Phospholipase D3 regulates lysosomal morphology, biogenesis, and function in neurons.
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Abstract

Phospholipase D3 (PLD3) is a lysosomal protein in neurons and is linked to an Alzheimer's disease

(AD) risk through coding variants. Its role in lysosomal abnormalities observed in AD remains

unclear. We conducted a comprehensive study integrating transcriptomic, proteomic, and cell

biology approaches to investigate PLD3's role in lysosome function in neurons.

PLD3 undergoes aberrant ubiquitination in AD brain tissue, leading to altered protein abundance

and subcellular location. We assessed the lysosomal proteome in SH-SY5Y cells with PLD3

knockout and found PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells had higher levels of proteins related to lysosomal biogenesis,

endocytosis, and calcium signaling. Loss of PLD3 caused an enlargement in neuronal lysosome

size, increased endocytic activity and a decline in lysosomal clearance of aggregated human β-

amyloid or α-synuclein, despite increased expression level and activity of cathepsin B. PLD3-

deficiency increase the level and transcriptional activity of transcription factor EB (TFEB) and

transcription factor binding to IGHM enhancer 3 (TFE3), suggesting a role for PLD3 in regulating

lysosomal biogenesis.

In summary, we found that PLD3 is required to maintain neuronal lysosomal function.

Keywords

Alzheimer's Disease; Phospholipase D3; Transcription factor EB; transcription factor binding to

IGHM enhancer 3; Cathepsin B; Ubiquitin; Ubiquitination; Lysosome biogenesis.

Background

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common cause of dementia. It is characterized by a broad

range of neuropathologies, including extracellular accumulation of β-amyloid (Aβ) in plaques and

cerebral vessels, intraneuronal tangles and neuropil threads composed of hyperphosphorylated tau,

dystrophic neurites, granulovacuolar degenerating bodies, and synaptic loss (1, 2).

Degradation of waste proteins in neurons is managed by the concerted action of the ubiquitin-

proteasome (UPS) (3) and the endosome-autophagosome-lysosome pathways (EAL) (4). If these

clearance pathways are dysregulated, proteins may accumulate and impair cellular homeostasis.

Aberrant ubiquitination and dysfunction in UPS have long been associated with AD (5, 6).

Many studies have implicated sub-optimal function of lysosomal machinery in the pathogenesis of

neurodegenerative proteinopathies (7, 8). Various factors, including alterations in lysosome size,

population or trafficking, pH regulation, EAL disruption, and lysosomal membrane

permeabilization, can cause lysosomes to malfunction (9, 10). Lysosomal deacidification, which

could contribute to inefficient function of the more than 60 lysosomal hydrolases, has been

hypothesized to play a role in the pathogenesis of several neurodegenerative diseases (11, 12).

Lysosomal biogenesis is regulated by Transcription factor EB (TFEB) and transcription factor

binding to IGHM enhancer 3 (TFE3) levels and activity, because TFEB and TFE3 govern the

expression of a network of genes linked to lysosomal biogenesis and autophagy (13-16). Alterations

in the TFEB/TFE3 pathway have been observed in AD *(for a review, see (15))*. It has been reported

that genetic disruption of TFEB results in defective microglia activation and increased tau pathology

(17).

Restoring lysosomal homeostasis would likely be beneficial for treating AD, so understanding the

role of lysosomal proteins like PLD3, which is linked to AD risk, is a key priority.

PLD3 is a member of the phospholipase D family and is primarily localized to lysosomes. It is

highly expressed in neurons (18, 19). A growing body of evidence has linked PLD3 to AD (20, 21).

PLD3 is remarkably enriched in dystrophic neurites surrounding ß-amyloid plaques in AD(21).

Axonal PLD3 accumulation was functionally implicated in the formation and growth of dystrophic

neurites, contributing to neural network defects in AD (22). Lysosomes in neurons of PLD3

knowknockout mice exhibited significant enlargement (23). Despite its localization in neuronal

lysosomes, its role(s) in lysosomal function remains a matter of ongoing study, with recent evidence

pointing to a role in lysosomal degradation of lipids and nucleic acids (24, 25).

Our study presents evidence supporting a causal link between PLD3 and lysosome abnormalities

occurring in AD, including morphological changes and impairment of degradative function that can

promote proteostasis disturbance. Additionally, we demonstrate that PLD3 regulates TFEB/TFE3

signaling, suggesting a role in lysosomal biogenesis.

Methods

Human brain tissue.

Brain tissue was obtained from the Vanderbilt Brain and Biospecimen Bank at Vanderbilt

University Medical Center, Nashville, Tennessee, USA (IRB# 180287). Written informed consent

for each anatomical donation was obtained from patients or their surrogate decision-makers. The

Vanderbilt University Medical Center Institutional Review Board provided ethical supervision, and

the study was performed in accordance with the ethical principles of the Declaration of Helsinki.

Antibodies and reagents

Primary antibodies used in this study include: rabbit anti-PLD3 (HPA012800, Sigma-Aldrich, St.

Louis, MO, 1:1000 for WB and 10 μg/mL for IHC), mouse anti-ubiquitin clone Ubi-1 (13-1600,

Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, 1:1000 for WB and 10 μg/mL for IHC), mouse anti-TFEB (91767, Cell

Signaling Technology, Boston, MA, 1:1000 for WB, 1:100 for IF), rabbit anti-TFE3 (81744, Cell

Signaling Technology, 1:1000 for WB), mouse anti-Lamin B1 (66095, Proteintech, Rosemont, IL,

1:1000 for WB), mouse anti-LC3B (83506, Cell Signaling Technology, 1:1000 for WB), mouse

anti-LAMP2 (H4B4, DSHB, Iowa, IA, 1:1000 for WB and 10 μg/mL for IHC), mouse anti-GAPDH

(ab59164, Abcam, Cambridge, UK, 1:5000 for WB), mouse anti-GAPDH (60004-1-Ig; Proteintech,

1:1000 for WB), mouse anti-GAPDH-HRP (60004; Proteintech, 1:1000 for WB), rabbit anti-β-

Tubulin (15115, Cell Signaling Technology, 1:5000 for WB), goat anti-CTSB (AF965, R&D

Systems, Minneapolis, MN, 1:1000 for WB and 10 μg/mL for IHC), goat anti-CTSD (AF1014,

R&D systems, 1:1000 for WB and 10 μg/mL for IHC), rabbit anti-IKKβ (8943, Cell Signaling

Technology, 1:1000 for WB), normal rabbit IgG (12-370, Cell Signaling Technology).

Secondary antibodies used in this study include: goat anti-mouse IgG (H+L), HRP (62-6520;

Invitrogen), goat anti-rabbit IgG (H+L), HRP (65-6120; Invitrogen), IRDye® 800 CW goat anti-

rabbit (926-32211; LI-COR, Lincoln, NE), IRDye® 680 RD goat anti-mouse (926-68070; LI-COR),

IRDye® 680 LT donkey anti-goat (926-68024; LI-COR), IRDye® 800 CW donkey anti-rabbit

(926-32213; LI-COR), and IRDye® 800 CW donkey anti-mouse (926-32213; LI-COR).

