, restricted to NUDAPs, was enriched with genes known to serve a host of critical striatal processes ranging from LTD and LTP to pain and anxiety. Together with enhanced expression of *OPRM1* and other reward- and learning-related genes, these results suggest that these structures have a role in reward processing and perhaps even drug addiction. Future studies using the latest genetically coded calcium sensors and chemical actuators will be required to properly appreciate this prominent feature of primate basal forebrain.

This study and others demonstrate that single cell technologies can be effectively applied to NHPs (Krienen et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2018). We foresee at least three critical reasons to avidly apply single cell technologies to NHP. (1) Old-world monkeys like Rhesus macaques are more similar to humans than any other research animal that allows for invasive neurophysiological experiments. Accordingly, Rhesus macaque cell types, including highly specialized neurons like Betz cells, von Economo neurons, and even striatal interneuron subtypes recapitulate homologous human cell types better than cells from rodents or even from marmosets (Bakken et al., 2020; Evrard et al., 2012; Krienen et al., 2020). (2) Single cell studies performed on post-mortem human tissue are subject to ethical constraints that manifest as relatively long and highly variable postmortem intervals (PMIs) (Hodge et al., 2019). In contrast, NHP experiments can be performed in a highly controlled fashion. (3) NHPs have resisted the widespread application of modern genetically coded tools. Single cell technologies, including RNA-Seq and ATAC-Seq, can identify atomized cell types and potent regulatory sequences that will break this resistance and enable the effective applications of genetically coded tools in large, wild type animals that resemble humans. Thus, the application of single cell technologies will propel Rhesus macaque systems neuroscience studies into the genomics era by discovering and describing the molecular properties of the primate brain, reveal unknown (or incompletely known) cell types, and pinpoint cell type- and circuit-specific molecular access points to enable scientific and clinical application of genetically coded tools.

Rhesus macaque behavior is readily interpretable in terms of human behavioral theory

such as economic theory (Genest et al., 2016; Lak et al., 2014; Stauffer et al., 2015; Stauffer et

al., 2014), learning theory (Waelti et al., 2001), and even game theory (Barraclough et al., 2004;

Haroush and Williams, 2015). Our ultimate goal is to understand the cell type-specific neural

computations that underlie these sophisticated behaviors. The diversity of MSN cell types

presented here provides a blueprint to achieve this level of understanding for striatal functions in

primates.

Methods

Subjects and surgery: All animal procedures were in accordance with the National Institutes of

Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and approved by the University of

Pittsburgh's Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) (Protocol ID, 19024431).

Rhesus Monkeys were single- or pair-housed with a 12h-12h light-dark cycle. Monkey F was a

12-year-old female (8.1 kg). Monkey P was a 5-year-old female (5.4kg). Monkey B was a 13-

year-old male (11.78 kg). Monkey K was a 4-year-old male (6.0 kg). For MRI, we anesthetized

monkey F and P with ketamine and maintained general anesthesia with isoflurane. We head

fixed the monkeys using a MRI-compatible stereotaxic frame and scanned (Siemens, 3T) for

anatomical MRI. We generated a whole brain model for each monkey using Brainsight (Rogue

Research) and 3-D printed a custom matrix for the brain with cutting guide set every 1 mm.

To maximize nuclei viability, we followed a harvesting protocol similar to the one outlined

in Davenport et al. (2014). Briefly, animals were initially sedated with ketamine (15 mg/kg IM),

and then ventilated and further anesthetized with isoflurane. The animals were transported to a

surgery suite and placed in a stereotaxic frame (Kopf Instruments). We removed the calvarium

and then perfused the circulatory systems with 3-4 liters of ice cold artificial cerebrospinal fluid

(ACSF; 124 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 2 mM $MgSO_4$, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, 23 mM $NaHCO_3$, 3 mM

NaH_2PO_4, 10 mM glucose; pH 7.4, osmolarity 290–300 mOsm) oxygenated with 95 % O_2:5 %

CO_2. We then opened the dura and removed the brain. We sliced on the custom brain matrix

into 4 mm slabs. We removed three striatal regions – the caudate, putamen, and ventral

striatum –under a dissection microscope for nuclei isolation. Monkeys B and K, for FISH, were

perfused with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA, Sigma-Aldrich P6148) in phosphate buffered saline

(PBS, Fisher scientific BP243820) supplemented with 10% sucrose (Sigma-Aldrich S8501). The

brain was post-fixed with 4% PFA and cryopreserved with a gradient of sucrose (10%, 20%,

30%) in PBS.

