Mitochondrial complex I deficiency stratifies idiopathic Parkinson's disease

Irene H Flønes[1,2,3], Lilah Toker[1,2,3], Dagny Ann Sandnes[1,2], Martina Castelli[1], Sepideh Mostafavi[1,2], Njål Lura[4,5], Omnia Shadad[1,2], Erika Fernandez-Vizarra[6,7], Cèlia Painous[8], Alexandra Pérez-Soriano[8,9], Yaroslau Compta[8], Laura Molina-Porcel[10,11], Guido Alves[12,13], Ole-Bjørn Tysnes[1,2], Christian Dölle[1,2,3], Gonzalo S Nido[1,2,3] and Charalampos Tzoulis[1,2,3]*

1. Neuro-SysMed, Department of Neurology, Haukeland University Hospital, 5021 Bergen, Norway. 2. Department of Clinical Medicine, University of Bergen, Pb 7804, 5020 Bergen, Norway. 3. K.G. Jebsen Center for Translational Research in Parkinson's disease, University of Bergen, Pb 7804, 5020 Bergen, Norway. 4. Mohn Medical Imaging and Visualization Centre, Department of Radiology, Haukeland University Hospital, Bergen, Norway. 5. Section for Radiology, Department of Clinical Medicine, University of Bergen, Norway. 6. MRC-Mitochondrial Biology Unit, University of Cambridge, Hills Road, Cambridge, CB2 0XY, UK. 7. Veneto Institute of Molecular Medicine, 35131 Padova, Italy. 8. Parkinson's disease & Movement Disorders Unit, Neurology Service, Hospital Clínic I Universitari de Barcelona; IDIBAPS, CIBERNED (CB06/05/0018-ISCIII), ERN-RND, Institut Clínic de Neurociències (Maria de Maeztu excellence centre), Universitat de Barcelona. Barcelona, Catalonia. 9. UParkinson-Sinapsi Neurología, Centre Mèdic Teknon Grup Hospitalari Quirón Salud, Barcelona. 10. Alzheimer's disease and other cognitive disorders unit. Neurology Service, Hospital Clínic, Institut d'Investigacions Biomediques August Pi i Sunyer (IDIBAPS), 11. Neurological Tissue Bank, Biobanc-Hospital Clínic-IDIBAPS, Barcelona, Spain. 12. The Norwegian Centre for Movement Disorders and Department of Neurology, Stavanger University Hospital, Pb 8100, 4068 Stavanger, Norway. 13. Department of Mathematics and Natural Sciences, University of Stavanger, 4062 Stavanger, Norway.

*Correspondence to:
Prof. Charalampos Tzoulis
Neuro-SysMed Center of Excellence for Clinical Research in Neurological Diseases
Department of Neurology, Haukeland University Hospital
Department of Clinical Medicine, University of Bergen
5021 Bergen, Norway.
Telephone: +47 55975061
E-mail: charalampos.tzoulis@nevro.uib.no
E-mail-2: charalampos.tzoulis@helse-bergen.no

Word count main text: 7252

Running title: Complex I stratifies Parkinson's disease

Number of figures: 7

Number of tables: 2

Number of supplementary files: 10 figures, 10 tables

Keywords: neurodegeneration, neurodegenerative synucleinopathy, parkinsonism, subtypes,

subgroups, mitochondrial PD, mitochondrial respiratory chain, mitochondrial DNA, gene

expression.

Abstract

Idiopathic Parkinson's disease (iPD) is believed to have a heterogeneous pathophysiology, but

molecular disease subtypes have not been identified. We show that iPD can be stratified

according to the severity of neuronal respiratory complex I (CI) deficiency, and identify two

emerging disease subtypes with distinct molecular and clinical profiles. The CI deficient (CI-

PD) subtype accounts for approximately a fourth of all cases, and is characterized by

anatomically widespread neuronal CI deficiency, a distinct cell type-specific gene expression

profile, increased load of neuronal mtDNA deletions, and a predilection for non-tremor

dominant motor phenotypes. In contrast, the non-CI deficient (nCI-PD) subtype exhibits no

evidence of mitochondrial impairment outside the dopaminergic substantia nigra and has a

predilection for a tremor dominant phenotype. These findings constitute a step towards

resolving the biological heterogeneity of iPD with implications for both mechanistic

understanding and treatment strategies.

Introduction

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a heterogeneous, clinicopathologically defined neurodegenerative disorder, with an age-dependent incidence and a rapidly rising global prevalence[1]. More than 95% of affected individuals, in most populations, have idiopathic forms of PD (iPD), i.e., not of monogenic or other known etiology[1,2]. Available treatments for PD provide limited symptomatic relief, while attempts to develop neuroprotective agents have been consistently unsuccessful[3,4].

One of the major challenges in understanding and treating iPD lies in its biological heterogeneity. While all iPD cases exhibit degeneration of the dopaminergic neurons of the substantia nigra pars compacta (SNpc) in the presence of α-synuclein positive Lewy pathology (LP)[5], the disease shows significant clinicopathological variation beyond this common core. Widespread neuronal dysfunction and loss of variable anatomical distribution and severity gives rise to different constellations of motor and non-motor symptoms, with variable rates of progression, across affected individuals[1,4,6,7]. This phenotypical diversity has prompted the hypothesis that iPD may encompass multiple distinct disorders, each with its own underlying mechanisms and potential responses to treatments[4,6]. Previous efforts to identify subtypes of iPD have mainly focused on clinical features, with age of onset, and motor or cognitive phenotype being the most common. Several phenotypical subtypes have been proposed based on these classification features, including tremor dominant (TD), akinetic rigid (AR), postural instability and gait disorder (PIGD), and PD dementia (PDD)[8–10]. However, these classifications offer little insight into the pathogenic heterogeneity of iPD. Indeed, top-down approaches attempting to link consensus phenotypical subtypes to specific underlying molecular processes, have thus far been unsuccessful, indicating the need for alternative approaches[4]. It has been proposed that a bottom-up strategy, stratifying iPD according to

distinctive molecular features rather than clinical profiles, may prove more fruitful in defining

disease subtypes amenable to specific therapies[4].

Major biological processes which have been associated with iPD include mitochondrial

dysfunction, impaired proteostasis, and neuroinflammation[1,3,4]. Mitochondrial dysfunction is

considered a key feature of iPD, proposed to be integral to its pathogenesis and

pathophysiology[11]. Evidence of impaired mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) maintenance, and

respiratory complex I (CI) deficiency has been consistently reported in the dopaminergic SNpc

of individuals with iPD[11–13]. While the causes of these mitochondrial defects are unknown, it is

hypothesized that they contribute to the neurodegenerative process, based on the facts that

chemical CI inhibition[14–16], genetic CI defects[17,18], and mutations in genes regulating mtDNA

homeostasis[19,20] can cause degeneration of the dopaminergic SNpc and other neuronal

populations in humans. In addition to the SNpc, CI deficiency has been reported in neurons

across multiple brain regions, as well as in extra-neural tissues, including muscle and blood[12,21].

However, reported findings are variable and contradictory, with nearly half the studies showing

no significant difference between individuals with PD and controls at the group level[12]. While

this variability may be in part methodological in nature, it also raises a valid question regarding

the pervasiveness of CI deficiency in iPD. In line with this notion, studies in skin fibroblasts

from individuals with iPD have identified evidence of mitochondrial dysfunction in only a

minority of the subjects[22,23].

In light of this evidence, we wished to explore whether mitochondrial dysfunction is a

universal feature of iPD, or one which occurs in a subpopulation of affected individuals,

potentially defining a molecular subtype of the disease. To test this hypothesis, we studied the

pervasiveness of neuronal CI deficiency in 92 individuals with genetically validated iPD and

24 neurologically healthy controls from two independent cohorts.

Results

Neuronal CI deficiency exhibits higher specificity for iPD in the prefrontal cortex than in the SNpc

To select a robust marker for neuronal CI immunodetection, we tested antibodies against different CI subunits across the functional domains of the complex[24] in the SNpc of 5 individuals with iPD and 3 controls. All tested subunits exhibited a similar pattern and severity of neuronal CI deficiency, consistent with a quantitative reduction of the entire CI in affected cells (Supplementary Fig. S1). Subunit NDUFS4 was chosen for downstream analyses due to superior staining quality. Neuronal CI status was subsequently assessed, along with the total mitochondrial mass marker VDAC1, in the dopaminergic SNpc and prefrontal cortex (PFC) of two independent cohorts from Norway (NOR, n = 54) and Spain (ESP, n = 62). The demographic and clinicopathological information of the cohorts, and experimental allocation of the samples are shown in Table 1 and Supplementary Tables S1 and S2.

Neurons were classified as either negative or positive (Fig. 1a-b) by two independent investigators, and the percentage of positive neurons per region and individual was used as a measure of CI status. There was excellent inter-investigator reliability (ICC coefficient = 0.91, 95% C.I (0.87,0.94), P = 1.9×10^{-29}) (Fig 1c-d, Supplementary Table S3). At the group level, the SNpc exhibited pronounced CI deficiency in both iPD and control subjects, with considerable overlap between the groups. iPD had a significantly lower proportion of CI positive dopaminergic neurons in the combined cohorts (P = 0.003) and the NOR cohort (P = 8.2×10^{-4}), but not in the ESP cohort (P = 0.26) (Fig. 1e, Table 2, Supplementary Table S3). In the PFC, controls showed no or mild CI deficiency, whereas high variation was observed in the iPD group. A significantly lower proportion of CI positive neurons among individuals with iPD was observed in each cohort individually (NOR: P = 7.0×10^{-4}, ESP: P = 0.031) and in the combined cohorts (P = 5.0×10^{-5}; Fig. 1f, Table 2, Supplementary Table S3). The neuronal CI status in the

PFC showed a significant association with disease state (i.e., iPD vs ctr), whereas that of the SNpc did not (linear regression, PFC: P = 0.006, SNpc: P = 0.06). CI deficiency in the PFC was not associated with post-mortem interval (PMI) ($\rho(109) = -0.08$, P = 0.42), age of death ($\rho(110) = 0.03$, P = 0.73), or disease duration ($\rho(79) = 0.06$, P = 0.60) (Supplementary Table S1). The VDAC1 staining showed no deficient neurons in iPD or controls of either cohort (Fig. 2a-b, Supplementary Table S3).

Neuronal CI deficiency stratifies iPD

To assess the pervasiveness of CI deficiency in iPD, individuals were stratified based on the proportion of CI positive neurons in the PFC. This region was chosen over the SNpc for two reasons. First, neuronal CI deficiency was found to be more specific to PD in the PFC than in the SNpc (Fig. 1e-f). This is in line with previous findings, showing that dopaminergic SNpc neurons can exhibit severe CI deficiency and other markers of mitochondrial dysfunction with healthy aging, making it challenging to distinguish between disease-specific and age-related changes[25–27]. Second, the severe neuronal loss in the SNpc of iPD[28] complicates the comparison between cases and controls. Specifically, surviving SNpc neurons are likely to be resilient cells, introducing survival bias.

