TITLE

PDZD8 deficiency drives lipid accumulation in SNr and dopaminergic disinhibition

Running title

SNr lipid accumulation drives dopaminergic disinhibition

Authors

Tomoya Ozaki[1†], Yumi Morisugi[1†], Mei Kamino[1†], Hizuki Takahashi[1†], Honoka Maki[1], and Michiko Shirane[1]*

[1]Department of Molecular Biology, Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Nagoya City University, Nagoya, Aichi, Japan

*Correspondence

Michiko Shirane, shiram@phar.nagoya-cu.ac.jp

[†]These authors have contributed equally to this work and share first authorship

Keywords: Brain, Basal ganglia, Dopamine, SNr, Lipid, PDZD8, ADHD

ABSTRACT

The basal ganglia integrate cortical inputs to regulate motor, cognitive, and emotional behaviors through precisely balanced inhibitory and excitatory circuits. The substantia nigra pars reticulata (SNr) serves as a major output nucleus exerting tonic inhibition over thalamic and midbrain targets. However, how lipid metabolic disturbances affect SNr circuitry and dopaminergic regulation remains unclear. Here, we identify a crucial role for the lipid transport protein PDZD8 in maintaining basal ganglia circuit integrity. PDZD8 deficiency leads to marked lipid and lipofuscin accumulation selectively in the SNr, accompanied by enhanced striatal inhibitory inputs and reduced SNr projections to the ventromedial thalamus (VM) and midbrain dopaminergic nuclei (SNc, VTA). This circuit reorganization results in functional disinhibition and hyperactivation of dopaminergic neurons, producing maladaptive reinforcement of striatal inhibition. Our previous findings revealed that PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice exhibit hyperactivity, reduced anxiety, and impaired fear memory, behavioral phenotypes reminiscent of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). These findings demonstrate that lipid accumulation in the SNr disrupts inhibitory output and dopaminergic regulation, forming a maladaptive basal ganglia–thalamocortical loop. Our study provides the first mechanistic link between lipid metabolic dysfunction, dopaminergic disinhibition, and ADHD-like behavioral phenotypes, highlighting PDZD8 as a key regulator of metabolic–circuit coupling in the basal ganglia.

INTRODUCTION
Basal ganglia and striatonigral pathway
The basal ganglia constitute a key component of the volitional motor system and contribute to essential aspects of cognition, sensorimotor integration, emotion, and learning. Dysfunction of basal ganglia circuits is implicated in a wide range of neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders(Park et al., 2020; Foster et al., 2021; McElvain et al., 2021). Current models describe three partially segregated channels of information flow through the basal ganglia—associative, limbic, and sensorimotor—which are further refined into multiple parallel subnetworks(Alexander et al., 1986; Grillner and Robertson, 2016). The cortico–basal ganglia–thalamic network (the basal ganglia–thalamocortical circuitry) represents one of the fundamental network motifs of the brain, consisting of precisely organized and reciprocally connected nodes(Foster et al., 2021; McElvain et al., 2021). Within this loop, the striatum, pallidum, and substantia nigra integrate widespread cortical inputs. The striatonigral (direct) pathway exhibits greater convergence than the striatopallidal (indirect) pathway, yet both ultimately converge onto the same output neurons within the substantia nigra pars reticulata (SNr), emphasizing the integrative nature of SNr-mediated control (Foster et al., 2021).

SNr as a major output nucleus of basal ganglia
SNr is the principal output nucleus of the basal ganglia, composed predominantly of inhibitory GABAergic neurons that project to specific thalamic nuclei and brainstem regions(Foster et al., 2021; McElvain et al., 2021; Falasconi et al., 2025). SNr neurons exhibit high tonic firing rates that maintain downstream targets under constant inhibition, whereas transient decreases in firing rate permit movement initiation via disinhibition. Recent studies have revealed that SNr neurons display multiphasic, bidirectional firing dynamics—both decreases and increases—allowing temporally precise modulation of downstream circuits during sequential motor acts(Falasconi et al., 2025). Notably, the caudal and lateral subregions of the SNr, which receive inputs from defined striatal territories, exhibit highly organized topographic projections(Lee et al., 2020; McElvain et al., 2021). These findings suggest that SNr subcircuits play specialized roles in coordinating movement and behavioral control.

SNr dysfunction and neuropsychiatric disorders
Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is characterized by inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity, and is linked to altered dopaminergic and noradrenergic signaling(Biederman, 2005; Thapar and Cooper, 2016). Reduced cortical and subcortical gamma-amino butyric acid (GABA) levels have also been reported in ADHD. Among inhibitory neurons, parvalbumin-positive (PV$^+$) neurons play a key role in attentional

processes and motor control, and their dysfunction has been implicated in multiple
psychiatric conditions, including schizophrenia, autism spectrum disorder, and
ADHD(Lewis et al., 2005; Sohal et al., 2009). PV$^+$ neurons in the SNr provide critical
feedforward inhibition and disinhibition within basal ganglia circuits. Recent work
demonstrated that loss of histamine H$_2$ receptor (H$_2$R) expression in SNr PV$^+$ neurons
leads to diminished neuronal activity and behavioral phenotypes resembling ADHD—
hyperactivity, impulsivity, and inattention(Kim et al., 2016; Rizzi and Tan, 2019; An et
al., 2025). Notably, this dysfunction in SNr PV$^+$ neurons, but not in medial prefrontal PV$^+$
neurons, was associated with elevated striatal dopamine levels, implicating the SNr as a
key node in the dopaminergic dysregulation underlying ADHD(An et al., 2025).