Nuclei isolation: We isolated nuclei isolated as previously described (Habib et al., 2017).

Briefly, we homogenized tissues using a loose glass dounce homogenizer followed by a tight

glass homogenizer in EZ PREP buffer (Millipore Sigma, NUC-101). We washed nuclei once with

EZ PREP buffer and once with Nuclei Suspension Buffer (NSB; consisting of 1× PBS, 0.01%

BSA and 0.1% RNase inhibitor (Clontech, Cat #2313A)). We re-suspended the washed nuclei in

NSB and filtered them through a 35-µm cell strainer (Corning, Cat # 352235). We counted the

nuclei and diluted down to 1000 cells/µl. We loaded approximately 10,000 cells from each brain

region onto a 10X chip and run through a 10x Genomics Chromium controller.

Single nucleus RNA-Seq: We used 10x Chromium Single Cell 3' Reagent kits v3 Chemistry for

monkeys F and P. We reverse transcribed RNAs and generated libraries according to 10x

Genomics protocol. Briefly, we generated Gel beads-in-emulsion (GEMs) after running through

a 10x Genomics Chromium controller. We reverse transcribed mRNAs within GEMs in a Bio-

Rad PCR machine (C1000). We barcoded cDNAs from individual cells with 10x Genomics

Barcodes and barcoded different transcripts with unique molecular identifiers (UMIs). We

purified cDNAs with Dynabeads (10x Genomics, 2000048) after breaking the emulsion with a

recovery agent (10x Genomics, 220016). Then, we amplified cDNAs by PCR and purified them

with SPRIselect reagent (Beckman Coulter, B23318). We analyzed the cDNA quantification and

quality using Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100. We prepared libraries following fragmentation, end

repair, A-tailing, adaptor ligation, and sample index PCR. We quantified the libraries by qPCR

using KAPA Library Quantification Kit (KAPA Biosystems, KK4824). We pooled together

libraries from individual monkeys and loaded them onto NovaSeq S4 Flow Cell Chip. We

sequenced samples from monkeys F and P to depths of 400,000 and 250,000 reads per nuclei,

respectively.

Custom annotation file: We downloaded the macaque rheMac10 genome

(https://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/rheMac10/bigZips/rheMac10.fa.gz) and human

NCBI RefSeq transcriptome annotation gtf file from the UCSC genome browser

(https://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg38/bigZips/genes/hg38.ncbiRefSeq.gtf.gz). We

used the UCSC liftOver tool with the hg38toRheMac10 chain file

(https://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg38/liftOver/hg38ToRheMac10.over.chain.gz) to

liftOver the human transcriptome gtf file onto the rheMac10 genome, with a minimal match

threshold of 0.85. We then used this new gtf in the alignment of the 10x reads to the macaque

genome.

Data Analysis: We performed exploratory analysis of striatum samples in monkey F. We

converted raw illumina signal bcl to fastq files using the Cell Ranger suite, then aligned to the

rheMac10 genome using the STAR aligner with the -solo option for single cell demultiplexing

and using the custom rheMac10 gtf as above. We removed empty droplets with the dropletUtils

defaultDrops function (Griffiths et al., 2018), and removed doublets using the *SCDS* hybrid

doublet caller with a threshold of 1.0 (Bais and Kostka, 2020). We performed pre-clustering

using Scanpy's Leiden clustering function with low quality cells removed based on gene count

with cluster-specific parameters (Wolf et al., 2018). We normalized single cell gene expression

values using the *scran* size factor normalization method, with our pre-clustering as input to the

function (Lun et al., 2016). After expression count normalization, we used Scanpy's highly

variable genes function to select the top 7500 highly variable genes in the dataset. We

performed an iterative principal component analysis (PCA) using the highly variable genes from

nearest neighbor graphs with Scanpy's *neighbors* function. We used Leiden clustering of the

resulting neighbor graphs to distinguish major cell types, i.e. medium spiny neurons. We re-run

Leiden clustering for medium spiny neurons specifically, resulting in several robust D1 neuronal

types.