Individuals with iPD were classified by k-means clustering of the entire study population (cases and controls). The number of clusters was set to three based on visual inspection of the data. Of the three emerging iPD subgroups, two clustered away from the controls and were termed mild (n = 18/89, 20.2%) and severe (n = 6/89, 6.7%) CI deficient PD (CI-PD mild; CI-PD severe), whereas one (n = 65/89, 73.0%) clustered with the controls and was termed non-CI deficient PD (nCI-PD) (Fig. 1g). A similar clustering pattern was observed in each of the NOR and ESP cohorts individually, where the combined CI-PD clusters accounted for 33% and 22% of the iPD cases, respectively (Fig. 1h, Supplementary Table S3).

Since the severe CI-PD cluster only contained six samples, the mild and severe clusters were

combined into a single CI-PD group for downstream statistical analyses.

CI-PD is characterized by anatomically widespread CI deficiency

To determine the anatomical distribution of neuronal CI deficiency in the iPD subgroups, we

studied 15 additional brain regions in representative individuals with CI-PD, nCI-PD and

controls from the NOR cohort. All individuals with iPD had Braak scores of 5-6 and the median

disease duration was 12 years in both subgroups (Supplementary Tables S1 and S2). Subjects

in the CI-PD group showed an anatomically widespread neuronal CI-deficiency compared to

controls, including the temporal cortex, occipital cortex, CA1 region of the hippocampus,

amygdala, putamen, and the cingulate gyrus. Lower proportions of CI intact neurons were also

seen in the internal globus pallidus and the subiculum, but these did not reach statistical

significance. No difference from controls was observed in CA4-2 of the hippocampus, the

external globus pallidus, inferior olivary nucleus, cerebellar Purkinje cells and the dentate

nucleus. The nCI-PD group was similar to controls, with the single exception of the SNpc. The

difference in SNpc was, however, less pronounced compared to the CI-PD group. Finally, we

noted that, similar to the SNpc, the inferior olivary nucleus, Purkinje neurons and dentate

nucleus showed high proportions of CI negative neurons in several of the controls, suggesting

that these neuronal populations may be prone to age-dependent CI loss (Fig. 2, Fig. 3,

Supplementary Tables S3 and S4).

To assess the state of the other mitochondrial respiratory chain (MRC) complexes in the

iPD groups, we performed IHC for selected subunits of complexes II-V (CII-V) and VDAC1

in 12 brain regions from two to four subjects from each of the CI-PD and nCI-PD groups

(Supplementary Table S2). Irrespective of group, individuals with iPD exhibited no or few

neurons staining negative for CIII, CIV and CV (generally ≤5%). No negative neurons were

observed in sections stained against VDAC1 or CII (Supplementary Table S3, Supplementary

Fig. S2).

CI-PD is associated with a non-TD phenotype

The CI-PD and nCI-PD groups were similar in terms of age of first reported symptom, age of

death, disease duration, and total UPDRS score at the final examination before death.

Individuals with severe CI-PD tended to have an earlier age of onset and age of death, but the

small size of that group did not allow any conclusions to be drawn (Fig. 4a-c, Supplementary

Table S5). The groups differed significantly in the distribution of motor phenotype classified

as AR/TD[9] (available from both cohorts), or PIGD/TD[10] (available from the NOR cohort only),

at the time of diagnosis. In the CI-PD group, the AR and PIGD phenotypes accounted for 88%

(14/16) and 75% (9/12) of the individuals, respectively. In the nCI-PD group, the AR or PIGD

phenotypes were significantly less prevalent, accounting for 60% (25/42) and 29% (6/21) of

the individuals, respectively. Notably, individuals with severe CI-PD exhibited exclusively AR

or PIGD phenotype (Fig. 4h-i). Furthermore, the CI-PD group exhibited a significantly higher

proportion of females (CI-PD: 54.2%, nCI-PD: 26.2%, P = 0.013), compared to the nCI-PD

group, and a significantly lower level of ethanol consumption than the nCI-PD group (Fig. 4e-

f). There was no significant difference between the groups in the prevalence of dementia at the

final examination before death (Fig. 4g). Following multiple testing correction (Benjamini

Hochberg), the difference in the distribution of the PIGD/TD phenotype (P = 0.04), sex (P =

0.04), and number of weekly alcoholic units (P = 0.04) remained significant. However, since

the tested variables were highly correlated with each other and the sample size was relatively

small, the risk of type 2 error by correcting for multiplicity, is higher than the risk of type 1

error by not correcting[29]. Individual clinical and demographic features are given in

Supplementary Tables S1 and S5.

In terms of neuropathology, there were no significant between-group differences in either Thal phase staging of beta amyloid, Braak staging of neurofibrillary tangles, or Braak staging of LP. Moreover, there was no difference in the load of LP in the PFC (available from the NOR cohort only) between the groups (Supplementary Fig. S3).

CI-PD and nCI-PD show different neuronal mtDNA profiles

Neuronal mtDNA copy number and deletion burden were assessed by qPCR in single neurons microdissected from the PFC (Fig. 5a-b) of individuals with CI-PD (n = 6), nCI-PD (n = 9) and controls (n = 7; Supplementary Table S2). Eight to sixteen single neurons were assessed per individual. There was a significant difference in neuronal mtDNA deletions between the groups (ANOVA, P = 0.037, η^2 = 0.30). Post-hoc analyses showed that the CI-PD group had significantly higher levels of mtDNA deletions compared to the nCI-PD group (P = 0.037; Fig. 5b). No differences were observed in neuronal mtDNA copy number (total or non-deleted) between the groups (Fig. 5c-d). The mtDNA data is shown in Supplementary Table S6.

CI-PD and nCI-PD exhibit distinct transcriptomic profiles

Hierarchical clustering of RNA-seq data from the PFC of 98 of the individuals previously assessed for CI deficiency (Supplementary Table S2) indicated that individuals with CI-PD tended to cluster together (Fig. 6a), with a similar behavior observed in each of the cohorts (Supplementary Fig. S4). The CI-PD group was associated with lower DV200 values, a measure of RNA integrity indicating the percentage of RNA fragments with 200 nucleotides or more, compared to both nCI-PD and controls (Fig. 6a). However, this association could not be explained by PMI, since the PMI range of the CI-PD group was similar to that of the controls within each cohort (Supplementary Fig. S5).

To control for between-group differences in the cell composition of the samples, we

assessed Marker Gene Profiles (MGPs)[30] of different cell types in each iPD group and the

controls. Linear regression adjusting for age of death, sex, PMI and cohort, indicated a

significant change in the MGP of multiple cell types in the CI-PD group compared to the

controls. However, step-wise regression analysis suggested that the observed changes were not

independent, but rather driven by a decrease in the MGP of GABAergic interneurons expressing

both vasoactive intestinal peptide-expressing (VIP) and reelin (GabaVIPReln) (Fig. 6b,

Supplementary Fig. S6). No difference was observed in the MGPs of the nCI-PD group

compared to the controls (Fig. 6b, Supplementary Fig. S6).

To account for the effects of different cell composition on the differential gene

expression (DE) profile of CI-PD, we performed DE analysis using two alternative models: 1)

Correcting for the confounding MGP of GabaVIPReln (Model_1) and 2) not correcting for

MGPs (Model_2). Both models included the demographic variables and oligodendrocyte

MGPs to adjust for any variation in the grey/white matter content between the samples[31,32].

Adjusting for GabaVIPReln MGPs resulted in a striking reduction of the number of

differentially expressed genes in the CI-PD group, from 11,138 to 10 (Supplementary Table

S7). Notably, while oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS)-related genes were among the top

differentially downregulated genes in the non-adjusted model, none of these genes remained

significant after adjusting for cell composition (Fig 6c). In contrast, MGP correction had no

major impact on the DE analysis of the nCI-PD group (Fig 6c).

nCI-PD exhibits altered expression in multiple PD-linked pathways but no decrease in

OXPHOS genes

We next performed functional enrichment analyses of the DE results. Since the DE analysis of

the CI-PD group was highly confounded by the underlying tissue composition, we were unable

to determine whether the results represented true regulatory changes or simply altered cell

composition. We therefore chose not to further focus on these results, which are given in

Supplementary Table S8. The transcriptomic signature of nCI-PD, which was not confounded

by estimated cell composition, was characterized by changes in numerous pathways, including

the downregulation of processes related to proteostasis (lysosome and proteasome),

GABAergic signaling, synaptic function and lipid metabolism. Upregulated processes included

pathways related to epigenomic regulation, steroid synthesis, and potassium channels. Notably,

there were no changes in genes or pathways related to mitochondrial respiration (Fig. 6d,

Supplementary Fig. S7 and S8, Supplementary Table S8).

Single-nuclei RNA sequencing reveals distinct cell type-specific profiles between CI-PD

and nCI-PD

To mitigate the bias of cell composition indicated by the bulk RNA-seq data and assess cell

type-specific transcriptomic similarities between CI-PD and nCI-PD, we performed massively

parallel single-nuclei RNA-seq (snRNA-seq) in fresh-frozen PFC from n = 7 individuals with

CI-PD, n = 5 individuals with nCI-PD, and n = 6 controls (Supplementary Table S2). After

filtering and quality control, a total of 117,105 nuclei (mean: 6,506±2,952 nuclei per individual)

were included in the analyses. There was no significant difference in the number of captured

nuclei between groups (ANOVA P = 0.051).

Default clustering using Seurat identified a total of 28 clusters that could be unequivocally

assigned to a major cortical cell type, based on established cell type markers (12 excitatory

neuron clusters, 8 inhibitory neuron clusters, 3 oligodendrocyte clusters, 2 astrocyte clusters, 1

microglia cluster, 1 oligodendrocyte precursor cells (OPC) cluster, and 1 endothelial cluster,

Figure 7A-B). Unique molecular identifier (UMI) counts and number of identified genes per

nucleus were not significantly different between groups in any of the identified cell type

clusters.

Differential gene expression analysis comparing each of the iPD groups to the controls revealed

distinct cell type-specific transcriptomic profiles between CI-PD and nCI-PD. After FDR

correction, we found a total of 189 significantly differentially expressed genes in CI-PD and

569 significantly differentially expressed genes in nCI-PD, distributed among several cell type

clusters, with 66 genes overlapping between the groups (Figure 7C). CI-PD showed differential

expression in most excitatory and inhibitory neuronal subtypes, and a notable upregulation in

microglia, including *PRKN* – encoding parkin, a key component of mitophagy – in which

mutations cause autosomal recessive PD[33]. nCI-PD exhibited multiple differentially expressed

genes, with most of the signal observed in neurons and oligodendrocytes, while no differential

expression was seen in microglia. The differentially expressed genes per cell type and group

are shown in Supplementary Tables S9 and S10. A visual map of significantly differentially

expressed genes (FDR < 5%) with fold change $\geq$ 25%, in at least one cell type, is shown in

Supplementary Fig. S10.

