1 **TITLE**

2 # Mice lacking PDZD8 exhibit lipid accumulation in the

3 # SNr and dysregulation of basal ganglia circuits.

Authors

Tomoya Ozaki[1†], Yumi Morisugi[1†], Mei Kamino[1†], Hizuki Takahashi[1], Miki Iwata[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
thalamus and midbrain dopaminergic nuclei. 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.
41

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, multiple PDZD8 mutations has been linked to human intellectual

developmental disorder with autism and dysmorphic facies (IDDADF), a syndromic

intellectual disability (ID) accompanied by regional brain hypertrophy and atrophy(Al-

Amri et al., 2022; Pantiru et al., 2025).

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.

RESULTS

PDZD8 expression in midbrain neurons and astrocytes

We performed immunostaining using the PDZD8 antibody in PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and PDZD8$^{-/-}$

mice to comprehensively analyze the distribution of PDZD8 expression in the brain.

Though the specificity of the PDZD8 antibody has been demonstrated in a previous paper

(Morita et al., 2022), we compared PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and PDZD8$^{-/-}$ signals in each region and

only considered cells with specific signals as PDZD8-expressing cells (Supplementary

figure 1A). The results showed that PDZD8 is expressed in multiple regions throughout

the brain, but the intensity of expression varied considerably depending on the region and

cell type. Brain regions showing notably high expression are shown in Supplementary

figure 1B.

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). Though the SNr is a large region with distinct

cellular distributions according to rostral, caudal, medial, and lateral areas, we selected

regions for high concordance between PDZD8 and each cell marker. 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, both of
them specifically labels neutral lipids in the hydrophobic core of LDs with a high signal-
to-noise ratio (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.

Increased striatal projection to SNr in PDZD8^{-/-} mice

181   To test whether lipid accumulation alters SNr connectivity, we performed retrograde
182   neuronal tracing by injecting Alexa594-CTb into the SNr of PDZD8^{+/+} and PDZD8^{-/-} mice
183   (Figure 5A, B). In both genotypes, injection sites were equivalent. However, corpus
184   striatal (CP) neurons, including pallidum (GP) neurons, projecting to SNr were markedly
185   increased and spatially expanded in PDZD8^{-/-} mice (Figure 5C–E). In addition, we also

observed the similar results with a different mouse pair using the alternative tracer Alexa488-CTb (Supplementary figure 2A–E). These changes indicate enhanced striatal inputs to the SNr (Figure 5F). PDZD8 expression was also detected in dopamine- and cAMP-regulated phosphoprotein (DARPP-32)-positive medium spiny neurons (MSNs) in the striatum (Figure 5G), and DARPP-32 immunoreactivity was significantly elevated in the SNr of PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 5H). Together, these findings suggest strengthened GABAergic striatal inputs to SNr in PDZD8 deficiency.

Decreased projection from SNr 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 by injection of anterograde neuronal tracer palmitoylated GFP (palGFP) into the SNr of PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice. Injection sites were comparable between groups (Figure 6A, B). In PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice, projections from the SNr to the VAL/VM and nst (Figure 6C), as well as to the VTA and SNc (Figure 6D), were markedly reduced compared to controls (Figure 6E), indicating disrupted SNr output (Figure 6F). Although GPi is also a major output nucleus from SNr, palGFP signal in GPi was too faint to determine whether there was a difference between PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and PDZD8$^{-/-}$.

Abnormal dopaminergic circuits in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice

Based on these observations, we propose that lipid accumulation in the SNr induces functional disinhibition within the basal ganglia–thalamocortical circuitry (Figure 7). Specifically, lipid deposition in SNr neurons leads to reduced inhibitory output from the SNr to both VAL/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.

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 (VAL/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 VAL/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
lysosomal and GABAergic 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. However,
areas beyond those shown in this study may also be involved in ADHD-like behavior of
PDZD8$^{-/-}$. While lipid accumulation in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ is most pronounced in SNr, significant
lipid accumulation is also observed in DR, BLA, and CeA (Figure 2A). Therefore, future
studies should investigate abnormalities in regions beyond SNr. ADHD is primarily
considered a dysfunction of circuits connecting PFC and basal ganglia, which govern
attention and executive function, with dopamine and noradrenaline involved in
controlling these circuits. Furthermore, amygdala, which regulates emotions, and raphe
nuclei, which control impulsivity, are also implicated in ADHD, with serotonin involved
in regulation of these circuits. It is necessary to investigate abnormalities in these circuits
and neurotransmitters in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice.