To further validate the reproducibility of monkey F' cell types in monkey P, we used

Seurat v3 pipeline to perform an integrated analysis of monkeys F and P. First, we removed

ambient RNA in monkey P using SoupX (Young and Behjati, 2020). Neuronal cells express

higher numbers of genes compared to non-neuronal cells (Hodge et al., 2019; Tasic et al.,

2018; Zeisel et al., 2018) and therefore we used two different thresholds to remove low quality

neuronal and non-neuronal nuclei. We chose these thresholds as the minimal level that

produced clear cluster separation (Fig. 1e). We then deleted ribosomal genes for both monkeys,

and removed doublets using DoubletDetection (McGinnis et al., 2019). We performed standard

log-normalization and a variance stabilizing transformation prior to finding anchors, and

identified variable features individually for each monkeys' data set using Seurat's

FindVariableFeatures function. Next, we identified anchors using the

FindIntegrationAnchors function with default parameters and passed these anchors to

the IntegrateData function. This returned a Seurat object with an integrated expression matrix

for all nuclei. We scaled the integrated data, ran PCA, and visualized the results with UMAP.

We clustered the cells based on Louvain clustering and chose resolution that reflected the major

cell classes of striatum including D1- and D2- MSNs, interneurons and astrocytes. We

annotated the clusters based on feature plots of well-known marker genes and verified the

identities of cell clusters by hypergeometric test based on their differentially expressed genes. In

order to analyze MSNs in detail, we extracted MSN nuclei. We randomly sampled MSN nuclei

from monkey P in order to balance the sample size for each monkey. We the re-calculated

principle components (PCs) and performed UMAP dimensionality reduction on the first 15 PCs.

We used Louvain clustering to cluster the MSNs. We chose a resolution that reflected the main

functional divisions in the striatum, including direct and indirect pathways, striosome and matrix

compartments, and core and shell territories.

FISH: We designed FISH probes to validate direct- and indirect- pathways and NAc-enriched

MSN cell types, as follows: *DRD1* (#549041, NM_001206975.1), *DRD2* (#549031-C2,

XM_001085571.3), *RXFP1* (#801121-C2, XM_001096574.4), *CPNE4* (#801111-C3,

XM_028843706.1), *KCNT1* (#881571-C3, XM_015116381.2), *KHDRBS3* (#881591-C3,

XM_028852934.1), *STXBP6* (#881611-C2, NM_001260925.1), *SEMA3E* (#879971-C2,

XM_028846126.1), *GREB1L* (#898991-C3, XM_015121640.2), *ARHGAP6* (#898981-C3,

XM_001094565.3).

We embedded brains in optimal cutting temperature (OCT) and stored them at -80°C

until cutting. We cut floating sections at 15 and 30 μm, in monkey B and K, respectively,

mounted tissue on 2x3" pre-treated slides, and preserved the slides in a freezer at -80°C. We

used the Advanced Cell Diagnostics (ACD) RNAscope platform and Multiplex Fluorescent

Detection Reagents v2 to perform FISH with slight modifications for monkey brain. Briefly, we

air dried slides for 30 min after removal from -80°C freezer and baked them at 60°C for 20 min.

We treated the brain sections with hydrogen peroxide (ACD, 322335) for 10 min at room

temperature and then with RNAscope Target Retrieval Reagents (ACD, 322000) for 8 min at

99°C. We incubated the slides in 100% alcohol for 3 min and then dried them in 60°C for 10

min. We then treated the samples with protease III (ACD, 322337) for 30 min at 40°C and

incubated them with probes for 2 hr. After hybridization with AMP 1, 2 and 3, we included the

slides with different HRP channels and fluorophores, including Opal 520 (PerkinElmer,

FP1487A), Opal 570 (PerkinElmer, FP1488A) and Opal 650 (PerkinElmer, FP1496A). We used

Trublack (Biotium, 23007) to quench Lipofuscin autofluorescence for 45 s at room temperature.

