- 1 Title
- 2 Multiple tracking and machine learning reveal dopamine modulation for area-restricted
- 3 foraging behaviors via velocity change in *Caenorhabditis elegans*
- 4

# 5 Author names and affiliations

- 6 Keita Ashida<sup>1</sup>, Taiki Kato<sup>1</sup>, Kohji Hotta<sup>1</sup>, Kotaro Oka<sup>1,2,3\*</sup>.
- 7 <sup>1</sup>Department of Bioscience and Informatics, Faculty of Science and Technology, Keio
- 8 University, Yokohama 223-8522, Japan.
- 9 <sup>2</sup>Graduate Institute of Medicine, College of Medicine, Kaohsiung Medical University,
- 10 Kaohsiung City, 80708, Taiwan.
- <sup>3</sup>Waseda Research Institute for Science and Engineering, Waseda University, 2-2
- 12 Wakamatsucho, Shinjuku, Tokyo 162-8480, Japan
- 13 \*Corresponding author. Department of Bioscience and Informatics, Faculty of Science
- 14 and Technology, Keio University, Yokohama 223-8522, Japan. E-mail:
- 15 oka@bio.keio.ac.jp. Phone number: 081-45-566-1728
- 16

## 17 Abstract

18 Food exploration is an essential survival behavior in organisms. To find food efficiently, 19 many organisms use a foraging strategy called area-restricted search (ARS) wherein 20individuals first turn more frequently, restricting their search to one area, then turn less 21frequently, moving along a straight path to widen the search area. Previous research 22suggests that the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* shows ARS behavior by changing 23turn frequency, and that dopamine is a crucial determinant. However, the effects of 24dopamine on multiple behavioral parameters have remained unknown. Here, we 25evaluated turn (pirouette) frequency, moving velocity, and specific area occupancy (cell 26occupancy) over time by using a multiple-worms tracking system. In the control (mock) 27experiments, all parameters changed over time, but no changes were observed in 28experiments with dopamine pre-exposed and dopamine-deficient animals. In inverse 29reinforcement learning analysis, the value function for specific velocity was found to 30 modulate over time in mock animals only. These results demonstrate that dopamine 31regulates ARS via changes not only to pirouette frequency change but also to velocity.

32

## 33 Highlights

C. elegans shows ARS behavior, changing its velocity and turn frequency over
 time.

- A dopamine-synthesis defect inhibits changes in searching behavior.
- Inverse reinforcement learning reveals a change in the value function for velocity.
- A change in value function is absent in dopamine exposed and deficient animals.
- 40

## 41 Keywords

- 42 dopamine; area-restricted search; foraging, behavioral assay; machine learning; inverse
  43 reinforcement learning
- 44

## 45 Abbreviations

- 46 Area-restricted search: ARS
- 47
- 48 Acknowledgements

All strains were provided by the *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center (CGC), which is
funded by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440). We also
thank to Dr. Hisashi Shidara and Toshiki Yoshimizu for providing the behavioral
analysis program.

53

# 54 Funding

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public,commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

57

# 58 Author Contribution

- 59 K.A, K.H. and K.O designed the experiments. T.K. performed the experiments. K.A and
- 60 T.K. performed data analysis; K.A. wrote the original draft of paper and K.A, K.H. and
- 61 K.O reviewed and edited the paper. K.H. and K.O supervised the work.

62

# 63 Conflict of Interest

64 No conflict declared.

## 65 **1. Introduction**

66 Exploring food is an essential survival behavior in organisms. To find food efficiently, 67 many species, from nematode to human, use a strategy called area-restricted search 68 (ARS) [1–6]. In this foraging strategy, animals first search locally, turning more 69 frequently within a restricted area, then search globally, turning less frequently and 70moving more along straight paths to extend the search area. The nematode 71*Caenorhabditis elegans* has been shown to use the ARS strategy [1,2,7,8]. While the 72neuromodulator dopamine has been suggested to play a crucial role in the behavioral 73shift involved [1], the effect of dopamine on the foraging remains largely unstudied. 74Previous research indicates that dopamine is important for sharp turns (pirouettes), and 75that ablation of dopaminergic neurons and treatment with dopamine antagonists inhibit 76a pirouette-frequency change over time [1]. Although the pirouette frequency is used to 77evaluate ARS, this parameter does not reliably indicate whether worms are conducting a 78local or global search, and the effect of dopamine on the searching behavior has 79therefore not yet been clearly established. Several reports characterize C. elegans based 80 on velocity, pirouette frequency, and cell occupancy [7,9,10]. A custom-made tracking system has recently been developed to easily and quickly measure the behavior of 81 82 multiple worms and to investigate their interaction during chemotaxis [10]. Using this 83 system, we measured several behavioral parameters, including pirouette frequency, 84 velocity, and cell occupancy, with the aim of clearly characterizing the searching behaviors of worms pre-exposed to dopamine, and of mutants with defective dopamine 85 86 synthesis. We also employed inverse reinforcement learning, a machine learning 87 methods to identify behavioral strategies through value functions that has previously 88 been applied to such data [11–13]. Using these methods, we show that dopamine plays a 89 crucial role in ARS in *C. elegans* not only through its effect on pirouette frequency 90 changes but also on velocity changes.

