A Vulnerable Subtype of Dopaminergic Neurons Drives Early Motor Deficits in

Parkinson's Disease

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Abstract

In Parkinson's disease (PD), dopaminergic neurons (DANs) in the midbrain gradually

degenerate, with ventral substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc) DANs exhibiting greater

vulnerability. However, it remains unclear whether specific molecular subtypes of ventral SNc

DANs are more susceptible to degeneration in PD, and if they contribute to the early motor

symptoms associated with the disease. We identified a subtype of *Sox6+* DANs, *Anxa1+*, which

are selectively lost earlier than other DANs, and with a time course that aligns with the

development of motor symptoms in MitoPark mice. We generated a knock-in Cre mouse line for

Anxa1+ DANs and showed differential anatomical inputs and outputs of this population. Further,

we found that the inhibition of transmitter release in *Anxa1+* neurons led to bradykinesia and

tremor. Therefore, *Anxa1+* is not only a biomarker of a selectively vulnerable subtype of DANs,

but is also sufficient to drive early motor symptoms in Parkinson's disease.

Keywords

Parkinson's disease, dopamine, cell types, neurodegeneration, vulnerability, tremor, motor

symptoms

Introduction

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a progressive neurological disorder that primarily affects movement. It develops gradually, sometimes starting with a barely noticeable tremor in one hand[1]. While tremors, rigidity and akinesia are well-known signs of PD, the most distinctive symptom is bradykinesia, characterized by the slowing of movements. The main pathological hallmark of PD is the loss of dopaminergic neurons (DANs) in the substantia nigra[2,3] and the progressive reduction of DANs worsens the motor symptoms over time.

DANs in the midbrain are heterogeneous and they differ in their cellular properties and functions[4,5]. This heterogeneity is evident across several dimensions, including their molecular profiles and connectivity[4,6]. Transcriptomic studies have revealed that populations of midbrain DANs can be differentiated by distinct gene expression profiles[4], a finding that extends beyond the conventional anatomical division of midbrain DANs into the substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc, A9) and the ventral tegmental area (VTA, A10). Recent findings have discovered that molecularly unique subtypes of DANs innervate different subregions of the striatum, suggesting a basis for the variety of behavioral responses linked to these distinct neural pathways[5,6]. In PD, the degeneration of DANs follows a stereotypical pattern where some populations of neurons are more vulnerable than others[7]. Within the SNc, there is a distinction between the ventral-tier and dorsal-tier DANs, where the ventral-tier neurons tend to degenerate first[7]. Other studies have focused on changes in gene expression associated with PD compared to healthy controls[8]. Transcriptomic analysis revealed significant upregulation of alpha-synuclein[9] and downregulation of parkin[10], which are critical to dopamine synthesis and degradation pathways, respectively. This distinct expression pattern suggests a disruption in the proteostasis network that could be pivotal in disease progression. Additionally, genes related to mitochondrial function showed decreased expression levels, consistent with the known impact of mitochondrial dysfunction in Parkinson's pathology[11,12]. This differential gene expression or susceptibility aligns with the recent discovery of the distinct axonal projection patterns identified in dopaminergic neuron subtypes[6]. These patterns determine specific neural circuits affected during disease progression, providing a mechanistic basis for the diverse behavioral changes observed. For instance, subtypes projecting to motor-related areas may influence movement deficits, while those targeting limbic regions might underlie emotional or cognitive disturbances, illustrating how circuit-specific vulnerability translates into varied clinical manifestations[4–6]. However, it is not completely understood if specific molecularly identifiable subtypes of DANs in the ventral SNc are especially vulnerable in PD, and if the loss of function of these early

vulnerable populations is just a biomarker of the disease or contributes to the early motor

symptoms associated with PD.

Here, we characterized the progression of behavioral symptoms and dopaminergic

degeneration in MitoPark mice, a well-established PD mouse model[13], which replicates key

aspects of the disease through the targeted deletion of the *Tfam* (mitochondrial transcription

factor A) gene in DANs using the Cre-LoxP system. We characterized their motor behaviors in

an open field with a motion sensor and identified bradykinesia and a tremor gradually emerging

as MitoPark mice showed progressive dopaminergic degeneration in the SNc. We then

performed single-nucleus RNA-sequencing (snRNA-seq) in MitoPark mice and matched

littermate controls at different ages to identify transcriptomic changes in vulnerable

dopaminergic populations, and correlated the susceptibility of different cell types to

degeneration with the emergence of behavioral phenotypes. We identified specific dopaminergic

cell types, highly ventrally localized *Sox6+* neurons, whose loss was timeline-wise correlated

with the onset of motor symptoms. Further, we found that a subpopulation of the *Sox6+* neurons

– the *Anxa1+* subset is more vulnerable than other *Sox6+* populations. We next created an

Anxa1-Cre knock-in mouse to study the circuit architecture and function of this dopaminergic

neuron subtype. We characterized the anatomical inputs and outputs and observed a specific

pattern of strong projections of *Anxa1+* neurons to the dorsal striatum, not seen in other DAN

populations, and observed that this subtype also receives different inputs than others. Finally,

we showed that specific functional impairment of *Anxa1+* neurons is sufficient to induce

slowness of movements and motor tremors, corresponding to the early PD-like symptoms.

These results suggest that a specific vulnerable subtype of DANs is responsible for a range of

early motor symptoms of PD, potentially highlighting the role of different dopaminergic neurons

subtypes in the progression of the disease.

Results

Progressive development of PD-like motor deficits in MitoPark mice

The MitoPark mouse (genotype: *Tfam-loxP/loxP*, *+/DAT-cre*) is a transgenic model of

Parkinson's disease (PD) where the mitochondrial transcription factor A (*Tfam*) is removed

selectively in dopaminergic neurons (DANs)[13]. Loss of *Tfam* in DANs leads to a progressive

degeneration of these neurons and the manifestation of motor symptoms that are PD-like[13,14].

We characterized spontaneous movement of MitoPark mice between 8 and 24 weeks of

age in a square open field without any external cues or reward. These mice showed gradual

development of locomotor deficits post-natal with decreased average speed (bradykinesia),

increased immobility time and increased number of stops (akinesia) (**Fig.1A-1D**). These effects

were independent of environmental novelty, as similar differences were observed in both novel

and habituated environments (**Fig.1B-1D and Extended Data Fig.1A and 1B**)**.** We also

performed a cylinder task to observe rearing behavior, which is more effortful and therefore

more likely to be affected in PD, where there is a tendency towards less vigorous movements.

We indeed confirmed a significant reduction in the number of rears in the older MitoPark mice

(**Fig.1E**). Given that typical PD has other motor symptoms, such as tremor in addition to

bradykinesia and akinesia, we used a wireless motion sensor to detect subtle motor changes

that are not easily observable by video-characterization. The sensor measures tri-axial

acceleration with high resolution and allows for the continuous monitoring of movement with

high frequency (200Hz)[15], which could enable us to detect tremors that are usually poorly

documented in genetically engineered rodent models of PD[16]. Given that tremor is defined as an

involuntary rhythmic and oscillatory movement of a body part[17], we explored spectral analysis of

accelerometer data to quantify the potential emergence of abnormal oscillations with the

progressive degeneration of DANs. Interestingly, we observed a specific oscillation within the

12-18 Hz frequency band that emerged in MitoPark mice at 16 weeks which gradually

intensified with age (**Fig.1F-1I and Extended Data Fig.1C and 1D**). Notably, this oscillation

was present even when the mice were immobile (**Fig.1G and 1I**).

We next examined whether depletion of SNc DANs would be sufficient to lead to the

development of PD-like symptoms similar to those observed in MitoPark mice. We therefore

genetically ablated the neurons in the SNc of DAT-Cre mice by bilateral stereotactic injection of

an adeno-associated virus (AAV) to express a Cre-dependent apoptotic gene Caspase-3 (AAV-

Ef1a-FLEX-taCasp3)[18] in the SNc of DAT-Cre mice. Selective losses of the SNc DANs and their

projections were observed after 4 weeks of viral expression (**Fig.1J**). We evaluated mice

behavior in the open field, and found that the depletion of SNc DANs reproduced the PD-like

phenotype observed in the 24 weeks of MitoPark mice (**Fig.1A-1D, 1K, 1M and Extended Data**

Fig.1E–1H). We also observed a marked reduction in rearing behavior in the animals with

ablation of SNc DANs (**Fig.1L and 1N**). Furthermore, we also replicated the emergence of the

tremor as observed in MitoPark mice (**Fig.1O and 1P**). These results suggest that the neuronal

loss in the SNc is sufficient to produce the bradykinesia, akinesia, and tremor observed in the

MitoPark mice.

Progressive loss of dopamine neurons in the ventral midbrain in MitoPark mice

To determine whether the mitochondrial *Tfam* deficit leads to changes in the number of midbrain

DANs, we surveyed *Th* expression in MitoPark mice and monitored changes in *Th+* cells in the

SNc of MitoPark mice at 8, 16 and 24 weeks (**Fig.2A and 2B**). We also examined *Th+* axonal

projections from the SNc of MitoPark mice to striatum and performed brain reconstruction.

Given that the current Allen Common Coordinate Framework (Allen CCF) does not have

anatomical subdivisions of the striatum[19], we created an updated map based on cortical

projections[20] and applied the imaging analysis pipeline BrainJ as previously described[21]

(**Extended Data Fig.2**). This updated atlas allowed us to quantitatively analyze the density of

projections neurons in subregions of the striatum and visualize the prominent loss of *Th+* axonal

projections in MitoPark mice (**Fig.2C and Extended Data Fig.2C**). We observed no observable

differences in the projections from SNc DANs to the striatum at 8 weeks in MitoPark mice.

However, by 16 weeks, their projections were significantly reduced compared to age-matched

controls, especially for those targeting the dorsal striatum. By 24 weeks, the projections were

largely depleted. (**Fig.2A and 2C**). Comparable progression has been reported in MCI

(mitochondrial complex I)-Park mice in a previous study[12].

We also employed single-nucleus RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) of the ventral midbrain

of MitoPark mice, their littermate controls (genotype: *Tfam-loxP/loxP*, *+/+* or *Tfam-loxP/+*, *+/+*)

and C57BL/6 (B6) mice at 8, 16, and 24 weeks of age (8 mice in each group; 4 males and 4

females). We used a previously described experimental approach to isolate nuclei and profile

their transcriptomes from mice[22] (**Fig.2D and Extended Data Fig.3A**, see "Methods" section).

