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**THE HIGH EFFICACY OF MUSCARINIC M<sub>4</sub> RECEPTOR IN D1  
MEDIUM SPINY NEURONS REVERSES STRIATAL  
HYPERDOPAMINERGIA.**

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## ABSTRACT

The opposing action of dopamine and acetylcholine has long been known to play an important role in basal ganglia physiology. However, the quantitative analysis of dopamine and acetylcholine signal interaction has been difficult to perform in the native context because the striatum comprises mainly two subtypes of medium-sized spiny neurons (MSNs) on which these neuromodulators exert different actions. We used biosensor imaging in live brain slices of dorsomedial striatum to monitor changes in intracellular cAMP at the level of individual MSNs. We observed that the muscarinic agonist oxotremorine decreases cAMP selectively in the MSN subpopulation that also expresses D<sub>1</sub> dopamine receptors, an action mediated by the M<sub>4</sub> muscarinic receptor. This receptor has a high efficacy on cAMP signaling and can shut down the positive cAMP response induced by dopamine, at acetylcholine concentrations which are consistent with physiological levels. This supports our prediction based on theoretical modeling that acetylcholine could exert a tonic inhibition on striatal cAMP signaling, thus supporting the possibility that a pause in acetylcholine release is required for phasic dopamine to transduce a cAMP signal in D1 MSNs. *In vivo* experiments with acetylcholinesterase inhibitors donepezil and tacrine, as well as with the positive allosteric modulators of M<sub>4</sub> receptor VU0152100 and VU0010010 show that this effect is sufficient to reverse the increased locomotor activity of DAT-knockout mice. This suggests that M<sub>4</sub> receptors could be a novel therapeutic target to treat hyperactivity disorders.

## HIGHLIGHTS

- Muscarinic receptor activation decreases cAMP only in D1-type striatal neurons
- The M4 muscarinic receptor is the likely mediator of this effect
- Extremely low levels of acetylcholine are sufficient to trigger this effect
- Cholinergic neurons can thus control dopamine action in the striatum
- M4 pharmacology revert hyperlocomotion in a genetic mouse model of hyperactivity

## INTRODUCTION

Cholinergic and dopaminergic systems perform in a dynamic equilibrium and disruption of this equilibrium is correlated with a number of disorders in the central nervous system (Hoebel *et al.*, 2007; Calabresi *et al.*, 2006; Cragg, 2006; Aosaki *et al.*, 2010; Lester *et al.*, 2010). Acetylcholine is involved in various striatum-dependent behaviors, and aberrations in cholinergic signaling result in severe behavioral deficits (Jeon *et al.*, 2010; Aoki *et al.*, 2015; Maurice *et al.*, 2015). Deficits in cholinergic neuromodulation has also been linked to Parkinson's disease (Perez-Lloret & Barrantes, 2016). Striatal acetylcholine is primarily released by cholinergic interneurons spread across striatum, which represent only a small fraction (~2%) of overall striatal neuronal population (Bolam *et al.*, 1984; Contant *et al.*, 1996). These neurons are tonically active (~5 Hz) and are believed to maintain a basal level of acetylcholine in the striatum (Aosaki *et al.*, 1995). Despite their scarcity, cholinergic interneurons have a widespread coverage of the striatum with their dense and complex axonal arborization (Contant *et al.*, 1996), and could strongly regulate striatal physiology (Shen *et al.*, 2015). These cholinergic interneurons exhibit diverse activity patterns depending on behavioral states, most notably a pause in activity in response to a salient stimulus or reward (Aosaki *et al.*, 1994).

An important target of striatal acetylcholine is the medium-sized projection neuron (MSN), which expresses muscarinic acetylcholine receptors. The two MSN classes, D<sub>1</sub>-expressing (D1 MSNs) and D<sub>2</sub>-expressing MSNs (D2 MSNs), show differential expression of muscarinic receptor-types, with the M<sub>4</sub>-type expression mostly restricted to the D<sub>1</sub> MSNs and the M<sub>1</sub> receptors being expressed in both D1 and D2 MSNs (Hersch *et al.*, 1994; Ince *et al.*, 1997). These receptors belong to the superfamily of G-protein-coupled receptors. M<sub>1</sub> is primarily coupled to G<sub>q/11</sub> and stimulates the Protein Kinase C and inositol tris-phosphate pathway, while M<sub>4</sub> is coupled to G<sub>i/o</sub> and mediates inhibition of adenylyl cyclase activity.

The cAMP/PKA signaling pathway plays a central role in the striatum in the integration of the dopamine signal, and activation of M<sub>4</sub> receptors significantly affects various dopamine-dependent behaviors. For example, M<sub>4</sub> receptor knockout in D1 MSNs results in increased dopamine-dependent phenotypes, such as hyper-locomotion, an effect possibly mediated through the cAMP signaling pathway (Jeon *et al.*, 2010), whereas a positive allosteric modulator (PAM) of M<sub>4</sub> receptor reverses amphetamine-induced hyper-locomotion (Brady *et al.*, 2008). M<sub>4</sub>-dependent cAMP inhibition which opposes D<sub>1</sub> action has also been implicated in striatal synaptic plasticity in a mouse model of L-DOPA-induced dyskinesia (Shen *et al.*, 2015). However, the physiological role and the state of muscarinic receptor-dependent cAMP signaling in MSNs still remains unclear.