Regulation of inhibitory circuits by lipid metabolism

Although direct evidence for lipid deposition within neurons in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ has not been

obtained, the morphology and size of lipid-accumulating cells in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice suggest
they must be neurons. For example, in Figure 4C (LipiDyeII+GFAP), the two central
white cells exhibit the characteristic pyramidal shape of neurons, with a cell body
diameter exceeding 10 μm, significantly larger than the size of astrocyte cell bodies,
which have a diameter of 5 μm or less. Similarly, in Figure 2D (LipiDyeII+DIC), lipid-
accumulating cells in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ also exhibit the morphology and size of pyramidal cells
thought to be neurons. 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 related to basal ganglia or SNr.

Limitation of the study

Because lipofuscin exhibits strong autofluorescence, it remains unproven whether the
lipid-accumulating cells observed in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice are neurons. Although
immunostaining using wavelength-specific filters to visualize lipofuscin has been
reported(Guo et al., 2025), we were unable to establish this method in the present study.
While quantitative analysis of the entire SNr region was performed (Figure 2A),
quantitative analyses across serial sections (Figure 3) and three-dimensional
reconstructions (Figure 4) will be important in future studies.

The causal relationship and mechanisms linking lipid accumulation to circuit
reorganization in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice remain unresolved. However, previous studies have
shown that excessive lipofuscin accumulation induces lipid peroxidation–mediated
reactive oxygen species production, leading to lysosomal stress and chronic

neuroinflammation that promote neurodegeneration(Terman and Brunk, 2004; Gray and
Woulfe, 2005; Moreno-Garcia et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2025). Future studies should
directly quantify intracellular lipid peroxides and reactive oxygen species to test this
hypothesis.
Direct measurements of dopamine and its metabolites would provide important insight
but are technically challenging and were not feasible in the present study.
Although PDZD8 is broadly expressed throughout the brain, lipid accumulation was
selectively prominent in the SNr of PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice. The basis of this regional
vulnerability remains unclear and warrants further investigation, including potential
contributions of PDZD8-interacting complex components. Future studies combining in
vivo dopamine imaging, electrophysiological recordings of SNr neurons, and cell-type–
specific PDZD8 rescue approaches will be required to define the relative contributions of
neuronal and glial populations. In addition, pharmacological or genetic restoration of lipid
homeostasis may help determine whether normalization of lipid metabolism can rescue
basal ganglia circuit stability and associated behavioral deficits.

Conclusion

Together, our findings reveal that PDZD8-dependent lipid metabolism is indispensable
for preserving inhibitory control within the basal ganglia and ensuring accurate
dopaminergic prediction error signaling, providing a unifying mechanistic framework
linking metabolic stress, circuit disinhibition, and behavioral dysregulation.

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. All experiments were performed using at least two sets of paired mice
(PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and PDZD8$^{-/-}$). Mouse sex and age were matched across experiments, and
both mice in each pair were analyzed simultaneously. In all experiments, mice were
aged 4–9 months and were either male or female. Figures show representative images
from one of the multiple experiments performed. A summary table listing these mouse
details is shown in Supplementary table 1.

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– or 488–conjugated cholera toxin subunit B (CTb, 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). 200 nl of Alexa Fluor 594-CTb was injected into the SNr (coordinates from Bregma: AP: -3.2 mm, ML: ±1.4 mm, DV: -4.4 mm). 150 nl of Alexa Fluor 488-CTb was injected into the SNr (coordinates from Bregma: AP: -3.7 mm, ML: ±1.8 mm, DV: -4.5 mm). 100 nl of AAV solution was injected into the SNr (coordinates from Bregma: AP: -3.7 mm, ML: ±1.8 mm, DV: -4.5 mm). 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.). Information

of tracer injection was summarized in Supplementary table 2.

Histological analysis of neural tracing

Mouse brain was fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde in PBS, exposed consecutively to 15%

and 30% sucrose in PBS for 2 days, and embedded in OCT compound. Thin sections (50

μm) were prepared with a cryostat microtome. The sections were observed with an

LSM800 confocal microscope. The distribution of the tracer at the injection site was

verified, and only sections without substantial displacement of the injection site were

included in the analysis. The sections were imaged using a LSM800 to acquire

fluorescence images. The images were processed for calculation of fluorescence intensity

with ZEN imaging software. Regions of interest (ROIs) were defined on the acquired

images, and fluorescence intensity values were extracted. Background fluorescence was

subtracted to obtain tracer-specific signal intensities. Tracer signals were quantified for

both the injection sites and the target regions, and values from the target regions were

normalized to those of the corresponding injection sites.