We obtained a total of 293,435 nuclei, of which 93,703 were from MitoPark mice, 100,266 were

from their littermate controls and 99,466 were from B6 mice. We mapped cell annotations to our

data with the Allen Brain Cell (ABC) Atlas using their MapMyCells tool[23] (**Fig.2E and Extended**

Data Fig.3B). Dopaminergic nuclei were identified as the subclass annotation of

215_SNc_VTA_RAmb_Foxa1_Dopa at the ABC Atlas, within the class annotation of

21_MB_Dopa (**Extended Data Fig.3B**). The dopaminergic population was also clearly

distinguished by expression of the canonical marker gene, *Th* (**Fig.2F**). Using *Rbfox3* to mark

neuronal cells, we identified other neuronal cell types such as excitatory (*Slc17a6*) and inhibitory

(*Slc32a1*) cell types (**Fig.2F and Extended Data Fig.3C**). Oligodendrocytes were characterized

by the expression of *Mog*, while Oligodendrocyte precursor cells (OPCs) expressed high levels

of *Pdgfra*. Microglia were characterized by *Ptprc* expression, while astrocytes and endothelial

cells were marked by specific expression of *Gja1* and *Nostrin*, respectively (**Extended Data**

Fig.3C). Consistent with our histological findings, we observed a significant decrease in the

number of DANs in MitoPark mice between 8 weeks and 24 weeks (**Extended Data Fig.4A**). To

address whether cell types are enriched or depleted in MitoPark mice, we compared the
proportions of all cell-types across the ventral midbrain at each stage. We found that the
dopaminergic populations significantly decreased with age compared with other cell types
(**Extended Data Fig.4B**). We also performed mixed-effects modeling (MASC)[24] that accounts
for technical and biological confounders to identify cellular populations associated with the
disease models (**Fig.2G-2I and Extended Data Fig.4C-4E**). MitoPak mice had a significant
reduction of DANs at 16 and 24 weeks relative to their littermate controls, while the other cell-
types were stable (**Fig.2G, 2H, Extended Data Fig.4C and 4D**). A similar reduction of DANs
was also observed between 8 and 16 weeks in the same genotype (**Fig.2I and Extended Data**
Fig.4E). Together, these data demonstrate that *Tfam* depletion in MitoPark mice induces robust
and selective dopaminergic degeneration without altering the number of other neighboring cell
types (**Fig.2G-2I and Extended Data Fig.4B-4E**).
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Vulnerability of *Sox6*+ population during the progression of PD-like phenotypes
We next aimed to identify changes within specific subtypes of DANs during the progression of
neurodegeneration. We isolated 18,611 DANs from nuclei of the ventral midbrain, and snRNA-
seq data was processed to identify distinct groups representing unique neuronal subtypes
(**Fig.3A, Extended Data Fig.5A and 5B**). We identified 8 DAN subtypes and confirmed the
expression of well-known subtype markers *Sox6, Slc17a6, and Calb1*[4] (**Fig.3B**). Each group
was segregated by distinct genetic markers, which included known dopaminergic neuron
subtype-specific genes (**Extended Data Fig.5C and 6A-6C**). To determine which neuronal
subtypes were most affected as neurodegeneration progressed, we analyzed the cell
composition within each identified group from MitoPark mice and their age-matched controls.
Comparative analysis showed significant changes in the composition of dopaminergic neuronal
subtypes (**Fig.3C**). Notably, the proportion of *Sox6*+ neurons was markedly reduced in MitoPark
mice, whereas the proportion of other neuron cell types such as *Megf11*+ or *Synpr*+ remained
'stable' throughout the degeneration process. As the overall number of dopamine neurons
decreases in MitoPark mice, the proportion of these 'stable' neurons increased, suggesting they
are more resilient compared to other dopamine subtypes that are more susceptible to
degeneration (**Fig.3C**). These neurons are mostly *Vglut2*+ (*Slc17a6*) (**Fig.3A and 3B**), which
has previously been reported to play a potential neuroprotective role in the survival of DANs in
PD model animals[25,26]. Additionally, there are dopamine neuron subtypes that undergo uniform
degeneration over time (*Plekhg1*+, *Cck*+, *Sema5b*+, *Etv1*+, *Lypd1*+) (**Fig.3C**). Using the MASC
approach, we further analyzed the differential proportion of different cell-types or states across

different groups (**Fig.3D-3F**) while adjusting for age, sex, and batch as covariates. The *Sox6+*

population showed a significant decrease in the odds ratio in MitoPark mice compared to their

littermate controls, especially at 16 or 24 weeks (**Fig.3D and 3E**), and it was not due to age-

related effects alone (**Extended Data Fig.6D-6G**). We also conducted the test across different

ages within the same genotype to assess developmental changes in cell population dynamics

(**Fig.3F**). The odds ratio of *Sox6+* population still declined, suggesting that this subtype exhibits

greater vulnerability than other DANs in PD, consistent with findings from human PD

transcriptomic studies[8].

A subset of *Sox6+* DANs are more vulnerable in MitoPark mice

Sox6 is involved in the development and differentiation of DANs, particularly in the ventral

midbrain DANs[27–29]. The *Sox6+* supertype (ID: 0882 in 215_SNc_VTA_RAmb_Foxa1_Dopa)

can be further subdivided according to their anatomical location, distinct molecular signatures,

and functional properties[4]. To explore the diversity of *Sox6+* neurons, we conducted

transcriptomic analysis of the subtypes and performed the cluster annotation based on the ABC

atlas[23]. We found 43 clusters (ID: 3837-3879) under the supertype (ID: 0880-0887) annotation,

of which, the *Sox6+* supertype can be divided into 7 subsets (ID: 3853-3859) (**Extended Data**

Fig.5A). We quantified the proportions of *Sox6+* dopaminergic subtypes in MitoPark and control

animals. Two subsets, *Anxa1+* (ID: 3857) and *Arpp21+* (ID: 3859), showed statistically

significant reductions compared to controls (two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD).

Anxa1+ was significantly reduced across age, whereas *Arpp21+* reached significance only at 24

weeks (**Fig.4A**). Although other *Sox6+* subsets showed a tendency toward reduced proportions

in MitoPark animals, this pattern prompted the use of a complementary differential abundance

analysis. We therefore performed an additional differential abundance analysis using Milo, a

method that offers a structured approach to exploring variations in cell compositions across

diverse experimental conditions[30] (**Fig.4B-4J and Extended Data Fig.7A-7I**). Milo analysis

confirmed a significant depletion of *Sox6+* population in MitoPark mice at 16 and 24 weeks

compared to their littermate controls, consistent with previous analyses (**Fig.3C-3F and**

Extended Data Fig.7A-7I). Following cluster annotation, most *Sox6+* subsets exhibited

pronounced reductions in gene expression at 16 and 24 weeks (log fold change < −3 at 16

weeks and < −5 at 24 weeks; **Fig.4E, 4F, 4H and 4I**). Additionally, comparison between 8 and

16 weeks in MitoPark animals revealed two subsets (*Grin2c+* (ID: 3854) and *Anxa1+* (ID:

3857)) with robust gene expression decreases (log fold change < −2; **Fig.4D, 4G, 4J, and**

Extended Data Fig.7J-7L). An additional analysis using a linear mixed-effects model (LMM)[31],

followed by Tukey's post hoc comparisons, showed that the 3857_Anxa1 cluster consistently

exhibited the strongest and most statistically significant age-by-genotype interaction, and further

indicated that this cluster is already slightly affected at 8 weeks (MitoPark vs. Control; 8 weeks:

2.37E-03, 16 weeks: 3.34E-06, 24 weeks: 1.41E-04)[31]. We also compared DAT expression

across *Sox6+* dopaminergic subtypes and found no significant differences, indicating that

selective vulnerability is unlikely to be driven by DAT levels (**Extended Data Fig.7M**). To verify

the transcriptional reduction of DAN subsets in the SNc of MitoPark mice, we conducted

immunostaining with an antibody targeting *Aldh1a1*, a well-established marker for ventral

DANs[4,5] (**Fig.4K**). *Aldh1a1+* neurons constitute a relatively large neuronal subset and are

recognized as selectively vulnerable in PD, encompassing the *Anxa1+* population in the ventral

SNc[5,32–34]. We found a remarkable loss of *Aldh1a1+* DANs in MitoPark mice at 16 weeks,

particularly in the rostral-ventral region (**Fig.4K**). These results demonstrate that *Sox6+* DANs

exhibited differential susceptibility, with *Anxa1+* DANs emerging as one of the earliest

populations to show vulnerability relative to other DANs.

Whole-brain efferent and afferent connectivity of *Anxa1+* DANs

The results above indicate a subset of *Sox6+* DANs, the *Anxa1+* neurons*,* is more vulnerable

than others. However, it remains unclear whether loss of these neurons is an early biomarker of

disease, or are actually driving early symptoms in PD. To address this, we generated an Anxa1-

Cre knock-in mouse line (see 'Method' section), with Cre recombinase under transcriptional

control of an Anxa1-specific promoter and characterized its expression using GFP to visualize

cell bodies and axon projections to output structures. To achieve this, we injected Cre-

dependent AAV-GFP into the SNc of Anxa1-Cre mice and counted the number of *Th+* cells with

Calb1 antibody, which labels the dorsal dopaminergic populations in the SNc (**Fig.5A and 5B**).

In all mice, we observed robust co-localization of GFP with *Th+* cells but not *Calb1+* cells,

suggesting that most of the GFP+ cells in the SNc are ventral specific DANs (**Fig.5A and 5B**).

We then examined GFP+ axonal projections from the SNc of all DANs or *Anxa1+* DANs and

performed whole brain reconstruction using BrainJ (**Fig.5C and 5D)**. The quantitative analysis

revealed prominent axonal projections of *Anxa1+* DANs to the dorsal striatum (**Fig.5D**). We also

created a DAT-Flp knock-in mouse line[35] (**Extended Data Fig.9A;** see 'Method' section) and

compared the axonal projections of SNc *Anxa1+* DANs with other DANs subtypes such as

Vglut2+ or *Calb1+* (**Extended Data Fig.9B**). As shown previously[6], these subsets have distinct

axonal projections to the striatum; *Vglut2+* DANs project to the dorsolateral and tail striatum,

while *Calb1+* DANs project to the ventral striatum (**Extended Data Fig.9B**). We also

quantitatively analyzed SNc *Vglut2+* and *Calb1+* DAN axonal projections throughout the whole

brain, which make specific projections to many different regions. The fact that different

populations of DANs have such distinctive projections opens the possibility that different

populations modulate different behaviors or behavioral parameters[5] (**Extended Data Fig.9C**).

277   To identify the afferent inputs onto *Anxa1+* dopaminergic neuronal subtypes and how

these inputs differ from other DAN subtypes, we used CVS-N2c rabies tracing, a strain with

enhanced transsynaptic labeling[36], with DAT-Cre+, Anxa1-Cre+ (and also DAT-Flp+;Anxa1-

Cre+), DAT-Flp+;Vglut2-Cre+ and DAT-Flp+;Calb1-Cre+ mice. We first examined the inputs to

all DANs in the SNc by injecting two Cre-dependent helper viruses (TVA and N2cG) to express

the avian receptor (TVA protein) and the rabies glycoprotein G (N2cG) unilaterally into the SNc

of DAT-Cre+ mice. Two weeks later, CVS rabies virus (CVS-tdTomato) was injected into the

same site (**Extended Data Fig.10A;** see "Methods" section**)**. We observed tdTomato-labeled

neurons in more brain regions than previous studies[37,38], especially detected much more inputs

for cortical regions, likely attributed to the higher transsynaptic property of the N2C strain. These

labeled neurons, primarily restricted ipsilateral to the injection site, represent monosynaptic

afferent inputs to the SNc DANs (**Fig.5F, 5G and Extended Data Fig.10B, 10C**). The same

viral injection strategy was also used using Anxa1-Cre+ (and DAT-Flp+;Anxa1-Cre+), DAT-

Flp+;Vglut2-Cre+, and DAT-Flp+;Calb1-Cre+ mice, which also labeled an abundant number of

tdTomato+ neurons in various parts of brain regions (**Fig.5E, 5H, 5I and Extended Data**

Fig.9D-9G). The dopaminergic neuron subtypes exhibit modest differences in their ipsilateral

inputs, particularly with respect to inputs from cortical regions. For example, while *Anxa1+* DANs

receive strong inputs from the motor cortex, this subtype does not receive significant inputs from

the somatosensory, prelimbic, or orbital cortex. In contrast, *Vglut2+* DANs receive minimal

inputs from the ventral regions of the anterior cingulate and retrosplenial cortices compared to

other dopamine subtypes. In most other cases, however, *Anxa1+* DANs receive similar inputs to

the other dopaminergic subtypes, suggesting a far more shared organization of inputs into SNc

dopaminergic circuits than their outputs (**Fig.5E-5I and Extended Data Fig.9D-9G**).