Lipid metabolism and neuronal function

Lipid accumulation has long been associated with neurodegenerative conditions such as
Alzheimer's disease (AD)(Dahm, 2006; Foley, 2010). The discovery of apolipoprotein
E4 (ApoE4) as the strongest genetic risk factor for AD highlighted the importance of lipid
metabolism in brain health(Lambert et al., 2013). Abnormal accumulation of cholesteryl
esters (CEs)—neutral lipids involved in cholesterol transport—has been observed in
brains of AD patients and AD model animals(van der Kant et al., 2019; Nugent et al.,
2020; Blanchard et al., 2022; Litvinchuk et al., 2024). ApoE4-containing lipoproteins tend
to aggregate within lysosomes, impairing degradation and promoting lipid peroxidation
and inflammation. In neurons and glia carrying ApoE4, CEs accumulate in lysosomes and
transform into lipofuscin, an autofluorescent granule composed of peroxidized lipids and
damaged proteins that is highly resistant to degradation(Guo et al., 2025). Excessive
lipofuscin accumulation leads to lysosomal stress and chronic neuroinflammation,
processes increasingly recognized as drivers of neurodegeneration(Terman and Brunk,
2004; Gray and Woulfe, 2005; Moreno-Garcia et al., 2018).

PDZD8 and lipid homeostasis in the brain

We previously identified PDZD8 as a tethering protein at intracellular membrane contact
sites (MCSs) between the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and endosomes through proteomic
analysis of the protrudin complex(Shirane and Nakayama, 2006; Shirane et al., 2020).
PDZD8 belongs to the tubular lipid-binding (TULIP) superfamily and contains a
synaptotagmin-like mitochondrial-lipid-binding (SMP) domain that mediates lipid
transfer. We demonstrated that PDZD8 facilitates cholesterol transport(Shirane et al.,
2020), and that PDZD8-deficient (PDZD8$^{-/-}$) mice exhibit brain-specific accumulation of
CEs due to impaired lipophagy—a form of microautophagy in which lipid droplets
directly fuse with lysosomes for degradation by lysosomal lipase(Morita et al., 2022).
Behavioral battery analysis revealed that PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice display pronounced

hyperactivity, reduced anxiety and fear, and deficits in fear-conditioned memory and
working memory(Kurihara et al., 2023), collectively resembling ADHD-like phenotypes.
Moreover, a PDZD8 mutation near the SMP domain has been linked to human intellectual
disability, accompanied by regional brain hypertrophy and atrophy(Al-Amri et al., 2022).

Present study
Despite these findings, the specific brain regions and neural circuits affected by PDZD8
deficiency remained unclear. Here, we demonstrate that PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice exhibit marked
lipid accumulation in the SNr, a major output nucleus of the basal ganglia. This lipid
deposition disrupts the striato–nigro–thalamo–cortical circuitry, leading to disinhibition
of dopaminergic neurons and maladaptive reinforcement of striatal inhibitory feedback.
These results provide the first evidence that abnormal lipid metabolism in the SNr can
remodel basal ganglia circuits, offering new insights into the mechanistic links between
lipid dysregulation, dopaminergic imbalance, and ADHD-like behavioral phenotypes.
127

RESULTS
PDZD8 expression in midbrain neurons and astrocytes
To determine the cellular distribution of PDZD8, we examined its expression in the
midbrain of wild-type mice. PDZD8 was abundantly expressed in SNc, VTA, and SNr,
regions defined by dopamine transporter (DAT) expression (Figure 1A). In the SNc and
VTA, PDZD8 was localized in DAT- and tyrosine hydroxylase (TH)-positive
dopaminergic neurons, respectively (Figure 1B, C). In contrast, PDZD8 was expressed in
PV-positive GABAergic neurons and glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP)-positive
astrocytes within the SNr (Figure 1D, E). These findings indicate that PDZD8 is highly
distributed across neuronal and glial populations around the substantia nigra in midbrain,
suggesting its potential role in modulating dopaminergic circuitry.

Marked lipid accumulation in SNr in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice
Given that PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice exhibit abnormal CE accumulation in the brain, we next
identified the affected brain regions. LipiDye II staining revealed significant lipid
accumulation in several areas, including SNr, dorsal raphe (DR), basolateral amygdala
(BLA), and central amygdala (CeA), with the SNr showing the most prominent signal
(Figure 2A). These results were confirmed by LipiDye II and LipidTOX staining (Figure
2B, C). High-resolution Z-stack imaging demonstrated dense intracellular lipid droplets,
likely representing lipofuscin, within SNr cells (Figure 2D). Thus, the SNr represents the
principal site of lipid deposition in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice.

Lipofuscin deposits are enriched in SNr in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice
To characterize the lipid deposits in greater detail, serial midbrain sections were stained

with LipiDye II and anti-DAT. Large lipid deposits were concentrated in the caudal SNr,
while smaller aggregates appeared rostrally (Figure 3A). Ectopic anti-DAT signals were
detected in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ SNr, especially in caudal regions, likely overlapping with LipiDye
II fluorescence (Figure 3B). Then triple labeling with LipiDye II, DAT, and GFAP
confirmed complete overlap of these signals, consistent with autofluorescent lipofuscin
(Figure 3C). These results demonstrate that most large lipid deposits in the caudal SNr of
PDZD8$^{-/-}$ brain are lipofuscin.

