Sub-second analysis of locomotor activity in Parkinsonian mice

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Abstract

The degeneration of midbrain dopamine (DA) neurons disrupts the neural control of natural

behavior, such as walking, posture, and gait in Parkinson's disease. While some aspects of motor

symptoms can be managed by dopamine replacement therapies, others respond poorly. Recent

advancements in machine learning-based technologies offer opportunities to better understand

the organizing principles of behavior modules at fine time scales and its dependence on

dopaminergic modulation. In the present study, we applied the motion sequencing (MoSeq)

platform to study the spontaneous locomotor activities of neurotoxin and genetic mouse

models of Parkinsonism as the midbrain DA neurons progressively degenerate. We also

evaluated the treatment efficacy of levodopa (L-DOPA) on behavioral modules at fine time

scales. We revealed robust changes in the kinematics and usage of the behavioral modules that

encode spontaneous locomotor activity. Further analysis demonstrates that fast behavioral

modules with higher velocities were more vulnerable to loss of DA and preferentially affected at

early stages of Parkinsonism. Last, L-DOPA effectively improved the velocity, but not the usage

and transition probability, of behavioral modules in Parkinsonian animals. In conclusion, the

hypokinetic phenotypes in Parkinsonism involve the decreased velocities of behavioral modules

and their disrupted temporal organization during movement. Moreover, we showed that the

therapeutic effect of L-DOPA is mainly mediated by its effect on the velocities of behavior

modules at fine time scales. This work documents robust changes in the velocity, usage, and

temporal organization of behavioral modules and their responsiveness to dopaminergic

treatment under the Parkinsonian state.

Significance Statement

Parkinson's disease is the second largest neurodegenerative disease without a cure. Detection

of subtle Parkinsonian signs is critical for disease-modification by applying early interventions.

The present work explores the possibility of using machine learning-based approaches for early

detection of subtle behavioral changes in Parkinsonian animals and evaluating the therapeutic

efficacy of dopaminergic medications.

Key words

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Introduction

Dr. James Parkinson noted Parkinsonian signs by observing individuals on the street and documented the impaired locomotor activities and gait control in patients' daily living [1]. Over decades, the diagnosis of Parkinson's disease (PD) has been primarily conducted in clinical settings, where trained clinicians assess gross motor and cognitive function as well as mental status [2]. However, when and how PD alters patients' behavior in their natural environment remains poorly understood. This is a critical question to address, considering that PD is a chronic and progressive neurological disorder. Detection of motor and nonmotor signs associated with early PD can provide valuable opportunities for effective interventions to alleviate clinical symptoms and even slow down the disease progression. It is established that degeneration of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc) results in hypokinetic symptoms, including akinesia and bradykinesia. Accordingly, restoration of dopamine (DA) levels in the brain by levodopa (L-DOPA) administration can effectively manage hypokinetic symptoms in patients [1]. With emerging machine-learning-based technologies, it becomes possible to use unbiased and data-driven approaches for detailed analysis of motor deficits and the efficacy of dopaminergic medications in PD at fine time scales [3,4]. Such information could reveal new behavioral biomarkers for unbiased PD diagnosis and facilitate the design of effective treatment.

Naturalistic motor behavior is generated by orchestrating distinct behavioral modules with different kinematic properties and probability of expression into meaningful actions [5]. Recent reports demonstrated that DA levels in the striatum and activities of striatal projection neurons play a critical role in representing and orchestrating behavioral modules into action sequences [6,7]. Building on these observations, decreased striatal DA levels in PD are predicted to

alter the kinematics, the probability of expression, and the organization of behavioral modules

into actions, leading to the progressive manifestation of hypokinetic symptoms. In addition,

while L-DOPA can effectively improve the motor activity of PD patients, whether L-DOPA

restores the basic principles of orchestrating behavioral modules into naturalistic movements

remains to be determined.

In the present study, we hypothesized that loss of DA decreases the kinematic measures

and frequencies of usage of behavioral modules of naturalistic locomotor activity and that the

magnitude of such reduction scales up as the level of striatal DA dampens in PD. We further

hypothesized that L-DOPA can restore kinematics and usage of behavioral modules, thereby

contributing to its beneficial effects in PD. Here, we employed machine learning-based

technologies to perform unsupervised and unbiased segmentation and quantification of

spontaneous behavior of two established mouse models of Parkinsonism to test these

hypotheses.

Material and Methods

Animals

Adult C57BL/6 mice (JAX#: 000664, The Jackson Laboratory; RRID: IMSR_JAX:000664) of both

sexes at 3-5 months were used for 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) lesion studies. Mitochondrial

transcription factor A (*Tfam*) floxed mice (*Tfam*$^{loxP/loxP}$, JAX#: 026123, The Jackson Laboratory;

RRID: IMSR_JAX:026123) and *Dat*-Cre (JAX#: 006660, The Jackson Laboratory; RRID:

IMSR_JAX:006660) mice were used to generate the mitoPark mice, as a model of progressive

nigrostriatal degeneration [8-10]. Specifically, the double heterozygous mice (*Dat-Cre*$^{Cre/+}$ x

Tfam$^{loxP/+}$) were crossed with *Tfam*$^{loxP/loxP}$ mice to selectively delete *Tfam* in dopamine neurons,

resulting in adult-onset progressive nigrostriatal degeneration and parkinsonian motor deficits.

Age-matched littermates with *Tfam*$^{loxP/loxP}$ or *Tfam*$^{loxP/+}$ genotypes were used as controls. Mice

were housed up to four animals per cage under a 12/12 h light/dark cycle with access to food

and water *ad libitum* in accordance with NIH guidelines for the care and use of animals. All the

animal experiments were reviewed and approved by IACUC at Van Andel Institute (AUP# 22-02-

006).

Stereotaxic surgery

To induce degeneration of nigral DA neurons, we injected 6-OHDA (3–4 mg/ml, 1.0 µl)

unilaterally into the medial forebrain bundle (MFB; anteroposterior = −0.7 mm; mediolateral =

+1.2 mm; dorsoventral = −4.7 mm) under 2% isoflurane anesthesia over 10 min using a 10-µl

syringe (Hamilton). Control animals were injected with HEPES-buffered saline (HBS) in the same

location. Desipramine (25 mg/kg) and pargyline (50 mg/kg) were subcutaneously injected 30–

40 min before 6-OHDA injection to reduce damage to the noradrenergic system and enhance

the toxicity of 6-OHDA. Mice were allowed to recover after surgery in a heated cage with access

to food and water and closely monitored until the behavioral studies.