Statistical analysis

For lipid imaging, 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. 2A, 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. 2A, CeA). For neuronal tracing, statistical analysis was

performed using Microsoft Excel. Variance homogeneity was assessed using an F-test,

and based on the results, appropriate t-tests, Welch's t test (Fig. 6E, VAL/VM; SNc) or

Student's t test (Fig. 5E, Str; Fig. 6E, VTA; SNc) were applied to evaluate statistical

significance. Quantitative data are presented as mean ± SE. Statistical significance of a

P value is indicated as $p < 0.05$ (*) and $p < 0.001$ (***). Sample size (n) are in the figure

legends.

Acknowledgements

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

Immunofluorescent analysis, N. Takahashi for discussion, 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; M.I. and 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.

474   Dahm, R. (2006). Alzheimer's discovery. *Curr Biol* 16(21)**,** R906-910. doi:
475   10.1016/j.cub.2006.09.056.

476   Falasconi, A., Kanodia, H., and Arber, S. (2025). Dynamic basal ganglia output signals
477   license and suppress forelimb movements. *Nature* 644(8077)**,** 749-758. doi:
478   10.1038/s41586-025-09066-z.

479   Foley, P. (2010). Lipids in Alzheimer's disease: A century-old story. *Biochim Biophys Acta*
480   1801(8)**,** 750-753. doi: 10.1016/j.bbalip.2010.05.004.

481   Foster, N.N., Barry, J., Korobkova, L., Garcia, L., Gao, L., Becerra, M., et al. (2021). The
482   mouse cortico-basal ganglia-thalamic network. *Nature* 598(7879)**,** 188-194. doi:
483   10.1038/s41586-021-03993-3.

484   Gray, D.A., and Woulfe, J. (2005). Lipofuscin and aging: a matter of toxic waste. *Sci*
485   *Aging Knowledge Environ* 2005(5)**,** re1. doi: 10.1126/sageke.2005.5.re1.

486   Grillner, S., and Robertson, B. (2016). The Basal Ganglia Over 500 Million Years. *Curr*
487   *Biol* 26(20)**,** R1088-R1100. doi: 10.1016/j.cub.2016.06.041.

488   Guo, J.L., Braun, D., Fitzgerald, G.A., Hsieh, Y.T., Rouge, L., Litvinchuk, A., et al. (2025).
489   Decreased lipidated ApoE-receptor interactions confer protection against
490   pathogenicity of ApoE and its lipid cargoes in lysosomes. *Cell* 188(1)**,** 187-206
491   e126. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2024.10.027.

492   Kim, H., Ahrlund-Richter, S., Wang, X., Deisseroth, K., and Carlen, M. (2016). Prefrontal
493   Parvalbumin Neurons in Control of Attention. *Cell* 164(1-2)**,** 208-218. doi:
494   10.1016/j.cell.2015.11.038.

495   Kurihara, Y., Mitsunari, K., Mukae, N., Shoji, H., Miyakawa, T., and Shirane, M. (2023).
496   PDZD8-deficient mice manifest behavioral abnormalities related to emotion,
497   cognition, and adaptation due to dyslipidemia in the brain. *Mol Brain* 16(1)**,** 11.
498   doi: 10.1186/s13041-023-01002-4.

499   Lambert, J.C., Ibrahim-Verbaas, C.A., Harold, D., Naj, A.C., Sims, R., Bellenguez, C., et
500   al. (2013). Meta-analysis of 74,046 individuals identifies 11 new susceptibility
501   loci for Alzheimer's disease. *Nat Genet* 45(12)**,** 1452-1458. doi: 10.1038/ng.2802.

502   Lee, J., Wang, W., and Sabatini, B.L. (2020). Anatomically segregated basal ganglia
503   pathways allow parallel behavioral modulation. *Nat Neurosci* 23(11)**,** 1388-1398.
504   doi: 10.1038/s41593-020-00712-5.

505   Lewis, D.A., Hashimoto, T., and Volk, D.W. (2005). Cortical inhibitory neurons and
506   schizophrenia. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 6(4)**,** 312-324. doi: 10.1038/nrn1648.

