New approaches for neurochemical monitoring

- Technical Journal Club -

Silvia Sorce

9th December 2014

Outline

- Introduction
- Fast scan cyclic voltammetry
- Cell-based neurotransmitter fluorescent engineered reporters (CNiFERs)

Background: synaptic transmission

→ a neurotransmitter can be defined as a substance that is released by a neuron and that affects a specific target in a specific manner



How much/When is released? \rightarrow chronic, real-time neurochemical monitoring

Kandel et al., Principles of Neural Science, 5th edition, 2013

Background: neurotransmitters

Table 13–1 Small-Molecule Transmitter Substances and Their Precursors

Transmitter	Precursor	
Acetylcholine	Choline	A set debelie sis veloces det all
Biogenic amines Dopamine Norepinephrine Epinephrine Serotonin Histamine Melatonin Amino acids Aspartate γ-Aminobutyric acid	Tyrosine Tyrosine Tyrosine Tryptophan Histidine Serotonin Oxaloacetate Glutamine	Acetylcholine is released at all vertebrate neuromuscular junction spinal motor neurons Cholinergic neurons → widespread projections to the <u>cerebral cortex</u> ; modulates <u>arousal</u> , <u>sleep</u> , <u>wakefulr</u> and other critical aspects of humar consciousness
Glycine	Serine	
ATP	ADP	
Adenosine	ATP	
Arachidonic acid	Phospholipids	
Carbon monoxide	Heme	
Nitric oxide	Arginine	

Background: neurotransmitters

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Norepinephrine	Tyrosine	
Epinephrine	Tyrosine	
Serotonin	Tryptophan	
Histamine	Histidine	
Melatonin	Serotonin	
Amino acids		
Aspartate	Oxaloacetate	
γ-Aminobutyric acid	Glutamine	
Glutamate	Glutamine	
Glycine	Serine	
ATP	ADP	
Adenosine	ATP	
Arachidonic acid	Phospholipids	
Carbon monoxide	Heme	
Nitric oxide	Arginine	

Dopamine is released from the dopaminergic neurons in the ventral midbrain towards different regions, in particular striatum/nucleus accumbens → Regulate motor, emotional, attentional, cognitive, <u>reward-related</u> <u>behaviors</u>

Norepinephrine is released from noradrenergic neurons in the locus coeruleus in CNS. Most responsible for <u>vigilant concentration, reaction to</u> <u>stimuli</u>. Released also from the sympathetic neurons to control fight-orflight response

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Fast scan cyclic voltammetry

Small electrode inserted in brain region of interest

Carbon-fiber microelectrodes (diameter of 5 μ m) are the most common sensors used in this application \rightarrow encased in a pulled glass capillary with 25-100 μ m of the fiber protruding from the glass

Dopamine, norepinephrine, epinephrine, serotonin, and histamine are <u>easily oxidized</u> and thus can be detected with voltammetric experiments

High temporal resolution detection (subseconds)



Fig. 2. Scanning electron microscopic image of a cylindrical carbon-fiber microelectrode under $\times 1200$ magnification.

The diameter of the fiber is ${\sim}5~\mu{\rm m}.$ The length of the exposed carbon fiber extending from the glass seal is the electroactive area of the electrode.

Fast scan cyclic voltammetry

Voltammetry: current (I) is measured as a function of voltage (E).

1. a potential is applied to the electrode



2. during the positive sweep dopamine is oxidized to form dopamine-o-quinone (peak reaction at approximately +0.64 V).

3. Dopamine-o-quinone is then reduced back to dopamine in the negative sweep (peak reaction at approximately -0.2 V).

The ensuing flux of electrons is measured as current and is directly proportional to the number of molecules that undergo the electrolysis.

http://wassumlab.psych.ucla.edu/

Fast scan cyclic voltammetry: cyclic voltammogram



- A. The potential applied to the electrode is ramped from 0.4 V to 1.0 V and back
- B. Produced large background current, plotted vs applied potential: the solid line is the background current, the superimposed dashed line is the current observed in the presence of dopamine (3% change)
- C. By subtracting out the background, a cyclic voltammogram for dopamine is generated
- D. Changes in dopamine current are visualized by plotting the current at the peak oxidation potential of dopamine vs time. Each point represents the current from one cyclic voltammogram.