Behavioral experiments

All behavioral experiments were conducted 3-5 weeks post 6-OHDA or HBS injections. To study

progressive changes in the spontaneous behavior during gradual loss of striatal DA, we

recorded the open field locomotor behavior of the mitoPark mice 3 ages representing distinct

stages of parkinsonism: at 8 weeks with normal striatal DA levels, at 14 weeks with 50%

reduction of the striatal DA levels and early motor signs, and at 24 weeks with a nearly

complete loss of striatal DA and severe motor deficits [10,11]. A separate cohort of mitoPark mice

and littermate controls at >24 weeks received L-DOPA (10 mg/kg, i.p.) and benserazide (15

mg/kg, i.p.) injections to evaluate the treatment efficacy of L-DOPA at sub-second levels. All

experiments were performed in a room with dimmed lights. Animals were acclimated to the

room and the experimenters prior to recordings. In all experiments, we recorded spontaneous

animal behavior for 15-20 min in a square (40x40cm) black-colored box with non-reflective

walls and a camera mounted on top (DOI: dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.e6nvwjxmdlmk/v1). A

Microsoft Kinect 2.0 camera was used (30 fps) for recordings from 6-OHDA mice and mitoPark

mice, while a FLIR Blackfly S camera (Teledyne Technologies, USA) was used for the mitoPark

mice plus L-DOPA experiment. See Key Resource Table for details.

Computational methods

For video analysis, we employed the Keypoint-MoSeq tracking algorithms (V. 0.6.2,

https://github.com/dattalab/keypoint-moseq, RRID:SCR_025032) [12]. Specifically, 1) Keypoint

tracking with ResNet50 network pre-trained on a subset of videos using DeepLabCut pipeline

(V.2.3.10, https://github.com/DeepLabCut/DeepLabCut, RRID:SCR_021391), 2) egocentric

alignment and cropping, leaving only the postural data, 3) principal component analysis (PCA) to

reduce the dimensionality of the resulting time series (5 components for our data), 3)

probabilistic modeling fitting autoregressive hidden Markov model (AR-HMM) to the PCA

trajectories, 4) fitting full Keypoint-MoSeq model initialized from the AR-HMM, 5) automatic

behavioral segmentation and analysis using the motion syllables assigned by the trained model.

All the analyses were performed using the provided pipeline in Jupyter Notebooks (V. 7.1.3,

https://jupyter.org, RRID:SCR_018315). Training of the model is done through the process of

iterative Gibbs sampling while adjusting the Kappa hyperparameter of the model and leaving all

other parameters as defaults (Alpha = 5.7, Gamma = 1e3, Max number of states = 1e2) [12].

The motion sequencing platform performs probabilistic analysis of the behavior data, and the

results depend on the chosen computational model. We fitted our data to multiple models and

compared the results before choosing the final model to be applied to all datasets. To select the

model, we performed the kappa scanning procedure on our data, training the models with

multiple different kappa values and choosing the one that matched our criteria. We used two

main criteria to choose a model for further analysis of behavioral videos. The model should (1)

match the target duration of the syllable 400 ms (~12 frames at 30 fps) as described previously

[5], (2) generate behaviorally meaningful syllables (i.e., consistent behavior modules that an

experienced observer can recognize) on the representative grid videos. After the visual

screening, the models with inconsistent syllables (e.g., different behavioral modules fall in the

same syllable) or too short/long syllables were discarded. Velocity of syllables is calculated by

the MoSeq algorithm using the 2d coordinates (x-y) coordinates of the single point (i.e., animal

centroid) without including z-axis information. At the same time, MoSeq algorithm assigns a

syllable number to each frame. Thus, averaging the differential of the x-y position between all

frames assigned to a certain syllable gives the average velocity for that syllable. For conventional

locomotor measurement, the velocity is calculated from the x-y coordinates in the MoSeq data

frame as the average per the session by dividing the total distance traveled to the time of the

session in seconds. For further reference on the exact codes, see the documentation available

online (https://keypoint-moseq.readthedocs.io/en/stable/index.html).

Immunohistochemical assessment of striatal DA depletion

We used western blot and immunofluorescence staining against tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) in the

striatum to assess the level of DA depletion in 6-OHDA mice and the 24 weeks old mitoPark

mice, respectively, at the end of this study. 70 μm thick brain sections were prepared using a

vibratome (VT1000S; Leica microsystems Inc.). Immunochemical detection of TH was conducted

in PBS containing 0.2% Triton X-100 (Fisher Scientific) and 2% normal donkey serum (Sigma-

Aldrich). Brain sections were incubated in the primary antibody (mouse anti-TH antibody,

1:2000, catalog #MAB318, Sigma-Aldrich, RRID:AB_2313764) for 48 h at 4°C or overnight at

room temperature, washed in PBS, and then incubated in the secondary antibody (donkey anti-

mouse Alexa Fluor 594, catalog #715-585-150, RRID:AB_2340846) for 90 min at room

temperature before washing with PBS. Brain sections were mounted on glass slides using

VECTASHIELD antifade mounting medium (catalog #H-1000, Vector Laboratories) and were

cover-slipped. TH immunoreactivity in the dorsal striatum and the overlying motor cortex in the

same section was imaged using an Olympus BX63F microscope equipped with an Olympus DP80

camera or a confocal laser scanning microscope (A1R; Nikon). The intensity of TH

immunofluorescence was quantified using ImageJ (NIH). The ratio of TH-immunoreactivity (TH-

ir) between the dorsal striatum and the motor cortex was determined to assess the striatal DA

depletion in mitoPark mice.

<u>Tissue lysate preparation and Immunoblotting.</u> 6-OHDA mice were anesthetized with isoflurane

and then decapitated. The brain was removed from the skull and rinsed with ice-cold ACSF to

remove any adherent blood. One millimeter (1 mm) coronal sections were taken using brain

matrix and the dorsal striatum (dSTR) was punched from the lesioned hemisphere. We used the

Allen Brain Atlas: Mouse brain (https://mouse.brain-map.org/static/atlas) as an anatomical

reference atlas for punching out the dSTR. The punched tissue was processed for both whole

tissue lysate using RIPA buffer (total protein) as well as synaptoneurosomes (fraction containing

enriched synaptic components) as previously described [13]. For synaptoneurosomes preparation,

dSTR was homogenized in a synaptoneurosome buffer (10 mM HEPES, 1 mM EDTA, 2 mM EGTA,

0.5 mM DTT, 0.5 mM PMSF, 50 μg/ml soy-bean trypsin inhibitor, 0.25% of phosphatase inhibitor

cocktail 2% and 3%, and 0.25% of protease inhibitor cocktail) and sonicated with 3 pulses (FB50,

Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA, USA). The resulting sample was filtered twice through three

layers of a pre-wetted 100 μm pore nylon filter (CMN-0105-D, Small Parts Inc., Logansport, IN,