## 91 **2. Materials and methods**

#### 92 **2. 1.** *C. elegans* strains

93 Worms were cultured at 20°C on nematode growth medium (NGM) agar plates with

- 94 *Escherichia coli* OP50 bacteria under standard conditions [14]. The N2 strain
- 95 (wild-type) and *cat-2* (*n*4547) II (MT15620 in in the Caenorhabditis Genetics Center,
- 96 CGC) were used for the experiments. Hermaphrodites were used for all experiments.
- 97

#### 98 2. 2. Behavioral Assays

99 Behavioral assays were performed as previously described [10] but without using odor. 100 Assay plates consisted of 8 ml of 1.8% agar, 1 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub> and 5 mM 101 KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> in 10-cm petri dishes. Worms were washed with S-basal buffer in a microtube 102 with a platinum wire. Next, all worms were transferred to the assay plate with the buffer 103 to enable picking up of each worm. Then,  $4 \mu l$  of distilled water (rather than S-basal, to 104 avoid the effect of salt taxis) was spotted in the center of another assay plate, and worms 105were transferred to the spotted water. Water was then removed using Kimwipes until the 106 worms were not swimming. Images were captured with a web camera (HD Pro Webcam 107 C920, Logitech) every second for 31 minutes with a custom-made Matlab program 108 (MATLAB 2016a, MathWorks). Almost all animals were measured for the full period 109 from 0 to 31 min (Fig. 4A).

110

#### 111 **2. 3. Pre-exposure to dopamine**

112Worms were cultivated on NGM plates with dopamine and later tracked onto the assay 113 plates (Fig. 1A). Dopamine was dissolved into the NGM solution before solidifying. 114 The NGM plates with dopamine were made and seeded with *E. coli* 24 h before the 115assay. To prevent the degeneration of dopamine, the plates were covered with aluminum 116 foil sheets. Some young adult worms were transferred to the NGM plates with 117 dopamine 18 h before the assay and were incubated at 20°C covered with aluminum foil 118 sheets. In the mock and mutant experiments, worms were transferred to NGM plates 119 without dopamine.

120

#### 121 **2. 4. Behavioral analysis**

122 The same analysis methods as in previous research were employed [10] using Matlab 123 programs modified from *parallel worm tracker* [15]. For worms that reached the edge

 $\mathbf{5}$ 

- 124 of the plates, tracking data before arrival at the edge were used for analysis. However,
- 125 most worms were successfully tracked for over 30 min (Fig. 4A). In the analysis,
- 126 pirouettes were defined as turns with an absolute turning rate  $> 90^{\circ}$ . In Figures 2, 3 and
- 127 5, data were classified into early (0–15 min) and late (16–31 min) stages. Cell
- 128 occupancy was calculated as the number of unique 1 mm<sup>2</sup> areas (cells) that worms
- 129 visited per minute [7,16]. This parameter indicates how worms search globally. Tracked
- 130 data were analyzed in each one-minute bin, and cell occupancy was calculated. For the
- 131 estimation of velocity and pirouette frequency, total distance and total number of
- 132 pirouettes in all trails during for one stage were divided by tracking period.
- 133

#### 134 **2. 5. Inverse reinforcement learning**

135The scheme for inverse reinforcement learning was used as previous research [13]. To 136 estimate the value function of velocity, the probability distribution of velocity change 137 under passive dynamics was assumed to be Gaussian ( $\sigma = 0.0545$ , which corresponds to 138 the standard deviation of acceleration over 1 s for all data). The regularization 139parameter  $\lambda$  was determined as 40. The value function for each animal was estimated 140using velocity data for a single track. Velocity was equally divided into 20 segments for 141 a rage of 0–0.25 mm/s (over 95 % of all data were contained in these segments). For 142maximum likelihood estimation, the Newton-CG method employing the

143 *optimize.minimize* function in SciPy (version 1.2.0) on Python 3.5.2 was used.