Inhibition of *Anxa1+* DANs is sufficient to cause early PD-like motor deficits

The activity of *Anxa1+* neurons has been shown to correlate with movement acceleration[5]. To

determine whether the loss of *Anxa1+* neurons represents an early biomarker of disease or

contributes causally to early PD symptoms, we selectively silenced synaptic release from

Anxa1+ dopaminergic neurons using an AAV expressing tetanus toxin[39] (AAV-FLEX-TeLC-

EYFP; **Fig.6A**). We found that silencing of *Anxa1+* neurons caused a reduction in locomotor

speed, suggesting it is sufficient to cause bradykinesia. However, it did not affect immobility time

or number of stops, suggesting that it was not sufficient to cause akinesia. (**Fig.6B-6D**). In a

cylinder task, we observed the significant drops in the number of rears, suggesting that *Anxa1+*

dopaminergic neuron activity is important for effortful movements (**Fig.6C**). We then performed

spectral analysis on mice depleted of *Anxa1+* SNc dopaminergic neurons and found a slight

shift in the frequency of tremor, resembling the phenotype of MitoPark mice at 16 weeks

(**Fig.6E**).

Learning is also known to be affected early in PD and in MitoPark animals[40,41]. Given the

early vulnerability of *Anxa1+* neurons, we wanted to determine whether their loss is sufficient to

cause learning deficits, or if other neuronal populations are responsible. We used a Pavlovian

conditioning task in which mice learned to lick for a reward when presented with a light cue. In

this paradigm, a visual cue (CS+; LED stimulus) signaled the availability of a sucrose reward,

delivered at random intervals, whereas an auditory cue (CS–; sound) was never paired with

reward (**Extended Data Fig.11A**). Thus, CS+ presentations should elicit increased reward

expectation, reflected by elevated licking despite the unpredictability of cue timing. Across

conditioning days, control mice showed a progressive increase in licking following CS+

presentation, indicating successful learning of the cue–reward association. In contrast, Anxa1-

TeLC mice displayed markedly reduced licking responses (**Extended Data Fig.11B**). To

determine whether these effects were due to impairment in licking, we also analyzed poke

events (**Extended Data Fig.11C**). Control mice showed prompt, cue-triggered poking beginning

on Day 2, whereas Anxa1-TeLC mice exhibited random, non–cue-directed poking. Total lick

counts across each session did not differ between groups, and total poke counts showed a

similar pattern except on Day 1 (**Extended Data Fig.11D and 11F**). However, both the first-lick

and first-poke latencies were significantly prolonged in Anxa1-TeLC mice, although these delays

gradually decreased over days (**Extended Data Fig.11E and 11G**).

Taken together, these data show that inhibition of *Anxa1+* DANs is sufficient to induce

early PD-like features such as reduced movement speed, diminished movement vigor, tremor,

and learning deficits, yet not sufficient to produce akinesia.

Discussion

The data presented in this study revealed that a subtype of dopaminergic neurons (DANs) is

selectively vulnerable in a mouse model of Parkinson's disease (PD) and that its loss is

sufficient to drive PD-like motor symptoms that are observed early in the disease. We

conducted a detailed longitudinal analysis of the behavioral changes exhibited by MitoPark

mice, a well-established PD model[13]. We identified progressive changes in bradykinesia,

akinesia, and tremor. Concomitantly, these mice demonstrated a progressive degeneration of

DANs in the midbrain, specifically within the substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc). These

phenotypes observed in late-stage MitoPark mice were replicated by ablating DANs in the SNc.

Additionally, we performed a comprehensive characterization of the molecular profiles of

midbrain neurons as the disease progressed, and uncovered selective vulnerability in the *Sox6+*

DANs, and in particular in the *Anxa1+* subtype. Finally, we observed that silencing this

dopamine subtype was sufficient to produce bradykinesia and tremor of the magnitude

observed early in the progression of the degeneration, but not akinesia. This reveals that the

loss of these vulnerable neurons is not only a biomarker of early disease, it also drives the early

motor symptoms observed early in the disease.

Our behavioral analysis rigorously mapped the progression of motor symptoms in

MitoPark mice revealing early symptoms that were not previously reported. Furthermore, it

revealed a previous unobserved phenotype associated with dopamine loss. By using a motion

sensor in an open field behavioral assay, we have enhanced our capability to detect more

subtle motor phenotypes that are not detected using conventional video-based characterization

methods. This approach led us to identify tremors in MitoPark mice, which developed

incrementally with the progressive degeneration of DANs in the brain. Furthermore, specific

ablation and silencing of SNc DANs and the *Anxa1+* subtype revealed their important role in this

tremor phenotype. Although the significance of the oscillation frequency we observed remains

under investigation, the ~10 Hz signal in control mice most likely reflects a physiological tremor

linked to postural stabilization and the natural resonance of the sensorimotor system. In

contrast, the tremor seen in MitoPark and dopamine-lesioned mice even during rest suggests

the emergence of a central, PD-related tremor or increased rigidity that shifts the mechanical

tremor frequency. Notably, the tremor frequencies in MitoPark mice do not fall within the typical

4-6 Hz range observed in PD patients[42]; however, species-specific differences in tremor

frequency are well documented, as illustrated by the harmaline model of essential tremor, which

produces oscillations of 8–10 Hz in monkeys, 10–12 Hz in rats, and 11–14 Hz in mice[43,44].

Considering that there are several types of tremors observed in humans and the extent to which

these tremors resemble those seen in human diseases has not yet been fully established, a

more comprehensive characterization is imperative. Another key discrepancy between human

PD and PD mouse models is that, in early-stage patients, motor symptoms such as resting

tremor and bradykinesia typically emerge asymmetrically due to greater dopaminergic neuron

loss in one hemisphere, producing a unilateral and focal onset that later becomes bilateral[45]. In

contrast, PD mouse models generally exhibit more symmetric dopaminergic degeneration,

resulting in bilateral, whole-body tremors and limiting the detection of focal symptom onset. The

human and mouse musculoskeletal systems also differ substantially, which may contribute to

the distinct tremor frequencies observed and reflect species-specific postural demands. This

interpretation is supported by a recent study that employed similar inertial sensors in patients

with PD[46]. These differences likely arise from both species-specific pathological features and

the whole-body nature of our behavioral assessments.

In previous studies, *Aldh1a1+* DANs have been shown to be selectively vulnerable in

PD[32]. Their properties including connectivity and firing patterns have been extensively

characterized, and these works have highlighted their relevance to motor control and PD

pathophysiology[32–34]. It has also been shown that *Aldh1a1+* neurons comprise distinct genetic

and functional subsets[5], which motivated us to perform independent molecular profiling. We

performed an extensive longitudinal molecular profiling of the cell types in the ventral midbrain

as the symptoms progressed in MitoPark mice, utilizing a newly developed atlas, the Allen Brain

Cell (ABC) Atlas, for annotation[23]. This detailed examination identified a vulnerable population of

DANs, *Sox6+*, the characteristics of which align closely with those identified in previous human

and mouse studies[8]. In contrast, other subtypes, such as *Megf11+* (ID: 0880), and *Synpr+* (ID:

0887) displayed resilience to degeneration. We identified several additional subtypes of *Sox6+*

DANs, with different vulnerability. *Anxa1+* (ID: 3857) neurons showed the earliest significant

decrease compared to the littermate controls, but *Arpp21+* (ID: 3859) also showed vulnerability

in late stages compared to other subtypes of *Sox6+* neurons. This early vulnerability was also

observed in other mouse models and in humans in an accompanying study[47–49]. This variance in

vulnerability and resilience indicates that the degeneration of DANs occurs at different rates in

different types, and that the molecular composition of these subtypes may underly the

mechanisms for vulnerability and resilience. Consequently, a deeper understanding of the

molecular processes driving the degeneration and resilience of these various DAN subtypes is

critical for understanding the progression of the disease, and could be harnessed for the

development of biomarkers to monitor progression and eventually the response to disease

modifying therapies.

We also characterized with unprecedented depth the afferent and efferent connectivity of

three distinct subtypes of DANs in the SNc, roughly representing lateral, dorsal, and ventral SNc

DANs, identified by the expression of genes *Vglut2+*, *Calb1+*, and *Anxa1+* respectively.

Consistent with previous reports, these subtypes display distinct projection patterns within the

striatum, occupying specific subregions; for example, *Anxa1+* neurons preferentially project to

the dorsal striatum, a region critical for motor control[6]. This supports the conclusion that these

subtypes display divergent behaviors in motor control and reward processing[5]. However, our

results also reveal that, despite their distinct projection patterns, these subtypes receive

largely similar inputs across the brain, with some exceptions in cortical regions. This aligns with

the idea that many dopamine neurons within a given region exhibit similar activity patterns, and

suggests that their differential vulnerability is unlikely to be driven by differences in synaptic

input. Still, several possibilities remain. One is that even subtle in input differences (for example,

cortical regions in this case) may still have functional consequences. Alternatively, spatially

distinct DAN subpopulations may receive inputs from different neuron groups within the same

area, leading to distinct functions. Finally, SNc neurons may share broadly similar computational

properties but display subtle differences in their response profiles. Their functional divergence

may ultimately arise from how their projections interface with specific downstream cell types -

for example, through the receptors expressed by their targets. A further layer of complexity

emerges from the recurrent loop between the striatum and SNc: SNc dopaminergic neurons

receive substantial inhibitory input from striatal medium spiny neurons while simultaneously

projecting back to them[50,51]. The distinct projection profiles of dopaminergic neuron subtypes

may therefore shape striatal dynamics in unique ways, with inhibitory feedback mechanisms

subsequently fine-tuning dopaminergic signaling during diverse behavioral and learning

processes. Additionally, a more detailed classification of the inputs and projections of each DAN

subtype would be necessary to define specific input–output cell types, rather than the broader

regional categories used here, as has been demonstrated in studies of fruit flies at the single-

cell level[52]. For example, one of the major sources of input, the midbrain reticular nucleus

(MRN), contains a heterogeneous mix of cell types, including glutamatergic and GABAergic

neurons[53]. Unfortunately, our current methods do not allow us to determine which specific cell

types contribute to the observed inputs. This granular approach may reveal intricate

neurobiological dynamics obscured when broader classifications are used.

Finally, a recent study showed that *Anxa1+* neurons constitute a genetically distinct

subset within the *Aldh1a1+* population and are functionally different from other dopaminergic

subtypes, as demonstrated using their own transgenic line[5]. In parallel, we generated our own

transgenic mouse line to manipulate these neurons with similar specificity. Although targeted

manipulation of *Anxa1+* neurons led to significant bradykinesia and tremor similar to those

observed in the early stages of disease in MitoPark mice, it did not affect immobile time or

akinesia. These discrepancies might be explained by a dosage effect (i.e. akinesia requires the

loss of more dopamine neurons than bradykinesia), or most likely by the involvement of other

dopaminergic neuron subtypes that contribute to phenotypes emerging at later stages. For

example, degeneration of *AGTR1+* or *Calb1+* neurons may also contribute to motor symptoms

in the PD phenotype[8,54]. However, the motor deficits differ from those reported during *Anxa1+*

neuron inhibition[48]. Thus, our study does not argue that *Anxa1+* neurons are the sole

contributors to motor impairment. Rather, we show that their early loss is sufficient to generate

motor deficits resembling those seen in early PD. In addition to the motor symptoms, we also

found that inhibition of *Anxa1+* neurons produced a learning deficit. Given that cognitive

dysfunction has been reported to precede motor symptoms in MitoPark mice[41], these results

suggest that *Anxa1+* neurons may also contribute to early non-motor symptoms as well.

However, given that other dopaminergic subtypes are also affected such as *Arhgap28+*

neurons, our data do not exclude the possibility that additional cell types within the same group

may play a role in learning. Further investigation will be important, particularly in relation to other

early PD-associated features such as sleep behavior disturbances or constipation. The

possibility of homeostatic compensation within DAN neural networks, with different neurons

stepping in to sustain the functionality of behaviors affected by the loss of others, should also be

discussed. We observed considerable overlap in the brain regions providing afferent

connectivity to each dopamine subtype and this observation could be critical to understand the

adaptability of these circuits. A critical approach to further unravel these complexities of

adaptation as disease develops would involve recording whole-brain activity in PD model mice.