USA) held in a 13 mm diameter filter holder (XX3001200, Milipore, MA, USA). Then the resulting

filtrate was filtered once through a pre-wetted 5 μm pore hydrophilic filter (CMN-0005-D, Small

Parts Inc.). The filtrate was centrifuged at 1000 × g for 10 min at 4 ºC to obtain the

synaptoneurosomes fraction. Isolated synaptoneurosomes were resuspended in

synaptoneurosomes buffer containing 0.32 M sucrose, and 1 mM NaHCO3, stored in -80°C until

further use. Protein concentration of RIPA lysates and synaptoneurosomes was measured with

Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit (Cat# 23227, Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Immunoblotting was performed as previously described[13]. Briefly, RIPA lysates and

synaptoneurosomes were loaded on 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate gel in equal amounts (50

µg/well). The samples were run at 100 volts for 90 min. Gels were transferred to activated

(incubation in methanol) polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane (GE Healthcare, Piscataway,

NJ, USA) at 115 volts for 1 h 45 min. Transfer was blocked with 5% milk in Tris-buffered Saline

with 0.1% Tween 20 (TBST) for 1 h at room temperature. The membranes were kept overnight

for incubation in primary antibodies including mouse monoclonal anti-tyrosine hydroxylase

(1:2000, BioLegend Cat# 818002, RRID: AB_2734573) and mouse monoclonal anti-GAPDH

(1:4000, EMD Millipore Cat# MAB374, RRID: AB_2107445) at 4ºC followed by washing with

TBST. Blots were incubated with Peroxidase-AffiniPure Goat Anti-Mouse IgG secondary antibody

(Jackson ImmunoResearch Labs Cat# 115-035-003, RRID: AB_10015289) for 1 h at room

temperature followed by washing with TBST. Blots were incubated with Super-Signal™ West

Pico PLUS chemiluminescent substrate (Cat# 34580, ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA,

USA) and developed in a ChemiDoc imaging system (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., USA). The

optical density of each sample was analyzed using ImageJ and normalized to GAPDH. Each

western blot data point in each group was obtained from a separate animal.

Statistical analysis

Data analysis and statistics were performed using Python (Python Programming Language,

V.3.9.19,   https://www.python.org/downloads/release/python-360,   RRID:SCR_008394)   and

Prism 10 (GraphPad Software, http://www.graphpad.com/,__RRID:SCR_002798). The main

parameters of behavioral syllables (e.g., usage and velocity) were calculated for each animal and

then averaged within experimental groups. Probability matrices representing the transitions

between syllables were generated for each animal and also averaged within groups to represent

the differences in behavioral structure. Entropy values were calculated from transition

probability matrices as a sum of local entropies per syllable, as reported by [5]. Specifically, Let A

denote the estimated transition matrix, so that $A_{ij} = \mathrm{P}[X_{t+1} = j \mid X_t = i]$ for $i,j = 1,2,\ldots, n$ and all

time indices t, and let π denote the steady-state distribution of the Markov chain, so that $\pi_i =$

$\Pr[X_t = i]$. The entropy rate on the transition matrix was calculated as $\sum i,j \; \pi_i A_{ij} \ln A_{ij}$. Data are

reported as the mean and standard error of the mean (SEM). Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc

Dunn's test in the MoSeq package was used to compare the velocity and usage of behavioral

syllables across conditions. MoSeq packages corrected raw P values for multiple comparisons

using the Benjamini-Hochberg methods, with a false discovery rate (FDR) of 0.05 or less. Mann-

Whitney U test was used to compare the statistical significance of the conventional measure of

locomotor activity (i.e., velocity) and striatal TH levels between groups, and $\alpha < 0.05$ was

considered   statistically   significant.   Details   of   behavioral   analysis   can   be   found   at:

https://github.com/ChuLab-GU/behavior-analysis

Key Resource Table

RESOURCE TYPE	RESOURCE NAME	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER	NEW/REUSE	ADDITIONAL INFORMATION
Dataset	Raw behavioral videos in the open field	this paper	10.5281/zenodo.14555868	new	
Dataset	Tabular data used to produce figures	this paper	10.5281/zenodo.14555868	new	
Software/code	Jupyter Notebook 7.1.3	https://jupyter.org/	RRID:SCR_018315	reuse	
Software/code	Python 3.9.19	https://www.python.org	RRID:SCR_008394	reuse	
Software/code	GraphPad Prism 10	http://www.graphpad.com/	RRID:SCR_002798	reuse	
Software/code	FIJI Version 2.10.0	NIH	https://imagej.net/software/fiji/; RRID: SCR_002285	reuse	
Software/code	DeepLabCut pipeline 2.3.10	GitHub	https://github.com/DeepLabCut/DeepLabCut; RRID:SCR_021391	reuse	
Software/code	Keypoint-Moseq code	GitHub	https://github.com/dattalab/keypoint-moseq; RRID:SCR_025032	reuse	
Protocol	Keypoint-Moseq data analysis pipeline	Nature Methods	https://doi.org/10.1038/s41592-024-02318-2	reuse	
Protocol	Stereotaxic surgery protocol	protocols.io	dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.b9kxr4xn	reuse	
Protocol	Immunohistochemistry protocol	protocols.io	dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.261ged3j7v47/v2	reuse	
Protocol	Open field assay protocol	protocols.io	https://dx.doi.org/10.17504/protocols.io.e6nvwjxmdlmk/v1	reuse	
Antibody	mouse anti-TH antibody	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# MAB318, RRID:AB_2313764	reuse	1:2000 dilution
Antibody	donkey anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 488 antibody	Jackson ImmunoResearch	Cat# 715-545-150, RRID:AB_2340846	reuse	1:250 dilution
Antibody	mouse monoclonal anti-tyrosine hydroxylase	BioLegend	Cat# 818002, RRID: AB_2734573	reuse	1:2000 dilution
Antibody	mouse monoclonal anti-GAPDH	MD Millipore	Cat# MAB374, RRID: AB_2107445	reuse	1:4000 dilution
Antibody	Peroxidase-AffiniPure Goat Anti-Mouse IgG secondary antibody	Jackson ImmunoResearch Labs	Cat# 115-035-003, RRID: AB_10015289	reuse	
Experimental model: Organism/strain	C57/BL6 mice	The Jackson Laboratory stock	Strain #000664, RRID: IMSR_JAX:000664	reuse	
Experimental model: Organism/strain	DAT-Cre mice	The Jackson Laboratory stock	Strain #006660, RRID:IMSR_JAX:006660	reuse	
Experimental model: Organism/strain	Tfam flox/flox mice	The Jackson Laboratory stock	Strain #026123, RRID:IMSR_JAX:026123	reuse	
Chemical, peptide, or recombinant protein	L-DOPA	Sigma-Aldrich	catalog #59-92-7	reuse	
Chemical, peptide, or recombinant protein	6-OHDA	HelloBio	catalog #636-00-0	reuse	
Chemical, peptide, or recombinant protein	Triton X-100	Fisher Scientific	catalog #9002-93-1	reuse	
Chemical, peptide, or recombinant protein	Desipramine	Sigma-Aldrich	catalog #58-28-6	reuse	
Chemical, peptide, or recombinant protein	Vectashield medium	Vector Laboratories	catalog #H-1000	reuse	
Chemical, peptide, or recombinant protein	Pargyline	Sigma-Aldrich	catalog #306-07-0	reuse	
Other	Microsoft Kinect 2.0 camera	https://www.newegg.com/	https://www.newegg.com/p/2NG-004G-00002	reuse	
Other	FLIR Blackfly S camera	https://www.edmundoptics.com/	catalog #11-509	reuse	
Other	Leica VT1000S vibratome	Leica Microsystems Inc.	catalog #14047235613	reuse	
Other	Confocal microscope Nikon A1R	Nikon	catalog #A1R HD25_2CE-SCNH-5	reuse	