Discussion

Identifying and exploring molecular subtypes of iPD is a critical step towards mechanistic and therapeutic advancements. We show that iPD can be stratified according to the severity of neuronal CI deficiency and identify two emerging disease subtypes with distinct molecular and clinical features, indicating a divergent pathophysiology. CI-PD is characterized by widespread neuronal CI deficiency across multiple brain regions. In contrast, nCI-PD, exhibits a neuronal CI profile similar to that of demographically matched controls, with the single exception of the dopaminergic SNpc, where higher levels of CI deficiency are observed, albeit to a lesser extent than in CI-PD. Importantly, this difference is not driven by disease duration or age, indicating that it does not reflect two different stages of the same process. The existence of the CI-PD and nCI-PD subtypes is shown independently in two different populations, suggesting that this is generalizable to- and representative of iPD.

It is likely that CI deficiency contributes to neuronal dysfunction and death in CI-PD. Neurons depend on CI function to maintain a high ATP turnover[34]. Brain mitochondria exhibit impaired energy metabolism with major decreases in ATP production upon 60% reduction of CI activity, and this threshold is much lower (~25%) for synaptic mitochondria[35]. While functional assessment of CI activity is currently not feasible in individual neurons from postmortem brain, it is reasonable to assume that neurons with no detectable CI staining (i.e., CI negative neurons) must have severely decreased CI activity and, therefore, a compromised bioenergetic status. This is corroborated by the fact that isolated CI deficiency of either chemical[14,16] or genetic[17,36] etiology is an established cause of neuronal dysfunction and death in humans and other animals.

With the single exception of mild deficiency in the dopaminergic SNpc, the nCI-PD group exhibited a neuronal CI profile similar to that of age-matched controls. Thus, we postulate that CI deficiency does not make an important contribution to the pathogenesis of PD-

specific neurodegeneration outside the SNpc in these individuals. CI deficiency may still

contribute to the degeneration of the dopaminergic SNpc neurons in nCI-PD. However, given

that this deficiency was significantly milder compared to CI-PD, and showed substantial

overlap with the aged-matched controls, its disease-specific pathophysiological significance

remains uncertain.

The CI-PD and nCI-PD groups differed in terms of motor disease subtype at the time of

diagnosis. Our data indicate that CI dysfunction is significantly more common in the non-TD

form of iPD, which has also been shown to harbor more severe neurodegeneration[37]. The

mechanism underlying this association is currently unknown but may be related to more

widespread and severe neuronal dysfunction and loss in CI-PD, induced by the CI deficiency.

This is corroborated by the bulk RNAseq data indicating more neuronal loss in CI-PD. Until

clinically applicable biomarkers of CI-PD and nCI-PD can be developed, enabling us to classify

individuals in vivo, we advocate that clinical iPD studies would benefit by distinguishing

between TD and non-TD phenotypes. Since individuals with a non-TD phenotype at the time

of diagnosis are substantially more likely to belong to the CI-PD subtype, they may be more

likely to benefit from experimental treatments targeting mitochondria. While there are currently

no drugs specifically targeting CI, several agents targeting mitochondrial biogenesis and/or

function have been tested in clinical trials with negative results[3], while others are still in the

pipeline[38]. In light of our findings, it would be of interest to revisit the data of previously

conducted trials, this time with a stratified approach, and assess how the treatment impacted

individuals with a non-TD or TD phenotype. Moreover, stratifying future clinical trials by

motor phenotype may improve the chances of success by addressing biological heterogeneity

in the cohort. In addition to the motor phenotype, we observed an association of CI-PD with

the female sex and a lower consumption of ethanol. The latter may be driven by the female

preponderance in this subtype.

Neuronal mtDNA profiles in the PFC corroborated the stratification of iPD into CI-PD

and nCI-PD groups. mtDNA deletions are an established cause of MRC deficiencies in post-

mitotic cells[39–41]. However, given the small effect size of the mtDNA deletion increase in the

CI-PD group, and the fact that neuronal deletion levels were generally below 60%, i.e., the

threshold at which MRC dysfunction has been proposed to occur[39], the biological significance

of the detected difference in mtDNA deletion levels remains uncertain. It should be noted that,

since most PFC neurons of individuals with CI-PD remain CI positive, it is possible that few or

none of the captured neurons in our experiments were CI negative. Thus, the possibility that

CI-negative neurons harbor higher deletion levels, driving the CI deficiency, cannot be ruled

out by this work. An alternative explanation is that mtDNA deletions in CI-PD individuals may

be the result, rather than the cause, of CI deficiency. Under this hypothesis, mtDNA deletions

may arise during the repair of double-strand breaks, caused by increased reactive oxygen

species (ROS) generation in CI deficient neurons[42,43].

RNA-seq revealed distinct transcriptomic profiles between the CI-PD and nCI-PD

groups. In bulk tissue data, the transcriptomic signature of CI-PD was severely confounded

with cell-type-specific expression profiles (i.e., MGPs), indicating differences in the cell type

composition of the samples. The observation that CI-PD exhibited decreased estimates for

GABAergic interneurons is consistent with a mitochondrial defect. GABAergic interneurons

have high bioenergetic demands, due to their fast-spiking firing pattern, and have been shown

to be selectively lost in mitochondrial disease characterized by neuronal CI deficiency disease

[44]. While MGPs are not direct cell counts, they are indicative of a simultaneous shift in multiple

cell-type specific genes. Regardless of whether this reflects a difference in the underlying

cellular composition of the tissue, synaptic loss, or phenotypic change[36], this association

indicates that any regulatory changes cannot be disentangled from differences due to altered

tissue composition[31,45]. Thus, no further conclusions should be drawn from transcriptomic

analyses of bulk brain tissue data from CI-PD individuals. In contrast, the nCI-PD group

exhibited no difference in MGPs compared to controls. Thus, we believe that the DE signature

of this group reflects regulatory changes associated with the disease. The transcriptional profile

of nCI-PD showed altered expression in multiple pathways, many of which have been

previously linked to PD[46–48].

snRNA-seq allowed us to compare the iPD subgroups within each cell-type, thus

circumventing the confounder of different cell composition. These analyses revealed a highly

distinct cell type-specific transcriptomic profile for each of CI-PD and nCI-PD, supporting that

the two subtypes harbor distinct molecular processes. While single-nucleus transcriptomics are

not sufficient to adequately characterize these processes, since they only captures a small part

of the cell's transcriptional state, the data provides us with some hints. Neurons and astrocytes

were affected in both groups, albeit by largely different genes. However, microglia and

oligodendrocytes showed subgroup-specific involvement. The CI-PD-specific changes in

microglia are suggestive of mitophagy activation, which indicates the presence of

mitochondrial dysfunction and stress in these cells. In contrast, nCI-PD showed no changes in

microglia, but harbored substantial transcriptional alterations in oligodendrocytes.

Oligodendrocyte involvement has been previously reported in PD[49]. Our findings suggest that

this may be specific to nCI-PD.

Our findings must be interpreted considering certain limitations. Although we defined

groups of iPD, the exact threshold between them remains arbitrary, and the severity of neuronal

CI deficiency across individuals can also be seen as a continuum. Nevertheless, this does not

alter the fact that only a subset of individuals with iPD show neuronal CI deficiency outside the

SNpc, and this subpopulation exhibits distinct clinical and molecular features.

Functional assessment of specific CI activity was not undertaken in this work, because

it is currently not feasible to assess in individual cells. Measurement of CI activity in bulk tissue

would be unreliable because of both low sensitivity due to the mosaic distribution of the CI

defect, and low specificity in the sense that it cannot adequately distinguish between cell-

specific reduction in CI activity or a decrease in neuronal and synaptic content in the sample.

We have previously shown that the PFC of iPD exhibits markers of decreased neuronal

content[31], and our current data suggests that these differences may be more pronounced in CI-

PD, thereby biasing any comparison in bulk tissue. In terms of the gene expression data, the

cell-type composition bias is mitigated by the snRNA-seq. However, when interpreting this

data, it is important to consider that nuclear transcriptomes do not reflect post-transcriptional

RNA turnover and subcellular segregation and do not, therefore, necessarily capture the full

transcriptomic state of the cell. This is particularly true in neurons, where RNA composition

varies considerably between the soma, processes, and synapses. Furthermore, snRNA-seq

cannot capture the mitochondrial transcriptome.

In summary, this work establishes that anatomically widespread neuronal CI deficiency

is not a pervasive feature of iPD, but one that occurs in a subset of individuals, accounting for

approximately a fourth of all cases. These results have important scientific and clinical

implications for the field. First, the existence of the CI-PD and nCI-PD subtypes provides an

explanation for the variable and conflicting findings in previous studies of mitochondrial

pathology in iPD, which were performed on unstratified samples. Second, given the major

molecular differences between the two iPD subtypes, we recommend that future studies

employing iPD brain tissue should stratify their material according to CI subtype. This would

decrease the biological heterogeneity of the sample and allow for more consistent and

biologically meaningful observations to be made. Finally, it is plausible that the CI-PD and

nCI-PD subtypes exhibit different susceptibility to therapeutic interventions targeting

mitochondria or other subtype-associated pathways. Thus, we believe that harnessing this

classification in clinical practice may be an essential step towards implementing precision

medicine in iPD. While our findings suggest that the non-TD motor phenotype may be used as

a proxy for CI-PD to some extent, the accuracy of this approach is limited. To efficiently

translate these findings into clinical practice requires the development of clinically applicable

biomarkers, allowing us to classify individuals in vivo.