Reagents used in this study include: synthetic human β-amyloid$_{1-42}$ (AG968; Sigma-Aldrich), DQ

Green BSA (D12050, ThermoFisher Scientific), dextran Oregon Green 488 (D7172, ThermoFisher

Scientific), Protein G/A agarose supernatant (IP05, Millipore, Burlington, MA), dextran Alexa

Fluor 594 (D22913, ThermoFisher Scientific), dextran Alexa Fluor 647 (D22914, ThermoFisher

Scientific), Alexa Fluor 647 BSA (A34785, ThermoFisher Scientific), CellLight Lysosome-RFP

BacMam 2.0 (C10597, ThermoFisher Scientific), Torin 1 (14379, Cell Signaling Technology),

Hoechst 33342 (R37605, ThermoFisher Scientific, two drops/ml), neurobasal-A medium, minus

phenol red (12349015, ThermoFisher Scientific), 1 μM 4,4'-[(2-methoxy-1,4-phenylene) di-(1E)-

2,1-ethenediyl] bisphenol (MX-04) (Tocris, Minneapolis, MN), Thiazine Red (1 μM, Chemsavers

Inc, Bluefield, VA), 4 ', 6-diamidino-2-phenylindol (1 μM, DAPI, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor,

MI), TO-PRO™-3 (1 μM, ThermoFisher Scientific). Potent and specific CTSB inhibitor CA074 (1

μM, 4863, Tocris). The information for all other reagents is indicated in the corresponding sections.

Details of specific methods are provided in the supplementary material.

Brain tissue preparation, immunostaining, and proximity ligation assay.

Human brain tissue was prepared as previously described (26). Immunohistochemical labeling was

performed as described (21, 26-28). PLD3-ubiquitin complex detection in postmortem human brain

was performed using the Duolink® Proximity Ligation Assay (PLA) kit (Sigma-Aldrich), following

the protocol previously described (29, 30), including modifications optimized for a fluorescent

format in the human brain (26).

Human Aβ seeds extraction.

Human Aβ seeds were isolated as previously described (31) with minor modifications. Seeds were

isolated from the brain tissue of patients with severe cerebral amyloid angiopathy (CAA) with

minimal other neuropathology. Briefly, tissue was homogenized, and the lipid-rich fraction was

removed by centrifuging in 17% dextran (40,000 MW, Sigma-Aldrich) at 10,000 x g for 5 minutes.

The pellet was resuspended in TBS (Corning, Corning, NY), and the suspension was filtered

through a custom-designed 3D printed microsieve apparatus with 40 μM pore size to isolate

microvascular fragments. Aggregates of β-amyloid were freed from the vascular matrix by

incubating with 3 mg/ml Collagenase Type I (Gibco, Billings, MT) overnight at 37°C and gently

homogenizing with 12 passes of a Dounce homogenizer. The suspension was again passed through

the microsieve, and the liquid containing the particles was centrifuged and resuspended in TBS

(Corning). It was pelleted and resuspended twice more to remove any residual enzyme. The

particles were disrupted with sonication to produce a microparticulate suspension with a mean

particle diameter of around 10 microns (particle size distribution shown in Fig. S7). Before adding

to cells, particles were further disrupted with sonication to produce a microparticulate suspension

with a mean particle diameter of about 1 micron (Fig. S7).

PLD3 knockout cell line

SH-SY5Y cell line (CRL-2266, ATCC) was used to generate PLD3 knockout (SH-SY5Y PLD3$^{-/-}$),

performed by Abcam (Abcam, Waltham, MA). PLD3-g1: AGCCCACAACCGCCAGAATG and

PLD3-g2: TACTCGCAAGGGTCATAGCA were transfected into SH-SY5Y cells individually with

the Cas9 gene to generate the PLD3 knockout two PLD3 knockout clone 3 (PLD3$^{-/-}$) and clone 14

PLD3$^{-/-c14}$). A DNA deletion (~100 bp) in exon 5 of the PLD3 gene in both alleles was achieved,

making the frameshift knockout. PCR subsequently confirmed the resulting DNA deletion and was

further validated at the protein level by western blotting. Unless otherwise specified, all experiments

were performed with clone 3 (PLD3$^{-/-}$).

Cell culture, cDNA transfection, siRNA, differentiation to neurons, and drug incubation.

SH-SY5Y wild type (WT, CRL 2266, ATCC) and SH-SY5Y PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells were grown in

DMEM/F12 (Gibco) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS, Corning) and 100

µg/mL Normocin (InvivoGen) or 1% penicillin/streptomycin (0503, ScienceCell, Carlsbad, CA) at

37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO_2.

PLD3 plasmids were from Sino Biological (Beijing, China), and the PLD3 mutant plasmids were

previously generated using a site-directed mutagenesis kit (21). GFP-N-TFEB (38119, Addgene)

and its corresponding control (60360, Addgene) plasmids were from Addgene. PLD3 siRNAs and

their corresponding control siRNAs were purchased from IDT. For plasmid transfection, plasmid

DNA was transfected into cells with Lipofectamine 3000 reagent following the manufacturer's

protocol (L3000015, Invitrogen). For siRNA transfection, cells were transfected with 10 µM siRNA

by Oligofectamine^{TM} reagent per the manufacturer's recommendations (12252-011, Invitrogen).

SH-SY5Y differentiation into neurons was performed as previously described (32).

Cells were incubated with and without synthetic β-amyloid$_{1-42}$ (1 µg/mL) for 1, 3, 5, or 7 days

before treatment with DMSO, dextran (0.25 mg/mL), HBSS, or Torin 1 (1 µM) for 3 hours at 37°C,

followed by washing with PBS for 10 minutes. The cells were then fixed following

immunocytochemistry as described above. Subcellular fluorescence was detected, imaged, and

analyzed using the CellInsight CX7 LED Pro HCS Platform.

Human induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC) maintenance and differentiation to neurons.

CC3 iPSCs (33) were maintained and differentiated into cortical glutamatergic neurons as

previously described (34) with minor modifications (35). iPSC neurons in culture were incubated

with and without human β-amyloid seeds (100 ng/mL) for 2, 3, 5, or 7 days before performing

protein extraction, SDS-PAGE, and western blot as described below, or immunocytochemistry as

described above.

Cathepsin B activity measurement.

Cells were plated at a concentration of 5×10^6 cells/75 cm^2 flasks and cultured overnight before

assay. Cells were collected, and the CTSB enzymatic activity was measured according to the

guidelines of SensoLyte® 520 Cathepsin B Assay Kit Fluorometric (AS-72164; AnaSpec, Fremont,

CA). Results were normalized to the total protein concentration determined by Pierce™ BCA

Protein Assay Kit (23225; ThermoFisher Scientific) and enzymatic activity in the presence of the

potent and selective inhibitor of CTSB, CA074 (1 μM).

Protein extraction, SDS-PAGE, and western blot.

Cell protein homogenates, and grey matter, and white matter tissue lysates were prepared as

described previously (21). SDS-PAGE and western blot were performed as described previously

(21).

Lysosome labeling with dextran.

Cells were seeded at a concentration of 40×10^3 cells per well in Nunc microwell 96-well optical-

bottom plates and allowed to attach overnight. The cells were then incubated with dextran Oregon

Green (0.25 mg/mL) and dextran AlexaFluor 594 (0.25 mg/mL) overnight at 37°C, followed by a

chasing period of 6 hours to minimize endosome labeling. The staining medium was removed, and

the cells were incubated with Neurobasal medium containing Hoechst for 2 hours at 37°C. The

subcellular fluorescence patterns were quantified using CellInsight CX7 and the LED Pro HCS

Platform.

Co-localization analysis of dextran and LAMP1-RFP.