Extracellular and intracellular lipid deposits in SNr in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice
Z-stack 3D imaging combined with GFAP staining revealed two types of lipid deposits
in the SNr of PDZD8-/- mice: small extracellular deposits, likely lipoproteins, and large
intracellular deposits, likely lipofuscin (Figure 4A–C). Extracellular deposits were more
abundant   medially,   while   intracellular   deposits   predominated   laterally.   3D
reconstructions   further   distinguished   intra-   versus   extracellular   localization
(Supplementary movies A, B). Notably, intracellular lipofuscin overlapped with GFAP
signals, suggesting autofluorescent properties of astrocytic lipofuscin.

Enhanced striatal projection to SNr in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice
To test whether lipid accumulation alters SNr connectivity, we performed retrograde
neural tracing by injecting Alexa-CTb into the SNr of PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice
(Figure 5A, B). In both genotypes, injection sites were equivalent. However, corpus
striatal (CP) neurons, including pallidum (GP) neurons, projecting to SNr were markedly
increased and spatially expanded in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 5C, D). These changes
indicate enhanced striatal inputs to the SNr (Figure 5E). PDZD8 expression was also
detected in dopamine- and cAMP-regulated phosphoprotein (DARPP-32)-positive
medium   spiny   neurons   (MSNs)   in   the   striatum   (Figure   5F),   and   DARPP-32
immunoreactivity was significantly elevated in the SNr of PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 5G).
Together, these findings suggest strengthened GABAergic striatal inputs to SNr in
PDZD8 deficiency.

Abnormal dopaminergic circuits in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice
Given that SNr serves as a major output nucleus of the basal ganglia that regulates both
thalamic and midbrain dopaminergic neurons, we examined downstream projections
using palmitoylated GFP (palGFP) injections into the SNr of PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice
(Figure 6A, B). Injection sites were comparable between groups. In PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice,
projections from the SNr to the VM and nst (Figure 6C), as well as to the VTA and SNc
(Figure 6D), were markedly reduced compared to controls, indicating disrupted SNr
output (Figure 6E).
Based on these observations, we propose that lipid accumulation in the SNr induces

functional disinhibition within the basal ganglia–thalamocortical circuitry (Figure 6F).
Specifically, lipid deposition in SNr neurons leads to reduced inhibitory output from the
SNr to both VM and the nst, as well as to the VTA and SNc. The consequent disinhibition
of thalamic and dopaminergic targets results in hyperactivation of dopaminergic neurons,
which in turn enhances inhibitory feedback from striatal GABAergic neurons to SNr,
thereby reinforcing the suppression of SNr output. This establishes a maladaptive
feedback loop—reduced SNr–thalamic output, dopaminergic disinhibition, and
strengthened striatal inhibition—that possibly destabilizes the functional balance of
the basal ganglia–thalamocortical circuitry. Such large-scale circuit dysregulation likely
underlies the abnormal behavioral phenotypes observed in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice, including
hyperactivity, reduced anxiety and fear, and impaired fear-memory regulation.
197
DISCUSSION
Summary of the findings
In this study, we identified a crucial role of the lipid transport protein PDZD8 in
maintaining basal ganglia circuit homeostasis. PDZD8 deficiency led to prominent lipid
accumulation in the SNr, accompanied by structural and functional remodeling of basal
ganglia output pathways. Neuronal tracing analyses revealed reduced SNr projections to
both thalamic (VM, nst) and midbrain dopaminergic targets (VTA, SNc), together with
enhanced inhibitory input from striatal GABAergic neurons. These anatomical changes
were consistent with functional disinhibition of dopaminergic circuits, resulting in
hyperactivation of dopaminergic neurons and maladaptive reinforcement of striatal
inhibition. Given that PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice exhibit hyperactivity and reduced anxiety and fear
at the behavioral level—features reminiscent of ADHD-like phenotypes—these findings
establish a direct mechanistic link between lipid metabolic disruption in the SNr, basal
ganglia circuit disinhibition, and behavioral dysregulation.
SNr lipid accumulation and circuit disinhibition
The SNr serves as a tonic inhibitory gate in the cortico–basal ganglia–thalamo–cortical
loop (basal ganglia–thalamocortical circuit), controlling both motor and cognitive outputs.
Our data suggest that lipid accumulation within SNr neurons compromises this inhibitory
control, likely by affecting cellular excitability and synaptic output. Lipofuscin-like
deposits, enriched in cholesteryl esters and peroxidized lipids, are known to induce
lysosomal stress, oxidative imbalance, and altered membrane conductance. These effects
may collectively reduce the firing capacity or GABA release efficacy of SNr neurons,
thereby reducing inhibitory output to their downstream targets. The observed reduction
of SNr projections to VM and nst implies a loss of inhibitory tone at the thalamic level,

which would increase cortical excitability and contribute to hyperactivity. Similarly,
decreased inhibition of VTA and SNc dopaminergic neurons produces dopaminergic
disinhibition, leading to excessive dopamine release in the striatum. The resulting
dopaminergic hyperactivation enhances corticostriatal drive, which strengthens striatal
GABAergic feedback to the SNr. This closed-loop maladaptive feedback—SNr
hypoactivity, dopaminergic hyperactivation, and enhanced striatal inhibition—creates a
self-reinforcing circuit instability. Such loop-level dysregulation likely underlies the
behavioral abnormalities observed in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice.