Materials and Methods

Subject cohorts and tissue samples

Brain tissue was obtained from two independent cohorts of European origin. The Norwegian cohort (NOR, n = 55) comprised 41 individuals with iPD from the ParkWest study, a prospective population-based cohort followed since 2004[50], and 13 neurologically healthy controls (i.e., no clinical diagnosis of neurological disease or pathological evidence of α-synucleinopathy), who had been prospectively collected by our group. The NOR samples were stored at our in-house brain bank. The Spanish cohort (ESP, n = 62) comprised 51 individuals with iPD and 11 neurologically healthy controls from the Neurological Tissue Bank, Hospital Clínic – IDIBAPS Biobank, Barcelona, Spain. Analysis of whole-exome sequencing data from the NOR cohort [51] and RNA-sequencing (RNAseq) data from both cohorts (described below), revealed no pathogenic mutations in nuclear genes linked to monogenic PD or mitochondrial diseases, thus ruling out monogenic causes. Prospectively collected systematic clinical and environmental exposure data were available for the iPD cases of the NOR cohort, as previously described[50]. In the NOR cohort, probable PDD was diagnosed according to the Movement Disorder Society Level 1 criteria[8]. Cognitive deficiency severe enough to impair daily life was defined based on the Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS) score 1-1[52]. Impairment in cognitive domains was determined based on tests of attention ("serial 7's" test), visuo-constructive ability (correct drawing of the pentagons), and memory impairment (3-word recall), from the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE)[53]. Appropriate tests on executive function were not available, thus the diagnosis of PDD in the NOR cohort was based on data from three, rather than four cognitive domains, as required by the MDS Level 1 criteria[8]. Two individuals had impairment in only one cognitive domain in addition to fulfilling the remaining criteria for PDD. These two individuals may thus have been potentially misclassified and as non-PDD cases. Individuals were classified by motor phenotype as TD or AR according to the

Schiess classification[9], and TD or PIGD according to the Jankovic classification[10]. Detailed

retrospective clinical data were available on the controls of the NOR cohort from the hospital

records. Retrospective clinical data on disease duration, dementia (yes/no) and PD phenotype

(TD/AR/mixed) were available from the hospital records of individuals of the ESP cohort.

There was no significant difference between controls and iPD subjects in PMI or sex

distribution in either of the cohorts, or in the combined cohort. Age of death was similar

between controls and iPD subjects in the NOR cohort, while the control subjects were older in

the ESP cohort and in the combined cohort. Subsets of samples used in downstream analyses

were matched for age of death, sex and PMI-range, with the exception of the transcriptomic

analyses, where the controls were older as reflected by the age distribution in the ESP and

combined cohorts. The demographic data of the cohorts and descriptive statistics of each cohort

are shown in Table 1.

Brains were collected at autopsy and processed according to either in-house[25] or

Neurological Tissue Bank protocol[54]. For the neuropathological evaluation, LP was staged

according to the Braak criteria[55,56], and β-amyloid phases were evaluated according to the Thal

criteria[57]. All cases fulfilled the essential pathological criteria for PD: loss of the dopaminergic

neurons of the SNpc in the presence of LP[58]. Subject demographics, pathology scores and

clinical data are summarized in Supplementary Table S1. Experimental allocation of subjects

is summarized in Supplementary Table S2.

Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemistry (IHC) for mitochondrial markers was carried out on formalin-fixed,

paraffin-embedded brain tissue from individuals of both the NOR and ESP cohorts. Serial 3 μm

thick sections were stained with primary antibodies against the following epitopes; NDUFS4

(ab137064, dilution 1:1500, Abcam), NDUFB8 (ab110242, dilution 1:300, Abcam), NDUFA9

(ab14713, dilution 1:750, Abcam), NDUFS1 (ab169540, dilution 1:300, Abcam), SDHA

(ab14715, dilution 1:10,000, Abcam), UQCRC2 (ab14745, dilution 1:10,000, Abcam), MTCOI

(459600, dilution 1:15,000, Thermo Fisher Scientific), ATP5A (ab14748, dilution 1:20,000,

Abcam), and VDAC1 (ab14734, dilution 1:20,000, Abcam).

Sections were stained in the intelliPATH FLX Automated Slide Stainer (Biocare).

Deparaffinization and antigen retrieval was performed in the low pH EnVision FLEX Target

Retrieval Solution at 98 °C for 24 minutes in the DAKO PT link from Agilent. Antibodies were

diluted in DaVinci Green Diluent (Biocare, PD900) and incubated for 1 hour at room

temperature. MACH4 Universal HRP-polymer (Biocare, M4U534) and DAB chromogen kit

(Biocare DB801) were used for visualization. Tacha's Automated Hematoxylin (Biocare, NM-

HEM) was used for visualization of nuclei. Sections were washed in the TBS Automation Wash

buffer from Biocare (TWB945M). Experimental allocation is given in Supplementary Table

S2.

Image analysis

All sections were scanned using the NanoZoomer XR (Hamamatsu). Visual analysis was

performed on all sections, and neurons with clearly visible nucleus and nucleolus were

classified as either negative or positive (Fig. 1a). After classification was performed, the total

percentage of positive neurons was calculated for each individual and area. From the prefrontal

cortex (PFC) in the NOR cohort, three regions of 3.5 mm^2 spanning cortical layers 2-6 were

chosen at a low magnification (1.5X), before analyses were carried out in the selected area at

40X magnification. Area selection from one region spanning 3.5 mm^2 was performed in a

similar manner in the PFC from the ESP cohort, and in the occipital and temporal cortex, the

cingulate gyrus, subiculum, putamen and the amygdala. All neurons per section were analyzed

in the CA-areas of the hippocampus (CA4-1), globus pallidus, dentate nucleus, inferior olivary

nucleus, and Purkinje cell layer of the cerebellar cortex. In the SNpc, all neuromelanin

containing neurons were analyzed per section. SNpc sections with fewer than 25 identifiable

neuromelanin containing neurons were excluded from downstream analyses of neuronal CI

status because data resulting from these sections would entail high levels of statistical

uncertainty, at the range of the expected group differences (i.e., any misclassified neuron as CI

positive or negative would result in at least 4% (1/25) difference in the estimated proportion of

positive neurons.) An uncertainty greater or equal to 4% was deemed unacceptable since it is

close to the difference between the medians of the groups being compared in our analyses.

Independent evaluation of the PFC from the NOR cohort was performed by two observers (IHF

and CT). All analyses were carried out at 40X magnification. Visual analysis was carried out

using the NDP.view2plus version(v)2.7.25 software (Hamamatsu).

Single neuron laser-microdissection studies

Qualitative and quantitative mtDNA studies were performed in single laser-microdissected

neurons from 20 μm thick sections of fresh-frozen tissue from the PFC, which had been stained

with 0.25% cresyl violet in ddH_2O as described[26]. Neurons were recognized based on their

morphology. Laser microdissection was performed on a LMD7 microscope (Leica

microsystems). A total of 162 cells (8-16 from each individual) were cut, of which 55 were

from controls (n = 7) and 107 were from individuals with iPD (n = 14). Experimental allocation

is shown in Supplementary Table S2. Single neurons were collected in the cap of 0.2 ml PCR

tubes and lysed at 56°C overnight in 15 μL lysis buffer (50mM Tris pH 8.0, 0.5% Tween

20, 200 μg/mL proteinase K). Following lysis, cells were centrifuged at 3,700 rpm for 10

minutes before proteinase K was deactivated at 95°C for 10 minutes, and the samples were

centrifuged again. Total mtDNA copy number and the fraction of major arc deletion were

determined using a duplex real-time PCR assay which targeted the mitochondrial genes

MTND1 and *MTND4* as described[26]. Amplification was performed on a Step One Plus Real-

Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems by Thermo Fisher Scientific) using TaqMan Fast

Advanced Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Thermal cycling consisted of one cycle at

95°C for 20 seconds, and 40 cycles at 95°C for 1 second and 60°C for 20 seconds. For absolute

quantification, target amplification was compared with a standard curve made form a serial

dilution containing equal amounts of PCR-generated and purified full length *MTND1* and

MTND4 template (10^2-10^6). The following primers were used for the standard curve; *MTND1*:

forward primer: 5′-CAGCCGCTATTAAAGGTTCG- 3', reverse primer: 5′-

AGAGTGCGTCATATGTTGTTC-3′;   *MTND4*:   forward   primer: 5′-

TCCTTGTACTATCCCTATGAG-3′, reverse primer: 5′- GTGGCTCAGTGTCAGTTCG-3′.

RNA sequencing

RNA-seq was performed on frozen PFC tissue samples from 98 individuals from both cohorts

(Supplementary Table S2). Total RNA was extracted from tissue homogenates using RNeasy

plus mini kit (Qiagen) with on-column DNase treatment according to manufacturer's protocol.

Final elution was made in 65 μl of ddH2O. The concentration and integrity of the total RNA

were estimated by Ribogreen assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and Fragment Analyzer

(Advanced Analytical), respectively, and 500 ng of total RNA was used for library prep using

the TruSeq™ Stranded Total RNA With Ribo-Zero™ Plus rRNA Depletion protocol

(Illumina). Library quantity was assessed by Picogreen Assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and

the library quality was estimated by utilizing a DNA High Sense chip on a Caliper Gx (Perkin

Elmer). Accurate quantification of the final libraries for sequencing applications was

determined using the qPCR-based KAPA Biosystems Library Quantification kit (Kapa

Biosystems, Inc.). Each library was diluted to a final concentration of 1.4 nM and pooled

equimolar prior to clustering. Sequencing was performed on a NovaSeq 6000 (Illumina, Inc.),

to yield 100 million, 100 base pair paired-end reads per sample. Sequencing was performed at

HudsonAlpha Institute for Biotechnology, AL, USA. RNA integrity number (RIN) and DV200

index (percentage of fragments > 200 nucleotides) were lower in the NOR cohort compared to

the ESP cohort: (mean [min-max]), NOR_{RIN}: 4.3 [1.7-7.7], ESP_{RIN}: 6.9 [2.7–9.1]; NOR_{DV200}:

85.3 [71.8-93.2], ESP_{DV200}: 92.2 [80.1–96.2]. No significant difference in the RNA quality

measures between individuals with iPD and controls was observed in either of the cohorts

(linear model, NOR_{RIN}: P = 0.26, NOR_{DV200}: P = 0.33; ESP_{RIN}: P = 0.11, ESP_{DV200}: P = 0.11).

RNA-seq analysis

Salmon v1.3.0 [58] was used to quantify the abundance at the transcript level with the fragment-

level GC bias correction option (--gcBias) against GENCODE v35. Transcript-level

quantification was collapsed onto gene-level quantification using the tximport R package

v1.8.0[59] according to the gene definitions provided by the same Ensembl release. Non-canonical

chromosomes and scaffolds, and genes encoded by the mitochondrial genome were excluded

from the analysis. In addition, we removed genes accounting for >0.6% of the reads in more

than half of the samples, resulting in the removal of 4 transcripts (*RN7SL2*, *RN7SL1*, *RN7SK*,

LINC00632; Supplementary Fig. S9, as well as low-expressed genes (expression <5 reads in

80% of the samples). At the final step, we used the expression level of the sex-specific genes

XIST, KDM5D and *RPS4Y1* to define the noise threshold for our data[30]. Relative cell abundance

was estimated using cell-type specific marker gene profiles (MGPs), as previously

described[30,60]. Difference in the cell type MGPs between the groups were assessed through

linear regression adjusting for age, sex, PMI and cohort, using "lm" function from the R "stats"

function v4.1.0. Differential expression (DE) analysis between each of iPD clusters and controls

was performed using "DESeq2" R package v1.32, using the protein-coding genes to calculate

the normalization factor, while adjusting for sex, age, PMI, cohort and the relevant MGPs.