We previously used computational modeling of striatal intracellular signaling to analyze the physiological consequences of M<sub>4</sub> receptor activation by the tonic firing of cholinergic interneurons. Our simulations suggested that, by suppressing cAMP signaling under basal condition, M<sub>4</sub> receptor reduces noisy corticostriatal synaptic changes in D1 MSNs (Nair *et al.*, 2015). According to this hypothesis, dopamine-dependent cAMP signaling in D1 MSNs is thought to be under tonic inhibition by M<sub>4</sub> receptors, and this inhibition is transiently relieved by a pause in the cholinergic activity, thus setting-up a time-window in which dopamine could activate cAMP signaling and induce long-term potentiation of corticostriatal synapses on D1 MSNs (Nair *et al.*, 2015). However, there are two main

prerequisites that are central to this hypothesis: (1) the activity of  $M_4$  receptors should be powerful enough to strongly inhibit striatal cAMP signaling, and (2) the level of tonic acetylcholine produced under basal condition should be sufficient to maintain this  $M_4$  receptor activity. However, due to the lack of quantitative characterization of the efficacy of striatal muscarinic receptors on cAMP signaling, especially in intact MSNs, it is not clear to what extent this scenario is physiologically valid.

We used FRET-based cAMP biosensor expressed in mouse brain slice to characterize the efficacy of muscarinic receptor activation on the cAMP signaling in MSNs. Our imaging results show that the activation of muscarinic receptors completely inhibits cAMP signaling in MSNs, specifically D1 MSNs. This inhibition is fully mediated by muscarinic  $M_4$ -type receptor. This muscarinic inhibitory effect is also functionally coupled to  $D_1$ -dependent cAMP signaling. Even a low level of acetylcholine reduces efficiently the downstream signal triggered by transient dopamine inputs. Taken together, our data support the possibility that  $M_4$  receptor activation under basal condition due to the tonic activity of cholinergic interneurons results in the tonic suppression of cAMP signaling in D1 MSNs. Finally, we show that this powerful mechanism is sufficient to completely reverse the hyperdopaminergic behavioral aberrations observed in the DAT knockout mouse model of hyperactivity disorder.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Animals

Biosensor imaging experiments were performed with 8-12 days old C57Bl/6J mice obtained from Janvier (Le Genest Saint Isle, France). Breeding and genotyping of DAT wild-type and knockout mice was done as previously described (Tzavara *et al.*, 2006). The animals were treated according to the regulations of Sorbonne Université animal care committee and the French Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry guidelines for handling animals.

### Brain slice preparation

The protocol has been described previously in more details (Yapo *et al.*, 2017). Briefly, animals were killed by decapitation and the brain quickly dissected and placed in ice-cold slicing solution saturated with 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and 95% O<sub>2</sub>. The slicing solution was composed of: 125 mM NaCl, 0.4 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1.25 mM NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 26 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 5 mM sodium pyruvate, 20 mM glucose and 1 mM kynurenic acid. Coronal slices of 300 µm thickness were cut with a vibrating blade microtome (VT1200S, Leica) in ice-cold solution. Slices were kept in the same solution at room temperature for around 30 minutes, then transferred onto Millicell-CM membrane (Millipore) placed over culture medium (50 % MEM media, 50 % HBSS, 6.5 g/l glucose, penicillin-streptomycin; Invitrogen). The slices were incubated overnight at 35°C and 5 % CO<sub>2</sub> and infected with the Sindbis vector to express the biosensor (Polito *et al.*, 2013; Ehrenguber *et al.*, 1999).

### Brain slice imaging

Live imaging was performed on brain slices which expressed the cAMP-specific EpacS<sup>HI50</sup> biosensor (Polito *et al.*, 2013). Slices were kept at room temperature in the recording solution saturated with 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and 95% O<sub>2</sub> for around 30 minutes before imaging. The composition of the recording solution was the same as the slicing solution except that it contained no kynurenic acid and CaCl<sub>2</sub> was 2 mM. The slice was imaged in a temperature controlled (32°C) recording chamber and continuously perfused at 2 ml/min using a peristaltic pump. The same perfusion system was used to apply drugs onto the recorded slice. All imaging experiments were done in presence of 200 nM tetrodotoxin, to inhibit endogenous electrical activity, and the following inhibitors of receptors: CGP-55845A (100 nM; GABA<sub>B</sub> antagonist), AM-251(100 nM; CB<sub>1</sub> antagonist) and naloxone (500 nM; opioid receptor antagonist).

Two-photon imaging was performed using a custom-built two-photon laser scanning setup based on an Olympus BX51WI upright microscope with a 40X 0.8 NA water immersion objective. Donor and acceptor images were obtained for donor excitation with a Ti:sapphire laser (MaiTai HP, Spectra-Physics) tuned at 850 nm wavelength. A filter cube containing a dichroic mirror (FF506-Di02-25x36, Semrock) and two emission filters (FF01-479/40 and FF01-542/50, Semrock) was used to separate the donor and acceptor emission wavelengths which were simultaneously detected using photomultipliers (H9305, Hamamatsu). The image acquisition process was controlled using MPscope software (Nguyen *et al.*, 2006). Image stacks (vertical interval of either 0.5 or 1 µm) were acquired for

every time point.