Disinhibition-driven distortion of RPE signaling in the VTA–BLA circuit
Beyond basal ganglia output pathways, the disinhibition of dopaminergic neurons
observed in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice likely extends its impact to broader reward-related networks,
particularly the VTA–BLA circuit, which encodes reward prediction error (RPE) signals
during associative learning. The VTA conveys phasic dopamine release to the BLA during
both appetitive and aversive conditioning, where dopaminergic modulation shapes the
associative strength between conditioned and unconditioned stimuli. Disruption of
inhibitory control from the SNr to midbrain dopaminergic neurons may bias RPE
computation—amplifying positive prediction signals while diminishing aversive or
omission-related responses. Such imbalance could account for the hyperactivity and
impaired fear memory observed in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice, reflecting aberrant valuation of
outcomes and a failure to encode negative prediction errors. In this framework, lipid
accumulation–induced disinhibition of the SNr may distort dopaminergic gain control
within the VTA–BLA network, leading to maladaptive reinforcement learning and
emotional dysregulation. This suggests that PDZD8-dependent lipid homeostasis in the
SNr is essential for maintaining the dynamic balance between positive and negative RPE
signaling across cortico–amygdalo–dopaminergic loops.

Comparison with prior studies on basal ganglia and ADHD
Our findings extend previous evidence implicating SNr dysfunction in the
pathophysiology of ADHD. Earlier studies demonstrated that H$_2$R deficiency in PV$^+$
neurons of the SNr reduces inhibitory output and induces hyperactivity and impulsivity.
Similarly, reduced GABAergic tone and enhanced dopaminergic transmission have been
reported in ADHD patients and model animals. The present work suggests that lipid
metabolic stress may represent a previously unrecognized upstream mechanism
producing a similar disinhibitory outcome. PDZD8 is an ER–endosome tethering protein
required for lipid transport and membrane contact site integrity. Loss of PDZD8 impairs
lipophagy, leading to intracellular lipid droplet accumulation and lipofuscin formation.
These pathological deposits are not inert: they alter calcium handling, disrupt

mitochondrial dynamics, and perturb synaptic vesicle turnover. The convergence of
metabolic and electrophysiological dysfunction in SNr neurons likely explains the
observed circuit-level changes. Therefore, disinhibition of SNr neurons emerges as a new
paradigm linking lipid homeostasis to dopaminergic regulation and behavioral control.

Regulation of inhibitory circuits by lipid metabolism

Lipid homeostasis is increasingly recognized as a determinant of neuronal function. Our
findings highlight that inhibitory GABAergic circuits are particularly sensitive to
metabolic stress. The SNr, characterized by high tonic firing rates, may be especially
vulnerable to disruptions in lipid trafficking and degradation. Accumulation of
peroxidized lipids and lipofuscin can impair GABA release machinery and ion channel
stability, thereby compromising tonic inhibition. Astrocytic PDZD8 expression observed
in our study suggests that glia–neuron lipid coupling may be essential for maintaining
SNr function. Disruption of such glial lipid buffering could amplify local oxidative stress
and propagate dysfunction across the basal ganglia network.

Implications for neuropsychiatric and neurodegenerative disorders

The link between lipid accumulation and circuit disinhibition identified here may have
broader implications beyond ADHD. Lipofuscin accumulation and lysosomal
dysfunction are hallmarks of Alzheimer's disease and aging-related cognitive decline.
The present findings suggest that even in the absence of overt neurodegeneration, lipid
metabolic perturbations can remodel inhibitory circuits and alter behavioral state. Given
the prominent dopaminergic involvement, PDZD8 dysfunction may represent a shared
vulnerability factor bridging metabolic stress, dopamine dysregulation, and cognitive-
behavioral disorders.

Limitation of the study

Although PDZD8 is broadly expressed across multiple brain regions, prominent lipid
accumulation occurred selectively in the SNr of PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice. The regional
vulnerability underlying this selectivity remains unresolved and warrants further
investigation, including the potential involvement of PDZD8-interacting complex
components. Future studies combining in vivo imaging of dopamine dynamics,
electrophysiological recordings of SNr neurons, and cell-type–specific PDZD8 rescue in
neuronal versus glial populations will be essential to delineate the relative contributions
of each cell type. Moreover, pharmacological or genetic interventions aimed at restoring
lipid homeostasis may help determine whether normalization of lipid metabolism can
rescue basal ganglia circuit stability and behavioral deficits.