Cells were seeded at 40×10^3 cells per well in Nunc microwell 96-well optical-bottom plates and

allowed to attach overnight. A construct expressing LAMP1-fused RFP was delivered into cells

using BacMam 2.0 technology to target lysosomes. On the second day, the medium was removed,

and the cells were incubated with dextran AlexaFluor 647 (0.25 mg/mL) overnight in the incubator,

followed by a chasing period of 6 hours. The staining medium was removed, and the cells were

stained with Hoechst in neurobasal-A medium with clear color for 2 hours at 37°C. The subcellular

fluorescence patterns were quantified using CellInsight CX7 and the LED Pro HCS Platform.

Lysosomal function assay.

Cells were seeded at 40×10^3 cells per well in Nunc microwell 96-well optical-bottom plates and

allowed to attach overnight. The cells were then treated with DMSO, Torin-1 (1 μM), or

Bafilomycin A (100 nM) for 3 hours, followed by incubation with DQ Green BSA (10 μg/mL) and

Alexa Fluor 647 BSA (10 μg/mL) for 3 hours. The assay medium was removed, and the cells were

incubated with Hoechst in neurobasal-A medium for nuclear staining for 2 hours at 37°C.

Subcellular fluorescence was subsequently analyzed using the CellInsight CX7 LED Pro HCS

Platform.

Spot detection and quantification by CellInsight CX7 LED Pro HCS platform.

Subcellular fluorescence was detected and imaged in acquisition mode on the CX7 HCS platform.

Images *(n=30-50)* per well were automatically captured using laser autofocus, and the in-focus

pictures were selected for subsequent analysis. For quantification analysis, images were first

preprocessed with background removal, smoothing, and segmentation, followed by spot (fluorescent

signals) identification and validation. The spots were compartmentalized into the cell body part

(circle) and the distal part (ring). All images were re-scanned in disk mode, and the information

about spot area and intensity (total and average) on all channels was reported and statistically

analyzed. Three to six independent experiments *(n=3-6)* were performed for final statistical

analysis.

Transmission electron microscopy.

Cells were fixed in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer containing 2.5% glutaraldehyde, harvested using a cell

scraper, and pelleted. Samples were then sequentially postfixed in 1% tannic acid and 1% OsO_4,

followed by en block staining in 2% uranyl acetate. After post-fixation, the samples were

dehydrated in a graded ethanol series and infiltrated with Quetol 651-based Spurr's resin using

propylene oxide as a transition solvent. The resin was polymerized at 60 °C for 48 hours, and 70 nm

sections were cut on a Leica UC7 ultramicrotome.

Imaging was performed on a JEOL 2100+ transmission electron microscope operating at 200 keV,

with images captured using an AMT nanosprint CMOS camera. Single images were acquired with

AMT imaging software, while tiled image sets were acquired using SerialEM automation software.

Tiled datasets were processed using the IMOD/etomo software suite and FIJI. Lysosome

characteristics were analyzed and quantified using FIJI.

Lysosomal protein preparation.

Lysosomes were isolated and purified as described previously (21).

Isolation of cytoplasmic and nuclear proteins.

Cytoplasmic *(c)* and nuclear *(n)* proteins were isolated from cells of interest following the

instructions in the manufacturer's user guide (78833, ThermoFisher Scientific).

Mass spectrometry and bioinformatic analysis.

Protein samples were prepared with 5% SDS, processed using S-Trap (ProtiFi) digestion, and

analyzed by LC-MS/MS, following a protocol described previously (36). The LC-MS/MS data were

analyzed using MaxQuant against a human database created from the UniprotKB protein database,

with MaxQuant contaminants added (37). Standard MaxQuant parameters were applied, along with

LFQ and match-between-runs. Variable modifications included methionine oxidation and N-

terminal acetylation, while carbamidomethyl cysteine was a fixed modification. A false discovery

rate (FDR) 0.01 was applied to peptide and protein identifications. Label-free quantitative (LFQ)

analysis of the identified proteins was performed using the MSstats R package with default

parameters (38).

RNA extraction, sequencing, and bioinformatic analysis.

Total RNA was isolated from cells of interest using RNeasy Mini Plus Kits (74134, Qiagen)

following the manufacturer's protocol, with each group having three replicates. RNA quality control

was performed using the Agilent Bioanalyzer, and RNA quantity was determined using the RNA

Qubit assay (Q10210, ThermoFisher Scientific).

Library preparation and RNA sequencing.

Library preparation was started with ribosomal RNA removal using the NEBNext® rRNA

Depletion kit and 500 ng of input total RNA (E6310L, New England Biolabs). Following rRNA

depletion, the RNA samples were subjected to mRNA enrichment using oligo(dT) beads, and

subsequent fragmentation was done using divalent cations at an elevated temperature. Libraries

were generated by cDNA synthesis with random hexamer primers, RNase H digestion, A-tailing,

and adapter ligation. The cDNA libraries were assessed for quality with a Bioanalyzer and

quantified using the KAPA Library Quantification Kit according to the manufacturer's

recommendations (KK4824, Roche). The libraries were mixed in equal molar ratios, and the

resulting library pools underwent cluster generation using the NovaSeq 6000 System according to

the manufacturer's protocol. A 150 bp paired-end sequencing was performed on the NovaSeq 6000

platform, which was set to target 30M reads per sample. Real-Time Analysis Software (RTA) and

NovaSeq Control Software (NCS) (1.8.0; Illumina) were used for base calling. MultiQC (v1.7;

Illumina) was used for data quality assessments.

Bioinformatic analysis.

The raw sequencing data (FASTQ files) were subjected to quality and adapter trimming and quality

control using the wrapper program, Trim Galore. The GRCh38 human transcriptome from

GENCODE was used to build the transcriptome index with the Kallisto program (39). After being

processed by Trim Galore, the sequences were mapped and quantified into transcript-level

abundance using the Kallisto program (39). Transcript-level abundance was then summarized into

gene-level abundance, followed by differential gene expression analysis using DESeq2 in R (40).

Heatmap representation of gene-level abundance, principal component analysis (PCA), and volcano

plot representation of differentially expressed (DE) genes were all performed and graphed with R.

Normalized RNA-Seq quantification was then submitted to the GSEA website for gene set

enrichment analysis (GSEA) with c2.cp.kegg.legacy.v2023.2.Hs.symbols.gmt as the gene set

database (41).

Statistical analyses

The number of samples (n) in each group/experimental condition is indicated in the figure legends.

All data were graphed and statistically analyzed using GraphPad software (version 10.0.2,

GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA) or R packages unless stated otherwise. For gene set

enrichment analysis, statistical tests were based on the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (41). For RNA-

Seq differential gene expression analysis, the data were subject to negative binomial generalized

linear model fitting and Wald statistics (40). The parametric unpaired t-test or the Welch's unequal

variances t-test was used to compare two groups. Ordinary one-way ANOVA was used to compare

more than two independent groups, followed by Tukey's, Dunnett multiple comparisons, or

Uncorrected Fisher's LSD. Non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed, followed by

Dunn's multiple comparisons test. Two-way ANOVA tests were performed to assess the individual

and interaction effects of two variables, followed by the Dunnett test. Statistical tests were specified

and noted in the respective figure legends. Unless stated otherwise, a significant level of 0.05 was

used to reject the null hypothesis throughout this article.

Results

PLD3 is a target of aberrant ubiquitination in human brain with AD resulting in its altered

subcellular location.

Immunohistochemistry with a validated antibody (Fig. S1) in brain sections without AD (Braak

I-II) showed high immunoreactivity for PLD3 in a punctate pattern in all regions analyzed (Fig.

1A and Fig. S2), consistent with the expected lysosomal subcellular distribution. In sections from

patients with AD (Braak III-VI), PLD3 was less abundant in healthy-appearing neurons and was

enriched in dystrophic neurites surrounding β-amyloid plaques and in neuropil threads and

neurofibrillary tangles (Fig. 1B and Fig. S2).