Wide field imaging was performed using Olympus BX50WI or BX51WI upright microscopes with a 40X 0.8 NA water immersion objective. The donor excitation was provided by an LED source (420 nm diode, Mightex) with a HC434/17 excitation filter (Semrock). The dichroic mirror was BS452 (Semrock). Two images were acquired for every data point by alternating filter for donor (HC479/40) and acceptor (HC542/50 both from Semrock) emission with a filter wheel (Sutter Instruments). Images were acquired using an ORCA-AG camera (Hamamatsu). Image acquisition was controlled using iVision software (Biovision). In dopamine uncaging experiments, an ultraviolet (UV) LED source (360 nm diode, Mightex) mounted on the epifluorescence port was used for uncaging. UV illumination was done for 1s duration with a power of 7.5 mW, as measured at the exit of the objective.

### **Data analysis**

Data analysis was done with custom routines written in IGOR Pro (Wavemetric) following the previously described protocol (Polito *et al.*, 2014; Yapo *et al.*, 2017). FRET changes were quantified using ratio of images from donor and acceptor channels for each data point. Corrections for non-uniform illumination, movement and channel mis-registration were done prior to ratio calculation. No corrections for bleed-through or cross-excitation were applied. The ratio value for a region-of-interest (ROI) was calculated by averaging all the individual pixels included in that ROI, weighted by their intensity. In the case of two-photon microscopy, ratio values were averaged for 1-2 images above and below the plane containing the ROI in the stack. Cells which had clear neuronal morphology, smooth surface contour and responded to either D<sub>1</sub> or A<sub>2</sub> agonists were thus identified as MSNs and used in our analysis. N indicates the number of brain slices, and n indicates the number of neurons.

### **Behavior**

Assessment of locomotor activity in DAT wild-type and knockout mice was performed as previously described (Tzavara *et al.*, 2006). To assess pharmacological effects of cholinergic compounds injected intraperitoneally, mice were placed on the actimeter 20 min after injection and locomotor activity was measured for a total of 60 min. For intrastriatal drug infusion, mice were implanted with guide cannulas as previously described (Apazoglou *et al.*, 2018). Mice were anesthetized with a ketamine/xylazine mixture (100/10 mg/kg, i.p.) and stereotaxically implanted with 12 mm long cannulae in the left and right striatum (AP +1.6; ML +/- 1.0; DV - 2.5). Animals were left to recover for at least 3 days. On the test day, infusion needles (30 Gauge) were inserted into the cannulae (needles were 13 mm long, i.e. ending 1 mm deeper than the guide cannula) and mice were locally injected, with the help of a pump (UNIVENTOR) at a rate of 0.5  $\mu$ l/min either with VU0010010 (1 $\mu$ g/ $\mu$ l) or vehicle (80 % saline + 10 % DMSO + 10 % cremophor). The needles were then left in place for another 2 min to ensure compound diffusion. Mice were subsequently placed 10 min after injection in the actimeter for 60 min.

## Drugs

Acetylcholine hydrochloride, neostigmine bromide and the compounds for slicing/recording solutions were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St Quentin-Fallavier, Isère, France). TTX was purchased from Latoxan (Valence, France). Donepezil was a gift from Eisai to ETT. NPEC-DA: (N)-1-(2-Nitrophenyl)ethylcarboxy-3,4-dihydroxyphenethylamine and all other drugs were obtained from Tocris Bio-technie (Lille, France). Table 1 recapitulates the drugs used in these experiments.

Drugs	concentration ( $\mu\text{M}$ )	Description
oxotremorine	1	Non-specific muscarinic receptor agonist.
atropine	2	Non-specific muscarinic receptor antagonist.
tropicamide	1	Muscarinic $M_4$ receptor antagonist.
VU0255035	0.5	Muscarinic $M_1$ receptor antagonist.
acetylcholine	0.1	Natural agonist of muscarinic receptors.
neostigmine, donepezil, tacrine		Acetylcholinesterase inhibitors.
VU0152100, VU0010010		Positive allosteric modulator (PAM) of $M_4$ receptor.
SKF-81297	0.1	$D_1$ -like receptor agonist.
quinpirole	1	$D_2$ -like receptor agonist.
forskolin	12,5	Adenylyl cyclase activator.
IBMX	200	Non-specific phosphodiesterase inhibitor.

Table 1: Drugs used in these experiments. The concentration indicated in the table is the commonly used concentration, unless stated otherwise.



## RESULTS

### **Muscarinic receptor activation selectively inhibits cAMP signaling in D1 MSNs**

MSNs express high levels of muscarinic receptors (Hersch *et al.*, 1994; Yan *et al.*, 2001) and we first determined how muscarinic receptor activation affected the cAMP signaling pathway in the D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> MSN sub-populations. Our previous work showed that the functional responses to D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> agonists are strictly segregated on these D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> neuronal subtypes (Yapo *et al.*, 2017). Here, we used a similar protocol where striatal brain slices expressing the cAMP biosensor Epac-S<sup>H150</sup> were imaged with a two-photon microscope. Bath application of the D<sub>1</sub> receptor agonist SKF-81297 (SKF, 0.1 μM) increased Epac-S<sup>H150</sup> ratio selectively in a sub-population of MSNs, thus identified as the D<sub>1</sub> MSNs (Figure 1). A low dose of the adenylyl cyclase activator forskolin (fsk, 0.5 μM) was then applied to induce a steady-state increase in cAMP level in all MSNs. Application of the generic muscarinic agonist, oxotremorine (1 μM), robustly reduced cAMP level selectively in this D<sub>1</sub> MSN sub-population, while no effect was observed in the other sub-population. Application of the D<sub>2</sub> agonist quinpirole (1 μM) decreased cAMP in the other MSNs, confirming that this other subpopulation was the D<sub>2</sub> MSNs.