Gaining a deeper understanding of the resilience and adaptability of neural circuits surrounding

dopaminergic neurons will enhance our grasp of Parkinson's disease and potentially foster

innovative therapeutic strategies in the future.

Materials and Methods

Contact for reagents and resource sharing

All reagents and materials used in this study are listed in the Key Resources Table (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.18273548). For additional information or requests, please contact the Lead Contact, Rui M. Costa (rui.costa@alleninstitute.org).

Mouse breeding and husbandry

All experimental protocols were performed according to National Institutes of Health (NIH) guidelines and in compliance with the regulations of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at Columbia University. All experimental animals were 2 to 6 month-old mice housed on a 12 hr light/dark cycle with unrestricted access to food and water. Mice used for behavioral experiments were individually housed. The strain and lines used were: C57BL6/J (Jackson Laboratories, 000664), MitoPark mouse[13], DAT-Cre mouse (Jackson Laboratories, 006660), VGlut2-Cre mouse (Jackson Laboratories, 028863), and Calb1-IRES2-Cre mouse (Jackson Laboratories, 028532). Anxa1-Cre (Jackson Laboratories, 040185) and DAT-Flp (Jackson Laboratories, 040184) mouse lines were developed and utilized in our lab (details are provided below)[35]. MitoPark mice ($DAT\text{-}Cre^{+/-};Tfam^{loxP/loxP}$) were obtained by crossing $DAT\text{-}Cre^{+/-}; Tfam^{loxP/+}$ mice with $Tfam^{loxP/loxP}$ mice to selectively knockout $Tfam$ in dopaminergic neurons.

Generation of transgenic mice (Anxa1-Cre and DAT-Flp)

Anxa1-Cre and DAT-Flp knock-in mice were generated by Cyagen (Santa Clara, CA) using CRISPR/Cas9. To generate Anxa1-Cre mice, one cell mouse embryos were microinjected with Cas9 protein, a gRNA (5' GACATCCCAACTATTCTGCA-AGG 3') targeting exon 13 in the vicinity of the stop codon, and a repair template comprised of homology arms and a 'P2A-Cre-rBG pA' cassette. Homology arms were generated by PCR from BAC clones RP23-53N8 and RP23-149B23 as template. Similarly, to generate DAT-Flp mice, a gRNA (5' CCAACAGCCAATGGCGCAGC-TGG 3') targeting exon 15, and a template with a '2A-FlpO-rBG pA' cassette were used[35]. Homology arms were PCR amplified from BAC clones RP23-150M11 and RP23-34F24. Two silent mutations, aa 613L (CTG to TTA), and aa 614R (CGC to AGG) were introduced to prevent re-cleavage by Cas9 after homology-directed repair.

Nuclear suspension, FACS and Single-nucleus RNAseq

We used procedures as previously described[55,56]. Briefly, MitoPark mice and their littermate controls (P56~62 for 8 weeks, P112~118 for 16 weeks and P168~174 for 24 weeks; 4 female and

4 male at each time point) were anaesthetized with isoflurane and perfused with cold artificial

cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) containing N-methyl-d-glucamine (NMDG; 92 mM), KCl (2.5 mM),

NaH2PO4 (1.2 mM), NaHCO3 (30 mM), HEPES (20 mM), D-Glucose (25 mM), Sodium L-

ascorbate (5 mM), Sodium pyruvate (3 mM), MgSO4 (10mM), CaCl2 (0.5 mM), bubbled with

carbogen gas (95% O2 and 5% CO2) at a pH of 7.2–7.4. The brain was sectioned at 400um using

a vibratome (VT1200S, Leica Microsystems) on ice, and the ventral midbrain (SNc and VTA) were

microdissected from three consecutive sections (-2.48 to -3.88mm from Bregma; Franklin and

Paxinos, 2008). The tissues were transferred to microcentrifuge tubes, flash frozen in dry ice with

ethanol, and stored at -80C until later use. For nuclei isolation[22], frozen tissues were placed into

a homogenization buffer that consisted of 10mM Tris pH 8.0, 250mM Sucrose, 25mM KCl, 5mM

MgCl2, 0.1% Triton-X 100, 1X Protease inhibitor (Promega G6521), 0.5% RNasin Plus RNase

inhibitor (Promega N2615) and 0.1mM DTT (Promega P1171). Tissues were placed into a 2ml

dounce homogenizer (Sigma D8938) and homogenized using 10 strokes of the loose dounce

pestle followed by 10 strokes of the tight pestle to liberate nuclei. Homogenate was strained

through a 30µm cell strainer (Miltenyi Biotech 130-098-458) and centrifuged at 900xg for 10

minutes to pellet nuclei. Nuclei were then resuspended in blocking buffer containing 1X PBS

supplemented with 0.8% nuclease-free BSA (Sigma, OmniPur 2905) and 0.5% RNasin Plus

RNase inhibitor. Prior to fluorescence-activated nuclei sorting (FACS), DAPI (Sigma, D9542) was

applied to nuclei suspensions at a final concentration of 0.1µg/ml and nuclei suspensions were

filtered through a 30µm nylon mesh (Sysmex, 04-004-2326) to remove aggregates. FACS was

performed at the Zuckerman Institute Flow Cytometry platform using a MoFlo Astrios EQ

(Beckman Coulter) sorter. Single nuclei were captured by gating DAPI+ events, excluding debris

and doublets. Both cell suspension and collection chamber were kept at 4C during sorting. Sorted

nuclei were spun down immediately and barcoded using 10x Genomics Chromium Single Cell 3'

Reagent Kit v3 according to the manufacturer's protocol. Samples were processed and libraries

were prepared/sequenced by the Columbia JP Sulzberger Genome Center Single Cell Analysis

Core.

RNAseq data processing and analysis

Sequencing data were aligned and quantified using the Cell Ranger Single-Cell Software Suite

(v.6.1.2) with default parameters against the ENSEMBL GRCm38/mm10 reference genome[57].

The pre-filtered datasets were then imported into the R Seurat package for downstream analysis

(v5.0.2)[58]. We first removed low-quality cells (cell containing < 200 genes and genes expressed

in <3 cells of the data). After the filtering, contaminating ambient RNA reads were filtered by using

SoupX[59]. Doublets were predicted using the DoubletFinder R package[60], and were excluded for

downstream analysis. After quality control and cell filtering (1000<nFeature_RNA<7500;

nCount_RNA<40000; percent_mt<1, percent_ribo<1, percent_hemo<1), the datasets were

processed for identifying cell populations by Seurat pipeline. Briefly, pre-processed gene

expression matrices were normalized by the NormalizedData function. A total of 2,000 most

variable features were then selected with the FindVariableFeatures and scaled by ScaleData

command (while regressing out mitochondrial genes) for the Principal Component Analysis (PCA),

which was performed by the RunPCA command for 30 PCs. After integration with Harmony[61], the

data was subsequently processed with Louvain clustering and dimensionality reduction via

Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) using 30 principal components, reduction

= "harmony", and resolution of 0.8, to visualize nuclear transcriptomic profiles in two-dimensional

space. For annotation, we used the Allen Brain Cell (ABC) Atlas tool MapMyCells

(RRID:SCR_024672, the reference taxonomy: 10x Whole Mouse Brain (CCN20230722),

mapping algorithm: hierarchical mapping)[23] to assign neuronal classes or subclasses to nuclei

from a whole dataset. To validate the classification, we examined the clusters using well-

established markers such as *Th*, *Slc17a6* (Vglut2), and *Slc32a1* (Vgat), which confirmed that the

annotation was reasonable. To subset the dopaminergic population, we first used the annotation

(21_MB_Dopa) to identify and extract the relevant population. We then re-scaled the extracted

data and applied the supertype or cluster annotation to the subset and performed further analysis.

Differentially expressed genes in each cluster were identified by Wilcoxon test (the FindAllMarkers

function in Seurat),

Differential cell abundance

To identify differentially abundant cell populations in each dataset, we used two methods: MASC

(version 0.10)[24] and Milo (version 1.99)[30]. MASC is a single cell association method for testing

whether a certain status influences the membership of single cells while accounting for technical

confounds and biological variation. For all datasets, we included sex as a fixed effect, and

individual as a random effect in the model. We then tested the significance of association between

the status (i.e. MitoPark mice and their littermate controls at each stage, or MitoPark mice at

different stages) with the clusters. Cell subpopulations were considered significantly associated

with a status at FDR-adjusted P<0.05 and absolute odds ratio >0. Milo constructs local

neighborhoods (k=30, d=30) of transcriptionally similar cells on a k-nearest neighbor (kNN) graph

derived from the single-cell dataset, effectively grouping small clusters of similar cells together.

Each neighborhood represents a subset of cells with comparable transcriptomic profiles and may

correspond to fine-grained cellular subpopulations. Milo then quantifies the number of cells from
each sample within each neighborhood and compares their relative abundances across
experimental conditions, for example, assessing whether certain neighborhoods are enriched in
diseased samples relative to healthy controls. Statistical testing is performed to determine
whether these differences are significant or attributable to random variation. By systematically
applying this procedure across all neighborhoods, Milo identifies cellular subpopulations that
exhibit condition-specific changes in abundance.
574

575 **Gene ontology enrichment analysis**
576 We used the g:Profiler web tool and gprofiler2 R package (version 0.2.3)[62] to identify significantly
577 enriched gene ontology (GO) terms from upregulated or downregulated gene lists in dopaminergic
578 clusters.
579

Stereotaxic viral injections
Before starting the surgery mice were subcutaneously injected with Buprenorphine XR (0.5–1 mg
per kg body weight). The mouse head was shaved, cleaned with 70% alcohol and iodine, an
intradermic injection of bupivacaine (2 mg per kg body weight) was administered, and a small
incision from anterior to posterior was made on the skin to allow for aligning the head and drilling
the hole for the injection site. Surgeries were performed under sterile conditions and isoflurane
(1%–5%, plus oxygen at 1-1.5 l/min) anesthesia on a motorized stereotactic frame (David Kopf
Instruments, Model 900SD). Throughout each surgery, mouse body temperature was maintained
at 37C using an animal temperature controller (ATC2000, World Precision Instruments). For
anterograde tracing experiments, animal were unilaterally injected with 300nL of AAV5-CAG-
FLEX-GFP (titer: 4.5E12 vg/mL; UNC Vector Core) into the right hemisphere of the substantia
nigra pars compacta (SNc; AP -3.16 mm, ML 1.3 mm, DV -4.0 mm) using a Nanoject III Injector
(Drummond Scientific, USA) at a pulse rate of 5.1 nL per second, 20 nL per pulse every 5 s. After
injection, the pipette was held in place for 5 minutes before raising to ensure minimize viral efflux.
For whole-brain retrograde tracing experiments using rabies virus, 100nL of a 2:1 mixture of the
helper viruses, AAV1-CAG-FLEX-N2cG-mKate2.0 (titer: 9.83E12 vg/mL; Janelia Viral Core) or
AAVDJ-CAG-FlpX-N2cG-mKate2.0 (titer: 2.60E12 vg/mL; Zuckerman Institute Vector Core) and
AAV5-Esyn-DIO-TVA950-EYFP-WPRE (titer: 1.44E13 vg/mL; Salk Viral Vector Core), was
injected into the SNc. Two weeks later, 300nl of EnvA-N2c-deltaG-tdTomato (titer: 1.5E9 ffu/ml;
Center for Neuroanatomy with Neurotropic Viruses, CNNV) was injected within the same area at
a 10-degree angle (SNc; AP -3.16 mm, ML 2.0mm, DV -4.0 mm) to prevent labeling the injection

tract with TVA. For monosynaptic labeling from the primary motor cortex or the dorsal striatum, 100nL of a 2:1 mixture of the helper viruses, AAV1-CAG-FLEX-N2cG-mKate2.0 (titer: 9.83E12 vg/mL; Janelia Viral Core) and AAV5-Esyn-DIO-TVA950-EYFP-WPRE (titer: 1.44E13 vg/mL; Salk Viral Vector Core), was injected into the SNc. 100nL of AAVDJ-Ef1a-fDIO-mScarlet (titer: 6.30E12 vg/mL; Zuckerman Institute Vector Core) was injected in the motor cortex or the striatum. Two weeks later, 300nl of EnvA-N2c-deltaG-H2B-HA-FlpO (titer: 1.0E9 ffu/ml; Zuckerman Institute Vector Core) was injected within the same area at a 10-degree angle (SNc; AP -3.16 mm, ML 2.0mm, DV -4.0 mm). After the injection, the skull was cleaned and the skin sealed with sutures and Vetbond tissue adhesive (3M, Maplewood, MN, USA). For ablation experiments, 150 nL of AAV5-EF1a-FLEX-taCasp3-TEVp virus (titer 4.20E12 vg/mL; UNC Vector Core) was bilaterally injected into the SNc of DAT-Cre at two specific coordinates (SNc-medial: AP -3.16 mm, ML 1.10 mm, DV -4.1 mm; SNc-lateral: AP -3.16 mm, ML 1.50 mm, DV -4.1 mm). These coordinates effectively targeted and ablated SNc dopaminergic neurons. For silencing neurotransmission, 300nL of AAVDJ-hSyn-FLEX-TeLC-EYFP (titer 7.40E12 vg/mL; Zuckerman Institute Vector Core) was bilaterally injected in the SNc of Anxa1-Cre (SNc; AP -3.16 mm, ML 1.3 mm, DV -4.0 mm).