PLD3 was observed mainly in grey matter and was sparse in white matter (Fig. S3A). In non-AD

grey matter, the PLD3 signal colocalized primarily with a neuronal marker (Fig. S3B-C) and

occasionally with a microglia marker (Fig. S3D), but not with a marker for astrocytes (Fig. S3E).

PLD3 was present in white matter, with more frequent co-localization with a microglia marker,

but PLD3 level in AD white matter was not significantly different compared to non-AD white

matter (Fig. S3F-G).

We evaluated the PLD3 levels by western blot in grey matter (Fig. 1C and Fig. S4A) and white

matter (Fig. 1D and Fig. S4B) in homogenates of human temporal lobe tissue. We observed

additional bands to the previously reported primary 50 and 70 kDa bands (42). These additional

bands could be products of posttranslational modifications and were included in the total PLD3

quantification as they appeared to be specific in our verification experiments (Fig. S1). In grey

matter, there was approximately a 38% reduction in total PLD3 levels in AD (Fig. 1C and Fig.

S4A). No significant differences in total, lumenal, and membrane-associated PLD3 levels were

found in white matter (Fig. 1D and Fig. S4B).

An initial report that PLD3 may regulate β-amyloid and/or APP levels was not reproducible in

our work (21) and the work of others (23). Still, it remains unclear whether PLD3 levels are

affected by β-amyloid. We evaluated the effect of a 7-day exposure of synthetic $A\beta_{1\text{-}42}$ (1 µg/mL)

on PLD3 levels in a human neuroblastoma cell line (SH-SY5Y cells, Fig. 1E and Fig. S5A). We

detected a significant decrease in PLD3 on the third day but not in the following days (Fig. 1E).

A substantial reduction in PLD3 level was found in analogous experiments using iPSC-derived

neurons *(a cell line from a neurologically normal, young female donor)* incubated with brain-

derived β-amyloid seeds from patients with cerebral amyloid angiopathy (CAA) (100 ng/mL)

(Fig S5B-D). This decrease persisted after the third day (Fig. 1F and Fig. S5E). The average

lysosomal size was increased after exposure to brain-derived β-amyloid seeds Fig. S6.

The decreased level of PLD3 in the brain is partly due to reduced transcription (43). Still,

ubiquitination could contribute to accelerated degradation and/or altered localization within the

brain, as was suggested in previous cell-culture based experiments (42). For this reason, we

sought to visualize ubiquitinated PLD3 in human brain tissue. Ubiquitin immunochemistry

revealed the marked accumulation of ubiquitin which is expected in AD brains (Fig. S7A-B). *In-*

situ PLA confirmed proximity between PLD3 and ubiquitin, consistent with ubiquitin

modification of PLD3 (Fig. 1G and Fig. S8C). In non-AD brain sections, PLA puncta

corresponding to PLD3-ubiquitin complexes were sparse (Fig. 1G, *right panel*), while

significantly greater levels of PLA puncta were observed in AD brain sections (Fig. 1G, *left*

panel). PLD3-ubiquitin complexes were partially localized to tau pathology (Fig. 1G, *left panel*,

and Fig. S8C). There was a 4.8-fold increase in the number of PLA puncta/field in AD compared

to non-AD (Fig. 1G). We found scarce PLA puncta in technical and biological controls for *in-*

situ PLA (Fig. S8D).

We combined *in-situ* PLA with IHC to visualize the subcellular location of PLD3-ubiquitin

complexes. In both non-AD and AD brain sections, PLD3-ubiquitin complexes were negatively

correlated with lysosome staining as shown by CTSD immunostaining ($p = 0.3149$ by unpaired

t-test with Welch's correction, Fig. 1H), suggesting the lysosomal localization of PLD3 is lost

when it is ubiquitinated.

Loss of PLD3 alters lysosome morphology and function and remodels the lysosomal

proteome.

We obtained and validated PLD3 knockout cell lines, clone 3 (PLD3$^{-/-}$) and clone 14 (PLD3$^{-/-c14}$),

in the SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cell line, as shown in Fig. S1.

Lysosomal attributes in these cells, including size, density, and confluency, were characterized

by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Fig. 2A). The size of individual lysosomes in

PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells was enlarged by 48% compared to WT cells (Fig. 2A). Lysosomal density and

confluency, expressed by the number of lysosomes per unit area and the percentage of occupied

area, respectively, were also increased in the PLD3$^{-/-}$ lines (Fig. 2A).

Relative lysosomal pH was evaluated using the ratio of two fluorophores, Oregon Green (pH-

sensitive) and Alexa^{594} (pH-insensitive), which were trafficked to lysosomes by conjugation to

dextran (Fig. 2B and Fig. S8). Dextran localization to lysosomes was confirmed by

colocalization and correlation analysis between the dextran signal and LAMP1-RFP (Fig. 2B and

Fig. S8A). We did not observe a significant change in the pH of lysosomes in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells (Fig.

2B and Fig. S8A). Lysosome size increased by 61% (in line with the TEM result), and

confluency also increased in this fluorescence assay (Fig. S8A). Based on lysosomal labelling

with dextran, lysosome density was unchanged (Fig. S8A). Lysosome-related cellular processes,

such as endocytosis and autophagy, were enhanced by 2.5-fold and 2-fold respectively in PLD3$^{-/-}$

cells (Fig. 2B-C).

To assess changes in the lysosomal proteome, we isolated lysosomes from WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells

using dextran-coated superparamagnetic iron oxide (SPIO) nanoparticles and magnetic

chromatography, followed by label-free proteomic studies on the lysates of lysosomal fractions.

Cathepsin D (CTSD), cathepsin B (CTSB), and LAMP2 were highly enriched in the lysosomes

of PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells as compared to WT cells (Fig. 2D), while cytosolic-proteins like β-tubulin were

appropriately absent in the lysosomal fraction (Fig. 2D).

Proteomic analysis of lysosomal lysates from each cell line identified 3,075 proteins, of which 81

were significantly upregulated and 72 were downregulated in PLD3$^{-/-}$ lines compared to WT

cells (Fig. 2E). Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed that signaling pathways related to

lysosomal biogenesis, endocytosis, and calcium signaling were significantly enriched in PLD3$^{-/-}$

compared to WT cells (Fig. 2E-G and Fig. S9). PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells were also enriched in vesicle

trafficking proteins, such as SNARE (Soluble NSF Attachment Protein Receptor) proteins. We

also observed that proteins related to sphingolipid metabolism and proteins relevant to AD were

differentially enriched between WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells (Fig. 2G).

We then examined the impact of PLD3 deficiency on the cellular transcriptome. Total RNA from

WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells underwent RNA sequencing, followed by differential gene expression

(DGE) analysis and gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA). The sequencing data was summarized

into 60,662 genes, of which 7,673 genes were differentially expressed between WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$

cells, with 4,015 upregulated and 3,658 downregulated (FDR<0.05; (Fig. S10). The upregulated

genes were primarily associated with signaling pathways involved in cell-cell interaction, neural

development, and inflammatory conditions (Fig. S10). Signaling pathways related to lysosomal

biogenesis, endocytosis, and AD were also upregulated in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells compared to WT cells.

However, their significance did not reach the FDR<10% threshold (Fig. S10).