Out of 4 repetitions of this protocol, all the D<sub>1</sub> MSNs (53 neurons) showed a negative cAMP response to oxotremorine stimulation whereas none of the D<sub>2</sub> MSNs (36 neurons) showed any response to the activation of muscarinic receptors. This result shows that, in the dorsal striatum, activation of muscarinic receptors decreases cAMP selectively in the D<sub>1</sub> subpopulation of MSNs.

### **Muscarinic inhibition of cAMP in D1 MSNs is mediated by M<sub>4</sub> receptors**

MSNs express both M<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>4</sub> type muscarinic receptors (Bernard *et al.*, 1992; Hersch *et al.*, 1994; Sánchez-Lemus & Arias-Montaño, 2006) and both receptors could act on cAMP signaling, either directly, *via* G<sub>iv</sub>, or indirectly, *via* intracellular calcium. Therefore, we used pharmacology to assess the contribution of each receptor subtype in the effect of oxotremorine on cAMP. These experiments and the following were performed with wide-field imaging. The cAMP level was first increased by the application of a low concentration of forskolin (low fsk, 250 nM). On this steady-state cAMP level, addition of oxotremorine (500 nM) produced a large and sustained decrease in cAMP in the D<sub>1</sub> MSNs. At the end of the experiment, application of quinpirole (1 μM) followed by SKF-81297 (0.1 μM) was used to identify D<sub>1</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> MSNs and ascertain the lack of cross contamination between neighboring out-of-focus neurons of different type (Figure 2A). D<sub>2</sub> MSNs were not further analyzed. The same protocol was performed in the presence of either the M<sub>4</sub>-selective antagonist tropicamide (1 μM, Figure 2B) or the M<sub>1</sub>-selective antagonist, VU0255035 (500 nM, Figure 2C). Oxotremorine-induced cAMP inhibition was completely abolished in the presence of tropicamide (oxotremorine: 91 ± 8 % reduction, n=25, N=5 *vs* oxotremorine + tropicamide: 2 ± 3 %, n=20, N=5; p-value < 0.0001 from unpaired t test) whereas VU0255035 had no significant effect on the oxotremorine-induced cAMP inhibition (oxotremorine: 91 ± 8 % reduction, n=25, N=5 *vs* oxotremorine + VU0255035: 85 ± 9 %, n=29, N=5; p-value = 0.29 from unpaired t test). Each condition was tested in 5 independent experiments (Figure 2D). Thus, the oxotremorine-induced inhibition of forskolin-induced

steady state cAMP observed here is consistent with the involvement of mainly  $M_4$  receptors.

We then quantified the efficacy of the muscarinic receptor in reducing the steady state cAMP level elicited by forskolin. The previous protocol was repeated with different doses of oxotremorine, testing a single dose per brain slice. Each dose was tested in 5 independent experiments, with at least 25 cells per condition. The effect of oxotremorine was reversed by the application of the non-selective muscarinic antagonist, atropine (2  $\mu$ M), thus confirming on every experiment that the measured response was mediated by muscarinic receptors. This dose-response analysis provided an  $EC_{50}$  of  $53 \pm 18$  nM and a maximal reduction of 87 % (Figure 2E). These experiments show that muscarinic receptors exert a powerful inhibition on cAMP production in D1 MSNs.

### **$M_4$ receptor has strong functional coupling to $D_1$ -dependent cAMP signaling**

$M_4$  has been reported to inhibit  $D_1$ -dependent cAMP signaling on striatal membranes (Olianas *et al.*, 1996). However,  $G_{\text{off}}$  that mediates  $D_1$ -receptor signaling is pre-coupled with AC5 within a signaling complex (Xie *et al.*, 2015), and this could affect the efficacy of the  $M_4$ -dependent inhibition of adenylyl cyclases mediated by  $G_i$ . Thus, we measured whether  $M_4$  exerted the same inhibitory effect on the cAMP production induced by  $D_1$  receptors.

cAMP level was first increased by applying a low dose of SKF-81297 (50 nM). This dose was chosen to produce a near-maximal  $D_1$ -dependent cAMP response without  $D_1$  desensitization. Oxotremorine was then added at the tested dose on this steady-state cAMP level (Figure 3A). A single dose was tested per brain slice, and each dose was tested at least 4 times, with 15-30 cells per dose. At a dose of 1  $\mu$ M and above, oxotremorine completely reversed the SKF-81297-induced increase in cAMP, returning the biosensor signal to baseline level. This indicates that the inhibitory effect mediated by muscarinic receptors fully overpowers  $D_1$ -dependent cAMP production. Oxotremorine reduced  $D_1$ -dependent steady state cAMP with an  $EC_{50}$  of  $53 \pm 14$  nM (Figure 3B), similar to what was obtained when cAMP was increased with forskolin.