We counterstained every slide with DAPI and mounted with Prolong Gold Antifade Mountant

(Life technologies, P36930).

We scanned labeled sections using a Hamamatsu NanoZoomer S360 or a Nikon Eclipse

T*i*2 under 20x objective. For high resolution images, we used a Nikon Eclipse T*i*2 or an

Olympus IX83 under 40x or 63x objective. We took multi-layer images and used maximum

intensity projections to create single images. We used NDP software to convert original file

scanned by NanoZoomer to tiff format and ImageJ and Adobe Photoshop to adjust brightness

and overlay images.

To quantify cells expressing *DRD1* and *DRD2* in the caudate and putamen (Fig. S4a),

we chose ten representative areas from each striatal region. Through visual inspection, we

identified cells containing three or more puncta as positive for that gene. We quantified the total

number of *DRD1*-positive and *DRD2*-positive cells for each striatal region of interest (ROI), in

each section and counted positive cells on three rostro-caudal sections. We calculated cell

density as the number of positive cells divided by total number of nuclei in the area.

D1 islands mapping: In order to map the distribution of D1-RXFP1 and D1- CPNE4 islands, we

triple labeled five sections spaced at 750 mm intervals with probes against *DRD1*, *RXFP1*, and

CPNE4. We scanned the whole sections and ran a custom CellProfiler pipeline (Carpenter et

al., 2006) to determine the spatial distribution of nuclei and signal intensity of individual channel

for each nucleus. We marked regions as D1-RXFP1 (D1-CPNE4) that had a majority of cells

double-labeled with *DRD1* and *RXFP1* (*CPNE4*). To confirm that these islands were D1

exclusive, we double-labeled sections with *DRD1* and *DRD2* adjacent to the above five

sections. We confirmed that these islands are exclusively the D1 clusters from the similar

CellProfiler analysis.

486
487
488   **Supplementary Figure Legends**

489   **Fig. S1 Read mapping.** Comparison of gene mapping rate using four different gtf in our

490   alignment of reads to macaque genome. We used UCSC liftOver tool to liftOver the human

491   transcriptome gtf file onto the rheMac8 or rheMac10 genome to get liftOver version

492   rheMac8_liftOver and rheMac10_liftOver, respectively.

Fig. S2. Marker Genes. (a-e) Feature plots of marker gene expression for major cell classes in striatal nuclei.

Fig. S3. MSN comparisons. **(a)** Feature plot showing the expression of *RBFOX3*, which labels all neurons. **(b-h)** Feature plots of gene expression for well-known MSN markers, *PPP1R1B* and *BCL11B*, *PDE1B* and new MSN-specific markers, *KIAA1211L*, *PDE2A*, *SLIT3*, *NGEF*. **(i)** Standard deviation in different principal components (PCs). The first 15 PCs account for majority of the variation. **(j)** Side by side monkey comparison for MSNs in UMAP coordinates. (**k**) UMAP visualization of MSNs colored by three regions.

Fig. S4. Dorsal striatum. **(a)** Schematic diagrams of the three sections used for *DRD1* and *DRD2* quantification. The square boxes indicated the quantified ROIs. **(b)** Violin plots of striosome (yellow) and matrix (blue) marker gene expression in MSNs. **(c)** FISH labeling of *KHDRBS3* (yellow) and *SEMA3E* (blue). Scale bars are indicated on the images.

Fig. S5. Ventral Striatum. (a) Feature plots for NAc shell markers. **(b)** DARPP32 immunohistochemistry identifies the borders of the striatum. **(c)** Calbindin immunohistochemistry reveals the border between the core and shell, highlighted by yellow arrows. **(d)** Double FISH labelling with *DRD1* and *GREB1L*. (left) *GREB1L* intensity follows the border of the shell, indicated by the yellow arrows. (right) *DRD1* (green) and *GREB1L* (magenta) merged.