To explore the immediate transcriptomic changes associated with the milder phenotype resulting

from PLD3 deficiency, PLD3 was knocked down in SH-SY5Y cells using siRNA, followed by

RNA sequencing and analysis, and verification through western blot (Fig. S11). Compared to

control siRNAs (CTL), all three PLD3 siRNAs achieved 60-90% knockdown of PLD3 (Fig.

S11). DGE analysis revealed 2,830 genes that were differentially expressed between PLD3 KD

and CTL cells (Fig. S11). 2,118 genes were upregulated, and 712 genes were downregulated in

PLD3 KD cells compared to CTL cells (FDR<0.05; Fig. S11). We also observed significant

enrichment in signaling pathways associated with lysosomes and autophagic flux, such as

lysosome biogenesis, endocytosis, mTOR signaling, and autophagy signaling, in PLD3 KD cells

relative to CTL cells (Fig. 2H). Additionally, signaling pathways previously reported to be

associated with PLD3 or lysosomes were also differentially enriched between PLD3 KD cells

and CTL cells (Fig. 2H). The transcripts associated with lysosome biogenesis and AD

pathologies are illustrated in Fig. 2I and 2J, showing a significant increase in PLD3 KD cells

compared to CTL cells.

Loss of PLD3 increases CTSB level and activity and alters its subcellular location.

Because both synthetic and human brain-derived β-amyloid seeds decrease PLD3 levels, and

PLD3$^{-/-}$ in SH-SY5Y cells altered the level of some lysosome resident protein, particularly

CTSB, we evaluated CTSB levels in WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells exposed to synthetic Aβ$_{1-42}$ (1 μg/ml)

for 1, 3, 5, and 7 days (Fig. 3A). Mature CTSB (MatCTSB) levels were increased in WT and

PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells after exposure to Aβ$_{1-42}$. This increase was more substantial and sustained in PLD3$^{-/-}$

cells (Fig. 3A). Additionally, we found that PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells had increased specific CTSB activity

compared to WT cells (Fig. 3B). However, increased CTSB activity did not lead to improved

lysosomal degradative capacity as measured by DQ assay (Fig. 3C). PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells treated with β-

amyloid particles isolated from human brain had an accumulation of intracellular β-amyloid

compared to wild type cells after a three-day incubation. Similarly, human synthetic alpha-

synuclein accumulated in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells compared to wild type cells (Fig. 3C). PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells were

able to degrade synthetic Aβ$_{1-42}$ to the same extent as WT (Fig. 3C).

In human brain homogenates of superior temporal gyrus grey matter, pro-cathepsin B

(ProCTSB) and mature cathepsin B (MatCTSB) were detectable at ~43-46 kDa and 25-26 kDa,

respectively (Fig. 3D and S14). We found an increase in MatCTSB level in AD compared to

non-AD cases when levels were normalized to the neuronal marker NeuN or to GADPH (Fig. 3D

and S13).

Since a change in subcellular CTSB location may also contribute to the deficit in the hydrolysis

of protein aggregates despite increasing overall CTSB level and activity, we measured the

colocalization of CTSB with lysosomal marker LAMP2 in the cell model and in human brain

tissue. We found a reduction of CTSB co-localization with LAMP2 in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells incubated

with Aβ_{1-42} (1 µg/ml) for 7-days compared to untreated PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells, but not in treated WT cells

compared to untreated WT cells (Fig. 3E). Likewise, a significant portion of CTSB is not

colocalized to lysosomes in AD brain tissue but is instead localized in the extra-lysosomal

compartment (Fig. 3F and Fig. S14A-B). This extracellular localization included the human

brain microvasculature. We stained CTSB and collagen-IV; CTSB staining was present in the

vasculature in control cases but was much more abundant in AD cases, especially in those with

CAA (Fig. 3G and Fig. S14C-D). To confirm this association, we isolated human vessels from

the superior temporal lobe and measured CTSB levels, revealing an increase in CTSB in AD

compared to non-AD (Fig. 3H).

PLD3 regulates TFEB/TFE3 degradation through the proteasome rather than lysosomes.

Based on our proteomic analysis of isolated lysosomes from PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells, we hypothesized that

PLD3 might play a role in lysosomal biogenesis. We assessed mRNA levels of TFEB and TFE3

and found no significant difference between WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells, suggesting that any potential

regulation of TFEB and TFE3 by PLD3 does not occur at the transcriptional level (Fig. S15A).

In contrast, TFEB and TFE3 protein levels were markedly elevated in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells compared to

WT cells under a range of conditions including no stimulation (NS), dextran treatments to induce

endocytosis, nutrient starvation (HBSS), and Torin 1 treatment to induce autophagy (Fig. 4A and

Fig. S15B). Exogenous TFEB, expressed as GFP N-terminal tagged TFEB, also showed

increased expression in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells versus WT cells (Fig. 4B). We found that in both PLD3

knockdown (KD) and in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells, the expression trends in TFEB and TFE3 were similar

(Fig. S15C). Consistent with these results, the overexpression of PLD3 in HeLa cells led to a

significant reduction in TFEB and TFE3 levels (Fig. 4C). Interestingly, AD-associated variants

in PLD3, e.g., V232M or K486R, did not alter its effects on TFEB metabolism (Fig. 4C). These

data suggest that PLD3 is involved in TFEB/TFE3 protein metabolism, and PLD3$^{-/-}$ leads to their

accumulation.

We investigated the potential involvement of the proteasome and/or lysosome in PLD3

regulation of TFEB/TFE3 degradation. Treatment with MG132, a proteasome inhibitor, caused a

significant accumulation of TFE3 and resulted in comparable levels of TFE3 between WT and

PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells at all three time points (Fig. 4D), suggesting that PLD3 facilitates TFE3

degradation via the proteasome. In contrast, TFEB levels declined over time following MG132

treatment, indicating that the proteasome was indirectly involved in PLD3-mediated TFEB

metabolism (Fig. 4D). Treatment with another proteasome inhibitor, bortezomib, produced

similar effects on TFEB/TFE3 (Fig. S16A). To focus on protein metabolism, we blocked protein

translation using cycloheximide (CHX) and assessed TFEB/TFE3 levels following MG132

treatment. MG132 generated similar effects on TFEB/TFE3 with the arrest of protein translation,

supporting the conclusion that the proteasome is involved in PLD3-mediated TFEB/TFE3

protein metabolism (Fig. S16A). Interestingly, CHX treatment led to a sharp decline in TFE3

levels but a gradual decrease in PLD3 and TFEB levels, suggesting that TFE3 is a short-lived

protein, while TFEB and PLD3 are long-lived proteins (Fig. S17A). Immunoprecipitated (IP)

TFE3 showed heightened ubiquitination in WT cells versus PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells upon MG132 treatment

(Fig. S17B). Concerning the potential involvement of lysosomes in TFEB/TFE3 metabolism,

treatments with lysosome alkalinizing agents, chloroquine (CQ) or bafilomycin A1 (BAF),

exhibited no significant effects on TFEB/TFE3 levels, which suggests that these proteins are not

predominantly degraded via lysosomal pathways (Fig. 4E and 4F). Nevertheless, we did observe

an accumulation of TFE3 after prolonged exposure to CQ or BAF. This could be due to the

induction of lysosomal stress following CQ or BAF exposure, which activated TFE3 signaling

rather than directly impacting TFE3 protein metabolism (Fig. 4E and 4F).

TFEB levels in the brains of AD patients were significantly higher than in non-AD patients (Fig.

4G). However, this pattern was not observed for TFE3 (Fig. 4G).

Loss of PLD3 enhances nuclear translocation and transcriptional activity of TFEB/TFE3.