$D_1$  receptors are activated by transient dopamine inputs resulting in transient cAMP signaling (Yagishita *et al.*, 2014; Yapo *et al.*, 2017). It has been hypothesized by computational modeling that background muscarinic receptor activity could blunt this transient cAMP signaling (Nair *et al.*, 2015). Thus, we tested the effect of muscarinic receptor activation on dopamine-dependent transient cAMP signaling. Transient dopamine elevation was achieved using uncaging of caged-dopamine compound (NPEC-DA) with UV illumination. This results in the instantaneous and full photo-release of dopamine in the imaging volume, followed by an exponential decay dictated by diffusion of dopamine out of the slice (Yapo *et al.*, 2017). In the presence of oxotremorine (1  $\mu$ M), a first dopamine uncaging (NPEC-DA, 3  $\mu$ M) was performed, triggering a moderate cAMP response. After this first response recovered to baseline, atropine (2  $\mu$ M) was applied to suppress the muscarinic inhibition, and a second dopamine uncaging was performed, producing a larger cAMP response (Figure 3C). The recording was then continued with the application of the  $A_{2A}$  agonist CGS-21680 (1  $\mu$ M) and the  $D_1$  agonist SKF-81297 (100 nM), to differentiate D1 and D2 MSN sub-types, and with forskolin and IBMX, as described previously (Yapo *et al.*, 2017).

The amplitude of the cAMP response to dopamine uncaging was lower in the presence

of oxotremorine than the control response obtained when muscarinic receptors were blocked, while this second response was similar to the one obtained without blockers (Yapo *et al.*, 2017). We then analyzed the dose-dependency of the oxotremorine effect. The same experiment was repeated with different test doses: a single dose was tested per brain slice; each dose was tested 5 times, with 20-34 cells per condition. Muscarinic receptor stimulation reduced the response amplitude down to  $40 \pm 7\%$  of the control response (Figure 3D), showing that muscarinic receptors can blunt the cAMP response produced by transient dopamine. The  $EC_{50}$  of this effect was  $65 \pm 32$  nM, similar to oxotremorine efficacy on the steady state cAMP level measured above. However, while the effect of oxotremorine was total on the steady-state  $D_1$  response, the response to transient dopamine obtained after uncaging was not completely abolished, even at high concentrations of oxotremorine (Figure 3D).

Together, our measurements show that muscarinic receptors exert a powerful inhibition on  $D_1$ -receptor induced cAMP production in  $D_1$  MSNs. This experimental observation supports the hypothesis that acetylcholine level should drop simultaneously with dopamine release to allow for a positive cAMP response in  $D_1$  MSNs (Nair *et al.*, 2015).

#### **High efficacy of acetylcholine for cAMP inhibition**

$M_4$  receptor has a similar affinity for oxotremorine and acetylcholine (Jakubík *et al.*, 1997) and we wanted to confirm whether a low concentration of acetylcholine could also control cAMP responses. The striatum contains high acetylcholinesterase activity (Hoover *et al.*, 1978; Taylor & Radić, 1994) and to prevent acetylcholine degradation while diffusing throughout the brain slice, the reversible acetylcholinesterase inhibitor neostigmine (1  $\mu$ M) was applied simultaneously. The steady-state experimental protocol with forskolin described in previous sections was used except that acetylcholine was used instead of oxotremorine: a steady state cAMP level was obtained with low forskolin (250 nM), and acetylcholine (100 nM) and neostigmine (1  $\mu$ M) were applied together, reverting cAMP to baseline level (Figure 4A). The extent of cAMP reduction produced by acetylcholine was similar as that produced by the maximally effective concentrations of oxotremorine (acetylcholine + neostigmine:  $95 \pm 5\%$  reduction vs 10  $\mu$ M oxotremorine:  $84 \pm 13\%$  reduction; p-value > 0.1 from unpaired t test).

The effect of acetylcholine on transient cAMP signals elicited by dopamine uncaging was also tested, using the same protocol as the one used in Figure 3C: a first dopamine uncaging was performed in the presence of acetylcholine (100 nM) and neostigmine (1  $\mu$ M), and the second in presence of atropine (2  $\mu$ M) (Figure 4B). The amplitude of the cAMP peak produced by dopamine uncaging in the presence of acetylcholine and neostigmine was  $38 \pm 6\%$  of that obtained in the presence of atropine (Figure 4B). Again, the effect of 100 nM acetylcholine was the same as the effect of muscarinic receptor stimulation with the maximally effective concentration of oxotremorine (amplitude of uncaging response: acetylcholine + neostigmine:  $38 \pm 6\%$  vs 10  $\mu$ M oxotremorine:  $37 \pm 9\%$ ; p-value > 0.8 from unpaired t test).