Fig. S6. Interface islands. (a) Identification of *RXFP1* islands in putamen. Left image shows a schematic of *RXFP1* islands in the putamen and right image shows FISH stain of *DRD1* (green), *RXFP1* (red) and *CPNE4* (blue). Nuclei labeled by DAPI (grey). **(b)** Triple label FISH of *DRD1* (green), *RXFP1* (red) and *DRD2* (blue) shows that *RXFP1* islands do not express *DRD2*. Nuclei

520   labeled by DAPI (grey). **(c)** Identification of *RXFP1* and *CPNE4* islands in a second monkey

521   (monkey K). FISH stain of *DRD1* (green), *RXFP1* (red) and *CPNE4* (blue). Nuclei labeled by

522   DAPI (grey). These images show representative *CPNE4* and *RXFP1* clusters in NAc. Scale

523   bars are indicated on the images.

References

Albin, R.L., Young, A.B., and Penney, J.B. (1989). The functional anatomy of basal ganglia disorders. Trends Neurosci *12*, 366-375.

Arlotta, P., Molyneaux, B.J., Jabaudon, D., Yoshida, Y., and Macklis, J.D. (2008). Ctip2 controls the differentiation of medium spiny neurons and the establishment of the cellular architecture of the striatum. J Neurosci *28*, 622-632.

Aubert, I., Ghorayeb, I., Normand, E., and Bloch, B. (2000). Phenotypical characterization of the neurons expressing the D1 and D2 dopamine receptors in the monkey striatum. J Comp Neurol *418*, 22-32.

Bais, A.S., and Kostka, D. (2020). scds: computational annotation of doublets in single-cell RNA sequencing data. Bioinformatics *36*, 1150-1158.

Bakken, T.E., Jorstad, N.L., Hu, Q., Lake, B.B., Tian, W., Kalmbach, B.E., Crow, M., Hodge, R.D., Krienen, F.M., Sorensen, S.A.*, et al.* (2020). Evolution of cellular diversity in primary motor cortex of human, marmoset monkey, and mouse. bioRxiv, 2020.2003.2031.016972.

Bakker, R., Tiesinga, P., and Kötter, R. (2015). The Scalable Brain Atlas: Instant Web-Based Access to Public Brain Atlases and Related Content. Neuroinformatics *13*, 353-366.

Barraclough, D.J., Conroy, M.L., and Lee, D. (2004). Prefrontal cortex and decision making in a mixed-strategy game. Nat Neurosci *7*, 404-410.

Calabrese, E., Badea, A., Coe, C.L., Lubach, G.R., Shi, Y., Styner, M.A., and Johnson, G.A. (2015). A diffusion tensor MRI atlas of the postmortem rhesus macaque brain. NeuroImage *117*, 408-416.

Carpenter, A.E., Jones, T.R., Lamprecht, M.R., Clarke, C., Kang, I.H., Friman, O., Guertin, D.A., Chang, J.H., Lindquist, R.A., Moffat, J.*, et al.* (2006). CellProfiler: image analysis software for identifying and quantifying cell phenotypes. Genome Biol *7*, R100.

Crittenden, J., and Graybiel, A. (2011). Basal Ganglia Disorders Associated with Imbalances in the Striatal Striosome and Matrix Compartments. Frontiers in Neuroanatomy *5*, 59.

Daunais, J.B., Letchworth, S.R., Sim-Selley, L.J., Smith, H.R., Childers, S.R., and Porrino, L.J. (2001). Functional and anatomical localization of mu opioid receptors in the striatum, amygdala, and extended amygdala of the nonhuman primate. J Comp Neurol *433*, 471-485.

Davenport, A.T., Grant, K.A., Szeliga, K.T., Friedman, D.P., and Daunais, J.B. (2014). Standardized method for the harvest of nonhuman primate tissue optimized for multiple modes of analyses. Cell Tissue Bank *15*, 99-110.