Robinson et al., Clin Chem, 2003

Fast scan cyclic voltammetry: color plot



- •Data can also be depicted as a color plot to show many CVs over time.
- •Current is in color and shows when dopamine is present.

Limitation: requirement for acute implantation of a voltammetric probe into the brain via a microdrive for each experiment → No longitudinal studies possible the fidelity of chemical recordings can be severely impaired by perturbation of the microenvironment through physical tissue disruption and/or neuroinflammation

Chronic microsensors for longitudinal, subsecond dopamine detection in behaving animals

Jeremy J Clark^{1,4}, Stefan G Sandberg^{1,4}, Matthew J Wanat¹, Jerylin O Gan^{1,2}, Eric A Horne¹, Andrew S Hart^{1,2}, Christina A Akers¹, Jones G Parker³, Ingo Willuhn¹, Vicente Martinez¹, Scott B Evans¹, Nephi Stella^{1,2} & Paul E M Phillips^{1,2}

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 \rightarrow <u>biocompatible</u> voltammetric microsensor that can be chronically implanted

→ Detection of subsecond dynamics from day to day over periods of months





Figure 1 | Chronic carbon-fiber microsensor. (a) Schematic of the chronic microsensor, which consisted of a carbon fiber encased in a polyimide-fused silica. To ensure electric insulation, a two-component epoxy was applied to the fused silica–carbon fiber interface. At the opposite end, a female pin connector was electrically connected to the carbon fiber with silver epoxy. Finally, two-component epoxy was used to coat the connector for electrical insulation and structural integrity.

Characterization in vitro after 1/2/4 months



Rats implated for 10-16 weeks Wide-field fluorescence image of a 30-µm striatal slice at a microsensor tract with <u>no apparent gliosis present</u>. Scale bar, 300 µm.



Microsensor <u>sensitivity to dopamine</u>, assessed by flow injection analysis, after one (n = 5), two (n = 5)or four (n = 4) months of implantation

Clark et al., Nature Methods, 2010

In vivo settings



Chronically vs Acutely implanted electrode



electrically evoked dopamine release in the nucleus accumbens comparable result, but temporal distortion

Electrically vs reward induced dopamine release



electrically evoked dopamine release

food evoked dopamine release

Clark et al., Nature Methods, 2010

Characterization in vivo after 1/2/4 months



reward-evoked dopamine release in the nucleus accumbens 1, 2 and 4 months after implantation.

Can it be combined with behavioural analysis over multiple days?

Classical conditioning / Pavlovian conditioning

→ form of learning in which the *conditioned stimulus* (CS), comes to signal the occurrence of a second stimulus, the *unconditioned stimulus* (US)



- → conditioned <u>cue-reward pairings increase neuronal firing in midbrain neurons</u>
- \rightarrow phasic dopamine release events in response to primary rewards and their predictors

 \rightarrow No data on dopamine release throughout learning

Longitudinal FSCV and behavioural analyses

Trial: 8-s presentation of a **light cue** (conditioned stimulus) followed immediately by the delivery of a **food pellet** (unconditioned stimulus).

Training session: 25 trials/day presented on a 60-s variable-interval schedule (tot= 25 days)

After 15 days of standard training: <u>reward value increased</u> from 1 to 4 food pellets for 5 d followed by 5 d of <u>extinction training</u> during which food reward was omitted.



LETTER

doi:10.1038/nature12475

Prolonged dopamine signalling in striatum signals proximity and value of distant rewards

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Methods

Male Long Evans rats

Voltammetry microsensors surgically implanted in nucleus accumbens

Training in T-maze: started 4 weeks after surgery, continued 15 to 35 days for each rat

Daily behavioural sessions consisted of 40 trials

<u>Voltammetric recordings</u> began when rats learned to run smoothly down the track to retrieve reward. The spatial position of each rat was monitored continually by <u>video tracking</u>



Dopamine ramps during maze runs



Howe et al., Nature, 2013

Does dopamine ramp as a function of time or proximity?