Open field and cylinder test behavior assays

Mice were habituated with a wireless motion sensor in a square arena (40 x 40 x 20 cm, length x width x height) housed inside a sound-attenuating chamber for 30 minutes on the first day. Imaging was conducted using a 1280 x 1024 pixel FLIR camera (Point Grey Flea) with a CS mount lens, recording at 30 Hz. For the open-field test, mice were imaged for 30 minutes from a top view, and for the cylinder test (a cylinder arena: 15cm diameter x 30cm length), they were imaged for 15 minutes from a side view. Video acquisition was performed using the commercial software FlyCapture and the open-source visual language Bonsai[63]. Mouse centroid coordinates (i.e., spine2 in DeepLabCut tracking, details provided below) during the open-field recording were used to calculate basic measures of activity (e.g., trajectory or velocity). Acceleration data was collected at a sampling rate of 200 Hz (details provided below).

Pose estimation and tracking analysis

DeepLabCut[64] was used to estimate the pose of the mice and track their movements throughout the trials. In the open-field test, seven body parts (nose, right ear, left ear, spine1, spine2, spine3, tail) were labeled to create a skeleton for pose estimation. For the cylinder test, two body parts (motion sensor and nose) were labeled. A total of 1,100 frames were labeled for the open-field

test (training: 1.03 million iterations, training error: 1.72 pixels, test error: 2.76 pixels), and 1,040

frames were labeled for the cylinder test (training: 1.03 million iterations, training error: 2.31 pixels,

test error: 6.8 pixels). The pose data was filtered using a median filter and verified through visual

inspection. For the analysis in the open-field test, to ensure consistent data, we only used data

from the 5 to 20-minute mark (15 minutes total) within a 30-minute recording, as mice tend to

move differently during the first few minutes after being placed from their home cage into the field.

Immobility was defined as any tracking point with a speed of less than 0.5 cm/s for a duration of

more than 0.5 seconds, and estimates with a likelihood lower than 0.95 were excluded. Average

speed was calculated only during periods when the animal was mobile. In the cylinder test, the

full 15 minutes of data were used for analysis, since mice often exhibit exploratory rearing

behaviors during the first few minutes. For quantifying the number of rears, we tracked the vertical

positions of the nose and motion sensor on the mouse head using DeepLabCut. If the tracking

was sustained for at least 0.5 seconds in the same position, it was defined as a single rearing

behavior. The height thresholds were determined using DeepLabCut's output (i.e., filtered

trajectory plots), and the number of rears instances was recorded.

Motion sensor acceleration data analysis

Wireless motion sensor data was collected using the WEAR system developed by the

Champalimaud Hardware Platform. The sensor is compact and lightweight (~1.8 g), capable of

sampling nine-axis motion data from a three-axis accelerometer, gyroscope, and magnetometer

at rates up to 200 Hz[15]. This device communicates with computers through a base station

designed by the platform, utilizing the Harp system. The base station is accessible via a software

GUI (e.g., Harp Wear), allowing for easy adjustment of sensor parameters to best fit experimental

needs. Additionally, it is compatible with Bonsai software[63], enabling synchronization of the WEAR

sensor data with other data sources, such as cameras. The data was first filtered using a 5th order,

1Hz low-pass Butterworth filter to separate the gravitational acceleration component of each axis.

This component was then subtracted to the original acceleration data to obtain the fast

acceleration changes induced by mice's movements (body acceleration). Total body acceleration

was determined by calculating the vector norm of the three body acceleration axis. To assess the

emergence of rhythmic, oscillatory movements, we performed a spectral analysis of the body's

dorso-ventral acceleration axis. We used the signal.spectrogram function of the Scipy python

library[65] to calculate a spectrogram with consecutive Fourier transforms, using segments of 256

samples with a 50% overlap. The spectrogram was normalized by transforming the power values

of each window to a 0-1 range (maximum= 1 and minimum=0). For each mouse a final measure

was obtained by calculating the median normalized power considering all the windows of the
spectrogram.

Pavlovian conditioning

Mice were habituated to custom-made Pavlovian chambers (17 x 14 x 20 cm, length x width x
height) placed inside sound-attenuating boxes. They were food-restricted throughout the training
period and maintained at 85% of their original body weight. Each chamber was equipped with a
nose poke port featuring an infrared beam and stimulus LED, as well as a speaker. A food reward
(6-8 µl of 10% sucrose solution) was delivered through a magazine spout equipped with a
lickometer. Cues and reward delivery were controlled by a Python-based framework (i.e., the
pyControl system[66]), which also recorded all behavioral timestamps. Behavior was monitored
using top (USB camera, ELP, China) and side (Flea3, FLIR, USA) cameras, with video capture
managed by FlyCapture and Bonsai softwares. For stimuli, a 10-second LED light served as the
CS+, while a 10-second tone (4 kHz, 75 dB) served as the CS-. At the onset of each CS+, a drop
of sucrose solution was delivered to the tip of the spout, whereas the CS- was not paired with a
reward. CS+ and CS- were presented independently on a random inter-trial interval schedule of
120 seconds (ITI = RI-120). A training session concluded once the animal received a total of 30
rewards. Each animal underwent one training session per day for five consecutive days. Learning
progress was assessed by monitoring the lick rate and the latency for each mouse to make its
first lick after the onset of each CS+.

Histology

Mice were deeply anesthetized with isoflurane and transcardially perfused with PBS, followed by
ice-cold 4% paraformaldehyde. Brains were then removed for histological analysis. Coronal
sections were cut at 30 µm for immunostaining or 75 µm for 3D reconstruction using a Leica
VT1000 vibratome. The tissue was rinsed twice in 1x PBS and then permeabilized in PBS
containing 0.4% Triton X-100 (PBST). For quantification of *Th+* cells in MitoPark mice and Anxa1-
Cre mouse line, immunohistochemistry was performed with primary antibodies by incubating the
sections with an anti-GFP antibody (Chicken, Aves labs Inc, GFP-1020) and a TH antibody
(Mouse, ImmunoStar, 22941) diluted at 1:2000 in 0.4% Triton X-100 PBS (PBST) overnight at 4C.
To visualize the dorsal-tier or ventral-tier of the SNc DANs, we also used a Calbindin D28K (Rabbit,
Synaptic Systems, 214002) or an Aldh1a1 antibody (Goat, R&D Systems, AF5869). The sections
were then incubated with secondary antibodies (Donkey anti-Chicken Alexa Fluor 488,
JacksonImmunoResearch, 703-545-155; Donkey anti-Goat Alexa Fluor 568, Invitrogen, A11057;

Donkey anti-Rabbit Alexa Fluor 568 (Invitrogen, A10042); Donkey anti-Mouse Alexa Fluor 647,

Invitrogen, A31571) diluted at 1:2000 in 0.4% PBST overnight at 4C. DAPI (Sigma D9542; 1:1000)

was used as a counterstain in all experiments.

Image acquisition, processing, and analysis

Coronal sections (30μm or 75μm) were serially mounted on slides and sections were imaged

using an automated slide scanner (Nikon AZ100 Multizoom microscope) equipped with a 4x

0.4NA Plan Apo objective (Nikon Instruments Inc) and P200 slide loader (Prior Scientific),

controlled by NIS-Elements using custom acquisition scripts (Nikon Instruments Inc.). Image

processing and analysis using BrainJ proceeded as previously described[21]. Briefly, brain sections

were aligned and registered using two-dimensional (2D) rigid-body registration. After background

subtraction ilastik was used to detect cell bodies and neuronal processes[67]. Probability images

for class (soma and neuronal processes) were generated using the pixel classification approach

in ilastik, ensuring improved accuracy for segmentation over fluorescence intensity alone. To map

the location of these structures to an annotated brain atlas, serial tissue sections were registered

into a single volume before 3D registration to the template brain (Allen Brain Atlas Common

Coordinate Framework) using Elastix[68]. Initial measurements and data visualization were

performed in ImageJ, and subsequent analyses were performed in Python.

Statistics and reproducibility

All statistical analyses were conducted using R or Python. Data are presented as mean with 95%

confidence intervals (CI) or as the standard error of the mean (SEM), unless otherwise specified.

Statistical significance was assessed using a two-sided Mann–Whitney U test, and for multiple

comparisons, a two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test was applied. To further validate

the results, a linear mixed-effects model (LMM) with Tukey's post hoc comparisons was also

conducted for certain results (*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$). All

measurements were obtained from distinct, independent samples unless otherwise stated.

Data and code availability

All data, code, experimental protocols, and essential laboratory materials used or generated in

this study are listed in the Key Resources Table, together with their corresponding persistent

identifiers at DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.18273548.

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Author contributions

A.F. and R.M.C. designed the study, interpreted the results, and wrote the manuscript. A.F.
conducted the experiments and analyzed the data. D.N. generated viral constructs and assisted
with the production of transgenic mice. Z.R.L., A.Y., B.T., and V.M. contributed to transcriptome
data analysis and interpretation of sequencing results. L.A.H. developed the automated pipeline
for anatomical reconstruction and analysis, and contributed to histological assessments. C.W.
produced the rabies virus. T.S. and J.A.d.S. assisted with accelerometer experiments and data
analysis. R.M.C. supervised the project. All authors contributed to the interpretation of results and
manuscript editing.

Declaration of interests

766 The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure1

 Fig.1 Progressive development of PD-like motor deficits in MitoPark mice

A. Cumulative trajectories of a representative MitoPark mouse and their control at different

stages (8, 16 and 24wks) in the open-field test (black: control animals, red: MitoPark mice).

B-E. Behavioral characterization of MitoPark mice and their littermate controls at each stage.

(B) Immobility time: MitoPark mice at later stages spent significantly more time immobile

compared to controls. The inset shows tracking performed using DeepLabCut. **(C)** Average

speed during mobility: the speed of MitoPark mice was significantly lowered in 16 and 24wks.