Results

Loss of DA alters the velocity and usage of behavioral modules

First, we employed mice with 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) lesions as a model of nigrostriatal degeneration, which is known to recapitulate behavioral phenotypes and pathophysiological features of human PD and has been widely used for preclinical PD research [14-19]. To model an advanced Parkinsonian state with nearly complete DA depletion, we injected 6-OHDA into the MFB to induce degeneration of the nigrostriatal pathway and nearly complete striatal DA depletion (**Figure 1A, B**) [15,17,20]. Three weeks post-surgery, locomotor activities of 6-OHDA- and vehicle-injected mice (i.e., 6-OHDA mice and controls, respectively) were recorded for 20 min in an open field arena. Analysis of conventional locomotor measures demonstrates that 6-OHDA mice showed a significant reduction of general motor activity relative to controls (e.g., velocity, control = 8.9±0.6 cm/sec, n = 6 mice; 6-OHDA = 5.5±0.2 cm/sec, n = 7 mice; P < 0.001). These results confirm the severe Parkinsonian motor deficits following the degeneration of the dopaminergic nigrostriatal pathway.

Fig 1 here

Figure 1. Loss of DA alters the velocity and usage of behavioral modules of 6-OHDA mice. A) Western blotting analysis of synaptoneurosome and RIPA lysate TH protein from the dorsal striatum of control and 6-OHDA mice. A significant reduction of striatal TH protein as seen in both synaptoneurosome (p = 0.0023, n = 3 mice/group, Welch's t test) and RIPA lysate (p = 0.03, n = 3mice/group, Welch's t test). **C)** Representative behavioral syllables identified by MoSeq. **D-E)** Syllable velocity (D) and usage (E) of 6-OHDA mice and controls ranked by velocities for visualization. Arrows indicated the representative syllables in (C). Asterisks indicate syllables showing statistical significance in either the syllable velocities (D) or usage (E) between 6-OHDA mice and controls. See Table 1 for the source data. **F-G)** Differences in syllable velocities (Δvelocity, D) or usage (Δusage, E) between controls and 6-OHDA

mice were plotted against the syllable velocities in controls. **H**) Transition graphs representing the changes in

behavioral structure as an increase (red) or decrease (blue) in the probability of transition between numbered

syllables in 6-OHDA mice relative to controls. **I-J**) Representative plots showing the temporal organization of

spontaneous behavior in controls (I) and 6-OHDA mice (J). Different colors represent distinct behavioral syllables.

Only six 6-OHDA mice were shown in the representative plot. **K**) Summarized bar plot showing the reduced

transition frequency of syllables in 6-OHDA mice relative to controls (control = 1.8±0.03, n = 6 mice; 6-OHDA =

1.48±0.07, n = 7 mice, P = 0.008, Mann-Whitney U test). **L**) Summarized bar plot showing a nonsignificant change in

the transition entropy of syllables in 6-OHDA mice relative to controls (control = 5.78±0.04, n = 6 mice; 6-OHDA =

5.63±0.06, n = 7 mice, P = 0.1, Mann-Whitney U test).

Next, we employed the motion sequencing (i.e., MoSeq) approach to interrogate the

locomotor activity of Parkinsonian mice at fine timescales. MoSeq automatically identifies

behavioral modules at sub-second levels (i.e., syllables) and determines the probability of their

usage in locomotor activities [3-7,12,21]. MoSeq recognized morphologically distinct sub-second

behavioral syllables with comparable mean durations of 588±5.7 ms for controls and 538±6.3

for 6-OHDA mice. Among all the identified behavioral modules, 21 syllables were expressed

more than 0.5% of the time (see examples in **Figure 1C**). Each syllable could be described as a

behavior module by a human observer, including various pauses (e.g., syllable 19), freezing (i.e.,

no change in body location for 1 sec or more, syllable 18), run (e.g., syllable 5 and 14), grooming

(e.g., syllable 24), rearing, and turns. Although unilateral turnings are behavioral features of

mice with 6-OHDA lesion, they were not identified as a single syllable by Moseq. This might be

because spontaneous unilateral turnings in an open field arena usually take longer than a

second. In the rest of the study, we focused on the 21 most frequently used and meaningful

behavior modules to characterize Parkinsonian phenotypes in mice at the sub-second level.

For the purpose of visualization, we ranked syllables based on their velocities, ranging

from faster run-like syllables to slower freezing-like syllables (**Figure 1C-D**). We found a

significant decrease in the velocities of faster syllables of 6-OHDA mice relative to controls (e.g.,

the velocity of syllable# 14 [i.e., run], controls = 17.2±0.36 cm/sec, n = 6 mice; 6-OHDA =

9.2±0.6 cm/sec, n = 7 mice, P < 0.0001, **Figure 1D**). In contrast, the velocities of most slower

syllables (e.g., pause and freezing) were not altered between groups (e.g., the velocities of

syllable#18 [i.e., freezing], controls = 3.19±0.045 cm/sec, 6-OHDA mice = 3.14±0.019 cm/sec;

the velocities of syllable#19 [i.e., pause], controls = 7.5±1.1 cm/sec, n =6 mice; 6-OHDA mice =

5.76±0.72 cm/sec, n = 7 mice, P > 0.05, **Figure 1D**). Next, we analyzed the frequency of

expression (i.e., the usage) of behavioral syllables in 6-OHDA mice and controls. There were

significant decreases in the usage of faster syllables and increases in the usage of slower

syllables in the 6-OHDA mice relative to controls (**Figure 1E**). For example, 6-OHDA mice used

the faster syllable#14 significantly less than controls (controls = 0.013±0.002, n = 6 mice; 6-

OHDA = 0.003±0.0008, n = 7 mice; P < 0.0001). In contrast, 6-OHDA mice expressed the slower

syllable#18 more frequently than controls (controls = 0.04±0.0065, n = 6 mice; 6-OHDA =

0.09±0.008, n = 7 mice, P = 0.002).