144

#### 145 **2. 6. Statistical tests**

146 Statistical analysis was performed using Dunnett's test (Fig. 4A; R version 3.5.1. with

147 the glht function in the multcomp library), Welch's t-test with holm correction (Fig. 4B-

148 D; Excel 2016 with the TTEST function, and R version 3.5.1. with the p.adjust

149 function) and a paired t-test (Figs. 2, 3, 5; Excel 2016 with the TTEST function). To

- 150 compare the value function between the early and late stages, only the value at 0.013
- 151 mm/s was used to avoid multiple comparisons. The velocity value influences the
- adjacent velocity value, and *vice versa*, because of the smoothness constraint [13]. This
- 153 interaction increases the familywise error rate and induces Type I error [17,18], so only
- 154 the values at 0.013 mm/s were compared. The number of assays (N) and animals (n) for
- 155 all analyses were: mock: N = 6, n = 27; 40  $\mu$ M: N = 5, n = 29; 200  $\mu$ M: N = 6, n = 32;

- 156 400 μM: N = 6, n = 40; 4 mM: N = 6, n = 37; *cat-2* (*n4547*): N = 4, n = 18. *cat-2*, 4
- 157 mM: N = 6, n = 31.

#### 158 **3. Results**

# 159 3. 1. Pre-exposure to dopamine suppresses area-restricted search 160 behavior

161 To investigate the role of dopamine on food-searching behavior, worms with dopamine 162pre-exposure were tracked for 30 min. In previous research [1], the small assay plate 163 diameter (5 cm) limited tracking and analysis of the trails [7]. Therefore, 10-cm 164 diameter plates were used in this study and enabled the successful tracking of most 165worms for over 30 min (Fig. 4A). Next, worms were pre-incubated overnight on plates 166 containing dopamine concentration ranging from 40 µM to 4 mM with food. After 167 pre-exposure to dopamine, worms were transferred to assay plates without food, and 168 trails were captured and analyzed (Fig. 1A, see also Materials and Methods). Under 169 mock conditions, worms showed typical ARS behaviors, searching first locally then 170globally [1,2,7] (Fig. 1B). However, pre-exposure to dopamine suppressed these 171 behaviors. To quantify this effect, pirouette frequency was first evaluated. When 172comparing the early and late stages (first 15 min and last 15 min), animals decreased 173pirouette frequency over time under mock conditions (Fig. 2A, mock). This result is 174consistent with previous research [1]. For further analysis, velocity and cell occupancy 175were evaluated. Cell occupancy describes how widely worms search [7]. Both velocity 176 and cell occupancy were also found to have increased (Fig. 2B, C, mock). These results 177clearly indicate that worms changed searching behaviors from local to global. Moreover, 178a decreasing in pirouette frequency and an increasing in velocity indicate a shift in 179searching behavior. Conversely, pre-exposure to dopamine inhibited changes in all 180 parameters over time at dopamine concentrations above 400 µM (Fig. 2B, C). These 181 results explicitly demonstrate that an overdose of exogenous dopamine suppresses ARS 182behavior and that dopamine plays an important role in changing food-searching 183 behavior in C. elegans.

184

# 3. 2. Dopamine-synthesis deficient mutant suppresses area-restricted search behavior.

187 The role of dopamine in worms lacking endogenous dopamine production was
188 investigated. The *cat-2* mutant, which cannot synthesize dopamine, was used [19–21].

- 189 As expected, the mutant did not display any changes in searching behaviors (Fig. 1C).
- 190 Further quantification showed that it was unable to modulate pirouette frequency,

8

velocity and cell occupancy (Fig. 3). These results demonstrate that endogenousdopamine is necessary to change search behaviors.

193 The effect of dopamine on behavior itself was investigated (Fig. 4). In the 194 assay, behavioral change was not observed with dopamine pre-exposure, but velocity 195 and cell occupancy were decreased in the *cat-2* mutant. Moreover, dopamine exposure 196 for *cat-2* mutant clearly rescued these decreases. These results suggest that dopamine 197 could help maintain high velocity and cell occupancy, and that increasing dopamine 198 levels may change food-searching behavior.