(D) Number of stops: the number of pauses in MitoPark mice showed significant differences

compared to the controls. (**E**) Number of rears: MitoPark mice exhibited a significant reduction

in rearing behavior at later stages. Statistical significance was determined by two-sided Mann–

Whitney U-test (*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$; ns = not statistically significant). Error bars

show 95% confidence intervals. MitoPark 8weeks, n=6; Littermate controls 8weeks, n=6;

MitoPark 16weeks, n=12; Littermate controls 16weeks, n=8; MitoPark 24weeks, n=9; Littermate

controls 24weeks, n=15. **F-I.** Frequency analysis of total time **(F)** or immobility periods **(G)** at

different ages of the animals. Mitopark mice showed a pronounced increase in the power of

acceleration oscillations at the 12-18Hz range that becomes more prominent in the later stages.

(H, I) The scatter plots show the correlation between age and mean power in the 12-18Hz

frequency band for Mitopark mice and control animals during total period **(H)** or immobile period

(I). Pearson's correlation coefficient reveals a strong positive correlation during both the total

period (H: red, r=0.88, p<0.001) and the immobile period (I: red, r=0.77, p<0.01) in MitoPark

mice. The solid line represents the linear regression model (H: red, y = 6.3e-03x + 0.036, R² =

0.78; I: red, y = 5.6e-03x + 0.036, R² = 0.60), demonstrating a statistically significant relationship

between the two variables in MitoPark mice. MitoPark 8weeks, n=3; Littermate controls 8weeks,

n=3; MitoPark 16weeks, n=4; Littermate controls 16weeks, n=3; MitoPark 24weeks, n=5;

Littermate controls 24weeks, n=6. **J-P.** Injections of Casp3 virus in the SNc of DAT-Cre mice led

to the similar phenotype of MitoPark mice 24 weeks. **(J)** The images demonstrated a specific

reduction in dopamine neurons (DANs) within the SNc, as confirmed by staining with anti-TH

antibody (green). **(K-N)** The DAT-Casp3 animals showed motor deficits characterized by

diminished movement speed, increased incidences of halting and reduced the frequency of

rearing behaviors. Statistical significance was determined by two-sided Mann–Whitney U-test

(*$p < 0.05$; ns = not statistically significant). Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. DAT-

Casp3 animals, n=5; Controls, n=5. **(O, P)** The virus injection led to the presentation of the

same 12-18Hz oscillation seen in MitoPark mice at 24 weeks.

Figure2

Fig.2 Progressive degeneration of dopamine neurons in MitoPark mice

A-C. TH immunohistochemistry of MitoPark mice and their littermate controls at 8, 16 and 24

weeks. (A) Histological images of the mice at each stage. Scale bars: 400μm for the substantia

nigra (top) and 1mm for the striatum (bottom). (B-C) MitoPark mice exhibited a gradual and

preferential loss of DANs in the substantia nigra, and their projections (each n=1). **D.** The

workflow for single-nucleus RNA (snRNA) sequencing commenced with the collection of all

tissues from the ventral midbrain (red dashed lines). The tissue samples underwent nuclei

isolation, followed by the selection of DAPI+ nuclei. These nuclei were subsequently processed

using the 10x Genomics platform for sequencing. **E.** UMAP visualization of snRNA-seq data

from the ventral midbrain. Data are combined across all animals (MitoPark mice and their

controls) and classified by the Allen Brain Cell (ABC) Atlas class annotations. Nuclei that are

limited in number or belong to infrequent categories are designated as 'others.' **F.** Feature plot

showing expression of marker genes used to label the main class of cells: *Th* (DANs), *Slc17a6*

(excitatory neurons) and *Slc32a1* (inhibitory neurons). **G-I.** Dots and whiskers represent odds-

ratio (OR) with 95% confidence interval (CI) obtained from MASC. OR estimates of major cell

types associated with MitoPark mice (color; false discovery rate (FDR)-adjusted P<0.05). **(G)**

MitoPark 16 weeks versus their littermate controls; 21_MB_Dopa (OR=-0.95, FDR-adjusted

P<0.05). **(H)** MitoPark 24 weeks versus their littermate controls; 21_MB_Dopa (OR=-1.26, FDR-

adjusted P<0.05). **(I)** MitoPark 16 weeks versus 8 weeks; 21_MB_Dopa (OR=-0.51, FDR-

adjusted P=0.057).

Fig.3 Subtype-specific degeneration within the dopaminergic populations

A. UMAP representation of 18,611 dopamine neuron nuclei, colored by the supertype

annotation of the Allen Brain Cell (ABC) Atlas. In supertype annotation of the ABC Atlas, DANs

are largely classified into 8 types. **B.** Representative feature plots showing gene expression

associated with dopamine used to label the main class of cells. **C.** Distribution of dopamine

subtype proportions across MitoPark and their control animals. 0882_Sox6 is mostly affected

among other dopamine neuron subtypes. Statistical significance was determined by two-way

ANOVA (p-value indicates the interaction effect between genotype and age) followed by

Tukey's HSD test for multiple comparisons (*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001).

D-F. Odds-ratio estimates of each dopamine subpopulation in **(D)** MitoPark 16 weeks versus

their littermate controls; 0882_Sox6 (OR=-1.72, FDR-adjusted P<0.05), 0880_Megf11

1084 (OR=1.00, FDR-adjusted P<0.05) and 0883_Cck (OR=1.13, FDR-adjusted P<0.05). **(E)**

1085 MitoPark 24 weeks versus their littermate controls; 0882_Sox6 (OR=-2.49, FDR-adjusted

1086 P<0.05), 0887_Synpr (OR=1.76, FDR-adjusted P<0.05) and 0880_Megf11 (OR=1.31, FDR-

1087 adjusted P<0.05). **(F)** MitoPark 16 weeks versus 8 weeks; 0882_Sox6 (OR=-0.93, FDR-

1088 adjusted P=0.057).

Figure4

Fig.4 A subset of *Sox6+* population is more vulnerable than others in MitoPark mice

Differential abundance analysis for the dopamine clusters of MitoPark mice and their littermate

controls. The analysis reveals a subtype-specific reduction in MitoPark mice at a later stage.

A. Distribution of *Sox6+* dopamine subtype proportions across MitoPark and their control

animals. 3857_Anxa1 is significantly affected among other dopamine neuron subtypes at 16

and 24 weeks. Statistical significance was determined by two-way ANOVA (p-value indicates

the interaction effect between genotype and age) followed by Tukey's HSD test for multiple

comparisons ($*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$). **B-D.** UMAP plots illustrating

dopamine neuron subpopulations in MitoPark mice and their littermate controls (n = 8 per

genotype and stage), highlighting clusters with significant differential abundance (log fold

change < 2). The gene groups affected across all comparisons are shown: (B) Controls vs.

MitoPark at 16 weeks, (C) Controls vs. MitoPark at 24 weeks, and (D) MitoPark at 8 vs. 16

weeks, as identified by the differential abundance analysis. **E-G.** Neighborhood (Nhood) graphs

with the results from Milo differential abundance testing between MitoPark mice and controls

(E:16 weeks, F: 24 weeks), and between MitoPark mice at different stages (G: 8 and 16 weeks).

Nodes represent neighborhoods, colored by their log fold change compared to their controls

(blue: less abundant, red: more abundant, gray: non-differentially abundant). Graph edges show

the number of cells shared between two neighborhoods. **H-J.** Beeswarm plots display the

distribution of log-fold changes in cell abundance. Dots representing neighborhoods that overlap

with the same cell populations are grouped together. Colors are represented similarly to **E-G**. **K.**

Histological images representing 8 and 16 weeks of MitoPark mice reveal that significant cell

depletion in the ventral region, particularly in the rostral part of the SNc (TH: green, ALDH1A1:

magenta). Scale bar 400μm.

Figure5

1113

Fig.5 Input-output circuit architecture of *Anxa1+* DANs in the SNc

A. In the Anxa1-Cre line, the majority of neurons within the SNc are positive for *Th* and

negative for *Calbindin1* (TH, red; CALB1, magenta; n=2). Scale bars: 400μm. **B.** Axonal

projections of *Anxa1+* DANs in the SNc. They preferentially project to dorsal striatum that

integrates sensorimotor information from cortical and thalamic regions. Scale bars: 1mm. **C-D.**

Brain regions to which all DANs or *Anxa1+* DANs in the SNc project, measured as the fraction

of neurites found within those brain structures defined Allen brain atlas (each n=3). Blue

horizontal line indicates dorsal striatum and the red line indicates ventral striatum. **E.**

Representative images of rabies infected cells (tdTomato). Rabies virus was injected in the SNc

of Anxa1-Cre counterstained with DAPI in blue. Scale bar 1mm. **F-I.** Statistical analysis of the

whole-brain distribution of ipsilateral (left) or contralateral (right) monosynaptic inputs to all

DANs (F, G) or *Anxa1+* dopamine neuron subtype (H, I) in the SNc. Average proportion of

tdTomato-labeled neurons in approximately 50 brain regions, each with more than 200 cells,

was greater than 0.2% of the total input to DANs in DAT-Cre mice (n=7) and Anxa1-Cre mice

(n=5; 4 animals for Anxa1-Cre+ and 1 animal for DAT-Flp+;Anxa1-Cre+). Brain areas are color-

coded by the Allen Brain Atlas.

[Acronym] ACAd5, Anterior cingulate area, dorsal part, layer 5; ACAv5, Anterior cingulate area,

ventral part, layer 5; ACB, Nucleus accumbens; AId5, Agranular insular area, dorsal part, layer

5; AId6a, Agranular insular area, dorsal part, layer 6a; APN, Anterior pretectal nucleus; BLAa,

Basolateral amygdalar nucleus, anterior part; CEAc, Central amygdalar nucleus, capsular part;

CEAl, Central amygdalar nucleus, lateral part; CEAm, Central amygdalar nucleus, medial part;

CPc_d, Caudal Caudoputamen, dorsal; CPc_i, Caudal Caudoputamen, intermediate; CPc_v,

Caudal Caudoputamen, ventral; CPi_dl, Intermediate Caudoputamen, dorsolateral; CPi_dm,

Intermediate Caudoputamen, dorsomedial; CPi_vl, Intermediate Caudoputamen, ventrolateral;

CPi_vm, Intermediate Caudoputamen, ventromedial; CPr_imd, Rostral Caudoputamen,

intermediate dorsal; CPr_imv, Rostral Caudoputamen, intermediate ventral; CPr_l, Rostral

Caudoputamen, lateral; CPr_m, Rostral Caudoputamen, medial; EW, EdingerWestphal nucleus;

FF, Fields of Forel; FS, Fundus of striatum; Gpe, Globus pallidus, external segment; Gpi,

Globus pallidus, internal segment; HY, Hypothalamus; IF, Interfascicular nucleus raphe; IPRL,

Interpeduncular nucleus, rostrolateral; LHA, Lateral hypothalamic area; MB, Midbrain; MOp5,

Primary motor area, Layer 5; MOp6a, Primary motor area, Layer 6a; MOs5, Secondary motor

area, layer 5; MOs6a, Secondary motor area, layer 6a; MRN, Midbrain reticular nucleus; MT,

Medial terminal nucleus of the accessory optic tract; ORBl5, Orbital area, lateral part, layer 5;

OT, Olfactory tubercle; PAG, Periaqueductal gray; PAL, Pallidum; PIL, Posterior intralaminar

thalamic nucleus; PL5, Prelimbic area, layer 5; PN, Paranigral nucleus; PP, Peripeduncular

nucleus; PST, Preparasubthalamic nucleus; PSTN, Parasubthalamic nucleus; RL, Rostral linear

nucleus raphe; RN, Red nucleus; RR, Midbrain reticular nucleus, retrorubral area; RSPd5,

Retrosplenial area, dorsal part, layer 5; RSPv5, Retrosplenial area, ventral part, layer 5; SCdg,

Superior colliculus, motor related, deep gray layer; Scig, Superior colliculus, motor related,

intermediate gray layer; Sciw, Superior colliculus, motor related, intermediate white layer; SI,