Functional enrichment analysis was performed based on the one-sided P-value, previously

described[30,31], using the gene score resampling method implemented in the ermineR package

v1.0.1[61], an R wrapper package for ermineJ[62]. Enrichment was calculated for the combined list

of gene-sets of Gene Ontology (GO) database [63] and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and

Genomes (KEGG) pathways [64,65] v7.2 as well as An Inventory of Mammalian Mitochondrial

Genes v3 (MitoCarta3.0)[66]. Only gene-sets of size >=20 and <=500 were included in the

analysis, resulting in 5,397 testable gene-sets. To visualize the enrichment results, pair-wise

similarity between significant gene-sets (excluding gene-sets from the MitoCarta database) was

first assessed using Jaccard Index. Next, the obtained similarity matrix was used to cluster the

gene-sets using the "hclust" function from the "stats" R package v4.1.2, with the "ward.D2"

method. The phylo tree was then created using the "ape" R package v5.5. The count matrix and

the code necessary to reproduce these results are available through github repository:

https://git.app.uib.no/neuromics/PD_Complex-I_stratification. All the information regarding

the version of the software and the packages used for the analysis are provided in the

SessionInfo.Rds file.

592   Single nucleotide variant discovery

RNA-seq reads were aligned against the hg38 reference genome using Hisat2 v2.2.1[67]. Genome

Analysis Toolkit (GATK) v4.1.9.0 [68] was used to mark duplicate reads and split the CIGAR

signatures using the *MarkDuplicates* and *SplitNCigarReads* tools, respectively. Base quality

score recalibration was then performed using the *BaseRecalibrator* and *ApplyBQRS* tools to

generate the final alignment files. For each alignment, *HaplotypeCaller* was used in GVCF

mode (option *-ERC GVCF*) with optional arguments *-dont-use-soft-clipped-bases* and *--max-*

alternate-alleles 4. Joint genotyping was carried for all resulting sample gVCF files using the

GenomicsDBImport and *GenotypeGVCFs* tools. The final analysis-ready multisample VCF

consisted only of single-nucleotide variants filtered using *VariantFiltration* with the conditions

QD < 5; DP < 10; FS > 60; MQ < 40. Samples were classified into the major mitochondrial

haplogroups using HaploGrep2 [69] based on the Phylotree Build 17[70].

Genotypes with < 10 reads were removed, and the genetic data was recoded into binary

PLINK format using VCFTools v0.1.15[71]. PLINK v1.90 was used for individual and variant-

level quality control (QC)[72]. Only autosomes were considered, and variants within the sex

chromosomes and mtDNA were removed. Individuals were excluded if their genomic data

showed a missing rate > 20%, abnormal heterozygosity ($\pm$ 3 standard deviations) or cryptic

relatedness (identity by descent (IBD) > 0.2). Population stratification was studied using

multidimensional scaling (MDS) against the HapMap populations[73].

Single nucleotide variants (SNVs) were excluded if the missing genotype rate was >

20%, the call rates between PD and controls differed significantly (P < 0.02) or they displayed

departure from the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (P < 1.0×10^{-5}). Monomorphic variants were

removed, and the dataset contained no multiallelic variants after QC. Principal component (PC)

analysis was performed using Eigensoft[74,75].

Single-nuclei isolation

Nuclei isolation procedure was performed as described in[76] with minor modifications. For each

sample, 50 - 85 mg of frozen human prefrontal cortex were homogenized. All procedures were

performed on ice. Tissue was dissociated in 2 mL of homogenization buffer (320 mM sucrose,

5 mM CaCl2, 3 mM Mg(CH3COO)2, 10 mM Tris HCl [pH 7.8], 0.1 mM EDTA [pH 8.0],

0.1% IGEPAL CA-630, 1 mM DTT, and 0.4 U/µL RNase Inhibitor (ThermoFisher Scientific)

inside a 7 mL KIMBLE Dounce tissue grinder set (Merck), using 10 strokes with loose pestle

followed by 10 strokes with tight pestle. Homogenized tissue was filtered through a 30 µm cell

strainer and centrifuged at 1000 x g for 8 min at 4°C. Supernatant was discarded, and pellet was

resuspended in 450 μL of 2% BSA (in 1x PBS) containing 0.12 U/μL RNase Inhibitor. Cleanup of the nuclei suspension was achieved with density gradient centrifugation. Equal volumes (450 μL) of nuclei suspension and working solution (50% OptiPrep density gradient medium (Merck), 5 mM CaCl2, 3 mM Mg(CH3COO)2, 10 mM Tris HCl [pH 7.8], 0.1 mM EDTA [pH 8.0], and 1 mM DTT) were mixed. The density gradient was prepared by carefully layering 750 μL of 30% OptiPrep Solution (134 mM sucrose, 5 mM CaCl2, 3 mM Mg(CH3COO)2, 10 mM Tris HCl [pH 7.8], 0.1 mM EDTA [pH 8.0], 1 mM DTT, 0.04% IGEPAL CA-630, and 0.17 U/μL RNase Inhibitor) on top of 300 μL of 40% OptiPrep Solution (96 mM sucrose, 5 mM CaCl2, 3 mM Mg(CH3COO)2, 10 mM Tris HCl [pH 7.8], 0.1 mM EDTA [pH 8.0], 1 mM DTT, 0.03% IGEPAL CA-630, and 0.12 U/μL RNase Inhibitor) inside a 2 mL Sorenson Dolphin microcentrifuge tube (Merck). The mixture containing the nuclei (800 μL) was slowly pipetted onto the top of the OptiPrep density gradient and samples were centrifuged at 10,000 x g for 5 min at 4°C using a fixed angle rotor (FA-45-24-11-Kit). Nuclei were recovered by withdrawing a volume of 200 μL from the 30 – 40% interface of the OptiPrep density gradient and transferring to a new 2 mL Sorenson Dolphin microcentrifuge tube (Merck). Nuclei were washed with 2% BSA (in 1x PBS) containing 0.12 U/μL RNase Inhibitor and then pelleted by centrifugation at 300 x g for 3 min at 4°C using a swing-bucket rotor (S-24-11-AT) for a total of three times. The nuclear pellet was resuspended in a minimum volume of 100 μL of 2% BSA (in 1x PBS) containing 0.12 U/μL RNase Inhibitor and carefully mixed by pipetting 20 times on ice. The nuclei suspension was filtered through a 40 μm FlowMe cell strainer (Merck) to remove any remaining nuclei aggregates. Nuclei were stained with Trypan blue and counted manually on a hemocytometer.

10,000 nuclei per sample were targeted for droplet-based snRNA sequencing. cDNA synthesis and libraries were prepared using the Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3′ Reagent Kit v3.1 Dual Index (10x Genomics) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Libraries from each

sample were pooled and run using paired-end (300 million read pairs per sample) sequencing

on the NovaSeq 6000 platform (Illumina) at Novogene (Cambridge).

snRNA-seq analyses

Raw FASTQ files were aligned to the human genome (GRCh38) using CellRanger v.6.1.2 (10x

Genomics) accounting also for intronic reads to include all nuclear transcripts (include-introns

option) and excluding secondary mappings (nosecondary option). In order to estimate

intronic:exonic ratio, an additional alignment was carried only accounting for reads mapped to

exonic reads. Version 35 of the ENCODE transcriptome assembly was used (Ensembl 101).

To minimize the confounding effect of non-nuclear ambient RNA and discard empty

droplets, we employed CellBender[77] on the raw data prior to importing the counts into R.

Percentage of mitochondrially-encoded genes and ribosomal genes were then calculated for

each droplet using the Seurat R Package (*PercentageFeatureSet*)[78]. Each biological sample was

independently normalized, and automatic feature selection was carried out using Seurat

(*NormalizeData*, *FindVariableFeatures*). In order to collectively analyze the datasets, samples

were integrated using the standard Seurat integration strategy. Briefly, features (genes) were

automatically selected using *SelectIntegrationFeatures* to scale each sample and obtain a

principal component analysis (PCA) of gene expression. Using the first 50 principal

components, samples were integrated using reciprocal PCA with automatically detected

anchors (*FindIntegrationAnchors*) and using controls to build the reference (*IntegrateData*).

Clusters were firstly identified using the standard Seurat analysis with excess barcodes (i.e.,

including twice as many barcodes in each sample to ensure the inclusion of a large population

of empty droplets). On each sample the largest cluster always corresponded to the cluster with

the largest proportion of empty droplets (as defined by DropletUtils[79]). Visual inspection of

the UMAP plots allowed the identification of other smaller ambient clusters which were

removed together with the main empty droplet cluster for downstream analyses. Resulting non-

empty droplets were then further screened and only droplets with at least 500 transcripts, at

least 1,000 UMIs, and below 3% mitochondrially-encoded transcripts were analyzed.

Transcripts detected in fewer than 10 cells were also filtered out. Doublets were assessed

independently for each sample using the DoubletFinder R package[80] assuming 7% doublet rate.

Standard clustering using Seurat with 0.5 resolution resulted in a total of 28 clusters (Fig. 7A)

which could be assigned to the main cortical cell types based on known markers (SATB2 and

SLC17A7 for excitatory neurons, GAD1 and SLC6A1 for inhibitory neurons, MOG and MOBP

for oligodendroglia, GFAP and AQP4 for astrocytes, CLDN5 and SLC2A1 for endothelial

cells, OLIG1 and VCAN for oligodendrocyte precursor cells, and CSF1R and CSF3R for

microglia[81], Fig. 7B. Finally, to increase the within-cluster cell type homogeneity and minimize

the number of doublets, we used two alternative approaches. First, the Euclidean distance in

PCA space was calculated between each single cell and the average of each cluster using the

first 5 PCs. Barcodes for which the shortest distance did not correspond to their cluster

membership were removed from the analyses. We then calculated the first PC of the cell type

specific markers for each barcode (marker gene profiles, MGP[60]). MGPs correspond to the first

PC of the cell type specific markers. In this way, we obtained for each droplet a value for each

major cell type (i.e., neuron, oligodendrocyte, endothelial cell, microglia, astrocyte, OPC)

scaled across all droplets. We then calculated a score for each droplet, corresponding to the

MGP for the annotated cell type divided by the sum of the other MGPs. Droplets with poor

scores (i.e., below 0.4) were filtered. The filtering procedure resulted in a total of 117,105

nuclei. The cluster labels were used to compare cell type composition of the diseased and

control groups using ANOVA.

To assess the statistical significance of the difference in the number of captured nuclei

between groups (nCI-PD, CI-PD and Ctrl) we used an ANOVA test at α = 0.05. Differences

between groups in the number of genes per nucleus were assessed for each cell type cluster

with linear mixed-effects models (LMM) with disease status as fixed effect and individual as

random effect. P-values for each LMM were estimated using the Satterthwaite's method. The

resulting p-values were considered significant above a false discovery rate (FDR) of 5%. The

same statistical approach was used to assess differences in the number of unique molecular

(UMI) counts between disease groups.