Further, we tested the hypothesis that loss of DA has stronger effects on faster syllables.

To do this, we assessed the correlation between the group differences in the velocities and

usages [i.e., Δvelocities$_{(control-6-OHDA)}$ and Δusage$_{(control-6-OHDA)}$, respectively) against the syllable

velocities of controls (**Figure 1F, G**). Linear regression analysis showed a strong correlation

between the Δvelocities and syllable velocities in controls (R^2 = 0.87, P < 0.0001, **Figure 1F**).

Similarly, a statistically significant linear relationship was detected between Δusage and syllable

velocities in controls (R^2 = 0.27, P = 0. 0165, **Figure 1G**).

Together, these results suggest that while the kinematics and usage of behavior modules

are altered following the loss of DA, the changes neither uniform nor unidirectional. Specifically,

the nigrostriatal dopaminergic degeneration preferentially decreases the kinematics of faster

behavioral modules and disrupts the usage of various behavioral modules, resulting in

Parkinsonian motor deficits.

Loss of DA alters the transition probability of behavioral modules

Disrupted usage of behavioral modules is expected to alter the temporal organization of

syllables into actions. Indeed, the transition matrix showed that the transition probabilities

were up- and down-regulated among subsets behavioral syllables (**Figure 1H**). Moreover, we

plotted the temporal organization of behavioral syllables in controls and 6-OHDA mice to further

assess the patterns of behavioral module expression and transition. Relative to controls, 6-

OHDA mice exhibited prolonged expression of a subgroup of syllables, leading to decreases in

syllable transitions (**Figure 1I, J**). We employed entropy (i.e., a measure of disorder level) and

the frequency of transitions to quantify the temporal organization of behavioral syllables (**Figure**

1K, L) [5]. Quantitative analysis confirmed less frequent syllable transitions in 6-OHDA mice than

in controls. Specifically, the number of syllable transitions decreased significantly in 6-OHDA

mice relative to controls (**Figure 1K**). However, the difference in entropy did not reach statistical

significance between 6-OHDA mice and controls (**Figure 1L**). These data indicate that

Parkinsonian animals exhibited fewer behavior module transitions and distinct pattern of

organizing rules of syllables during naturalistic behavior. This is consistent with a recent study

reporting that elevated DA levels in the striatum increase the variabilities of behavioral

modules, making them less predictable during naturalistic motor activities [7].

Taken together, the above data suggest that hypokinetic symptoms in the Parkinsonian

state involve the abnormal sub-second architecture of locomotor behavior, as reflected by 1)

the reduced velocities of subsets of syllables, (2) disrupted usage and altered temporal

organization of behavioral syllables, and 3) decreased frequency of syllable transitions during

spontaneous locomotion activities.

Fig 2 here

Figure 2. Time course of velocity changes of behavioral modules in mitoPark mice. A) mitoPark mice showed a

complete loss of striatal TH immunoreactivity at 24 weeks (control = 8.5±0.98, n = 8; mitoPark = 1.1±0.12, n = 7, p <

0.0001). **B)** mitoPark mice exhibited a progressive reduction in general locomotory activity relative to littermate

controls Locomotion speed: At 8 weeks, controls = 8.85±0.34 cm/sec, n = 11 mice, mitoPark = 9.04±0.33 cm/sec, n

= 11 mice, P = 0.3; At 14 weeks, controls = 9.21±0.23 cm/sec, n = 8 mice, mitoPark = 6.88±0.34 cm/sec, n = 8 mice,

P = 0.0002; At 24 weeks, controls = 8.03±0.22 cm/sec, n = 7 mice, mitoPark = 4.53±0.15 cm/sec, n = 9 mice, P =

0.0002. **C)** Representative syllables showing significant changes in syllable velocities at early and late motor stages

in mitoPark mice relative to controls. **D-F)** Plots showing progressive reduction of syllable velocities in mitoPark

mice relative to age-matched littermate controls at 8-, 14-, and 24-weeks. Arrows indicate the representative

syllables shown in (B). Asterisks showing the syllables with statistically significant changes between mitoPark mice

and littermate controls. See Table 2 for details. **G-H)** Differences in syllable velocities (Δvelocity) between mitoPark

mice and littermate controls were plotted against the syllable velocities in controls.

Time course of velocity changes of behavioral modules in progressive Parkinsonism

PD is a chronic and progressive neurodegenerative disease that affects various aspects of motor

control and body movements. Next, we depicted how the observed changes in behavior

modules emerge from the early to late stages of Parkinsonism. To address this question, we

utilized the mitoPark mice as a model of progressive degeneration of the nigrostriatal

dopaminergic pathway (**Figure 2A**) [8-10,22]. Based on the evidence in the literature, we identified

the following age groups of mitoPark mice to study: baseline state at 8 weeks with normal

motor function, early motor stage at 14 weeks, and advanced motor stage at 24 weeks [11].

Spontaneous open-field locomotor activities of mitoPark mice and littermate controls were

recorded at 8, 14, and 24 weeks of age. Analysis of locomotory activity using conventional

measures confirmed that mitoPark mice showed normal general motor activity at 8 weeks, but

exhibited gradual decreases in movement speed from 14 to 24 weeks of age (**Figure 2B**). This

time course of Parkinsonism development in mitoPark mice is consistent with previous reports

[8-10,22].

MoSeq was used to analyze the locomotor activities of mitoPark mice to reveal potential

changes in kinematics, usage, and organization of behavior syllables at different age groups.

MoSeq identified 99 behavioral syllables expressed by mitoPark mice and littermate controls

with a mean duration of 603.5±6.1 ms. 22 out of 99 syllables were used more than 0.5% of the

time by animals of both genotypes. Thus, we focused on these 22 most enriched behavioral

syllables to characterize the evolvement of the usage and sequence of behavior modules as the

nigrostriatal dopaminergic pathway degenerates progressively (**Figure 2C**).