Substantia innominata; SNr, Substantia nigra, reticular part; SPFp, Subparafascicular nucleus,

parvicellular part; SSpbfd5, Primary somatosensory area, barrel field, layer 5; SSpll5, Primary

somatosensory area, lower limb, layer 5; SSpm5, Primary somatosensory area, mouth, layer 5;

SSpul5, Primary somatosensory area, upper limb, layer 5; SSs5, Supplemental somatosensory

area, layer 5; STN, Subthalamic nucleus; STR, Striatum; TEa5, Temporal association areas,

layer 5; VISC5, Visceral area, layer 5; VTA, Ventral tegmental area; ZI, Zona incerta

Figure6

1160

Fig.6 Inhibition of *Anxa1*+ DANs leads to motor deficits resembling early onset PD-like

symptoms

A. In the Anxa1-Cre line, targeted expression of the tetanus toxin light chain (TeLC) specifically

eliminated dopamine synaptic transmission in the dorsal striatum (white arrows). Scale bars:

1mm for the striatum (top) and 400μm for the substantia nigra (bottom). **B-D.** Behavioral

characterization of Anxa1-TeLC animals. (B) Cumulative trajectories of a representative Anxa1-

TeLC mouse and their control in the open-field test (black: a control animal, red: Anxa1-TeLC

mouse). (C) Anxa1-TeLC animals demonstrated slowed movement; however, there were no

significant differences observed in terms of immobility duration or the frequency of stops. The

frequency of rearing behaviors in the Anxa1-TeLC animals was significantly reduced. Statistical

significance was determined by two-sided Mann–Whitney U-test (**$p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$; ns = not

statistically significant). Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. Anxa1-TeLC animals, n=5;

Controls, n=4. (D) This figure shows the probability density function (PDF) for stop duration (left)

and speed distribution (right), with duration (in seconds) or speed (cm/s) on the x-axis and

probability density on the y-axis. There is no significant difference in the distribution of stop

durations between Anxa1-TeLC and control animals, although the speed distribution in Anxa1-

TeLC animals is slightly shifted to the left, indicating slower movement. **E.** Anxa1-TeLC animals

showed the similar 12-18Hz oscillation seen in MitoPark mice at 16 weeks.

Extended Data Fig.1

1179

Extended Data Fig.1 Behavioral changes associated with the progression of

neurodegeneration in MitoPark mice, Related to Fig.1

A-B. Environmental novelty does not influence basic locomotor activity in MitoPark animals.

Measures of immobility time, average speed, and number of stops on the initial habituation

day (Day 0) did not differ significantly from those recorded on the actual testing day (Day 1).

Although average speed was slightly higher on Day 0, this likely reflects heightened

exploratory drive and motivation in response to the novel environment (A). Similarly, speed

distribution analysis showed no significant differences between the two days (B). **C-D.**

Examples of raw traces of dynamic acceleration in MitoPark animal 24 weeks (red) and a

control animal (black), with an enlarged view (gray square in A) shown in **C**. MitoPark mice often

show specific 12-18Hz oscillations. **E-H.** These figures show the probability density functions

(PDFs) for stop duration and speed, with duration (s) and speed (cm/s) on the x-axis and

probability density on the y-axis. In MitoPark mice, stop durations increased and speed

distributions shifted leftward at later stages (E, G). DAT-Casp3 animals exhibited a similar

pattern, with prolonged stop durations and reduced speeds (F, H), resembling the later-stage

phenotype of MitoPark mice.

Extended Data Fig.2

(Hintiryan H et al., 2016)

Extended Data Fig.2 An updated atlas incorporates striatal subregions and enhances the

analysis of cells and projections, Related to Fig.2 and Fig.5

A. Top: The original Allen Common Coordinate Framework (Allen CCF; version 3 released in

2017). Middle: An updated version of the Allen CCF, incorporating subregions of the striatum

(CP: caudate putamen) based on the cortical projections shown at the bottom (CPr_imd: Rostral

CP – Intermediate dorsal, CPr_l: Rostral CP – Lateral, CPr_imv: Rostral CP – Intermediate

ventral, CPr_m: Rostral CP – Medial, CPi_dm: Intermediate CP – Dorsomedial, CPi_dl:

Intermediate CP – Dorsolateral, CPi_vl: Intermediate CP – Ventrolateral, CPi_vm: Intermeidiate

CP – Ventromedial, CPc_d: Caudal CP – Dorsal, CPc_i: Caudal CP – Intermediate, CPc_v:

Caudal CP – Ventral). **B.** Alignment of coordinates between the ABA (Allen Brain Atlas) and

Allen CCFv3, with manually segmented subregions of the striatum. **C.** Comparison of projection

density of dopamine neurons in SNc using the original atlas versus the updated atlas. The

original atlas (top) does not include subdivisions of the caudate-putamen (CP), while the

updated atlas (bottom) defines 11 subregions based on cortical projections, providing a more

detailed representation of local projections within the striatum.

Extended Data Fig.3

Extended Data Fig.3 The integrated dataset with the Allen Brain Cell (ABC) Atlas, Related

to Fig.2

A. UMAP plots showing all nuclei in the ventral midbrain of MitoPark mice and their controls with

the class (left) or subclass (right) annotation of the ABC Atlas. Dopamine cluster is classified as

Class: 21_MB_Dopa or Subclass: 215_SNc_VTA_RAmb_Foxa1_Dopa. **B.** Representative

feature plots to label main class of cells. Neuronal cells, *Rbfox3*; Oligodendrocytes, *Mog*;

Oligodendrocyte precursor cells (OPCs), *Pdgfra*; Microglia, *Ptprc*; Astrocytes, *Gja*; Endothelial

cells, *Nostrin*.

Extended Data Fig.4

Extended Data Fig.4 A significant reduction in DANs was observed in the later weeks of MitoPark mice, Related to Fig.2

A. UMAP plots showing all nuclei in the ventral midbrain of MitoPark mice and their controls with the class annotation of the ABC Atlas. Dopamine cluster (black arrow) becomes visibly thinner than other cell types in MitoPark mice. **B.** Box and whisker plots showing the fraction of major cell types originating from the ventral midbrain of MitoPark mice, their littermate controls and B6

WT mice (each n=8), with plot center, box and whiskers corresponding to median, interquartile

range (IQR) and 1.5xIQR, respectively. MitoPark mice in the later stages exhibited a significant

reduction in the proportion of DANs (21_MB_Dopa), without affecting other cell types. Statistical

significance was determined by two-way ANOVA (p-value indicates the interaction effect

between genotype and age) followed by Tukey's HSD test for multiple comparisons (*p < 0.05,

p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001). **C-E. Odds-ratio estimated of major cell types

annotated by subclass. **(C)** MitoPark 16 weeks versus their littermate controls;

215_SNc_VTA_RAmb_Foxa1_Dopa (OR=-0.95, FDR-adjusted P<0.05). **(D)** MitoPark 24 weeks

versus their littermate controls; 215_SNc_VTA_RAmb_Foxa1_Dopa (OR=-1.26, FDR-adjusted

P<0.05). **(E)** MitoPark 16 weeks versus 8 weeks; 215_SNc_VTA_RAmb_Foxa1_Dopa (OR=-

0.51, FDR-adjusted P=0.086).

Extended Data Fig.5

Extended Data Fig.5 The dopaminergic cluster with distinct marker genes, Related to

Fig.3

A. UMAP plots showing dopamine nuclei in the MitoPark mice and their controls with the

annotations (Class, Subclass, Supertype and Cluster) of the ABC Atlas. **B.** UMAP plots

illustrating the distribution of dopamine nuclei, categorized by supertype annotation based on

the species and age. **C.** Top five marker genes for each dopamine neuron subtype categorized

by supertype annotation.

Extended Data Fig.6

Extended Data Fig.6 Marker feature expression in the dopaminergic cluster, Related to

Fig.3

A. Feature plots depicting the expression of marker genes across dopamine clusters, classified

according to supertype annotations.**B.** Violin plot indicating the expression distribution of the top

marker gene of each cluster. **C.** Clustered dot plot profiling of marker genes for each dopamine

cluster. X-axis represents the dopamine clusters, and the Y-axis shows the top three marker

genes. Dot diameter indicates the proportion of cluster nuclei expressing a given gene. The

color scale represents the gene expression levels, with black indicating high expression and

white indicating low expression. **D.** Distribution of dopamine subtype proportions across

MitoPark littermate control animals and B6 WT animals. **E-G.** There is no significant age-related

degeneration in dopamine populations. **(E)** MitoPark littermate controls versus B6 WT animals

at 8 weeks; 0882_Sox6 (OR=-0.14, FDR-adjusted P=0.80). **(E)** MitoPark littermate controls

versus B6 WT animals at 16 weeks; 0882_Sox6 (OR=-0.21, FDR-adjusted P<0.41). **(F)**

MitoPark littermate controls versus B6 WT animals at 24 weeks; 0882_Sox6 (OR=0.20, FDR-

adjusted P<0.11).

Extended Data Fig.7

1263

1264 **Extended Data Fig.7 Selective vulnerability of *Sox6*+ dopaminergic population revealed**

1265 **by differential abundance test with Milo, Related to Fig.4**

Differential abundance testing for the dopamine subpopulations with supertype annotations by the ABC atlas. **A-C.** UMAP plots showing the dopamine subpopulations of MitoPark mice and their controls. **D-F.** Neighborhood graphs with the results from Milo differential abundance analysis between MitoPark mice and their littermate controls (D:16 weeks, E: 24 weeks), and between MitoPark mice at different stage (F: 8 weeks and 16 weeks). **G-I**. Beeswarm plots showing the distribution of log-fold changes in each supertype group. Colors are represented similarly to **D-F**. **J-L**. Beeswarm plots showing the distribution of log-fold changes in each cluster. Colors are represented similarly to **Fig.4D-F**. **M**. Comparison of DAT expression among *Sox6+* dopamine subtypes revealed no substantial differences.

Extended Data Fig.8

A

	GO Table			
	Based on dopamine subcluster			
Source	Term name	Term ID	Cluster	log10(1/padj)
GO:BP	nervous system development	GO:0007399	3854_Grin2c	85.68
GO:BP	neurogenesis	GO:0022008	3854_Grin2c	76.55
GO:BP	generation of neurons	GO:0048699	3854_Grin2c	74.69
GO:CC	cell junction	GO:0030054	3854_Grin2c	111.69
GO:CC	synapse	GO:0045202	3854_Grin2c	97.04
GO:CC	cytoplasm	GO:0005737	3854_Grin2c	79.54
GO:MF	protein binding	GO:0005515	3854_Grin2c	85.87
GO:MF	binding	GO:0005488	3854_Grin2c	33.21
GO:MF	ion binding	GO:0043167	3854_Grin2c	32.86
HP	Abnormal muscle tone	HP:0003808	3854_Grin2c	5.27
HP	Abnormal nervous system physiology	HP:0012638	3854_Grin2c	5.27
HP	Abnormality of mental function	HP:0011446	3854_Grin2c	4.99
KEGG	Axon guidance	KEGG:04360	3854_Grin2c	9.54
KEGG	Glutamatergic synapse	KEGG:04724	3854_Grin2c	8.91
KEGG	Morphine addiction	KEGG:05032	3854_Grin2c	8.70
MIRNA	mmu-miR-15a-5p	MIRNA:mmu-miR-15a-5p	3854_Grin2c	3.45
MIRNA	mmu-miR-340-5p	MIRNA:mmu-miR-340-5p	3854_Grin2c	3.33
MIRNA	mmu-miR-149-5p	MIRNA:mmu-miR-149-5p	3854_Grin2c	3.01
REAC	Neuronal System	REAC:R-MMU-112316	3854_Grin2c	19.47
REAC	Transmission across Chemical Synapses	REAC:R-MMU-112315	3854_Grin2c	10.89
REAC	Protein-protein interactions at synapses	REAC:R-MMU-6794362	3854_Grin2c	8.66
TF	Factor: ZF5; motif: GSGCGCGR; match class: 1	TF:M00716_1	3854_Grin2c	112.68
TF	Factor: ZF5; motif: GSGCGCGR	TF:M00716	3854_Grin2c	98.98
TF	Factor: ZF5; motif: NRNGNGCGCGCWN; match class: 1	TF:M00333_1	3854_Grin2c	95.72
WP	Dravet syndrome Scn1a A1783V point mutation model	WP:WP5298	3854_Grin2c	4.88
WP	Splicing factor NOVA regulated synaptic proteins	WP:WP1983	3854_Grin2c	3.98
WP	G protein signaling pathways	WP:WP232	3854_Grin2c	3.49