507   Litvinchuk, A., Suh, J.H., Guo, J.L., Lin, K., Davis, S.S., Bien-Ly, N., et al. (2024).
508   Amelioration of Tau and ApoE4-linked glial lipid accumulation and
509   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.

Pantiru, A.D., Van de Sompele, S., Ligneul, C., Chatelain, C., Barrea, C., Lerch, J.P., et al. (2025). Autistic behavior is a common outcome of biallelic disruption of PDZD8 in humans and mice. *Mol Autism* 16(1)**,** 14. doi: 10.1186/s13229-025-00650-8.

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. Sample size (n) denotes the number of images.

(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. The region of ectopic DAT signal is outlined with a dotted line. 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 Alexa594-conjugated cholera toxin subunit B (Alexa594-CTb) injected to SNr merged with DIC images. Tiling images 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 Alexa594-CTb merged with DIC images of brain region containing striatum, indicating projection sources. Tiling images 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 (C) and 200 μm (D).

(E) Dot plots showing normalized ratio of mean fluorescence intensity of Alexa594-CTb at Str (striatum). Sample size (*n*) denotes the number of images.

(F) Schematic representation of striatal projections to SNr, with showing increase in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice compared to PDZD8$^{+/+}$ mice. Injection sites of Alexa594-CTb to SNr are also indicated.

(G) 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.

(H) Immunofluorescence images of DARPP and merged with DIC in SNr of PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and PDZD8$^{-/-}$. Scale bars, 100 μm.

Figure 6. Abnormal projection from SNr in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice.

(A, B) Confocal images showing palmitoylated GFP (palGFP) injection sites in SNr merged with DIC images. Tiling images 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 SNr projections to the ventral anterior-lateral complex

of the thalamus (VAL), 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) Dot plots showing normalized ratio of mean fluorescence intensity of palGFP at

VAL/VM, nst, VTA, and SNc. Sample size (n) denotes the number of images.

(F) 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.

Figure 7. Abnormal dopaminergic circuits in PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice.

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 figure 1. Specificity of anti-PDZD8 antibody.

(A) Immunofluorescence analysis of PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice. PDZD8 (green) and

the merged image of PDZD8 (green), DAT (red), and Hoechst (blue) in the VTA region

are shown. Scale bars, 10 μm.

(B) The summary of brain regions and cell types whether they were colocalized or not

with PDZD8. Immunostaining with the anti-PDZD8 antibody in PDZD8$^{+/+}$ and

PDZD8$^{-/-}$ mice were comprehensively analyzed. (+) in the yellow columns indicates

"colocalization was observed between the cell marker and PDZD8". (-) in the white

columns indicates "colocalization was not observed between the cell marker and

PDZD8". Vacant column indicates "not tested."

Supplementary figure 2. Increased striatal projection to SNr in PDZD8^{-/-} mice.

(A, B) Confocal images of Alexa488-CTb injected to SNr merged with DIC images.

Tiling images of cerebral hemisphere (A) and images focused on SNr (B). Scale bars,

500 µm (A) and 200 µm (B).

(C, D) Confocal images of Alexa488-CTb merged with DIC images of brain region

containing Str (striatum), indicating projection sources. Tiling images of cerebral

hemisphere (C) and images focused on striatum (D). Scale bars, 500 µm (C) and 200

µm (D).

(E) Dot plots showing normalized ratio of mean fluorescence intensity of Alexa488-

CTb at Str (striatum). Sample size (*n*) denotes the number of images.

Supplementary figure 3. Decreased SNr projection to thalamus in PDZD8^{-/-} mice.

Confocal and merged DIC images of thalamic regions showing SNr projection targets.

PalGFP signals in thalamus indicate SNr projections to the ventral anterior-lateral

complex of the thalamus (VAL) and ventromedial thalamus (VM). Scale bars, 200 µm.

Supplementary table 1. Information of mouse age and sex.

The age and sex of mice used in this study were summarized.

Supplementary table 2. Information of neuronal tracer injection.

Concentration, volume, target region, and coordinates from Bregma for Alexa594-CTb,

Alexa488-CTb, and AAV2/1-CMV-palGFP were summarized.

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⁻/⁻, SNr (M)

| LipiDye II | GFAP | LipiDye II + GFAP |

Scale: 10 µm

C PDZD8⁻/⁻, SNr (L)

| LipiDye II | GFAP | LipiDye II + GFAP |

Scale: 10 µm

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7