Consistent with the conventional analysis of locomotor activities (**Figure 2B**), mitoPark

mice showed no difference in the velocity of various syllables relative to littermate controls at 8

weeks of age (**Figure 2D**). At the early motor stage (i.e., 14 weeks), 10 out of 22 syllables

showed reduced velocities in mitoPark mice relative to littermate controls (**Figure 2C, E**). At the

advanced motor stage (i.e., 24 weeks), 14 out of 22 syllables showed decreased velocities in

mitoPark mice relative to littermate controls (**Figure 2C, F**). Moreover, the syllables with higher

velocities (e.g., run-like modules, **Figure 2C**) showed earlier decreases in the velocity, and the

magnitude of such changes scaled up from the early to the advanced motor stages. For

example, the velocity of the run-like syllable 21 showed 20% reduction at 14 weeks (controls =

16.2$\pm$0.59 cm/sec and mitoPark = 12.98$\pm$0.67 cm/sec, n = 8 mice/group, P = 0.014); and 38%

reduction at 24 weeks (controls = 16.7$\pm$0.8 cm/sec, n = 7 mice; mitoPark = 10.45$\pm$1.21 cm/sec, n

= 8 mice; P = 0.001). As the nigrostriatal dopaminergic pathway degenerated, additional

syllables significantly reduced their velocities from the early motor stage to the advanced stages

(**Figure 2C, E, F**). Most syllables showing significant changes in velocities at 24 weeks were those

involving whole body movements (**Figure 2C, F**), including various turns (e.g., syllable 7),

grooming (e.g., syllable 4),

Similar to the mice with 6-OHDA lesion, simple linear regression analysis showed a

strong correlation between the Δvelocity (i.e., controls minus mitoPark mice) and syllable

velocities of respective controls at 14 and 24 weeks (regression coefficient, 14 weeks = 0.22, P <

0.0001; 24 weeks = 0.39, p < 0.0001) (**Figure 2G-H**). Thus, hypokinetic parkinsonian motor

deficits could be partially explained by the progressive reduction of the kinematics of a subset

of faster behavioral modules as the nigral DA neurons progressively degenerate.

Time course of usage changes of behavioral modules in progressive Parkinsonism

Fig 3 here

Figure 3. Time course of usage changes of behavioral modules in progressive Parkinsonism. A) Representative

syllables showing changes in usage in mitoPark relative to littermate controls. **B-D**) Plots of syllable usage between

mitoPark mice and littermate controls at 8-, 14-, and 24 weeks. Arrows indicate the representative syllables shown

in (A). Asterisks indicate syllables showing statistically significant changes in the usage across time. **E)**

Representative plots showing the temporal organization of spontaneous behavior in controls (upper) and mitoPark

mice (bottom) at 24 weeks. **F)** Transition graphs representing the changes in behavioral structure as an increase

(red) or decrease (blue) in the probability of transition between numbered syllables in mitoPark mice relative to

controls. **G-H**) Summarized graphs showing reduced transition entropy (At 8 weeks, control = 5.32±0.03, n = 11,

mitoPark = 5.28±0.05, n = 11, P = 0.56; At 14 weeks control = 5.22±0.06, n = 8, mitoPark = 5.23±0.06, n=8, P = 0.88;

At 24 weeks control = 5.45±0.03, n = 7, mitoPark = 5.17±0.05, n = 9, P =0.0007; Mann-Whitney U test) and

transition frequency (H, At 8 weeks control = 1.59±0.03, n = 11, mitoPark = 1.57±0.03, n = 11, P =0.4; At 14 weeks

control = 1.56±0.04, n = 8, mitoPark = 1.48±0.05, n = 8, P = 0.38; At 24 weeks control = 1.76±0.06, n = 7, mitoPark =

0.85±0.05, n = 9, P = 0.0002; Mann-Whitney U test) of behavioral modules in mitoPark mice at 24 weeks, but not at

earlier stages, relative to littermate controls.

When the syllable usage was compared between groups, mitoPark mice gradually

showed a subset of differently expressed behavioral modules relative to controls (**Figure 3A-D**).

Specifically, the usage of behavioral modules was comparable between controls and mitoPark

mice at 8 weeks, except for a transient and slight increase in the usage of syllable 16 by

mitoPark mice (**Figure 3B**). At 14 weeks, mitoPark mice showed three additional differently

expressed behavioral modules relative to littermate controls, including an upregulation of a

freezing-like module (i.e., syllable 9) and a downregulation of a run-like module (e.g., syllable 1).

At 24 weeks, mitoPark mice showed 13 differently expressed behavioral modules, which further

diverged from the pattern of syllable usage in controls (**Figure 3D**). These changes in syllable

usage were not unidirectional, including upregulation of pause-like behavior (e.g., syllable 18) as

well as downregulations of faster modules (e.g., syllable 14: run) and the syllables involving

large-amplitude whole body movements (e.g., syllable 6: turns). These data suggest that the

gradual loss of DA altered the usage of syllables multi-directionally, not uniformly, depending on

their distinct roles in organizing naturalistic behavior.

In addition to the emergence of differently expressed behavioral modules over time, the

difference in their usage was scaled up from the early to late stages of Parkinsonism. For

example, the magnitude of reduction in the usage of fast syllables 1 and 3 of mitoPark mice

relative to controls continued decreasing from 14 weeks to 24 weeks (see Table 2 for details).

These observations are consistent with the concept that striatal neuronal activities modulate

the vigor of movement that is closely linked to rapid DA release in the striatum [7,23].

Time course of temporal organization of behavioral modules in progressive Parkinsonism

Next, we studied how progressive loss of DA affects the temporal organization of spontaneous

locomotor activity. Plotting the expression of distinct syllables against time revealed that control

mice exhibited dynamic and frequent transitions among behavior modules in locomotion

(**Figure 3E**). However, such dynamic syllable transitions became less frequent in mitoPark mice,

particularly at 24 weeks of age (**Figure 3E, G, H**). A few syllables, including syllable 0 (rearing),

syllable 8 (grooming), and syllable 11 (slow walk) occupied long periods of time in mitoPark

mice (**Figure 3E**). This conclusion was further supported by emerging differences in syllable

transition probabilities between controls and mitoPark mice across ages (**Figure 3F**), manifesting

as upregulated transition probability between a subset of syllables but downregulated transition

probability between other syllables. The above data suggest that the naturalistic behavior of

progressive mitoPark mice becomes more stereotypical and predictable as midbrain DA neurons

progressively degenerate, recapitulating key findings from the 6-OHDA mice with complete DA

depletion.