DeLong, M.R., and Wichmann, T. (2015). Basal Ganglia Circuits as Targets for Neuromodulation in Parkinson Disease. JAMA Neurol *72*, 1354-1360.

DiFiglia, M., Pasik, P., and Pasik, T. (1976). A Golgi study of neuronal types in the neostriatum of monkeys. Brain Research *114*, 245-256.

Evrard, H.C., Forro, T., and Logothetis, N.K. (2012). Von Economo neurons in the anterior insula of the macaque monkey. Neuron *74*, 482-489.

Floresco, S.B. (2015). The nucleus accumbens: an interface between cognition, emotion, and action. Annu Rev Psychol *66*, 25-52.

Genest, W., Stauffer, W.R., and Schultz, W. (2016). Utility functions predict variance and skewness risk preferences in monkeys. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *113*, 8402-8407.

Gerfen, C.R. (1984). The neostriatal mosaic: compartmentalization of corticostriatal input and striatonigral output systems. Nature *311*, 461-464.

Gimenez-Amaya, J.M., and Graybiel, A.M. (1991). Modular organization of projection neurons in the matrix compartment of the primate striatum. The Journal of Neuroscience *11*, 779.

Gokce, O., Stanley, Geoffrey M., Treutlein, B., Neff, Norma F., Camp, J.G., Malenka, Robert C., Rothwell, Patrick E., Fuccillo, Marc V., Südhof, Thomas C., and Quake, Stephen R. (2016). Cellular Taxonomy of the Mouse Striatum as Revealed by Single-Cell RNA-Seq. Cell Reports *16*, 1126-1137.

Graybiel, A.M., and Ragsdale, C.W., Jr. (1978). Histochemically distinct compartments in the striatum of human, monkeys, and cat demonstrated by acetylthiocholinesterase staining. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *75*, 5723-5726.

Griffiths, J.A., Richard, A.C., Bach, K., Lun, A.T.L., and Marioni, J.C. (2018). Detection and removal of barcode swapping in single-cell RNA-seq data. Nat Commun *9*, 2667.

Haber, S.N., and McFarland, N.R. (1999). The Concept of the Ventral Striatum in Nonhuman Primates. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences *877*, 33-48.

Habib, N., Avraham-Davidi, I., Basu, A., Burks, T., Shekhar, K., Hofree, M., Choudhury, S.R., Aguet, F., Gelfand, E., Ardlie, K.*, et al.* (2017). Massively parallel single-nucleus RNA-seq with DroNc-seq. Nature Methods *14*, 955.

Haroush, K., and Williams, Ziv M. (2015). Neuronal Prediction of Opponents Behavior during Cooperative Social Interchange in Primates. Cell *160*, 1233-1245.

Heimer, L., and Wilson, R. (1975). The subcortical projections of allocortex: similarities in the neuronal associations of the hippocampus, the piriform cortex and the neocortex. Paper presented at: Golgi centennial symposium proceedings (Raven).

Hodge, R.D., Bakken, T.E., Miller, J.A., Smith, K.A., Barkan, E.R., Graybuck, L.T., Close, J.L., Long, B., Johansen, N., Penn, O.*, et al.* (2019). Conserved cell types with divergent features in human versus mouse cortex. Nature *573*, 61-68.

Hong, S., Amemori, S., Chung, E., Gibson, D.J., Amemori, K.-i., and Graybiel, A.M. (2019). Predominant Striatal Input to the Lateral Habenula in Macaques Comes from Striosomes. Current Biology *29*, 51-61.e55.

Krienen, F.M., Goldman, M., Zhang, Q., C. H. del Rosario, R., Florio, M., Machold, R., Saunders, A., Levandowski, K., Zaniewski, H., Schuman, B.*, et al.* (2020). Innovations present in the primate interneuron repertoire. Nature *586*, 262-269.

Lak, A., Stauffer, W.R., and Schultz, W. (2014). Dopamine prediction error responses integrate subjective value from different reward dimensions. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *111*, 2343-2348.