Howe et al., Nature, 2013

More reward = more dopamine

Asterisk indicates larger reward \rightarrow higher levels DA for larger reward





Dopamine levels depend on the relative reward value

Dopamine ramps up

We thought we had figured out dopamine, a neuromodulator involved in everything from learning to addiction. But the finding that dopamine levels ramp up as rats navigate to a reward may overthrow current theories. SEE LETTER P.575

YAEL NIV

Scientific findings typically come in two flavours: explanations for things we already knew occurred but had no idea why, or new phenomena that are clearly important but still mysterious. Howe and colleagues' finding¹, on page 575 of this issue, is of the latter kind — even if we don't yet know what it means, it stands to alter the way we think about dopamine. striatum of rats while the animals ran through mazes for food rewards. The striatum (Fig. 1a) is the area that contains the highest dopamine concentration in the brain. It is involved in action selection at all levels, from choosing which limb to move to selecting a goal to work towards. In a series of elegant experiments, Howe *et al.* established that dopamine concentration gradually ramps up as rats run towards a reward, and that the slope of the ramps relates to the amount of anticipated reward and the

Reward and the brain



Dopamine acts to maintain and direct motivational resources during prolonged behaviour

Niv, Nature, 2013

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Cell-based neurotransmitter fluorescent engineered reporters (CNiFERs)





An *in vivo* biosensor for neurotransmitter release and *in situ* receptor activity

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Image from Garris, Nature Methods, 2010

Generation of M1-CNiFERs



HEK293 cells transduced to express the **M1 receptor**, a major muscarinic receptor in neocortex, + **calcium indicator TN-XXL15**

When M1 is activated \rightarrow Gq/IP3 pathway \rightarrow Ca²⁺ increase \rightarrow binding to TN-XXL \rightarrow

FRET: decrease in cyan increase in yellow fluorescence

Nguyen et al., Nature Neuroscience, 2010

Specificity of M1 CNiFERs in vitro

!!! HEK293 cells can express endogenous surface receptors.



Potentially confounding neurotransmitters elicited signals only at higher concentrations and/or activated control CNiFERs

Implantation of CNiFERs in vivo



CNiFERs were implanted in rat frontal cortex: 10–30 CNiFERs per site (M1 and Ctr)

Stimulating electrodes were implanted in NBM (nucleus basalis magnocellularis), a basal forebrain structure that projects cholinergic fibers into neocortex

Electrocorticogram (ECoG) wires were placed to detect NBM-evoked cortical activation

two-photon laser-scanning microscopy down to 300 µm below the cortical surface

Nguyen et al., Nature Neuroscience, 2010

In vivo characterization of acutely implanted M1-CNiFERs



Chronic implantation of CNiFERs

Chronically implanted M1-CNiFERs can be imaged for at least 6 d



Chronic implantation of CNiFERs



control-CNiFERs - 50 μm minimal tissue damage, negligible presence of reactive astrocytes and no evidence for intracortical cell proliferation (Images 2d after implantation)

Nguyen et al., Nature Neuroscience, 2010

Cell-based reporters reveal *in vivo* dynamics of dopamine and norepinephrine release in murine cortex

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Serotonin	Tryptophan
Histamine	Histidine
Melatonin	Serotonin
Amino acids	
Aspartate	Oxaloacetate
γ-Aminobutyric acid	Glutamine
Glutamate	Glutamine
Glycine	Serine
ATP	ADP
Adenosine	ATP
Arachidonic acid	Phospholipids
Carbon monoxide	Heme
Nitric oxide	Arginine

dopamine



!! Cortex: inputs from dopaminergic and noradrenergic neurons

Kandel et al., Principles of Neural Science, 5th edition, 2013

New CNiFERs to detect Dopamine (DA) and Norepinephrine (NE)



Dopamine \rightarrow D₂ receptor \rightarrow G_{i/o} \rightarrow new HEK293 with chimeric G_{qi5}: G_{αq} sequence for PLC + 5 amino acids of the G_{i/o} for D₂

Norepinephrine $\rightarrow \alpha_{1A}$ receptor $\rightarrow G_{a}$

New CNiFERs to detect DA and NE: clone selection



Parent cells lacking the receptors were used as controls



In vitro characterization: sensitivity and specificity (I)



In vitro characterization: specificity (II)



SCH23390 (100 nM)= D1-receptor antagonist Eticlopride (50 nM)= D2-receptor antagonist Sotatol (5 μ M)= β -adrenergic-receptor antagonist WB4101 (50 nM)= α 1A-antagonist

In vitro characterization: response to agonist pulses (I)