Differential expression within clusters between diseased groups and controls was

carried out using the MAST R package[82] using sex, post-mortem interval and age as fixed

effects, and individual as random effect[83] (Fig 7C).

Statistical analyses of the demographic, clinical, IHC and mtDNA data

Subject demographics, clinical data, and pathology scores are given in Supplementary Table

S1. Experimental allocation is given in Supplementary Table S2. Data were tested for normality

and equality of variances, using the Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene's test. Clustering was

performed in R (v4.1.2), using k-means with three centers, 20 random starting partitions, 100

iterations, and the Hartigan-Wong algorithm. Between group-comparisons were consequently

performed using either independent student's t-test or Mann-Whitney U-test, depending on data

normality, and descriptive data are given either as mean (standard deviation) or median [25th-

percentile-75th-percentile], respectively. Comparisons of grouped data were performed using

either Chi-Square (X^2) or Fisher's exact test depending on the group size of each variable. Data

is given as X^2 and/or odds ratio (95% confidence interval). Correlation analyses were performed

using Spearman's rank correlation due to non-normality of the data, Spearman's rank

correlation coefficient is given as $\rho(n-2)$. Between-group (Ctrl, CI-PD and nCI-PD)

comparison of neuronal mtDNA deletion proportion and copy number was performed by one-

way ANOVA on the individual median values. Due to the unequal sample sizes, Welch's test

for unequal variance was used. Eta squared (η^2) was used to determine the effect size of any

significant difference. The Games-Howell post hoc test was used to assess the statistical

significance of pairwise differences between groups, due to their unequal sample sizes and

variance. Hierarchical clustering analysis was performed in R v4.1.2 with the "ward.D2"

method. Correlation analyses and between-group comparisons were done in SPSS v27.0.0.

Plots were created in R v4.1.2 or GraphPad Prism v9.3.0. A P-value < 0.05 was considered

statistically significant. Statistical tests performed in the context of omics data analyses are

described in the corresponding methods sections.

Acknowledgements

We are deeply grateful to the study participants and their families involved in the study for their unique contribution. Furthermore, we would like to thank the entire Park West study consortium for their diligent efforts characterizing and following the Park West cohort; Dr. Yamila Torres Cleuren for the inspirational feedback and critical review of the manuscript; the Neurological Tissue Bank of the IDIBAPS-Hospital Clinic Biobank for providing data and samples; Dr. Brian L Edlow and colleagues for allowing us to use images from their 7 Tesla MRI atlas in Fig. 2; Dr. Romain Guitton, Dr. Kristoffer Haugarvoll and Janani Sundaresan for helping dissect and prepare the brain tissue for RNA-seq; Gry Hilde Nilsen for technical support.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Availability of data and materials

The datasets and code required to reproduce the results of these analyses are available in the Neuromics Group repository, https://git.app.uib.no/neuromics/PD_Complex-I_stratification.

Authors' contributions

IHF: participated in the study conception and design, designed and performed the IHC and qPCR experiments, assessed the neuropathology of the NOR cohort, analyzed the IHC, mtDNA, clinical and pathology data, and drafted the manuscript. LT: participated in the study design, analysed and interpreted the transcriptomics data, participated in, and advised on statistical approaches, and drafted parts of the manuscript. EFV: critical revision of the manuscript. DAS: performed part of the IHC stainings. NL: contributed to the preparation of Figure 2, advised on the statistical approach, and provided critical input for the manuscript. GA

and OBT: contributed biological material and clinical data and provided critical input to the

manuscript. AP-S, CP, YC: contributed clinical data and input to the manuscript. LMP:

contributed biological material, pathological data and critical input to the manuscript. CD:

contributed to the qPCR analyses and provided critical input for the manuscript. GSN:

participated in the study design, performed the prepossessing of all transcriptomic and genetic

data, performed the mtDNA variant analyses, participated in the interpretation of the

transcriptomic and genetic data, and drafted parts of the manuscript. CT: conceived, designed

and directed the study, contributed to data analyses and interpretation, drafted the manuscript,

and acquired funding for the study. All authors have read and approved the manuscript.

Funding sources

770 This work is supported by grants from The Research Council of Norway (288164), Bergen

771 Research Foundation (BFS2017REK05), The KG Jebsen Foundation (SKGJ-MED-023), and

772 the Western Norway Regional Health Authority (F-10229-D11661).

Ethics declarations

775 Ethics approval for these studies was obtained from our regional ethics committee (REK

776 2017/2082, 2010/1700, 2016/1592). Consent for publication was provided by all participants.

777 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

References

1. Bloem BR, Okun MS, Klein C. Parkinson's disease [Internet]. The Lancet 2021;0(0)[cited
2021 Apr 17] Available from:
https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(21)00218-
X/abstract

2. Kalia LV, Lang AE. Parkinson's disease. Lancet 2015;386(9996):896–912.

3. Athauda D, Foltynie T. The ongoing pursuit of neuroprotective therapies in Parkinson
disease. Nat. Rev. Neurol. 2015;11(1):25–40.

4. Espay AJ, Schwarzschild MA, Tanner CM, et al. Biomarker-driven phenotyping in
Parkinson disease: a translational missing link in disease-modifying clinical trials. Mov.
Disord. Off. J. Mov. Disord. Soc. 2017;32(3):319–324.

5. Dickson DW. Parkinson's disease and parkinsonism: neuropathology [Internet]. Cold
Spring Harb Perspect Med 2012;2(8)Available from:
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22908195

6. Chen-Plotkin AS, Albin R, Alcalay R, et al. Finding Useful Biomarkers for Parkinson's
Disease [Internet]. Sci. Transl. Med. 2018;10(454)[cited 2020 May 24] Available from:
https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6097233/

7. Greenland JC, Williams-Gray CH, Barker RA. The clinical heterogeneity of Parkinson's
disease and its therapeutic implications. Eur J Neurosci 2019;49(3):328–338.

8. Dubois B, Burn D, Goetz C, et al. Diagnostic procedures for Parkinson's disease
dementia: Recommendations from the movement disorder society task force. Mov.
Disord. 2007;22(16):2314–2324.

9. Schiess MC, Zheng H, Soukup VM, et al. Parkinson's disease subtypes: clinical
classification and ventricular cerebrospinal fluid analysis. Parkinsonism Relat. Disord.
2000;6(2):69–76.

10. Jankovic J, McDermott M, Carter J, et al. Variable expression of Parkinson's disease: a
base-line analysis of the DATATOP cohort. The Parkinson Study Group. Neurology
1990;40(10):1529–34.

11. Grünewald A, Kumar KR, Sue CM. New insights into the complex role of mitochondria in
Parkinson's disease. Prog. Neurobiol. 2019;177:73–93.

12. Subrahmanian N, LaVoie MJ. Is there a special relationship between complex I activity
and nigral neuronal loss in Parkinson's disease? A critical reappraisal. Brain Res.
2021;147434.

13. Flønes IH, Tzoulis C. Mitochondrial Respiratory Chain Dysfunction—A Hallmark
Pathology of Idiopathic Parkinson's Disease? [Internet]. Front. Cell Dev. Biol.

2022;10[cited 2022 Aug 11] Available from:
https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fcell.2022.874596

14. Ramsay RR, Salach JI, Singer TP. Uptake of the neurotoxin 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridine
(MPP+) by mitochondria and its relation to the inhibition of the mitochondrial oxidation
of NAD+-linked substrates by MPP+. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.
1986;134(2):743–748.

15. Langston JW, Ballard P, Tetrud JW, Irwin I. Chronic Parkinsonism in humans due to a
product of meperidine-analog synthesis. Science 1983;219(4587):979–980.

16. Betarbet R, Sherer TB, MacKenzie G, et al. Chronic systemic pesticide exposure
reproduces features of Parkinson's disease. Nat. Neurosci. 2000;3(12):1301–1306.

17. Reinson K, Õunap K. Complex I deficiency and Leigh syndrome through the eyes of a
clinician. EMBO Mol. Med. 2020;12(11):e13187.

18. Nikoskelainen EK, Marttila RJ, Huoponen K, et al. Leber's "plus": neurological
abnormalities in patients with Leber's hereditary optic neuropathy. J. Neurol.
Neurosurg. Psychiatry 1995;59(2):160–4.

19. Balafkan N, Tzoulis C, Muller B, et al. Number of CAG repeats in POLG1 and its
association with Parkinson disease in the Norwegian population. Mitochondrion
2012;12(6):640–3.

20. Gaweda-Walerych K, Safranow K, Maruszak A, et al. Mitochondrial transcription factor
A variants and the risk of Parkinson's disease. Neurosci Lett 2010;469(1):24–9.

21. Schapira AH, Cooper JM, Dexter D, et al. Mitochondrial complex I deficiency in
Parkinson's disease. Lancet 1989;1(8649):1269.

22. Carling PJ, Mortiboys H, Green C, et al. Deep phenotyping of peripheral tissue facilitates
mechanistic disease stratification in sporadic Parkinson's disease. Prog. Neurobiol.
2020;187:101772.

23. Winkler-Stuck K, Wiedemann FR, Wallesch C-W, Kunz WS. Effect of coenzyme Q10 on
the mitochondrial function of skin fibroblasts from Parkinson patients. J. Neurol. Sci.
2004;220(1–2):41–48.

24. Stroud DA, Surgenor EE, Formosa LE, et al. Accessory subunits are integral for assembly
and function of human mitochondrial complex I. Nature 2016;538(7623):123–126.

25. Flønes IH, Fernandez-Vizarra E, Lykouri M, et al. Neuronal complex I deficiency occurs
throughout the Parkinson's disease brain, but is not associated with neurodegeneration
or mitochondrial DNA damage. Acta Neuropathol. (Berl.) 2018;135(3):409–425.

26. Dölle C, Flønes I, Nido GS, et al. Defective mitochondrial DNA homeostasis in the
substantia nigra in Parkinson disease. Nat. Commun. 2016;7(1):13548.

27. Bender A, Krishnan KJ, Morris CM, et al. High levels of mitochondrial DNA deletions in
substantia nigra neurons in aging and Parkinson disease. Nat Genet 2006;38(5):515–7.

28. Zarow C, Lyness SA, Mortimer JA, Chui HC. Neuronal Loss Is Greater in the Locus
Coeruleus Than Nucleus Basalis and Substantia Nigra in Alzheimer and Parkinson
Diseases. Arch. Neurol. 2003;60(3):337–341.

29. Streiner DL. Best (but oft-forgotten) practices: the multiple problems of multiplicity-
whether and how to correct for many statistical tests. Am. J. Clin. Nutr.
2015;102(4):721–728.