199

# **3. 3. Inverse reinforcement learning reveals changed value function in**

# wild type, but not in dopamine pre-exposed and synthesis-deficient animals.

203 Inverse reinforcement learning was introduced for further analysis. This method enables 204 the evaluation of behavioral strategy based on the value function [11-13]. In the 205framework of reinforcement learning, the agent (the worm) interacts with the 206 environment to maximize the reward, and changes its behavior (the action) to obtain the 207reward. Changing behavior incurs a cost; there is a tradeoff between the reward and the 208cost. The tradeoff, described by the value function, corresponds to the behavioral 209strategy [11–13]. Inverse reinforcement learning can be estimated by the value function 210obtained from behavioral data; in this case, the worm changes its velocity to optimize 211the search. Therefore, the value function of velocity indicates the optimal velocity for a 212worm's searching behavior. When this method was applied to the velocity data under 213mock conditions, the value at low velocity (0.013 mm/s in Fig. 5) was found to be high 214in the early stage, and lower in the late stage (Fig. 5). This result indicates that worms 215want to maintain a low velocity in the early stage only, which is consistent with the 216 velocity change in the mock animals (Fig. 2B). Moreover, corresponding to the velocity 217change, both animals pre-exposed to dopamine and dopamine-deficient animals did not 218show change in the value function at low velocity over time. These results strongly 219 support the notion that changing velocity is an important factor for ARS and that 220dopamine is necessary for shifting searching behavior.

9

## **4. Discussion**

Our results demonstrate that dopamine is necessary to switch searching behaviors from local to global in worms pre-exposed to dopamine and in dopamine-deficient mutants. As in previous research [1], pirouette frequency changes were evaluated. The present study further affirmed the hypothesis and also carried out investigations of cell occupancy and velocity. The derived value functions, estimated by inverse reinforcement learning, strongly support a change in behavioral strategy. A velocity change correlated to dopamine has not previously been reported in the context of ARS.

By modulating pirouette frequency, worms can efficiently perform a global search [1,2,7,8]. Our results also reasonably explain searching strategy by showing that velocity is also important in searching behaviors, with faster movements allowing wider exploration. While previous research only considered path structure [1], the present study shows that other parameters also affect searching behaviors.

Previous research shows that dopamine has crucial roles in food related behaviors, through pirouette in foraging and slowing in response to food [1,22–25]. The results of the present study show that dopamine is important in modulating velocity while foraging, and suggest that dopamine may keep both the velocity and cell occupancy high. As dopamine is also known as an essential factor for regulating locomotion rate [21], it may act to shift a search from local to global.

Pre-exposure to dopamine concentrations above 400 µM inhibited changes in
almost all parameters over time. A pirouette frequency change was observed with
pre-exposure to 400 µM dopamine (Fig. 2A). In previous research [1], a dopamine
concentration above 1 mM was needed to prevent any pirouette frequency change,
suggesting that a higher concentration of dopamine is needed to inhibit a pirouette
frequency change than to inhibit a velocity change. These results suggest that a separate
pathway may modulate pirouette frequency and velocity.

Inverse reinforcement learning was applied to identify behavioral strategy.
Machine learning approaches, such as inverse reinforcement learning, have recently
been used to understand behavioral data [11–13,26,27]. These methods could be
powerful tools in understanding various behavioral strategies from novel points of view.