#### **Acetylcholine and $M_4$ modulators reverse hyperlocomotion in DAT-KO mice**

We then wanted to test whether the high efficacy of acetylcholine could counteract

aberrant dopamine action *in vivo*. For this, we used DAT knockout mice, a well established model where chronic hyperdopaminergia induces spontaneous hyperlocomotion (Giros *et al.*, 1996). We first assessed the effects of two procholinergic compounds used in everyday clinical practice to increase the levels of acetylcholine in the brain, the acetylcholinesterase inhibitors donepezil and tacrine. Administration of these drugs to DAT knockout mice strongly reduced their locomotor activity (Figure 5A, B; one-way ANOVA: for donepezil  $F(3,27)=13.6$ ;  $p<0.0001$ ; for tacrine  $F(3,17)=19.02$ ;  $p<0.0001$ ; Duncan's post-hoc test). Even though basal locomotor activity was much lower in the wild-type than in the DAT-KO, both compounds also reduced locomotor activity in WT mice, when administered at the highest dose (Figure 5C,D one-way ANOVA (for donepezil  $F(3,35)=3.05$ ;  $p=0.04$ ; for tacrine  $F(3,13)=3.77$ ;  $p=0.03$ ) and Duncan's post-hoc). Subsequently, we targeted the  $M_4$  receptor using selective  $M_4$  positive allosteric modulators (Conn *et al.*, 2009). The intraperitoneal injection of a brain-penetrant  $M_4$  modulator VU0152100 (Brady *et al.*, 2008) in DAT knockout mice mimicked the effects of acetylcholinesterase inhibitors, reducing locomotor activity (Figure 5E; one-way ANOVA  $F(2,12)=6.41$ ;  $p=0.0127$ ; Duncan's post-hoc). Furthermore, intrastriatal injection of a non-permeant analogue, VU0010010 (Shirey *et al.*, 2008), also efficiently reduced locomotor activity in the DAT knockout (Figure 5F; one way-ANOVA  $F(2,12)=10.75$ ;  $p=0.00211$ ; Duncan's post-hoc). Altogether, these experiments show that enhancing the cholinergic tone reduces the functional effects of striatal hyperdopaminergia through  $M_4$  receptors, consistent with a strong inhibitory effect of  $M_4$  on dopamine signaling *in vivo*.

## DISCUSSION

A number of observations highlighted the role played by  $M_4$  muscarinic receptors in the regulation of basal ganglia function, and in MSNs in particular, such as the regulation of calcium currents or synaptic plasticity (Howe & Surmeier, 1995; Shen *et al.*, 2015). Paired recording or optogenetic stimulation showed that  $M_4$  receptors can mediate high-fidelity synaptic transmission, which efficiently controls the release of GABA by D1 MSNs (Mamaligas & Ford, 2016). *In silico* modeling suggested that a pause in cholinergic activity is required to open the gate for the  $D_1$  signal, provided that the  $M_4$  receptor has enough sensitivity to the low level of acetylcholine, and that  $G_{i/o}$ -mediated inhibition of adenylyl cyclase would be powerful enough to overcome the action of  $D_1$ -stimulated  $G_{off}$  (Nair *et al.*, 2015). Although  $M_4$ -mediated synaptic current had been described in great details, with synaptically-released acetylcholine being sufficient to activate a postsynaptic response (Mamaligas & Ford, 2016), the  $EC_{50}$  and maximal efficacy of acetylcholine remained uncertain at the level of its physiological effector, the cAMP/PKA signaling pathway. Biosensor imaging provides a direct monitoring of changes in cAMP concentration and we used this approach to quantify the effect of  $M_4$  receptor activation in its native cellular environment. We report here that muscarinic receptors functionally present specifically on D1 MSNs exert a powerful negative control on the production of cAMP induced by  $D_1$  receptors, with an  $EC_{50}$  of acetylcholine below 100 nM. *In vivo*, a powerful negative control exerted by  $M_4$ -selective PAMs on dopamine action reverses the hyperdopaminergic motor phenotype of DAT knock-out mice, and we suggest that this effect involves the powerful negative control exerted by muscarinic stimulation on cAMP in D1 MSNS.

Out of the five muscarinic receptors,  $M_4$  is the predominant form expressed selectively in D1 MSNs, while  $M_1$  receptor is expressed in most striatal neurons (Bernard *et al.*, 1992; Hersch *et al.*, 1994; Ince *et al.*, 1997). The other receptors, although present at low level at the mRNA level in MSNs (Yan *et al.*, 2001) seem to lead to little protein expression (Eglen, 2012).  $M_2$ , the other muscarinic receptor negatively coupled to cAMP production, is expressed in cholinergic interneurons (Hersch *et al.*, 1994; Zhao *et al.*, 2016). In the striatum, the negative coupling of  $M_4$  to cAMP has already been reported by biochemical measurements on striatal brain slices, whereas  $M_1$  receptors, coupled by  $G_{q/11}$ , were shown to trigger a modest increase in cAMP (Sánchez-Lemus & Arias-Montaña, 2006; Sánchez *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, muscarinic stimulation reduced  $D_1$ -induced cAMP production, an effect that was shown to selectively require  $M_4$  receptors in D1 MSNS (Jeon *et al.*, 2010). Out of  $M_1$  and  $M_4$  receptors present in D1 MSNs, several observations in our experiments indicate that it is indeed the  $M_4$  receptor which is the mediator of the negative control of cAMP signaling described here. First, muscarinic stimulation decreased cAMP, which is consistent with the already reported negative coupling of  $M_4$ . In addition, tropicamide completely blocked this effect, while VU0255035 did not. While the selectivity of tropicamide is moderate (Lazareno & Birdsall, 1993), VU0255035 has a 80 fold selectivity for  $M_1$  compared to  $M_4$  (Sheffler *et al.*, 2009). The efficacy of tropicamide and lack of effect of VU0255035 again strongly suggests that  $M_4$  is responsible for the muscarinic effect described here. Moreover, if oxotremorine had an effect through  $M_1$  receptors and since  $M_1$  receptors are expressed by both D1 and D2 MSNs, we should have seen an effect of oxotremorine on the cAMP level in D2 MSNs, which was not the case (Figure 2).