Conclusion

293 Together, our findings reveal that PDZD8-dependent lipid metabolism is indispensable

294   for preserving inhibitory control within the basal ganglia and ensuring accurate
295   dopaminergic prediction error signaling, providing a unifying mechanistic framework
296   linking metabolic stress, circuit disinhibition, and behavioral dysregulation.
297

METHODS
Animals
Mice were housed under 12-h light/dark cycle with food and water ad libitum. All
mouse experiments were approved by the animal ethics committee of Nagoya City
University.
Mutant mice
Generation of PDZD8-KO mice was described previously(Morita et al., 2022). In brief,
Cas9 nickase mRNA, Generic tracrRNA, and target-specific crRNA were mixed and
injected into C57BL/6J mouse zygotes. The resultant mutant mice were backcrossed
with C57BL/6J mice before experiments. Animals were genotyped by PCR analysis.
Antibodies and reagents
Rabbit polyclonal antibodies to PDZD8 were from Sigma-Aldrich; mouse monoclonal
antibodies to TH were from Sigma-Aldrich; mouse monoclonal antibodies to GFAP
were from Proteintech; guinea pig polyclonal antibodies to DAT, PV, and DARPP were
from Frontier institute; Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG, Alexa Fluor 555 goat anti-
mouse IgG, Alexa Fluor 555 goat anti-guinea pig IgG, LipidTox, and Alexa Fluor 594
cholera toxin B were from Thermo Fisher Scientific; LipiDye II was from Funakoshi.
Immunohistofluorescence analysis
Mouse brain was fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS,
Wako), exposed consecutively to 15% and 30% sucrose in PBS for 2 days, and
embedded in tissue-Tek OCT compound (SAKURA). Thin sections were prepared with
a cryostat microtome (CM1850 UV, Leica) and stained consecutively with primary
antibodies and Alexa Fluor–labeled secondary antibodies in PBS containing 0.5% Triton
X-100, or stained with LipiDye II or LipidTox in PBS. The sections were observed with
an LSM800 confocal microscope (Zeiss), and the images were processed for calculation
of fluorescence intensity with ZEN imaging software (Zeiss). Brain regions were
referenced from Allen Brain Atlas (http://atlas.brain-map.org).
Stereotaxic injection
Mice were anesthetized intraperitoneally with a mixture of midazolam (4 mg kg^{-1},
SANDOZ, Tokyo, Japan), medetomidine (0.75 mg kg^{-1}, Kyoritsu Seiyaku, Tokyo,
Japan) and butorphanol (5 mg kg^{-1}, Meiji Seika Pharma, Tokyo, Japan) and placed in a
stereotaxic frame (NARISHIGE, Tokyo, Japan). Body temperature was maintained at

37 °C. The scalp was sterilized and incised, and a small craniotomy was made above the

target. Alexa Fluor 594–conjugated cholera toxin subunit B (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

MA, USA) was prepared at 2 µg µL^{-1} in sterile PBS. AAV2-CMV-palGFP virus

particles were from Dr. Nakamura(Yahiro et al., 2023). Tracer (200 nL per site) was

delivered using a Hamilton microsyringe (1701RN Neuros Syringe, 33G; Hamilton

Company, NV, USA) connected to a motorized stereotaxic microinjector (NARISHIGE,

Tokyo, Japan ; 100 nL min^{-1}). After infusion, the needle was left in place for 10–15 min

to minimize reflux before being withdrawn slowly. For each mouse, injections were

made at the following stereotaxic coordinates relative to bregma: [AP -3.2], [ML ±1.4],

[DV -4.4] (mm). The scalp was closed with sutures, and mice   were monitored until

full recovery. After surgery, mice received postoperative care including an

intraperitoneal injection of antibiotic (amoxicillin, Kyoritsu Seiyaku, Tokyo, Japan; 50

mg kg^{-1}, i.p.).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed with the use of BellCurve for Excel software (Social

Survey Research Information, Tokyo, Japan). Normality of data was assessed with the

Shapiro-Wilk test. If the normality was not met, the Mann-Whitney U test was applied

(Fig. A, SNr; DR; BLA). If data were normally distributed and variance was

homogeneous between genotypes, comparisons were performed with Student's t test. If

homogeneity of variance was not assumed, Welch's t test was applied instead of

Student's t test (Fig. A, CeA). Quantitative data are presented as mean ± SE. Statistical

significance of a P value is indicated as $p < 0.001$ (***). Sample size (n) are in the

figure legends.

Acknowledgements

We thank K. Nakamura for AAV2-CMV-palGFP virus particles, I. Yamahata for

Immunohistofluorescence analysis, and the Research Equipment Sharing Center at

Nagoya City University for assistance.

Author contributions statement

M.S. conceptualized and supervised the study, acquired funding, designed experiments,

and wrote the manuscript; T.O., Y.M., M.K., and H.T. performed experiments; H.M.

prepared resources.

Funding information

This work was supported in part by KAKENHI grants from Japan Society for the

Promotion of Science (JSPS) to M.S. (24K02122).

Ethics

The animal study was approved by Nagoya City University, Animal Research

Committee. The study was conducted in accordance with the local legislation and

institutional requirements.

Data availability and sources

The original contributions presented in the study are included in the article/

supplementary material, further inquiries can be directed to the corresponding author.

REFERENCES

Al-Amri, A.H., Armstrong, P., Amici, M., Ligneul, C., Rouse, J., El-Asrag, M.E., et al.

(2022). PDZD8 Disruption Causes Cognitive Impairment in Humans, Mice, and

Fruit Flies. *Biol Psychiatry* 92(4)**,** 323-334. doi: 10.1016/j.biopsych.2021.12.017.

Alexander, G.E., DeLong, M.R., and Strick, P.L. (1986). Parallel organization of

functionally segregated circuits linking basal ganglia and cortex. *Annu Rev*

Neurosci 9**,** 357-381. doi: 10.1146/annurev.ne.09.030186.002041.