10

### 251 **Reference**

252[1] T. Hills, P.J. Brockie, A. V. Maricq, Dopamine and glutamate control 253area-restricted search behavior in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, J. Neurosci. 24 (2004) 2541217-1225. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1569-03.2004. 255[2] J.M. Gray, J.J. Hill, C.I. Bargmann, A circuit for navigation in Caenorhabditis 256elegans, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 102 (2005) 3184-3191. 257doi:10.1073/pnas.0409009101. 258[3] A.M. Edwards, R.A. Phillips, N.W. Watkins, M.P. Freeman, E.J. Murphy, V. 259Afanasyev, S. V. Buldyrev, M.G.E. Da Luz, E.P. Raposo, H.E. Stanley, G.M. 260Viswanathan, Revisiting Lévy flight search patterns of wandering albatrosses, 261bumblebees and deer, Nature. 449 (2007) 1044–1048. doi:10.1038/nature06199. 262[4] A.M. Reynolds, M.A. Frye, Free-flight odor tracking in Drosophila is consistent 263with an optimal intermittent scale-free search, PLoS One. 2 (2007). 264doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0000354. 265[5] N.E. Humphries, N. Queiroz, J.R.M. Dyer, N.G. Pade, M.K. Musyl, K.M. 266Schaefer, D.W. Fuller, J.M. Brunnschweiler, T.K. Doyle, J.D.R. Houghton, G.C. 267Hays, C.S. Jones, L.R. Noble, V.J. Wearmouth, E.J. Southall, D.W. Sims, 268Environmental context explains Lévy and Brownian movement patterns of 269marine predators, Nature. 465 (2010) 1066-1069. doi:10.1038/nature09116. 270[6] T.T. Hills, C. Kalff, J.M. Wiener, Adaptive Lévy Processes and area-restricted 271search in human foraging, PLoS One. 8 (2013). 272doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0060488. 273K. Moy, W. Li, H.P. Tran, V. Simonis, E. Story, C. Brandon, J. Furst, D. Raicu, [7] 274H. Kim, Computational methods for tracking, quantitative assessment, and 275visualization of C. elegans locomotory behavior, PLoS One. 10 (2015). 276doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0145870. 277[8] A.J. Calhoun, S.H. Chalasani, T.O. Sharpee, Maximally informative foraging by 278Caenorhabditis elegans, eLife. 2014 (2014) 1-13. doi:10.7554/eLife.04220.001. 279[9] J.T. Pierce-Shimomura, T.M. Morse, S.R. Lockery, The fundamental role of 280pirouettes in Caenorhabditis elegans chemotaxis., J. Neurosci. 19 (1999) 9557-2819569. 282T. Yoshimizu, H. Shidara, K. Ashida, K. Hotta, K. Oka, Effect of interactions [10] 283among individuals on the chemotaxis behaviours of Caenorhabditis elegans, J.

- 284Exp. Biol. 221 (2018) jeb182790. doi:10.1242/jeb.182790. 285[11] A. Pezzotta, M. Adorisio, A. Celani, Chemotaxis emerges as the optimal solution 286to cooperative search games, Phys. Rev. E. 98 (2018) 042401. 287doi:10.1103/PhysRevE.98.042401. 288[12] G. Reddy, J. Wong-Ng, A. Celani, T.J. Sejnowski, M. Vergassola, Glider soaring 289via reinforcement learning in the field, Nature. (2018). 290doi:10.1038/s41586-018-0533-0. 291S. Yamaguchi, H. Naoki, M. Ikeda, Y. Tsukada, S. Nakano, I. Mori, S. Ishii, [13] 292 Identification of animal behavioral strategies by inverse reinforcement learning, 293PLoS Comput. Biol. (2018). doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1006122. 294S. Brenner, The genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans., Genetics. 77 (1974) 71-94. [14] 295doi:10.1002/cbic.200300625. 296D. Ramot, B.E. Johnson, T.L. Berry, L. Carnell, M.B. Goodman, The Parallel [15] 297 Worm Tracker: a platform for measuring average speed and drug-induced 298paralysis in nematodes., PLoS One. 3 (2008) e2208. 299doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0002208. 300 [16] N.E. Humphries, D.W. Sims, Optimal foraging strategies: Lévy walks balance 301 searching and patch exploitation under a very broad range of conditions, J. Theor. 302 Biol. 358 (2014) 179–193. doi:10.1016/j.jtbi.2014.05.032. 303 S. Holm, A simple sequentially rejective multiple test procedure, Scand. J. Stat. 6 [17] 304 (1979) 65-70. doi:10.2307/4615733. 305[18] Y. Hochberg, A sharper Bonferroni procedure for multiple tests of significance, Biometrika. 75 (1988) 800-802. doi:10.1093/biomet/75.4.800. 306 307 [19] J. Sulston, M. Dew, S. Brenner, Dopaminergic neurons in the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans., J. Comp. Neurol. 163 (1975) 215-226. 308 309 doi:10.1002/cne.901630207. 310 R. Lints, S.W. Emmons, Patterning of dopaminergic neurotransmitter identity [20] 311 among *Caenorhabditis elegans* ray sensory neurons by a TGFbeta family 312 signaling pathway and a Hox gene., Development. 126 (1999) 5819–5831. 313 [21] D.T. Omura, D.A. Clark, A.D.T. Samuel, H.R. Horvitz, Dopamine signaling is 314 essential for precise rates of locomotion by C. elegans, PLoS One. 7 (2012). 315doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0038649. 316 [22] E.R. Sawin, R. Ranganathan, H.R. Horvitz, C. elegans locomotory rate is
  - 12