455   **Fig.4 here**

Figure 4. L-DOPA partially restores behavioral modules of mitoPark mice. A) Representative syllables showing

significant changes in either velocities or usage between mitoPark mice and littermate controls. This subset of

syllables was selected to study L-DOPA's treatment efficacy. **B)** Summarized graph showing L-DOPA rescued the

reduced velocity of behavioral syllables in mitoPark mice. **C-D)** Summarized graphs showing that L-DOPA affects the

usage of neither the downregulated nor the upregulated behavioral syllables in mitoPark mice relative to the

control. **E)** Representative plots showing the temporal organization of spontaneous behavior in controls (upper),

mitoPark mice (middle), and mitoPark mice treated with L-DOPA (bottom) at 24 weeks. Different colors represent

distinct behavior syllables. **F)** Transition graphs representing the changes in behavioral structure as an increase

(red) or decrease (blue) in the probability of transition between numbered syllables. **G)** Summarized graphs

showing reduced transition frequency (G, control = 2.27±0.23, n = 9; mitoPark = 0.96±0.14, n = 9, P = 0.0002 vs.

control; mitoPark + L-DOPA = 1.07±0.05, n = 9, P > 0.05 vs. mitoPark) and transition frequency (H, control =

5.42±0.12, n = 9; mitoPark = 4.98±0.096, n = 9, P = 0.05 vs. control; mitoPark + L-DOPA = 4.76±0.19, n = 9, P > 0.05

vs. mitoPark) of behavioral modules in mitoPark mice at 24 weeks, which was not rescued by L-DOPA treatment.

L-DOPA effectively increases the velocity of behavioral modules in Parkinsonism but exerts a

negligible effect on their usage.

The mitoPark mice with advanced Parkinsonism are responsive to the L-DOPA administration [9].

Next, we determined if L-DOPA can rescue the altered kinematics and usages of behavioral

modules of mitoPark mice at 24 weeks. We intraperitoneally (i.p.) injected L-DOPA (10 mg/kg)

and saline to mitoPark mice and age-matched controls, followed by monitoring their locomotor

activities in an open field arena for 20 min. Analysis of conventional measurements of

locomotor activity showed that L-DOPA administration effectively alleviated parkinsonian

hypokinetic deficits of mitoPark mice (speed of locomotion, saline-injected control = 10.3 ± 1.2

cm/sec, n = 9 mice; saline-injected mitoPark = 4.0 ± 0.36 cm/sec, n = 9 mice, p = 0.004 vs saline-

injected controls; mitoPark with L-DOPA = $14.4.9\pm2.97$ cm/sec, n = 9 mice, P = 0.003 vs saline-

injected mitoPark mice).

MoSeq identified various behavioral modules showing altered velocity and usage among

groups. To determine the beneficial effects of L-DOPA, we identified a subset of behavior

modules showing significant changes in their velocity and usage between saline-injected

controls and mitoPark mice. Specifically, a group of fast behavioral modules, including run- and

turn-like behaviors, showed decreased velocities between saline-injected mitoPark and saline-

injected controls (**Figure 4A**). The velocities of most of these behavioral modules were

significantly increased by L-DOPA administration. For example, the velocities of syllable 1 were

10.3 ± 1.37 cm/sec in saline-injected controls (n= 5), 4.9 ± 0.27 cm/sec in saline-injected mitoPark

mice (n = 9), and 9.44 ± 1.29 cm/sec in mitoPark with L-DOPA (n = 9) (saline-injected controls

versus saline-injected mitoPark, P < 0.001; saline-injected mitoPark versus mitoPark with L-

DOPA, P = 0.009, **Figure 4B**, see Table 3 for details).

Moreover, mitoPark mice exhibited both down- and up-regulated usage of behavioral

modules. Surprisingly, L-DOPA treatment failed to restore the usage of downregulated modules

in mitoPark mice (**Figure 4C**). When it comes to the upregulated behavior modules, the L-DOPA

did not restore their frequency of expression either (**Figure 4D**). The above data suggest that L-

DOPA administration increased the velocities of behavioral modules during spontaneous

locomotory activity but had little effect on their usage in the Parkinsonian state.

Given the negligible effect of L-DOPA on syllable usage of the advanced mitoPark mice,

we predicted that L-DOPA does not affect the transition probabilities and temporal organization

of behavior modules in the Parkinsonian state. As predicted, we found that L-DOPA

administration did not rescue the reduced behavior module transitions in mitoPark mice (**Figure**

4E-H). Specifically, neither the reduced transition frequencies (**Figure 4G**) nor the entropy

(**Figure 4H**) in mitoPark mice was improved by L-DOPA administration. The above data suggest

that the disrupted syllable usage and their temporal organization in Parkinsonian mice were not

responsive to dopaminergic medication.

Altogether, the above results suggest that acute L-DOPA significantly improves the motor

function of Parkinsonian mice and that its beneficial effect was mediated mainly by increasing

the velocities of behavioral modules. L-DOPA administration produced little effect on the usage

of behavior modules and their transitions during naturalistic locomotor behavior.

Discussion

In the present study, we employed an unbiased and unsupervised approach to quantify the

naturalistic locomotor behavior under Parkinsonian state. Using 6-OHDA mice with complete DA

depletion, we demonstrate that complete loss of DA decreases the syllable velocities, disrupts

the pattern of syllable usage, and reduces the transition probabilities among behavior modules

(**Figure 1**). Correlation analysis further showed a stronger effect of DA depletion on the velocity

and usage of behavioral modules with higher velocities (**Figure 1**). These observations are

further confirmed and validated by using the mitoPark mice, a genetic and progressive model of

Parkinsonism (**Figures 2 and 3**). The beneficial effects of L-DOPA on motor symptoms in PD have

been well-established for decades. Therefore, we further analyzed the effects of L-DOPA on

behavioral modules at the sub-second time scale. We demonstrate that L-DOPA effectively

restored the decreased velocity but had a negligible effect on the disrupted usage of behavioral

syllables of mitoPark mice (**Figure 4**). Together, our analyses support that hypokinetic symptoms

in PD are associated with reduced movement velocity and abnormal usage of behavioral

modules and that the therapeutic effects of L-DOPA are mediated by restoring velocities of

syllables but not their temporal organization.

Spontaneous movements have been closely linked with the slow changes in tonic DA

concentrations in the striatum [24]. Recent work demonstrates that SN DA neuronal activity and

the phasic striatal DA dynamics regulate movement initiation and generations of motor

sequences during spontaneous behavior [7,25,26]. Our observations from Parkinsonian mice are

largely consistent with these earlier reports. Specifically, the bradykinesia-like hypokinetic

motor deficits of mitoPark mice at the early motor stage with moderate striatal DA depletion

are mainly driven by the reduced velocities of faster behavioral modules. As the SN DA neurons

degenerate, the mitoPark mice gradually show decreases and increases in the usage of faster

and slower syllables, respectively, from the early motor stage at 14 weeks to the advanced

motor stage at 24 weeks (**Figures 2 and 3**). The combined effects of DA loss to syllable velocity

and usage lead to the manifestation of severely impaired locomotor activity in both models of

Parkinsonism.