To determine whether the change in TFEB/TFE3 protein levels in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells altered

TFEB/TFE3 signaling, we assessed TFEB/TFE3 levels in the cytoplasmic *(c)* and nuclear *(n)*

compartments using western blotting. Under basal conditions and conditions known to induce

autophagy, including nutrient deprivation (HBSS) or mTOR inhibition (Torin 1), the protein

levels of TFEB/TFE3 in the nuclear compartment of PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells were much higher than those

in WT cells (Fig. 5B). However, we did not find a significant difference in the protein ratio of

nuclear TFEB/TFE3 to cytosolic TFEB/TFE3 between WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells (Fig. 5B).

Surprisingly, we observed some nuclear localization of PLD3 in WT cells (Fig. 5A).

Immunocytochemical staining of TFEB confirmed these findings, showing increased TFEB

levels and nuclear translocation in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells compared to WT cells (Fig. S18). Exogenous

TFEB, expressed as GFP N-terminal tagged TFEB, also exhibited increased nuclear

translocation in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells versus WT cells, with or without Torin 1 treatment (Fig. S18).

Corresponding to the increased nuclear translocation of TFEB/TFE3, the transcription of their

targeted genes, which contain coordinated lysosomal expression and regulation (CLEAR) motif,

was also augmented (Fig. 5D) in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells compared to WT cells. Moreover, the mRNA

levels of two genes, RRAGD and GPNMB, known to respond to TFEB, were upregulated (Fig.

5E).

Next, we examined TFEB/TFE3 signaling in neuroblastoma cells after exposure to synthetic

Aβ_{1-42} at various intervals. In WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells, Aβ_{1-42} exposure mediated TFEB and TFE3

nuclear translocation from day 3 through day 7 (Fig. 5F). The nuclear translocation of TFEB and

TFE3 in response to Aβ_{1-42} exposure was much higher in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells than in WT cells (Fig.

5F).

Discussion

This study links PLD3 to lysosome abnormalities in AD. PLD3 levels were reduced in human

AD by 38% compared to non-AD human brains. In cultured cells, PLD3 deficiency resulted in

changes in lysosomal morphology, biogenesis, and degradative function, while lysosomal

acidification remained relatively intact. These findings are significant given the pivotal role of

the endosomal and lysosomal systems in proteinopathies.

We and others previously described the distribution of PLD3 in histological staining of human

brain tissue, reporting that it is primarily in neuronal lysosomes and enriched in dystrophic

neurites around neuritic plaques (20, 21). In the current study, we further characterized the level

and distribution of PLD3 in white versus grey matter across multiple brain regions to refine our

understanding of its association with the neuropathologies of AD. Our observations in cell

models suggest that Aβ exposure may contribute to the reduced level of PLD3 we observed in

neurons. In line with diminished PLD3 in AD cortex, ubiquitination of PLD3 was markedly

increased in AD tissue. PLD3-ubiquitin complexes were primarily non-lysosomal and frequently

colocalized with neurofibrillary tangles and neuropil threads. This is consistent with a previous

finding from a cellular model system showing that ubiquitinated PLD3 fails to traffic to the

lysosome (42).

Cultured neuroblastoma (SH-SY5Y) cells with PLD3 deletion had numerous lysosomal

abnormalities including lysosomal enlargement and decreased efficiency in processing

aggregated α-synuclein and β-amyloid particle derived from human brain tissue. There was no

difference in the cells' ability to degrade synthetic $Aβ_{1-42}$, but this may be due to differences in

aggregate size, endocytosis rate, or a number of other factors. There was a general pattern of

impaired degradative function in $PLD3^{-/-}$ lysosomes. In line with this result, we found the

proteolytic capacity of the cells was compromised based on the DQ assay. In contrast with these

findings, we found that the enzymatic activity of CTSB and the level of both CTSD and CTSB

were increased in PLD3-/- cells.

We isolated lysosomes from these cells using magnetic chromatography and performed ICP-MS

to characterize the lysosomal proteome. We confirmed that the lysosomes also had elevated

levels of CTSB, LAMP1 and 2, Hex A and B, β-galactosidase, and CD63, among numerous

other lysosomal proteins. We also found that signaling pathways relevant to AD were enriched in

$PLD3^{-/-}$ lysosomes, including elevations in presenilin 2 and LRP1. This broad alteration in the

proteome led us to hypothesize that PLD3 may alter proteolytic lysosome machinery and have a

role in regulating lysosomal biogenesis.

We also discovered that in differentiated PLD3$^{-/-}$ neurons stressed by prolonged exposure to β-

amyloid, the fraction of CTSB associated with lysosomes was decreased, despite increased total

levels of CTSB. We also observed extra-lysosomal CTSB in neurons and in extracellular

matrices in human AD cortex. The loss of lysosomal localization of CTSB may account for the

increase in CTSB activity in PLD3$^{-/-}$ neurons, while total lysosomal degradative capacity was

decreased. CTSB may be leaking from damaged/enlarged lysosomes into extra-lysosomal

compartments. CTSB is primarily localized to neuronal lysosomes in non-disease conditions, but

CTSB leakage from injured lysosomes can lead to apoptosis (4) and pyroptosis mediated by

caspase-1(44). Recent studies have found that CTSB may be enzymatically active in

extralysosomal locations, including the nucleus (45) and extracellular space (46-48), because , in

contrast with other lysosomal proteases, CTSB retains proteolytic activity at neutral pH (49, 50).

This activity at neutral pH is key to CTSB-mediated adverse effects in the cytoplasm (44, 51-54)

and the degradation of matrix components in the extracellular space (55-57). Our results suggest

that loss of PLD3 not only regulates CTSB abundance but may contribute to loss of its lysosomal

localization.

We next confirmed that PLD3 has a role in regulating lysosomal biogenesis by demonstrating

that TFEB was markedly elevated in the PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells. TFEB and TFE3 are master regulators of

lysosomal biogenesis and autophagy; their role as transcription factors for lysosome-related

genes activates lysosome production (58-60). Unlike conventional lysosomal stressors, such as

amino acid deprivation, the deletion of PLD3 did not significantly impact mTOR and calcineurin

activity. The phosphorylation level of endogenous TFEB at Ser[142] and Ser[211] was undetectable in

SH-SY5Y cells. However, we observed a marked increase in TFEB and TFE3 protein levels (but

not mRNA levels), and a corresponding increase in nuclear TFEB/TFE3 levels upon PLD3

knockout, suggesting that PLD3 regulates TFEB/TFE3 metabolism at the protein level. We

assessed whether PLD3 mediated the degradation of TFEB and TFE3 via the proteasome. While

treatment with proteasome inhibitors increased TFE3 levels, TFEB levels significantly fell with

proteasome inhibition.

Additionally, while ubiquitin-mediated degradation of TFEB via the proteasome has been

reported to be initiated by phosphorylation of TFEB by the IKK complex (61), our study did not

show significant changes in IKKα/β, and the level of phosphorylated TFEB was undetectable in

our cellular models (Fig. S16C and D). We speculate that TFEB is regulated by one or more

proteins metabolized through the proteasome, but further studies are needed to delineate the

mechanisms by which the proteasome influences TFEB metabolism. Moreover, because PLD3 is

primarily localized in lysosomes (9), it will be essential to identify the mediators that transmit

signals from lysosomes to TFEB and TFE3.

Conclusion

PLD3 has a regulatory role in neuronal lysosomal function and biogenesis. Loss of PLD3

reduces lysosomal degradative function and may permit cathepsin B trafficking to extra-

lysosomal compartments. Loss of PLD3 also promotes neuronal biogenesis by increasing the key

transcription factors TFEB and TFE3. Consequently, restoring neuronal PLD3 levels may be an

experimental approach to improving neuronal proteostasis in AD.