30. Toker L, Mancarci BO, Tripathy S, Pavlidis P. Transcriptomic Evidence for Alterations in
Astrocytes and Parvalbumin Interneurons in Subjects With Bipolar Disorder and
Schizophrenia. Biol. Psychiatry 2018;84(11):787–796.

31. Nido GS, Dick F, Toker L, et al. Common gene expression signatures in Parkinson's
disease are driven by changes in cell composition. Acta Neuropathol. Commun.
2020;8(1):55.

32. Toker L, Tran GT, Sundaresan J, et al. Genome-wide histone acetylation analysis reveals
altered transcriptional regulation in the Parkinson's disease brain. Mol. Neurodegener.
2021;16(1):31.

33. Kitada T, Asakawa S, Hattori N, et al. Mutations in the parkin gene cause autosomal
recessive juvenile parkinsonism. Nature 1998;392(6676):605–8.

34. Shulman RG, Rothman DL, Behar KL, Hyder F. Energetic basis of brain activity:
implications for neuroimaging. Trends Neurosci. 2004;27(8):489–495.

35. Pathak RU, Davey GP. Complex I and energy thresholds in the brain. Biochim. Biophys.
Acta 2008;1777(7–8):777–782.

36. González-Rodríguez P, Zampese E, Stout KA, et al. Disruption of mitochondrial complex
I induces progressive parkinsonism. Nature 2021;599(7886):650–656.

37. Boonstra JT, McGurran H, Temel Y, Jahanshahi A. Nigral neuropathology of Parkinson's
motor subtypes coincide with circuitopathies: a scoping review. Brain Struct. Funct.
2022;227(7):2231–2242.

38. Brakedal B, Dölle C, Riemer F, et al. The NADPARK study: A randomized phase I trial of
nicotinamide riboside supplementation in Parkinson's disease. Cell Metab.
2022;34(3):396-407.e6.

39. Rossignol R, Faustin B, Rocher C, et al. Mitochondrial threshold effects. Biochem J
2003;370(Pt 3):751–62.

40. Kraytsberg Y, Kudryavtseva E, McKee AC, et al. Mitochondrial DNA deletions are
abundant and cause functional impairment in aged human substantia nigra neurons.
Nat Genet 2006;38(5):518–20.

41.   Rocha MC, Rosa HS, Grady JP, et al. Pathological mechanisms underlying single large-
885   scale mitochondrial DNA deletions. Ann. Neurol. 2018;83(1):115–130.

886   42.   Verkaart S, Koopman WJH, van Emst-de Vries SE, et al. Superoxide production is
887   inversely related to complex I activity in inherited complex I deficiency. Biochim.
888   Biophys. Acta BBA - Mol. Basis Dis. 2007;1772(3):373–381.

889   43.   Zsurka G, Peeva V, Kotlyar A, Kunz WS. Is There Still Any Role for Oxidative Stress in
890   Mitochondrial DNA-Dependent Aging? Genes 2018;9(4):175.

891   44.   Lax NZ, Grady J, Laude A, et al. Extensive respiratory chain defects in inhibitory
892   interneurones in patients with mitochondrial disease. Neuropathol. Appl. Neurobiol.
893   2016;42(2):180–193.

894   45.   Toker L, Nido GS, Tzoulis C. Not every estimate counts – evaluation of cell composition
895   estimation approaches in brain bulk tissue data. Genome Med. 2023;15:41.

896   46.   Borrageiro G, Haylett W, Seedat S, et al. A review of genome-wide transcriptomics
897   studies in Parkinson's disease. Eur. J. Neurosci. 2018;47(1):1–16.

898   47.   Alecu I, Bennett SAL. Dysregulated Lipid Metabolism and Its Role in α-Synucleinopathy
899   in Parkinson's Disease. Front. Neurosci. 2019;13:328.

900   48.   Shao Y, Li T, Liu Z, et al. Comprehensive metabolic profiling of Parkinson's disease by
901   liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry. Mol. Neurodegener. 2021;16(1):4.

902   49.   Agarwal D, Sandor C, Volpato V, et al. A single-cell atlas of the human substantia nigra
903   reveals cell-specific pathways associated with neurological disorders. Nat. Commun.
904   2020;11(1):4183.

905   50.   Alves G, Muller B, Herlofson K, et al. Incidence of Parkinson's disease in Norway: the
906   Norwegian ParkWest study. J. Neurol. Neurosurg. Psychiatry 2009;80(8):851–857.

907   51.   Gaare JJ, Nido GS, Sztromwasser P, et al. Rare genetic variation in mitochondrial
908   pathways influences the risk for Parkinson's disease: Mitochondrial Pathways In PD.
909   Mov. Disord. 2018;33(10):1591–1600.

910   52.   Goetz CG, Tilley BC, Shaftman SR, et al. Movement Disorder Society-sponsored revision
911   of the Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (MDS-UPDRS): Scale presentation and
912   clinimetric testing results: MDS-UPDRS: Clinimetric Assessment. Mov. Disord.
913   2008;23(15):2129–2170.

914   53.   Folstein MF, Folstein SE, McHugh PR. "Mini-mental state". A practical method for
915   grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. J. Psychiatr. Res.
916   1975;12(3):189–198.

917   54.   Borrego-Écija S, Turon-Sans J, Ximelis T, et al. Cognitive decline in amyotrophic lateral
918   sclerosis: Neuropathological substrate and genetic determinants. Brain Pathol. Zurich
919   Switz. 2021;31(3):e12942.

55. Braak H, Del Tredici K, Rüb U, et al. Staging of brain pathology related to sporadic
Parkinson's disease. Neurobiol. Aging 2003;24(2):197–211.

56. Braak H, Alafuzoff I, Arzberger T, et al. Staging of Alzheimer disease-associated
neurofibrillary pathology using paraffin sections and immunocytochemistry. Acta
Neuropathol. (Berl.) 2006;112(4):389–404.

57. Thal DR, Rüb U, Orantes M, Braak H. Phases of A beta-deposition in the human brain
and its relevance for the development of AD. Neurology 2002;58(12):1791–1800.

58. Dickson DW, Braak H, Duda JE, et al. Neuropathological assessment of Parkinson's
disease: refining the diagnostic criteria. Lancet Neurol. 2009;8(12):1150–1157.

59. Soneson C, Love MI, Robinson MD. Differential analyses for RNA-seq: transcript-level
estimates improve gene-level inferences. F1000Research 2016;4:1521.

60. Mancarci BO, Toker L, Tripathy SJ, et al. Cross-Laboratory Analysis of Brain Cell Type
Transcriptomes with Applications to Interpretation of Bulk Tissue Data. eNeuro
2017;ENEURO.0212-17.2017.

61. Mancarci O. ErmineR (R package) [Internet]. [date unknown];Available from:
https://github.com/PavlidisLab/ermineR

62. Gillis J, Mistry M, Pavlidis P. Gene function analysis in complex data sets using ErmineJ.
Nat. Protoc. 2010;5(6):1148–1159.

63. Ashburner M, Ball CA, Blake JA, et al. Gene ontology: tool for the unification of biology.
The Gene Ontology Consortium. Nat. Genet. 2000;25(1):25–29.

64. Kanehisa M. The KEGG resource for deciphering the genome. Nucleic Acids Res.
2004;32(90001):277D – 280.

65. Liberzon A, Subramanian A, Pinchback R, et al. Molecular signatures database (MSigDB)
3.0. Bioinformatics 2011;27(12):1739–1740.

66. Rath S, Sharma R, Gupta R, et al. MitoCarta3.0: an updated mitochondrial proteome
now with sub-organelle localization and pathway annotations. Nucleic Acids Res.
2021;49(D1):D1541–D1547.

67. Kim D, Langmead B, Salzberg SL. HISAT: a fast spliced aligner with low memory
requirements. Nat. Methods 2015;12(4):357–360.

68. Van der Auwera GA, Carneiro MO, Hartl C, et al. From FastQ data to high confidence
variant calls: the Genome Analysis Toolkit best practices pipeline. Curr Protoc
Bioinforma. 2013;43:11 10 1-33.

69. Weissensteiner H, Pacher D, Kloss-Brandstätter A, et al. HaploGrep 2: mitochondrial
haplogroup classification in the era of high-throughput sequencing. Nucleic Acids Res.
2016;44(W1):W58-63.

70. Dür A, Huber N, Parson W. Fine-Tuning Phylogenetic Alignment and Haplogrouping of
mtDNA Sequences. Int. J. Mol. Sci. 2021;22(11):5747.

71. Danecek P, Auton A, Abecasis G, et al. The variant call format and VCFtools.
Bioinformatics 2011;27(15):2156–8.

72. Chang CC, Chow CC, Tellier LC, et al. Second-generation PLINK: rising to the challenge of
larger and richer datasets. Gigascience 2015;4:7.

73. Gibbs RA, Belmont JW, Hardenbol P, et al. The International HapMap Project. Nature
2003;426(6968):789–796.

74. Patterson N, Price AL, Reich D. Population Structure and Eigenanalysis. PLOS Genet.
2006;2(12):e190.

75. Price AL, Patterson NJ, Plenge RM, et al. Principal components analysis corrects for
stratification in genome-wide association studies. Nat Genet 2006;38(8):904–9.

76. Lee H, Fenster RJ, Pineda SS, et al. Cell Type-Specific Transcriptomics Reveals that
Mutant Huntingtin Leads to Mitochondrial RNA Release and Neuronal Innate Immune
Activation. Neuron 2020;107(5):891-908.e8.

77. Fleming SJ, Chaffin MD, Arduini A, et al. Unsupervised removal of systematic
background noise from droplet-based single-cell experiments using CellBender
[Internet]. 2022;791699.[cited 2023 Jun 17] Available from:
https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/791699v2

78. Hao Y, Hao S, Andersen-Nissen E, et al. Integrated analysis of multimodal single-cell
data. Cell 2021;184(13):3573-3587.e29.

79. Griffiths JA, Richard AC, Bach K, et al. Detection and removal of barcode swapping in
single-cell RNA-seq data. Nat. Commun. 2018;9(1):2667.

80. McGinnis CS, Murrow LM, Gartner ZJ. DoubletFinder: Doublet Detection in Single-Cell
RNA Sequencing Data Using Artificial Nearest Neighbors. Cell Syst. 2019;8(4):329-
337.e4.

81. Neuronal subtypes and diversity revealed by single-nucleus RNA sequencing of the
human brain | Science [Internet]. [date unknown];[cited 2023 Jun 4] Available from:
https://www.science.org/doi/10.1126/science.aaf1204

82. Finak G, McDavid A, Yajima M, et al. MAST: a flexible statistical framework for assessing
transcriptional changes and characterizing heterogeneity in single-cell RNA sequencing
data. Genome Biol. 2015;16(1):278.

83. Zimmerman KD, Espeland MA, Langefeld CD. A practical solution to pseudoreplication
bias in single-cell studies. Nat. Commun. 2021;12(1):738.