An, D., You, Y., Ma, Q., Xu, Z., Liu, Z., Liao, R., et al. (2025). Deficiency of histamine

H(2) receptors in parvalbumin-positive neurons leads to hyperactivity, impulsivity,

and   impaired   attention.   *Neuron*   113(4)**,**   572-589   e576.   doi:

10.1016/j.neuron.2024.12.002.

Biederman, J. (2005). Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: a selective overview. *Biol*

Psychiatry 57(11)**,** 1215-1220. doi: 10.1016/j.biopsych.2004.10.020.

Blanchard, J.W., Akay, L.A., Davila-Velderrain, J., von Maydell, D., Mathys, H.,

Davidson, S.M., et al. (2022). APOE4 impairs myelination via cholesterol

dysregulation   in   oligodendrocytes.   *Nature*   611(7937)**,**   769-779.   doi:

10.1038/s41586-022-05439-w.

Dahm,   R.   (2006).   Alzheimer's   discovery.   *Curr Biol*   16(21)**,**   R906-910.   doi:

10.1016/j.cub.2006.09.056.

Falasconi, A., Kanodia, H., and Arber, S. (2025). Dynamic basal ganglia output signals

license   and   suppress   forelimb   movements.   *Nature*   644(8077)**,**   749-758.   doi:

10.1038/s41586-025-09066-z.

Foley, P. (2010). Lipids in Alzheimer's disease: A century-old story. *Biochim Biophys Acta*

1801(8)**,** 750-753. doi: 10.1016/j.bbalip.2010.05.004.

Foster, N.N., Barry, J., Korobkova, L., Garcia, L., Gao, L., Becerra, M., et al. (2021). The

mouse cortico-basal ganglia-thalamic network. *Nature* 598(7879)**,** 188-194. doi:

10.1038/s41586-021-03993-3.

Gray, D.A., and Woulfe, J. (2005). Lipofuscin and aging: a matter of toxic waste. *Sci*

Aging Knowledge Environ 2005(5)**,** re1. doi: 10.1126/sageke.2005.5.re1.

Grillner, S., and Robertson, B. (2016). The Basal Ganglia Over 500 Million Years. *Curr*

Biol 26(20)**,** R1088-R1100. doi: 10.1016/j.cub.2016.06.041.

Guo, J.L., Braun, D., Fitzgerald, G.A., Hsieh, Y.T., Rouge, L., Litvinchuk, A., et al. (2025).

Decreased lipidated ApoE-receptor interactions confer protection against

pathogenicity of ApoE and its lipid cargoes in lysosomes. *Cell* 188(1)**,** 187-206

e126. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2024.10.027.

Kim, H., Ahrlund-Richter, S., Wang, X., Deisseroth, K., and Carlen, M. (2016). Prefrontal

Parvalbumin Neurons in Control of Attention. *Cell* 164(1-2)**,** 208-218. doi:

10.1016/j.cell.2015.11.038.

Kurihara, Y., Mitsunari, K., Mukae, N., Shoji, H., Miyakawa, T., and Shirane, M. (2023).

PDZD8-deficient mice manifest behavioral abnormalities related to emotion,

cognition, and adaptation due to dyslipidemia in the brain. *Mol Brain* 16(1)**,** 11.

doi: 10.1186/s13041-023-01002-4.

Lambert, J.C., Ibrahim-Verbaas, C.A., Harold, D., Naj, A.C., Sims, R., Bellenguez, C., et

al. (2013). Meta-analysis of 74,046 individuals identifies 11 new susceptibility

loci for Alzheimer's disease. *Nat Genet* 45(12)**,** 1452-1458. doi: 10.1038/ng.2802.

Lee, J., Wang, W., and Sabatini, B.L. (2020). Anatomically segregated basal ganglia

pathways allow parallel behavioral modulation. *Nat Neurosci* 23(11)**,** 1388-1398.

doi: 10.1038/s41593-020-00712-5.

Lewis, D.A., Hashimoto, T., and Volk, D.W. (2005). Cortical inhibitory neurons and

schizophrenia. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 6(4)**,** 312-324. doi: 10.1038/nrn1648.

Litvinchuk, A., Suh, J.H., Guo, J.L., Lin, K., Davis, S.S., Bien-Ly, N., et al. (2024).

Amelioration of Tau and ApoE4-linked glial lipid accumulation and

neurodegeneration with an LXR agonist. *Neuron* 112(3)**,** 384-403 e388. doi:

10.1016/j.neuron.2023.10.023.

McElvain, L.E., Chen, Y., Moore, J.D., Brigidi, G.S., Bloodgood, B.L., Lim, B.K., et al.

(2021). Specific populations of basal ganglia output neurons target distinct brain

stem areas while collateralizing throughout the diencephalon. *Neuron* 109(10)**,**

1721-1738 e1724. doi: 10.1016/j.neuron.2021.03.017.

Moreno-Garcia, A., Kun, A., Calero, O., Medina, M., and Calero, M. (2018). An

Overview of the Role of Lipofuscin in Age-Related Neurodegeneration. *Front*

Neurosci 12**,** 464. doi: 10.3389/fnins.2018.00464.

Morita, K., Wada, M., Nakatani, K., Matsumoto, Y., Hayashi, N., Yamahata, I., et al. (2022). PDZD8-deficient mice accumulate cholesteryl esters in the brain as a result of impaired lipophagy. *iScience* 25(12)**,** 105612. doi: 10.1016/j.isci.2022.105612.