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Author contributions

The authors confirm contribution to the paper as follows: study conception and design: W.R-F.,

Y.W., C.C-T and M.S.S. PLD3 expression, distribution, and post-translational modification in

PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells and brain tissues; CTSB level, activity, and localization changes in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells

and brain tissues; and assays for intracellular accumulation of amyloid and α-synuclein. W.R-F,

C.C-T, S.J., E.W, A.P, T.A., A.K., A.S, N.H,. S.J.F, and V.A.J performed the corresponding

experimental work and data collection, as presented in Figures 1 and 3 and Supplementary

Figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 13, and 14. Analyses of lysosomal morphology, and function in PLD3$^{-/-}$

cells or brain tissues; proteomic profiling of lysosomal proteins; whole-cell RNA-seq

transcriptomic profiling and related computational analyses; and mechanistic studies elucidating

the link between PLD3, amyloid and TFEB/TFE3 signaling and metabolism: Y.W., P.R., and

N.A. performed the corresponding experimental work and data collection, as presented in

Figures 2, 4, and 5 and Supplementary Figures 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 15-18. W.R-F and MSS

supervised the study. Analysis and interpretation of results, draft manuscript preparation, and

substantial revision: W.R-F., Y.W., S.J., E.W., A.P., N.H., T.J.H., B.C.M., J.A.M., and M.S.S.

All authors contributed to the final revision of the manuscript and approved the version

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Data availability statement

The data supporting this study's findings are available from the corresponding author upon

reasonable request.

Competing interests

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Circular Genomics and serves as the Deputy Editor for Alzheimer's & Dementia: TRCI

The rest of authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure Legends.

Figure 1. PLD3 is decreased in human AD brain, likely due to ubiquitination.

A and B) Immunostaining of PLD3 in the human brain. Representative confocal microscopy

images of PLD3 immunostaining *(green)* in the hippocampus (HP), posterior frontal (PF.C), and

superior temporal lobe (T.C) sections from (A) non-AD and (B) AD brain sections, *n=8.* Nuclei

were stained with DAPI *(blue),* and β-amyloid and neuritic plaques, neurofibrillary tangles, and

other tau aggregates were stained with Thiazine Red *(TR, red)*. The scale bars are 100 µm.

C and D) PLD3 levels. Western blot analysis of PLD3 in superior temporal lobe lysates from (C)

grey matter (GM) and (D) white matter (WM). Data are normalized to GADPH (means ±

S.E.M., non-AD *n=11*, and AD *n=16*). *$p < 0.05$ by Welch's unequal variances *t*-test.

E) Outcome of 7-day incubation with synthetic Aβ$_{1-42}$ on PLD3 levels in SY-SY5Y-WT cells.

Data presented are normalized to GADPH (mean ± S.E.M., *n=3*). *$p < 0.05$ by one-way ANOVA

compared to nontreated cells. ^ correspond to AD case.

F) Outcome of 7-day incubation with brain-derived Aβ-seeds isolated from patients with CAA

on PLD3 levels in iPSC-neurons. Data presented are normalized to GADPH (mean ± S.E.M.,

n=3). $^{*}p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{***}p < 0.001$ by one-way ANOVA compared to nontreated cells.

G) PLD3 ubiquitination is altered in AD as shown by representative confocal microscopy images

of complexes between PLD3 and ubiquitin *(in situ PLA, red clusters)* in non-AD *(left panel)* and

AD *(right panel)* sections, *n=7*. Data for quantification of PLA-puncta PLD3-ubiquitin

complexes *(per field)* is presented as mean ± S.E.M., *n=7* with five images per case. $^{***}p < 0.001$

by unpaired *t*-test. Nuclei were stained with TO-PRO^{TM3} *(blue)* and AD hallmarks with MX04

(green). The scale bars are 50 μm.

H) The subcellular location of PLD3-ubiquitin complexes is non-lysosomal. The correlation

coefficient of between PLA-puncta indicating PLD3-ubiquitin complexes and CTSD

immunostaining is anti-correlated. Pearson correlation coefficient *(PCC, r)* is presented as mean

± S.E.M., *n=5*. The scale bars are 50 μm.

Figure 2. PLD3 deficiency alters the morphology and function of lysosomes.

A) Quantification and comparison of lysosomal features *(size, density, and confluence)* between

WT and PLD3⁻ᐟ⁻ SHSY5Y cells by electron microscopy (TEM). Data presented mean ± S.E.M.

For size: WT, *n=92* lysosomes; PLD3⁻ᐟ⁻, *n=51* lysosomes (*$p < 0.05$ by Welch's unequal

variances *t*-test). For lysosome density (count per 100 μm²): WT, *n=15* images; PLD3⁻ᐟ⁻, *n=12*

images (**$p < 0.01$ Welch's unequal variances *t*-test). For lysosome count (occupied area): WT,

n=15 lysosomes; PLD3⁻ᐟ⁻, *n=9* lysosomes (**$p < 0.01$, Welch's unequal variances *t*-test). The

scale bars are 500 nm.

B) We evaluated lysosomal features of lysosomal function *(endocytic activity, alkalinization,*

and positioning) between WT and PLD3⁻ᐟ⁻ cells incubated with Dextran^OG *(pH-sensitive)* and

dextran^{Alexa594} *(pH-insensitive)*. Data presented mean ± S.E.M., *n=4*. *$p < 0.05$ by unpaired *t*-test.

The scale bars are 50 μm.

C) Western blot analysis of LC3-I and LC3-II in WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells treated with Torin 1 (1

μM) for 3 hours. Proteins were quantified, expressed relative to β-tubulin, and compared

between phenotypes. Data presented means ± S.E.M., *n=3*. *$p < 0.05$ by one-way ANOVA

followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test.

D) Lysosomal protein levels in lysosomes isolated from WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells. Data presented

normalized to β-tubulin mean ± S.E.M., *n=3*. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, and ****$p < 0.0001$ by one-

way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test. PNS: post-nuclear supernatant.

FT: flow-through. LF: lysosome fraction.

E) Proteomic analysis of the lysosomal lysates from WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells. The differentially

expressed proteins were represented by a heatmap (*n=3*, minimum change in magnitude ≥ 1.5-

fold change, false discovery rate (FDR) less than 5% (< 0.05).

F) Normalized proteomic data were subject to gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA), and the

differentially regulated pathways in PLD3$^{-/-}$ versus WT were summarized and represented by bar

plots (FDR q value < 0.05).

G) Selected lysosomal proteins from the proteomic analysis were quantified and compared

between WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$, and the differentially regulated proteins were represented by bar

graphs (mean ± S.E.M., *n=3*, multiple unpaired *t*-tests).

H) RNA-Seq data underwent GSEA. Differentially enriched pathways in PLD3_siRNAs *(n=9)*

versus CTL_siRNA were summarized and represented by bar plots (FDR q value < 0.05).

I) RNA expression for genes related to lysosome pathways was calculated and compared

between CTL_siRNA *(n=3)* and PLD3_siRNAs *(n=9)*, and significantly different genes were

represented by bar graphs (mean ± SEM, multiple unpaired t test).

J) RNA expression in genes related to AD was calculated and compared between CTL_siRNA

(n=3) and PLD3_siRNAs *(n=9)*, and significantly different genes were represented by a heatmap

(mean ± SEM, multiple unpaired t test).