84. Edlow BL, Mareyam A, Horn A, et al. 7 Tesla MRI of the ex vivo human brain at 100
micron resolution. Sci. Data 2019;6(1):244.

Table 1. Demographic information

Variable	Group	n	Median	IQR	U	P-value (Mann-Whitney U test)
PMI	NOR: Ctrl	13	43.0	31.5-60.0	188.0	0.16
	NOR: PD	39	30.0	24.0-48.0		
	ESP: Ctrl	11	7.5	6.0-10.3	242.0	0.48
	ESP: PD	51	8.0	6.0-14.0		
	Combined: Ctrl	24	27.0	7.5-46.8	933.5	0.31
	Combined: PD	90	16.0	7.0-30.0		

Variable	Group	n	Mean	SD	t	P-value (Student's t-test)
Age of death	NOR: Ctrl	13	82.8	10.5	-1.20	0.24
	NOR: PD	41	79.6	7.3		
	ESP: Ctrl	11	83.5	8.9	**-2.10**	**0.038**
	ESP: PD	51	78.0	7.4		
	Combined: Ctrl	24	83.1	9.6	**-2.40**	**0.018**
	Combined: PD	92	78.8	7.4		

Variable	Group	N	OR male (PD/Ctrl)	95% C.I.	P-value (Fisher's exact test)
Sex	NOR: Ctrl, male	4	3.90	1.0-14.9	0.056
	NOR: Ctrl, female	9			
	NOR: PD, male	26			
	NOR: PD, female	15			
	ESP: Ctrl, male	7	1.25	0.3-4.9	0.74
	ESP: Ctrl, female	4			
	ESP: PD, male	35			
	ESP: PD, female	16			
	Combined: Ctrl, male	11	2.33	0.9-5.9	0.097
	Combined: Ctrl, female	13			
	Combined: PD, male	61			
	Combined: PD, female	31			

995   PMI: post-mortem interval, IQR: interquartile range, SD: standard deviation, OR: odds ratio,

996   C.I.: confidence interval. NOR: Norwegian cohort, ESP: Spanish cohort, PD: Parkinson's

997   disease, Ctrl: controls.

1000 **Table 2. Between group comparisons of percentage CI positive neurons**
1001

Tissue	Cohort	Group	n	Median	IQR	U-value	P-value (Mann-Whitney U)
SNpc	NOR	iPD	25	78.6	67.1-83.9	44.5	**8.2x10^{-4}**
	NOR	Ctrl	11	90.8	83.6-97.8		
	ESP	iPD	35	75.0	65.7-87.1	148.5	0.26
	ESP	Ctrl	11	80.1	60.7-89.4		
	Combined	iPD	60	76.3	66.7-84.2	372.5	**0.003**
	Combined	Ctrl	22	87.1	77.1-94.7		
PFC	NOR	iPD	40	96.6	90.3-98.1	84.0	**7.0x10^{-4}**
	NOR	Ctrl	12	98.6	98.0-99.1		
	ESP	iPD	49	97.1	94.1-98.1	138.0	**0.031**
	ESP	Ctrl	10	98.3	97.0-99.7		
	Combined	iPD	89	96.8	92.8-98.1	431.0	**5.0x10^{-5}**
	Combined	Ctrl	22	98.6	97.8-99.2		

1002
1003 IQR: interquartile range, SNpc: substantia nigra pars compacta, PFC: prefrontal cortex, NOR:

1004 Norwegian cohort, ESP: Spanish cohort, iPD: idiopathic Parkinson's disease, Ctrl: controls

Fig. 1. Neuronal CI deficiency stratifies iPD

(a-b) SNpc (a) and PFC (b) sections immunohistochemically stained for CI (NDUFS4). The

stippled lines in (a) indicate neuromelanin in dopaminergic neurons of the SNpc. Arrowheads

show examples of CI deficient (green) and -intact (black) neurons. Scalebar: 50 μm. (c-d) Inter-

rater and inter-region replicability of the proportion of CI-positive neurons in the PFC. Bland-

Altmann plots showing the difference between the measurements of observer 1 (O1) and

observer 2 (O2) (c), and the difference between measurements by observer 1 in three different regions of the same PFC sections: region 1 (R1) vs region 2 (R2), or region 3 (R3) (d). The Y-axes show the respective average percentages of CI-positive neurons. (e-f) Scatter plots showing the proportion (in %) of CI positive neurons (y-axes) in the SNpc (e) and PFC (f) of controls and individuals with iPD (x-axes). Bars show median and interquartile range. (g) Scatter plots showing the proportion (in %) of CI positive neurons (y-axes) in the PFC of controls and individuals with iPD (x-axes). K-means clustering classified the iPD subjects into three groups: nCI-PD (purple), CI-PD mild (dark green) and CI-PD severe (light green), in each of the NOR and ESP cohorts and in the combined cohorts.

1021

1022 **Fig. 2. CI and VDAC1 immunostaining in selected brain regions**

1023   Representative images of immunostaining against CI (NDUFS4) and VDAC1, in areas showing

1024   CI deficiency in iPD. Green arrowheads show examples of CI negative neurons. No negative

1025   neurons were observed in the VDAC1 staining. Scalebar: 50 μm.

1026

1028

Fig. 3. Anatomical distribution of neuronal CI deficiency in the nCI-PD and CI-PD groups

(a) Box plots showing the proportion (in %) of CI positive neurons (Y-axes) in 16 brain regions from controls (grey), and individuals with nCI-PD (purple) and CI-PD (green). The boxplot from PFC represents the spread in all individuals, dots show individuals included in downstream analyses for regional CI staining. Box plots show individual values (dots), median and interquartile range (box) and minimum-maximum range (fences). Statistical analysis was not performed in the PFC, since this region was used to classify the samples, and the samples were selected to represent the full spectrum of CI status for each group. Nominal p-values are shown. Multiple testing correction was not performed for these analysis, due to the relatively small sample size and high correlation between the CI state of different anatomical regions per individual, as illustrated in the heatmap (c). All individuals with CI-PD goup are shown in the same green box, but differentiated by the color of the points into mild (dark green) and severe

(light green) CI-PD. (b) Structural brain maps illustrating the anatomical distribution of

neuronal CI deficiency in the control, nCI-PD and CI-PD groups. The median proportion of CI

positive neurons is shown as a heatmap. Brain illustrations are modified images from the 7MRI

atlas published by Edlow et al[84]. (c) Hierarchical clustering of the median proportion of CI

positive neurons in each group. SNpc: substantia nigra pars compacta, PFC: prefrontal cortex,

OC: occipital cortex, TC: temporal cortex, Sub: subiculum, Am: amygdala, CG: cingulate

gyrus, Put: putamen, GPe: external globus pallidus, GPi: internal globus pallidus internus, ION:

inferior olivary nucleus, CC: cerebellar cortex, DN: dentate nucleus, Hi: hippocampal regions

CA4-CA1, Ctrl: controls. Statistical test: Mann-Whitney U-test, n/a: statistical comparison not

performed.

1051

1052

1053

Fig. 4. Clinical differences between CI-PD and nCI-PD

Box plots show individual values (dots), median and interquartile range (box) and minimum-

maximum range (fences) of clinical data (y-axes) for the three iPD groups (nCI-PD: purple, CI-

PD mild: dark green, CI-PD severe: light green). Statistical significance was tested between

nCI-PD and the entire CI-PD group (i.e., not differentiating between mild and severe), due to

the low number of individuals in the severe group, using the Mann-Whitney U-test. Bar plots

show percentages of individuals within each iPD group (y-axis). Statistical significance was

tested using the X^2 test. Demographic data, data on dementia at time of death, and the AR/TD-

clinical phenotypes were available from both cohorts. All other clinical variables were available

only from the NOR cohort. AR: akinetic rigid, TD: tremor dominant, PIGD: postural instability

and gait disorder, UPDRS: Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale.

1065

Fig. 5. The nCI-PD and CI-PD groups show different neuronal mtDNA profiles

Single neurons were collected from frozen PFC sections using laser-microdissection and mtDNA was analysed for copy number (CN) and deletion proportion using qPCR. (a) Microphotograph of a representative PFC section, stained with cresyl violet and showing neurons before (#) and after (*) microdissection. Scale bar 10 μm. (b) Total neuronal mtDNA copy number. (c) Neuronal mtDNA deletion levels. (d) Non-deleted neuronal mtDNA levels. Box plots show median and interquartile range (box) and minimum-maximum range (fences) of the median values for each individual (points) per group. Statistical significance of group difference was tested using Student's t-test. CN: copy number, Ctrl: control.

1077

Fig. 6. nCI-PD and CI-PD groups exhibit distinct transcriptomic profiles in the PFC

(a) Hierarchical clustering of the samples based on sample-sample correlation. The heatmap

colors indicate Pearson's correlation values between each pair of samples. AGE: age of death.

(b) The estimated group difference (y-axis) in MGPs of the cell types (x-axis) based on linear

regression using the three different models are shown. The cell types are described in Mancarci

et al [56]. (c) Significance (shown as -log10 of the adjusted p-value) of genes included in the

KEGG OXIDATIVE_PHOSPHORYLATION pathways (blue) or all other genes (grey) among

the downregulated/upregulated genes based on a model not adjusting (Model_2) or adjusting

(Model_1) for the confounded MGPs, in each of the iPD subtypes. Dashed line indicates

adjusted pvalue of 0.05. (d) Enrichment analysis outcome of the nCI-PD group, based on DE

analysis using Model_2. Each leaf of the tree represents one significantly enriched gene-set.

Jaccard similarity was used to cluster the gene-sets based on semantic similarity. Each cluster

was annotated to represent the main function represented by its members. The names of the

gene-sets are shown in Supplementary Fig. S7 (downregulated) and Supplementary Fig. S8

(upregulated).

1093

Fig. 7. Single-nuclei RNA-seq shows distinct cell type-specific transcriptional profiles for CI-PD and nCI-PD

(a) UMAP plot of the filtered snRNA-seq dataset (117,105 nuclei) showing the clustering in the main cortical cell types (ex: excitatory neurons, in: inhibitory neurons, oligodendrocytes, astrocytes, microglia, oligodendrocyte precursor cells (OPC) and endothelial cells). (b) Dotplot showing the average cell type markers' expression in each of the 28 subclusters identified by Seurat, unequivocally mapping the nuclei to the main cortical known cell types. The color of the dots indicates average scaled expression, the size representing the proportion of nuclei in

1103   the cluster that express the marker. (c) Summary of the number of differentially expressed genes

1104   (at FDR < 5%) within each cluster for the CI-PD *vs* controls (left hand side panel, green bars),

1105   for the nCI-PD *vs* controls (center panel, purple bars), and common between the two contrasts

1106   (right hand side panel, grey bars).