Nugent, A.A., Lin, K., van Lengerich, B., Lianoglou, S., Przybyla, L., Davis, S.S., et al. (2020). TREM2 Regulates Microglial Cholesterol Metabolism upon Chronic Phagocytic Challenge. *Neuron* 105(5)**,** 837-854 e839. doi: 10.1016/j.neuron.2019.12.007.

Park, J., Coddington, L.T., and Dudman, J.T. (2020). Basal Ganglia Circuits for Action Specification. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 43**,** 485-507. doi: 10.1146/annurev-neuro-070918-050452.

Rizzi, G., and Tan, K.R. (2019). Synergistic Nigral Output Pathways Shape Movement. *Cell Rep* 27(7)**,** 2184-2198 e2184. doi: 10.1016/j.celrep.2019.04.068.

Shirane, M., and Nakayama, K.I. (2006). Protrudin induces neurite formation by directional membrane trafficking. *Science* 314(5800)**,** 818-821. doi: 10.1126/science.1134027.

Shirane, M., Wada, M., Morita, K., Hayashi, N., Kunimatsu, R., Matsumoto, Y., et al. (2020). Protrudin and PDZD8 contribute to neuronal integrity by promoting lipid extraction required for endosome maturation. *Nat Commun* 11(1)**,** 4576. doi: 10.1038/s41467-020-18413-9.

Sohal, V.S., Zhang, F., Yizhar, O., and Deisseroth, K. (2009). Parvalbumin neurons and gamma rhythms enhance cortical circuit performance. *Nature* 459(7247)**,** 698-702. doi: 10.1038/nature07991.

Terman, A., and Brunk, U.T. (2004). Lipofuscin. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol* 36(8)**,** 1400-1404. doi: 10.1016/j.biocel.2003.08.009.

Thapar, A., and Cooper, M. (2016). Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. *Lancet* 387(10024)**,** 1240-1250. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(15)00238-X.

van der Kant, R., Langness, V.F., Herrera, C.M., Williams, D.A., Fong, L.K., Leestemaker, Y., et al. (2019). Cholesterol Metabolism Is a Druggable Axis that Independently Regulates Tau and Amyloid-beta in iPSC-Derived Alzheimer's Disease Neurons. *Cell Stem Cell* 24(3)**,** 363-375 e369. doi: 10.1016/j.stem.2018.12.013.

Yahiro, T., Kataoka, N., and Nakamura, K. (2023). Two Ascending Thermosensory Pathways from the Lateral Parabrachial Nucleus That Mediate Behavioral and Autonomous Thermoregulation. *J Neurosci* 43(28)**,** 5221-5240. doi: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0643-23.2023.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. PDZD8 is highly expressed in neurons and astrocytes in the midbrain.

Immunofluorescence analysis of wild-type mouse brain.

(A) Dopamine transporter (DAT, magenta) and PDZD8 (green) in the midbrain. Regions

corresponding to substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc), ventral tegmental area (VTA),

and substantia nigra pars reticulata (SNr) are indicated in the DAT image. The merged

image is also shown. Scale bars, 200 μm.

(B) PDZD8 (green) and DAT (magenta) in SNc.

(C) PDZD8 (green) and tyrosine hydroxylase (TH, magenta) in VTA.

(D) PDZD8 (green) and parvalbumin (PV, magenta) in SNr.

(E) PDZD8 (green) and GFAP (magenta) in SNr. Scale bars, 20 μm (B–E).

Figure 2. Lipofuscin deposits are markedly increased in SNr in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice.

Lipid aggregate analysis of PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mouse brains.

(A) Dot plots showing mean fluorescence intensity of LipiDye II in SNr, dorsal raphe

(DR), basolateral amygdala (BLA), and central amygdala (CeA). Schematic brain

sections indicate the regions analyzed. Red lines in sagittal sections (upper) indicate the

positions of coronal sections (lower), and red boxes mark the analyzed regions.

(B, C) Confocal images of LipiDye II (B) and LipidTox (C) in SNr. Boxed regions (left)

are shown at higher magnification (right). Scale bars, 50 μm (left) and 20 μm (right).

(D) High-resolution images of LipiDye II in SNr of PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice. Boxed regions (left)

are shown enlarged (right). A differential interference contrast (DIC) image is also

shown. The dotted line outlines a cell periphery densely packed with lipofuscin (right).

Scale bars, 5 μm.

Figure 3. Lipofuscin deposits are enriched in SNr in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice.

Lipid aggregate analysis of SNr in PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mouse brains.

(A) Confocal images of DAT (magenta) and LipiDye II (green) in serial sections of SNr

from rostral (left) to caudal (right) regions at 240 μm intervals. Scale bars, 100 μm. For

PDZD8-/-, enlarged images of LipiDye II are also shown. Scale bars, 20 μm.

(B) The merged images of DAT and DIC for the images outlined in (A) in PDZD8$^{+/+}$

and PDZD8$^{-/-}$. The merged images of LipiDye II and DIC in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ are also shown.

Scale bars, 100 μm.

(C) Confocal images of LipiDye II (green), DAT (blue), and GFAP (magenta) in SNr in

PDZD8$^{-/-}$. The merged image is also shown. Scale bars, 20 μm.