Lee, H., Fenster, R.J., Pineda, S.S., Gibbs, W.S., Mohammadi, S., Davila-Velderrain, J., Garcia, F.J., Therrien, M., Novis, H.S., Gao, F.*, et al.* (2020). Cell Type-Specific Transcriptomics Reveals that Mutant Huntingtin Leads to Mitochondrial RNA Release and Neuronal Innate Immune Activation. Neuron *107*, 891-908.e898.

Lun, A.T., Bach, K., and Marioni, J.C. (2016). Pooling across cells to normalize single-cell RNA sequencing data with many zero counts. Genome Biol *17*, 75.

Martin, A., Calvigioni, D., Tzortzi, O., Fuzik, J., Warnberg, E., and Meletis, K. (2019). A Spatiomolecular Map of the Striatum. Cell Rep *29*, 4320-4333 e4325.

Märtin, A., Calvigioni, D., Tzortzi, O., Fuzik, J., Wärnberg, E., and Meletis, K. (2019). A Spatiomolecular Map of the Striatum. Cell Reports *29*, 4320-4333.e4325.

McGinnis, C.S., Murrow, L.M., and Gartner, Z.J. (2019). DoubletFinder: Doublet Detection in Single-Cell RNA Sequencing Data Using Artificial Nearest Neighbors. Cell Syst *8*, 329-337 e324.

Meredith, G.E., Pattiselanno, A., Groenewegen, H.J., and Haber, S.N. (1996). Shell and core in monkey and human nucleus accumbens identified with antibodies to calbindin-D28k. J Comp Neurol *365*, 628-639.

Mikula, S., Parrish, S.K., Trimmer, J.S., and Jones, E.G. (2009). Complete 3D visualization of
primate striosomes by KChIP1 immunostaining. Journal of Comparative Neurology *514*, 507-
517.
Muñoz-Manchado, A.B., Bengtsson Gonzales, C., Zeisel, A., Munguba, H., Bekkouche, B.,
Skene, N.G., Lönnerberg, P., Ryge, J., Harris, K.D., Linnarsson, S.*, et al.* (2018). Diversity of
Interneurons in the Dorsal Striatum Revealed by Single-Cell RNA Sequencing and PatchSeq.
Cell Reports *24*, 2179-2190.e2177.
Parent, A., and Hazrati, L.-N. (1995). Functional anatomy of the basal ganglia. I. The cortico-
basal ganglia-thalamo-cortical loop. Brain Research Reviews *20*, 91-127.
Saunders, A., Macosko, E.Z., Wysoker, A., Goldman, M., Krienen, F.M., de Rivera, H., Bien, E.,
Baum, M., Bortolin, L., Wang, S.*, et al.* (2018). Molecular Diversity and Specializations among
the Cells of the Adult Mouse Brain. Cell *174*, 1015-1030 e1016.
Savell, K.E., Tuscher, J.J., Zipperly, M.E., Duke, C.G., Phillips, R.A., Bauman, A.J., Thukral, S.,
Sultan, F.A., Goska, N.A., Ianov, L.*, et al.* (2020). A dopamine-induced gene expression
signature regulates neuronal function and cocaine response. Science Advances *6*, eaba4221.
Smith, J.B., Klug, J.R., Ross, D.L., Howard, C.D., Hollon, N.G., Ko, V.I., Hoffman, H.,
Callaway, E.M., Gerfen, C.R., and Jin, X. (2016). Genetic-Based Dissection Unveils the Inputs
and Outputs of Striatal Patch and Matrix Compartments. Neuron *91*, 1069-1084.
Stanley, G., Gokce, O., Malenka, R.C., Südhof, T.C., and Quake, S.R. (2019). Continuous and
Discrete Neuron Types of the Adult Murine Striatum. Neuron.
Stauffer, W.R., Lak, A., Bossaerts, P., and Schultz, W. (2015). Economic choices reveal
probability distortion in macaque monkeys. J Neurosci *35*, 3146-3154.
Stauffer, W.R., Lak, A., and Schultz, W. (2014). Dopamine reward prediction error responses
reflect marginal utility. Curr Biol *24*, 2491-2500.
Tang, F., Barbacioru, C., Wang, Y., Nordman, E., Lee, C., Xu, N., Wang, X., Bodeau, J., Tuch,
B.B., Siddiqui, A.*, et al.* (2009). mRNA-Seq whole-transcriptome analysis of a single cell.
Nature Methods *6*, 377-382.
Tasic, B., Yao, Z., Graybuck, L.T., Smith, K.A., Nguyen, T.N., Bertagnolli, D., Goldy, J.,
Garren, E., Economo, M.N., Viswanathan, S.*, et al.* (2018). Shared and distinct transcriptomic
cell types across neocortical areas. Nature *563*, 72-78.
Voorn, P., Brady, L.S., Berendse, H.W., and Richfield, E.K. (1996). Densitometrical analysis of
opioid receptor ligand binding in the human striatum--I. Distribution of mu opioid receptor
defines shell and core of the ventral striatum. Neuroscience *75*, 777-792.
Waelti, P., Dickinson, A., and Schultz, W. (2001). Dopamine responses comply with basic
assumptions of formal learning theory. Nature *412*, 43-48.
Wolf, F.A., Angerer, P., and Theis, F.J. (2018). SCANPY: large-scale single-cell gene
expression data analysis. Genome Biol *19*, 15.
Xie, Z., Adamowicz, W.O., Eldred, W.D., Jakowski, A.B., Kleiman, R.J., Morton, D.G.,
Stephenson, D.T., Strick, C.A., Williams, R.D., and Menniti, F.S. (2006). Cellular and
subcellular localization of PDE10A, a striatum-enriched phosphodiesterase. Neuroscience *139*,
597-607.
Young, M.D., and Behjati, S. (2020). SoupX removes ambient RNA contamination from droplet
based single-cell RNA sequencing data. bioRxiv, 303727.
Zeisel, A., Hochgerner, H., Lönnerberg, P., Johnsson, A., Memic, F., van der Zwan, J., Häring,
M., Braun, E., Borm, L.E., La Manno, G.*, et al.* (2018). Molecular Architecture of the Mouse
Nervous System. Cell *174*, 999-1014.e1022.