- modulated by the environment through a dopaminergic pathway and by
- experience through a serotonergic pathway, Neuron. 26 (2000) 619–631.
- doi:10.1016/S0896-6273(00)81199-X.
- 320 [23] D.L. Chase, J.S. Pepper, M.R. Koelle, Mechanism of extrasynaptic dopamine
  321 signaling in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, Nat. Neurosci. 7 (2004) 1096–1103.
  322 doi:10.1038/nn1316.
- 323 [24] S.H. Chalasani, N. Chronis, M. Tsunozaki, J.M. Gray, D. Ramot, M.B. Goodman,
  324 C.I. Bargmann, Dissecting a circuit for olfactory behaviour in *Caenorhabditis*325 elegans, Nature. 450 (2007) 63–70. doi:10.1038/nature06292.
- 326 [25] N. Yapici, M. Zimmer, A.I. Domingos, Cellular and molecular basis of
  327 decision-making, EMBO Rep. 15 (2014) 1023–1035.
- 328 doi:10.15252/embr.201438993.
- 329 [26] D.M. Camacho, K.M. Collins, R.K. Powers, J.C. Costello, J.J. Collins,
- 330 Next-generation machine learning for biological networks, Cell. (2018).
  331 doi:10.1016/j.cell.2018.05.015.
- 332 [27] A. Mathis, P. Mamidanna, K.M. Cury, T. Abe, V.N. Murthy, M.W. Mathis, M.
  333 Bethge, DeepLabCut: markerless pose estimation of user-defined body parts with
- deep learning, Nat. Neurosci. (2018). doi:10.1038/s41593-018-0209-y.
- 335

# 336 Figure Legends

337 Fig 1. Foraging behaviors under dopamine modulation. (A) Experimental scheme.

338 Pre-exposed dopamine concentrations: 0 mM (mock), 40  $\mu M,$  200  $\mu M,$  400  $\mu M$  and 4

339 mM. (B) The representative tracks of animals on one assay with pre-exposure to no

340 dopamine (left, mock), 200  $\mu$ M dopamine (middle), and 4 mM dopamine (right). Each

animal is represented by a different color. (C) The representative tracks on one assay of

342 mutants with a dopamine synthesis defect, *cat-2* (*n4547*). Each animal is represented by

a different color.

Fig 2. Evaluation of area-restricted search behaviors with pre-exposure to dopamine. (A) Pirouette frequency during the early (from 0 to 15 min, gray bars) and late (from 16 to 31 min, white bars) stages with pre-exposure to dopamine (from 0 to 4 mM). (B) Velocity during the early and late stages with pre-exposure to dopamine. (C) Cell occupancy during the early and late stages under with-exposure to dopamine. Error bars indicate the standard deviation of the mean (SEM). Paired t-test, \*\*p<0.01, \*p<0.05.

- 350 Fig 3. Evaluation of area-restricted search behaviors on dopamine-deficient mutants.
- (A) Pirouette frequency during the early (from 0 to 15 min, gray bar) and late (from 16
- 352 to 31 min, white bar) stages in the *cat-2* mutant (*cat-2* (*n4547*) II). (B) Velocity during
- 353 the early and late stages in the *cat-2* mutant. (C) Cell occupancy during the early and
- late stages in the *cat-2* mutant. Error bars indicate the SEM. Paired t-test, p>0.05, not
- 355 significant.

- 356 Fig. 4. Effect of dopamine on behaviors. Total time (A), pirouette frequency (B),
- 357 velocity (C), and cell occupancy (D) for each track of worms in the experiments. The
- 358 experiments were performed with worms pre-exposed to dopamine from 0 to 4 mM
- 359 dopamine, dopamine-synthesis defective mutants (cat-2 (n4547) II) and the mutants
- 360 exposed to 4 mM dopamine. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean (SEM).
- 361 Welch's t-test with holm correction, \*\*\*p<0.001.

- **Fig 5.** Value function of velocity. The average of value functions of each worm in the
- mock, pre-exposure to dopamine (from 0 to 4 mM), and the *cat-2* mutant (*cat-2* (*n4547*)
- 364 II) are shown. Dotted lines are value functions in the early stage, and solid lines are
- ones in the late stage. Error bars indicate the SEM. Only the values at 0.013 mm/s are
  compared by a paired t-test. \*p<0.05.</li>















Fig. 4