Figure 4. Extracellular and intracellular lipid deposits in SNr in PDZD8-/- mice.
(A) Scheme of coronal section containing SNr from mouse brain atlas (left), in which
SNr is shown enlarged (right) with the medial (M) and lateral (L) regions indicated.
(B, C) 3D images of LipiDye II (green) and GFAP (magenta) in medial (B) and lateral
(C) regions of SNr in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice, which are reconstructed from z-stack confocal
images using Imaris software. Scale bars, 10 μm.

Figure 5. Abnormal striatal projection to SNr in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice.
(A, B) Confocal images of Alexa-conjugated cholera toxin subunit B (Alexa-CTb)
injected to SNr merged with DIC images. Tiling image of cerebral hemisphere (A) and
serial sections from rostral (left) to caudal (right) regions at 50 μm intervals focusing on
SNr (B). Scale bars, 500 μm (A) and 200 μm (B).
(C, D) Confocal images of Alexa-CTb merged with DIC images of brain region
containing striatum, indicating projection sources. Tiling image of cerebral hemisphere
(C) and serial sections from rostral (left) to caudal (right) regions at 50 μm intervals
focusing on striatum (D). Scale bars, 500 μm (A) and 200 μm (B).
(E) Schematic representation of striatal projections to SNr, with showing increase in
PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice compared to PDZD8$^{+/+}$ mice. Injection sites of CTb to SNr are also
indicated.
(F) Immunofluorescence images of PDZD8 (green) and dopamine- and cAMP-regulated
phosphoprotein (DARPP-32, magenta) in striatum of wild-type mice, with merged
image. Scale bars, 20 μm.
(G) Immunofluorescence images of DARPP and merged with DIC in SNr of PDZD8$^{+/+}$
and PDZD8$^{-/-}$. Scale bars, 100 μm.

Figure 6. Abnormal dopaminergic circuits in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice.
(A, B) Confocal images showing palmitoylated GFP (palGFP) injection sites in SNr
merged with DIC images. Tiling image of cerebral hemisphere (A) and serial sections
from rostral (left) to caudal (right) regions at 100 μm intervals focusing on SNr (B).
Scale bars, 500 μm (A); 200 μm (B).
(C) Confocal and merged DIC images of thalamic regions showing SNr projection
targets. PalGFP signals indicate projections to the ventromedial thalamus (VM) and the
nigrostriatal tract (nst). Scale bars, 200 μm.
(D) Confocal and merged DIC images of midbrain regions showing SNr projections to
the ventral tegmental area (VTA) and substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc). Scale bars,
200 μm.

(E) Schematic illustration summarizing the anterograde tracing results. Projections from

the SNr to both VM/nst and VTA/SNc are markedly reduced in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice

compared with PDZD8$^{+/+}$ mice. Injection sites of palGFP in the SNr are indicated.

(F) Proposed circuit model depicting the consequences of lipid accumulation in the SNr

of PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice. In PDZD8$^{+/+}$ mice (left), striatal GABAergic inputs transiently inhibit

SNr neurons, which tonically suppress activity in thalamic (VM/nst) and midbrain

dopaminergic (VTA/SNc) targets, maintaining balanced inhibitory control within the

basal ganglia–thalamocortical circuit. In PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice (right), lipid accumulation in

SNr neurons reduces their inhibitory output to VM/nst and VTA/SNc, resulting

in functional disinhibition of thalamic and dopaminergic pathways. The consequent

hyperactivation of dopaminergic neurons increases dopamine release in the striatum,

thereby enhancing inhibitory feedback from striatal neurons to the SNr. This establishes

a maladaptive feedback loop—reduced SNr–thalamic output, dopaminergic

hyperactivation, and strengthened striatal inhibition—that destabilizes the functional

balance of the basal ganglia–thalamocortical circuit and underlies the ADHD-like

behavioral abnormalities observed in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS

Supplementary movie. 3D movies of lipid deposits in SNr in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice.

(A, B) 3D movies of LipiDye II (green) and GFAP (magenta) in medial (A) and lateral

(B) regions of SNr in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice, which are corresponding to Figure 4B and C,

respectively. Scale bars, 10 µm.

Figure 1

A

SNr DR BLA CeA

$p=7.47 \times 10^{-6}$ $p=2.08 \times 10^{-5}$ $p=1.65 \times 10^{-5}$ $p=1.56 \times 10^{-5}$

*** *** *** ***

Mean fluorescence intensity of LipiDye II

PDZD8: +/+ -/- +/+ -/- +/+ -/- +/+ -/-

n = 14 (+/+) *n* = 13 (+/+) *n* = 13 (+/+) *n* = 13 (+/+)
n = 14 (-/-) *n* = 13 (-/-) *n* = 13 (-/-) *n* = 13 (-/-)

B LipiDye II Enlarged

PDZD8^{+/+}

PDZD8^{-/-}

Scale : 50 μm Scale : 20 μm

C LipidTox Enlarged

PDZD8^{+/+}

PDZD8^{-/-}

Scale : 50 μm Scale : 20 μm

D Enlarged

LipiDye II LipiDye II DIC LipiDye II + DIC Cell periphery

PDZD8^{-/-}

Scale : 5 μm Scale : 5 μm

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

SNr

B

PDZD8⁻ᐟ⁻, SNr (M)

| LipiDye II | GFAP | LipiDye II + GFAP |

Scale: 10 µm

C

PDZD8⁻ᐟ⁻, SNr (L)

| LipiDye II | GFAP | LipiDye II + GFAP |

Scale: 10 µm

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6