Zhang, Y., Chen, K., Sloan, S.A., Bennett, M.L., Scholze, A.R., O'Keeffe, S., Phatnani, H.P.,
Guarnieri, P., Caneda, C., Ruderisch, N.*, et al.* (2014). An RNA-sequencing transcriptome and
splicing database of glia, neurons, and vascular cells of the cerebral cortex. J Neurosci *34*,
11929-11947.
Zhu, Y., Li, M., Sousa, A.M.M., and Šestan, N. (2014). XSAnno: a framework for building
ortholog models in cross-species transcriptome comparisons. BMC Genomics *15*, 343.
Zhu, Y., Sousa, A.M.M., Gao, T., Skarica, M., Li, M., Santpere, G., Esteller-Cucala, P., Juan, D.,
Ferrández-Peral, L., Gulden, F.O.*, et al.* (2018). Spatiotemporal transcriptomic divergence across
human and macaque brain development. Science *362*, eaat8077.

Figure S1

Figure S2

a
CX3CR1
(Microglia)

b
ASPA
(Oligo.)

c
COL9A1
(Oligo. Pre.)

d
ITGA1
(Endothelia)

e
CEMIP
(Mural/fibroblast-like)

umap.2

umap.1

Figure S3

a   *RBFOX3*

b   *PPP1R1B*

c   *BCL11B*

d   *PDE1B*

e   *KIAA1211L*

f   *PDE2A*

g   *SLIT3*

h   *NGEF*

i

j   Monkey F   Monkey P

k

Figure S4

Figure S5

Figure S6

a

DAPI / DRD1 / RXFP1 / CPNE4

AC+2

LSS

250 µm

b

DAPI / DRD1 / RXFP1 / DRD2

30 µm

c

CPNE4 Cluster

RXFP1 Cluster

50 µm