B

	GO Table			
	Based on dopamine subcluster			
Source	Term name	Term ID	Cluster	log10(1/padj)
GO:BP	nervous system development	GO:0007399	3855_Arhgap28	72.23
GO:BP	neurogenesis	GO:0022008	3855_Arhgap28	62.71
GO:BP	system development	GO:0048731	3855_Arhgap28	59.98
GO:CC	cell junction	GO:0030054	3855_Arhgap28	62.84
GO:CC	neuron projection	GO:0043005	3855_Arhgap28	59.86
GO:CC	synapse	GO:0045202	3855_Arhgap28	56.83
GO:MF	protein binding	GO:0005515	3855_Arhgap28	39.92
GO:MF	cytoskeletal protein binding	GO:0008092	3855_Arhgap28	19.07
GO:MF	binding	GO:0005488	3855_Arhgap28	18.82
HP	Tremor	HP:0001337	3855_Arhgap28	4.95
HP	Myoclonus	HP:0001336	3855_Arhgap28	3.86
HP	Involuntary movements	HP:0004305	3855_Arhgap28	3.84
KEGG	Morphine addiction	KEGG:05032	3855_Arhgap28	9.82
KEGG	Glutamatergic synapse	KEGG:04724	3855_Arhgap28	7.65
KEGG	GABAergic synapse	KEGG:04727	3855_Arhgap28	7.18
MIRNA	mmu-miR-758-3p	MIRNA:mmu-miR-758-3p	3855_Arhgap28	3.94
MIRNA	mmu-miR-425-5p	MIRNA:mmu-miR-425-5p	3855_Arhgap28	2.87
REAC	Neuronal System	REAC:R-MMU-112316	3855_Arhgap28	15.38
REAC	Transmission across Chemical Synapses	REAC:R-MMU-112315	3855_Arhgap28	9.58
REAC	Neurotransmitter receptors and postsynaptic signal transmission	REAC:R-MMU-112314	3855_Arhgap28	2.62
TF	Factor: Sp1; motif: GGNGGGGGNGGGGGMGGGGCNGGG	TF:M10375	3855_Arhgap28	33.09
TF	Factor: CTCF; motif: NAGGGGCGCNNKNNNN; match class: 1	TF:M08995_1	3855_Arhgap28	27.03
TF	Factor: ZF5; motif: NRNGNGCGCGCWN; match class: 1	TF:M00333_1	3855_Arhgap28	25.14
WP	Dravet syndrome Scn1a A1783V point mutation model	WP:WP5298	3855_Arhgap28	5.10
WP	Dopaminergic neurogenesis	WP:WP1498	3855_Arhgap28	3.95
WP	Splicing factor NOVA regulated synaptic proteins	WP:WP1983	3855_Arhgap28	3.32

C

	GO Table			
	Based on dopamine subcluster			
Source	Term name	Term ID	Cluster	log10(1/padj)
CORUM	Sh3kbp1-Cblb-Egfr complex	CORUM:5172	3857_Anxa1	1.30
GO:BP	nervous system development	GO:0007399	3857_Anxa1	91.15
GO:BP	neurogenesis	GO:0022008	3857_Anxa1	83.86
GO:BP	system development	GO:0048731	3857_Anxa1	82.54
GO:CC	cell junction	GO:0030054	3857_Anxa1	113.87
GO:CC	synapse	GO:0045202	3857_Anxa1	99.92
GO:CC	neuron projection	GO:0043005	3857_Anxa1	89.89
GO:MF	protein binding	GO:0005515	3857_Anxa1	74.58
GO:MF	binding	GO:0005488	3857_Anxa1	32.25
GO:MF	ion binding	GO:0043167	3857_Anxa1	25.68
HP	Autistic behavior	HP:0000729	3857_Anxa1	7.33
HP	Abnormal communication	HP:0034434	3857_Anxa1	5.91
HP	Abnormality of speech or vocalization	HP:0002167	3857_Anxa1	5.58
KEGG	Axon guidance	KEGG:04360	3857_Anxa1	9.78
KEGG	GABAergic synapse	KEGG:04727	3857_Anxa1	9.63
KEGG	Glutamatergic synapse	KEGG:04724	3857_Anxa1	9.39
MIRNA	mmu-miR-758-3p	MIRNA:mmu-miR-758-3p	3857_Anxa1	2.53
MIRNA	mmu-miR-425-5p	MIRNA:mmu-miR-425-5p	3857_Anxa1	2.44
MIRNA	mmu-miR-9-5p	MIRNA:mmu-miR-9-5p	3857_Anxa1	2.41
REAC	Neuronal System	REAC:R-MMU-112316	3857_Anxa1	29.87
REAC	Transmission across Chemical Synapses	REAC:R-MMU-112315	3857_Anxa1	19.52
REAC	Neurotransmitter receptors and postsynaptic signal transmission	REAC:R-MMU-112314	3857_Anxa1	10.51
TF	Factor: ZF5; motif: GSGCGCGR; match class: 1	TF:M00716_1	3857_Anxa1	75.40
TF	Factor: ZF5; motif: GSGCGCGR	TF:M00716	3857_Anxa1	65.82
TF	Factor: ZF5; motif: NRNGNGCGCGCWN; match class: 1	TF:M00333_1	3857_Anxa1	63.72
WP	Dravet syndrome Scn1a A1783V point mutation model	WP:WP5298	3857_Anxa1	8.91
WP	Calcium regulation in cardiac cells	WP:WP553	3857_Anxa1	6.34
WP	Cholesterol biosynthesis	WP:WP103	3857_Anxa1	6.15

D

	GO Table			
	Based on dopamine subcluster			
Source	Term name	Term ID	Cluster	log10(1/padj)
CORUM	Caveolar macromolecular signaling complex	CORUM:384	3858_Glra2	1.31
CORUM	Caveolar macromolecular signaling complex, using anti-Cav-3	CORUM:385	3858_Glra2	1.31
GO:BP	system development	GO:0048731	3858_Glra2	32.92
GO:BP	generation of neurons	GO:0048699	3858_Glra2	32.89
GO:BP	neuron differentiation	GO:0030182	3858_Glra2	32.85
GO:CC	synapse	GO:0045202	3858_Glra2	57.14
GO:CC	cell junction	GO:0030054	3858_Glra2	53.72
GO:CC	neuron projection	GO:0043005	3858_Glra2	41.44
GO:MF	protein binding	GO:0005515	3858_Glra2	19.51
GO:MF	gated channel activity	GO:0022836	3858_Glra2	13.58
GO:MF	monoatomic ion channel activity	GO:0005216	3858_Glra2	12.19
HP	Epileptic encephalopathy	HP:0200134	3858_Glra2	1.66
KEGG	Axon guidance	KEGG:04360	3858_Glra2	8.92
KEGG	Oxytocin signaling pathway	KEGG:04921	3858_Glra2	6.14
KEGG	Aldosterone synthesis and secretion	KEGG:04925	3858_Glra2	5.31
REAC	Neuronal System	REAC:R-MMU-112316	3858_Glra2	17.64
REAC	Transmission across Chemical Synapses	REAC:R-MMU-112315	3858_Glra2	7.65
REAC	Axon guidance	REAC:R-MMU-422475	3858_Glra2	4.81
TF	Factor: CTCF; motif: NAGGGGGCGCNNKNNNN; match class: 1	TF:M08995_1	3858_Glra2	15.79
TF	Factor: ZF5; motif: NRNGNGCGCGCWN; match class: 1	TF:M00333_1	3858_Glra2	15.69
TF	Factor: FOXN4; motif: NNWANNCGWMCGCGTCNNNNMT; match class: 1	TF:M04662_1	3858_Glra2	15.56
WP	Splicing factor NOVA regulated synaptic proteins	WP:WP1983	3858_Glra2	5.19
WP	Calcium regulation in cardiac cells	WP:WP553	3858_Glra2	3.40
WP	Myometrial relaxation and contraction pathways	WP:WP385	3858_Glra2	2.58

1275

1276 **Extended Data Fig.8 Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis for vulnerable**

1277 **dopaminergic population, Related to Fig.4**

1278   Enrichment analysis of gene ontology (GO) terms for key genes in a representative vulnerable

1279   dopamine cluster (A, 3854_Grin2c; B, 3855_Arhgap28; C, 3857_Anxa1; D, 3858_Glra2).

Extended Data Fig.9

Extended Data Fig.9 Whole-brain efferent and afferent connectivity of dopaminergic neuron subtypes, Related to Fig.5

A. Characterization of the DAT-Flp line using a reporter line (Ai65) confirmed that tdTomato+ cells are *Th+* neurons. Scale bars: 1mm for the striatum (left) and 400μm for the substantia nigra (right). **B.** Representative images of axonal projections of *Vglut2+*, *Calb1+* and *Anxa1+* dopamine neuron subtypes in the SNc. They preferentially project to dorsolateral striatum, ventral medial striatum and dorsal striatum. Scale bar 1mm. **C.** Brain regions to which *Vglut2+*, *Calb1+* and *Anxa1+* dopamine neuron project, measured as the fraction of neurites found within those brain structures defined Allen brain atlas (n=4 *Calb1+* and n=3 for *Vglut2+* and *Anxa1+*).

1290   Blue horizontal line indicates dorsal striatum and red line indicates ventral striatum. **D-G.**

1291   Statistical analysis of the whole-brain distribution of ipsilateral (left) or contralateral (right)

1292   monosynaptic inputs to *Vglut2+* neurons (D, E) or *Calb1+* dopamine neuron subtype (F, G) in

1293   the SNc. Brain areas are color-coded by the Allen Brain Atlas.

Extended Data Fig.10

1294
Extended Data Fig.10 Direct afferent inputs from the motor cortex or striatum to the SNc
DANs, Related to Fig.5

A. Schematic of the rabies injection procedure and experimental timeline for helper viruses and

rabies viruses in the DAT-Cre or Anxa1-Cre. **B.** Whole-brain 3D reconstruction using BrainJ,

color coded by brain regions[19] (left: sagittal view, right: coronal view). **C.** Representative images

of monosynaptic inputs to DANs from the whole brain (c1-c8, from the rostral to caudal). The

small white rectangle indicates the injection site, the SNc. Scale bar 1mm. **D-E.** Monosynaptic

projections from primary inputs include cells associated with motor function to the SNc DANs

(D, motor cortex; E, striatum). Scale bars: 1mm for the striatum and 400µm for the substantia

nigra.

Extended Data Fig.11

Extended Data Fig.11 Related to Fig.6

A. Schematic representation of the Pavlovian task. A light and a tone are used as CS+ and CS-respectively. **B-C.** PSTH (the peristimulus time histogram) of the lick or poke rate frequency of Anxa1-TeLC animals (red) and their controls (black) in response to CS+ (left) or CS- (right). The control animals consistently demonstrated a robust response to the light stimulus over time; in contrast, the Anxa1-TeLC animals exhibited a diminished response. D-G. Although the total number of licks did not differ significantly (D), there was a notable difference in the latency to the first lick between the Anxa1-TeLC and control animals (E). I-J. On Day 1, a difference in the number of pokes was observed, but this disparity did not persist in subsequent days (F). Additionally, there was a significant difference in the latency to the first poke between the mutant and control animals (G).