Oxotremorine and acetylcholine bind to the M<sub>4</sub> receptor with an affinity of 6 and 30  $\mu$ M, respectively (Jakubík *et al.*, 1997), while inhibition of adenylyl cyclase activity by acetylcholine in striatal membranes yielded numbers in the micromolar range (Olianas *et al.*, 1996; Olianas & Onali, 1999). In living striatal neurons, application of oxotremorine-M activated overexpressed GIRK2 channels with an EC<sub>50</sub> of 200 to 400 nM (Mamaligas & Ford, 2016). In contrast, we found an EC<sub>50</sub> of oxotremorine around 60 nM on cAMP signaling, the predominant intracellular signal triggered by dopamine. The EC<sub>50</sub> of acetylcholine is even lower than this value since 100 nM acetylcholine produced a complete suppression of forskolin-induced cAMP production (Figure 4A), an effect that required at least 500 nM oxotremorine (Figure 2E). A precise measurement of acetylcholine EC<sub>50</sub> would suppose to demonstrate a complete block of acetylcholinesterase activities, which could not be ascertained in our striatal brain slice preparation.

Our previous work with biosensor imaging in striatal brain slices also revealed EC<sub>50</sub> values that differed from previously published values, in particular in the case of the D<sub>2</sub> receptor (Yapo *et al.*, 2017). Indeed, M<sub>4</sub> and D<sub>2</sub> receptors in MSNs have the same coupling mechanism and may be similarly affected by pre-coupling to the G<sub>i/o</sub> protein (Bünemann *et al.*, 2003). A number of other parameters such as expression level in heterologous systems can affect such measurements and have been thoroughly reviewed (Hulme & Trevethick, 2010). This emphasizes the importance of performing such measurements with receptors in their native environment.

Such *in situ* measurement thus shows that a concentration of few tens of nanomolar of acetylcholine could be sufficient to activate M<sub>4</sub> receptors. Our previous computational modeling study highlighted the consequences of M<sub>4</sub> receptor activation, which could lead to the suppression of the striatal response to phasic dopamine through D<sub>1</sub>-dependent cAMP signaling. Acetylcholine level would determine whether the dopamine signal is passed on through the cAMP/PKA signaling pathway. The transduction of a dopamine signal into an increase in cAMP in D1 MSNs would thus require a pause in cholinergic activity, to lower the tonic level of acetylcholine and allow for dopamine to elicit a positive cAMP response (Nair *et al.*, 2015).

However, the actual shape of striatal acetylcholine signal sensed by M<sub>4</sub> receptors in D1 MSNs is not clear, in particular whether acetylcholine exerts its action by a tonic “basal” level, or through precisely timed synaptic release. Indeed, experimental measurement of physiological acetylcholine levels is technically challenging. Microdialysis measurements *in vivo* indicate a nanomolar range (Rada *et al.*, 2010; Farrar *et al.*, 2011), possibly representing the spatially and temporally averaged acetylcholine in the striatum. However, such measurement can significantly underestimate the actual level, as highlighted by electrochemical measurements (Mattinson *et al.*, 2011). Electrophysiological measurements in brain slice preparations using GIRK2 channels in D1 MSNs provide an optimal temporal resolution and have shown that tonic firing of cholinergic neurons produce discrete metabotropic synaptic currents with no sustained response between these synaptic events (Mamaligas & Ford, 2016). However, acetylcholine release is likely to be higher *in vivo* than in slices that lack excitatory drive and suffer disruption of the broad axonal arborization. In addition, the readout with GIRK channels may not reflect what happens at the level of cAMP since oxotremorine-M EC<sub>50</sub> measured with GIRK currents was ~5 fold higher (200-400 nM) than our readout at the level of cAMP. This leaves open the possibility that low tonic levels of

acetylcholine between synaptic events might affect cAMP through  $G_{\alpha i}$  while no effect can be seen on  $G_{\beta\gamma}$ -coupled potassium currents. Indeed, different levels of neurotransmitter selectively recruit different branches of downstream signaling cascades depending on the coupling mechanism, an effect that was already observed with the  $D_2$  receptors in the D2 MSNs, analogous to  $M_4$  in D1 MSNs (Nair *et al.*, 2015; Yapo *et al.*, 2017). Acetylcholine levels will also fluctuate *in vivo* depending on the behavioral context (Benhamou *et al.*, 2014). Pauses in the activity of cholinergic neurons occur in response to reward or salient stimulus during reinforcement learning, though their physiological relevance have not been fully understood (Morris *et al.*, 2004; Aosaki *et al.*, 2010; Schulz *et al.*, 2011). Thus, the coincidence detection between a cholinergic pause and reward-related dopamine transient could be viewed as the integration of stimulus saliency and reward information, a possible way to ensure that dopamine-dependent learning mechanisms could be recruited only in the presence of high-saliency environmental cues.