Figure 3. Loss of PLD3 triggers changes in CTSB level, activity, and subcellular location.

A) Outcome of long-term incubation with synthetic Aβ$_{1-42}$ (1 μg/mL) on CTSB levels in WT and

PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells. Data presented mean ± S.E.M., $n=4$. $^*p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, and $^{***}p < 0.001$ by two-

way ANOVA compared to WT. $^{φ}p < 0.05$ by one-way ANOVA compared to basal WT cells. ^{δδδ}p

< 0.001 by one-way ANOVA compared to basal PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells.

B) Enzymatic CTSB activity in PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells compared to WT. Data normalized to enzymatic

activity in the presence of the potent and selective inhibitor of CTSB, CA074 (1 μM). Data

presented mean ± S.E.M., $n=9$. $^*p < 0.05$ by unpaired t-test.

C) Intracellular accumulation of protein aggregates in WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells. Data presented

mean ± S.E.M., *n=12 (for DQ), n=5 (for human Aβ seed^{TR}), n=3 (for human synthetic α-*

synuclein^{488}), and n=6 (for human synthetic Aβ$_{1-42}$^{488}). $^*p < 0.05$ and $^{***}p < 0.001$ by unpaired t-

test.

D) Western blot analysis of CTSB in the superior temporal lobe protein fraction. Each lane

corresponds to a donor of the indicated group. Data presented mean ± S.E.M., non-AD *(n=10),*

and AD brains (n=16). $^*p < 0.05$ by Welch's unequal variances t-test.

E) Immuno-colocalization of CTSB and LAMP2 in WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells with or without

synthetic A$\beta_{1\text{-}42}$ incubation. Bars are mean ± S.E.M., $n=7$. $^*p < 0.05$ by one-way ANOVA

followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

F) Representative confocal microscopy images of CTSB-LAMP2 colocalization in non-AD and

AD sections. Data presented are means (Pearson's correlation coefficient, PCC, (r)) ± S.E.M.,

$n=7$, each with five images $^*p < 0.05$ by unpaired t-test. The scale bars are 5 μm.

G) CTSB in the cerebral vasculature. Representative confocal microscopy images and

quantification of CTSB expression pattern *(green)* in the temporal lobe from non-AD and AD

cases. Mean CTSB intensity in vascular regions was quantified solely in the collagen-IV

immunoreactive area *(red)*. β-amyloid aggregates and cerebrovascular amyloid deposition were

detected with MX04 *(blue)* and microglia by the marker Iba1*(grey)*. Data presented mean ±

S.E.M., $n=9$, each with at least five images. $^*p < 0.05$ by unpaired t-test. The scale bars are 50

μm.

H) Western blot analysis of the level of CTSB in isolated human vessels from the temporal lobe

protein fraction from non-AD and AD cases. Bars are mean ± S.E.M., $n=5$. $^*p < 0.05$ by

unpaired t-test.

Figure 4. PLD3 regulates TFEB/TFE3 metabolism. The proteasome, rather than lysosomes,

is predominantly involved in PLD3-mediated TFEB/TFE3 metabolism.

A) Western blot analysis of TFEB, TFE3, and PLD3 in WT and PLD3⁻/⁻ cells treated with

vehicle (NS, *non-stimulation*), dextran (0.25 mg/mL), HBSS, or Torin 1 (1 mM) for 3 hours.

Proteins were quantified, expressed compared to β-tubulin, compared between genotypes, and

presented as mean ± S.E.M., *n=3*. $^*p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, and $^{****}p < 0.0001$ by two-way ANOVA

followed by uncorrected Fisher's LSD.

B) Western blot analysis of TFEB and PLD3 in WT and PLD3⁻/⁻ cells transfected with control

plasmids (CTL-P) or GFP-tagged TFEB plasmids (GFP-N-TFEB) for 2 days. TFEB and PLD3

were quantified relative to β-tubulin and compared between genotypes (mean ± S.E.M., *n=3*). $^*p$

< 0.05, and $^{****}p < 0.0001$ by two-way ANOVA followed by uncorrected Fisher's LSD.

C) Western blot analysis of TFEB, TFE3, and PLD3 in HeLa cells transfected with control

plasmids (CTL-P) or PLD3 plasmids for 2 days. Proteins were quantified relative to β-tubulin

and compared between genotypes (mean ± S.E.M., $n=3$). $^{*}p < 0.05$, and $^{**}p < 0.01$ by one-way

ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test.

D) Western blot analysis of TFEB, TFE3, and PLD3 in WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells treated with

MG132 (1 mM) for 4, 8, and 16 hours. Proteins were quantified relative to β-tubulin and

compared among experimental conditions (mean ± S.E.M., $n=4\text{-}5$). $^{*}p < 0.05$, $^{***}p < 0.001$ by

two-way ANOVA followed by uncorrected Fisher's LSD.

E and F) Western blot analysis of TFEB, TFE3, and PLD3 in WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells treated with

(E) bafilomycin A1 (BafA1, 200 nM, $n=5$) or (F) chloroquine (CQ, 50 mM, $n=4$) for 6 hours

and 24 hours. Proteins were quantified relative to β-tubulin and compared among experimental

conditions (mean ± S.E.M). $^{*}p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, and $^{***}p < 0.001$ by two-way ANOVA

followed by uncorrected Fisher's LSD.

G) Representative western blot analysis of TFEB, TFE3, and PLD3 levels in superior temporal

lobe protein lysate from human brain. Each lane corresponds to a donor of the indicated group.

Data are normalized to GADPH (means ± S.E.M., non-AD $n=10$, and AD $n=15$). $^{***}p < 0.001$

by Welch's unequal variances t-test.

Figure 5. Loss of PLD3 augments TFEB/TFE3 transcription and nuclear localization.

A and B) Western blot analysis of TFEB, TFE3, and PLD3 in nuclear extract *(n)* and

cytoplasmic extract *(c)* of WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells treated with (A) HBSS (*vs.* NS *(non-*

stimulation)), or (B) 1 μM Torin 1 (*vs.* DMSO) for 3 hours. Proteins were quantified and

normalized to GAPDH *(cytoplasmic)* or Lamin B1 *(nuclear)*. Proteins in *n* or their *n*-to-*c* ratios

were compared among experimental conditions and presented as mean ± S.E.M., *n=3-5.* $^{*}p <$

0.05 and $^{**}p < 0.01$ by two-way ANOVA followed by uncorrected Fisher's LSD.

C) Immunostaining analysis of TFEB location in WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells treated with HBSS (*vs.*

NS *(non-stimulation)*) or 1 μM Torin 1 (*vs.* DMSO) for 3 hours. Data presented means ± S.E.M.,

n=20-25 fields. $^{*}p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, and $^{***}p < 0.001$ by two-way ANOVA followed by

uncorrected Fisher's LSD.

D and E) Transcript levels of genes containing the CLEAR motif (D) or genes responsive to

TFEB (E) in WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$ cells were calculated and compared between WT and PLD3$^{-/-}$. Data

presented means ± S.E.M., *n=3.* $^{*}p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, and $^{***}p < 0.001$ by multiple unpaired *t*-

tests.

F) Outcome of long-term incubation with synthetic $A\beta_{1-42}$ on TFEB and TFE3 location. Proteins

were quantified relative to β-tubulin and compared among experimental conditions (mean ±

S.E.M., *n=4*). $^{*}p < 0.05,$ $^{**}p < 0.01,$ and $^{***}p < 0.001$ by two-way ANOVA followed by Fisher's

LSD multiple comparison test.