Striatal DA transmission is critical in regulating goal-directed and spontaneous behavior

by modulating postsynaptic cellular function, synaptic transmission, and plasticity processes

within the corticostriatal circuits. Thus, the decreased velocity in Parkinsonism may be mainly

driven by the decreased tonic DA levels in the striatum and can be rescued by L-DOPA

administration. Moreover, we found that loss of DA downregulates the usage of several fast

syllables and upregulates the usage of several slow syllables in both 6-OHDA mice and late-stage

mitoPark mice. The altered usage of behavioral modules is likely to involve changes in striatal

DA dynamics (e.g., phasic DA release) or other maladaptive changes in the cortico-striatal

circuits that can't be rescued by acute L-DOPA administration.

Taking advantage of the progressive nature of mitoPark mice, we showed that behavior

modules with higher velocities (e.g., run- and walk-like syllables) were more vulnerable at early

stages than those involving whole-body coordination (e.g., turning and rearing). Moreover, the

magnitude of changes in the velocity and usage of the most vulnerable syllables increased from

the early to advanced stages of mitoPark mice. This might reflect the exaggerated damage of

cortico-basal ganglia circuits as the nigrostriatal pathway progressively degenerates. These data

suggest that distal limb control was probably affected earlier (e.g., at 14 weeks), leading to a

decreased expression of faster behavior modules at the early stages of nigrostriatal

degeneration. Subsequently, proximal limb control and whole-body coordination were impaired

at a later time point (e.g., 24 weeks), resulting in frequent pauses and fewer whole-body turns

during movements that might contribute to the development of freezing of gait-like behaviors

under parkinsonian state. Of relevance, the onset of motor symptoms in patients often starts

from the distal limbs (e.g., fingers and feet) [27], which might affect their performance in skilled

motor function or generate fast action sequences.

The literature on Parkinsonian animals has documented that nigrostriatal DA circuits are

required for generating stereotypical behavioral sequences [28]. The earlier studies focused on

species-specific behavioral sequences in rodents (e.g., grooming) because they are readily

identified by an experienced observer from recorded videos. Machine vision-based technologies

make it possible to expand this research to less visible behavioral sequences during natural

behavior. Using two mouse models of nigrostriatal degeneration, we documented that

degeneration of the nigrostriatal projections alters the usage of distinct behavioral modules and

decreases their transition probability in Parkinsonian states. This is consistent with earlier

studies documenting deficits in motion sequences and switches between motor programs in PD

patients [29].

Together, the progressive loss of DA does not alter behavioral modules in a

unidirectional, uniform, and all-at-once manner. This observation further indicates the

involvement of various biological mechanisms in regulating syllable velocity and usage and the

therapeutic efficacy of L-DOPA under Parkinsonian state, including the roles of tonic versus

phasic dopamine transmission by subtypes of nigral DA neurons [25], and potential contribution of

the motor cortical network [30].

PD is featured by progressive loss of nigrostriatal DA projections, starting from the

dopaminergic axons, followed by the loss of cell bodies [31]. This "dying back" pattern of

neurodegeneration has been recapitulated in several animal models, including the mitoPark

mice [8,32]. Thus, the compromised striatal DA levels in PD are expected to underlie the decreased

velocity and usage of fast behavioral modules in both mouse models of Parkinsonism in the

present study. L-DOPA administration can effectively restore tonic DA levels in the striatum,

which results in the rescued velocity of behavioral modules in Parkinsonian mice. This is

consistent with the observation that phasic DA transmission in the striatum does not modulate

movement kinematics [7,25]. Optogenetic stimulation of striatal dopaminergic axon terminals

induces rapid phasic transmission and increases the acceleration frequency, triggering the

initiation of locomotion. These observations indicate that phasic DA likely mediates the usages

of behavioral modules with fast velocities. Given that L-DOPA administration can't restore

phasic DA transmission, it explains the failure of L-DOPA in rescuing the usage of behavioral

modules in the late-stage mitoPark mice.

We demonstrated that L-DOPA rescued the decreased velocities of various behavior

syllables of Parkinsonian mitoPark mice but had little effect on the usage and transitions of

behavioral modules. Similar observations were reported by earlier studies in humans, showing

that levodopa improved the slowed movement but did not alleviate the sequence effects in PD

patients [33]. Acute L-DOPA may restore tonic dopamine levels in the striatum, which play a key

role in motor vigor and reinforcement learning [34]. L-DOPA-induced increases in the tonic striatal

DA levels likely underlie the restoration of motor velocity. Fast dopamine dynamics in the

striatum works as reinforcement to promote the use and organization of behavioral modules [7].

Thus, the disrupted behavioral sequencing in Parkinsonian mice is likely due to the impaired

phasic DA release in the striatum that systematic L-DOPA injections can't restore. However, we

can't exclude the involvement of other mechanisms, including maladaptive changes within and

outside the striatum, in the abnormal usage of behavioral modules and sequencing [35].

In conclusion, the present work reveals key features of behavioral module changes in

Parkinsonism. We demonstrated that loss of DA induces decreased velocity, abnormal usage,

and fewer transitions of behavioral modules during spontaneous behavior, underlying the

manifestation of hypokinetic deficits in PD. Further, we documented that acute L-DOPA-induced

therapeutic effects are largely mediated by its effects on the velocity of behavioral modules but

not their usages and sequences during spontaneous behavior. Further studies are warranted to

better understand the biological mechanisms underlying impaired behavioral sequencing after

loss of DA and design effective treatment to restore proper organization of naturalist behavior

in the Parkinsonian state.

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Availability of data and materials. The raw and analyzed during the current study have been

deposited and are publicly available from Github (https://github.com/ChuLab-GU/behavior-

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766

A control
striatum

TH

mitoPark
striatum

500 µm

TH (striatum/cortex)

**

□ control ■ mitoPark

B

speed (cm/sec)

ns   **   **

8   14   24
age (weeks)

C

Representative syllables showing
reduced velocities at the early motor stage

syllable 5 (run_start)

syllable 11 (walk)   syllable 21 (run)

Representative syllables showing
reduced velocities at the advanced motor stage

syllable 4
(grooming)   syllable 7 (turn)

D

velocity (cm/sec)

8 weeks

control
mitoPark

fast ← syllables → slow

E

velocity (cm/sec)

14 weeks

21   5   11

control
mitoPark

* * * *   *   *   * * *   *

fast ← syllables → slow

F

velocity (cm/sec)

24 weeks

21   5   11 2 3 7   4

control
mitoPark

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

fast ← syllables → slow

G

Δvelocity (cm/sec)

14 weeks

velocities of controls

H

Δvelocity (cm/sec)

24 weeks

velocities of controls