2.5 s pulse application Perfusion system Cell clusters



Signals returned to baseline after approx. 20s

In vitro characterization: response to agonist pulses (II)



Intermittent pulses to assess receptor desensitization: every 4 min, tot 40 min



Dopaminergic and Noradrenergic projections to the cortex

Retrograde fluorescent tracer **Fluoro-Gold** Injected in the cortex

Analysis 7 days after surgery with antibody colabeling

DA neurons from substaintia nigra, NE neurons from locus coeruleus



 \rightarrow Electrodes implanted into either the SN or LC for electrical stimulation

In vivo characterization: cell implantation in the cortex

Stereotaxic Injection 200–300 µm below the cortical surface, i.e., layer 2/3

GFAP (magenta, astrocytes) MAC1 (magenta, microglia) NeuroTrace (blue)

Similar presence of glial cells in both injected and control mice <u>No glial scars</u> <u>Minimal damage</u>





- Response within 2s of stimulation
- Amplitude of the FRET response varied with the amplitude of the stimulation
- Cocaine (15 mg mg/kg; i.p.): DA reuptake inhibitor \rightarrow enhanced the size of the response
- Eticlopride (1 mg mg/kg; i.p.): D2 antagonist \rightarrow suppressed the CNiFER response
- No response of control cells
- The duration of the FRET response varied from 20 s to more than 1 min

In vivo characterization: α 1A-CNiFERs responses

Each in vivo two-photon imaging plane contained 5–20 CNiFERs



- Response within 2s of stimulation
- Amplitude of the FRET response varied with the amplitude of the stimulation
- WB4101 (2 mg mg/kg; i.p.): α 1A antagonist \rightarrow suppressed the CNiFER response
- No response of control cells
- The duration of the FRET response varied from 20 s to more than 1 min

Muller et al., Nature Methods, 2014

 α_{1A} CNiFER

NE G

α_{1A} GPCR

FRET

In vivo characterization: dose responses

- micropipette was placed with a tip approximately 100 μ m from the implant

- train of pulses of agonist delivered concurrently with a fluorescent indicator



Can it be combined with behavioural analysis over multiple days?

Classical conditioning / Pavlovian conditioning

→ form of learning in which the *conditioned stimulus* (CS), comes to signal the occurrence of a second stimulus, the *unconditioned stimulus* (US)



- → conditioned <u>cue-reward pairings increase neuronal firing in midbrain neurons</u>
- → neurons in the LC transiently spike in response to task-relevant stimuli: possible NE increase in the cortex during conditioning ???

Pavlovian conditioning paradigm in head-fixed mice implanted with CNiFERs





Mice injected with only D2 CNiFERs, or with D2 and **a**1A CNiFERs in discrete sites separated by ~300 µm, in layers 2/3 of the frontal cortex

- !!!

sucrose retrieval required the motor act of tongue protrusion and licking: another cohort implanted with M1 CNIFERs + D2 CNIFERs

Simultaneous measurement of neuromodulators during test



Shift with behavioural conditioning across multiple days



Big decrease in the onset time of the FRET ratio for dopamine release across multiple days of training: from 10.3 \pm 0.6 s (13 mice) during the first day of training to 5 ± 0.3 s during the last day of training, with a slope of -1.1 ± 0.14 s per day

Correlation of DA release with anticipatory licking

 \rightarrow the release of DA correlated with learning the association of CS with US



- \rightarrow E: small change in the timing of DA release = no significant anticipatory licking
- \rightarrow F: strong shift in DA release = significant change in anticipatory licking
- \rightarrow G: strong correlation between rates of change in DA release and anticipatory licking (n=13)

 \rightarrow DA release tracks the extent of learning

Conclusions

- → new family of cell-based CNiFERs for rapid, optical detection of neurotransmitters released in vivo
- \rightarrow Implemented for Gi/o-coupled receptors, in addition to Gq-coupled receptors
- ightarrow Discrimination between DA and NE
- \rightarrow Nanomolar sensitivity, temporal resolution of seconds
- \rightarrow Little impact on the brain
- \rightarrow Used for imaging experiments with head-fixed mice

Possible future improvements:

- \rightarrow Different setting to study neuromodulation in freely moving animals
- \rightarrow Different molecular design: to generate CNiFERs for any molecule that activates a GPCR