This powerful negative control of  $M_4$  receptor on the  $D_1$ -mediated cAMP response gives a mechanistic substrate for a number of pathophysiological observations concerning the dopamine / acetylcholine balance in the striatum. A number of reports showed the importance of muscarinic receptors in neuropsychiatric disorders such as Parkinson's disease, schizophrenia and drug addiction, as previously reviewed (Dencker *et al.*, 2012a). Indeed, in a clinical setting,  $M_4$ -mediated inhibition might be beneficial to oppose excessive dopamine signaling such as that produced by levodopa treatment:  $M_4$ -selective PAMs attenuated L-DOPA induced dyskinetic behaviors (Shen *et al.*, 2015). Accordingly, lack of  $M_4$  receptor in the knockout is associated with highly increased locomotor activity, a measure of striatal hyperdopaminergia (Gomeza *et al.*, 1999) and hypersensitivity to dopamine agonists (Tzavara *et al.*, 2004). Along this line,  $M_4$ -selective PAMs were also shown to reverse some features of increased dopamine in animal models of acute psychotomimetic administration, suggesting a possible antipsychotic efficacy (Brady *et al.*, 2008; Byun *et al.*, 2014; Chan *et al.*, 2008), while selective knockout of  $M_4$  receptors in D1 MSNs was sufficient to suppress the antipsychotic-like effect of the  $M_1/M_4$  agonist xanomeline (Dencker *et al.*, 2011), again highlighting the critical importance of the balance between  $D_1$  and  $M_4$  receptors. Co-administration of the  $M_4$ -selective PAMs VU0152100 reduced the behavioral effects of cocaine, an effect that again involved D1 MSNs since it was lost in D1-selective  $M_4$  knockout (Dencker *et al.*, 2012b). This suggests a therapeutic value for PAMs in another pathological condition, the response to addictive drugs which involves a widespread release of dopamine and activation of the cAMP pathway in D1 MSNs.

All the above models involve acute administration of dopaminergic/psychotomimetic compounds. Here, we explored the ability of increased acetylcholine neurotransmission *via*  $M_4$  receptors to counteract the effects of chronic hyperdopaminergia. In DAT KO mice, a five-fold increase in extracellular dopamine in the brain is associated with hyperactivity. In contrast to antipsychotics, this hyperactivity, paradoxically, is inhibited by psychostimulants like amphetamine and methylphenidate (Gainetdinov & Caron, 2003) and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) compounds such as reboxetine (Barth *et al.*, 2013), thereby providing a simple model in which the effects of ADHD pharmacological agents can be assessed. In this context, we further show that increasing acetylcholine with acetylcholinesterase inhibitors donepezil and tacrine reverses the hyperlocomotion that is characteristic of this mouse line. This effect involves  $M_4$  receptors as it is reproduced by

systemic administration of the M<sub>4</sub> PAM VU0152100. In addition, targeting M<sub>4</sub> receptors locally in the striatum is sufficient to reduce hyperlocomotion, thus linking high affinity M<sub>4</sub>-dependent regulation of dopamine signaling at the MSN cellular level with a therapeutically relevant behavioral readout.

The present findings show that the M<sub>4</sub> receptor exerts a powerful negative control on the integration of dopamine signals in D1 MSNs. Enhancing M<sub>4</sub>-mediated downregulation of dopamine responsiveness in the striatum may constitute a novel therapeutic strategy in the hyperdopaminergia associated with dysregulated locomotor activity relevant to different disorders, for instance in L-Dopa induced dyskinesia or in ADHD.

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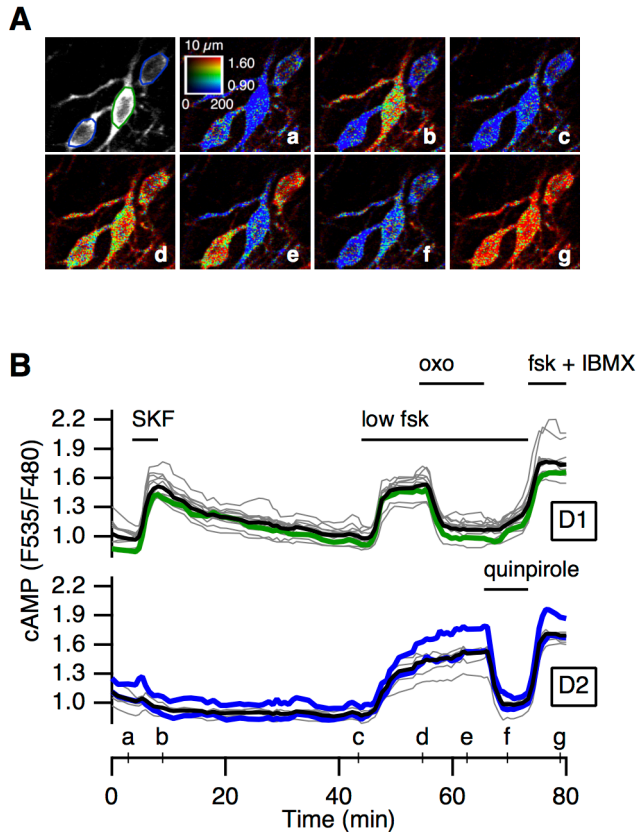
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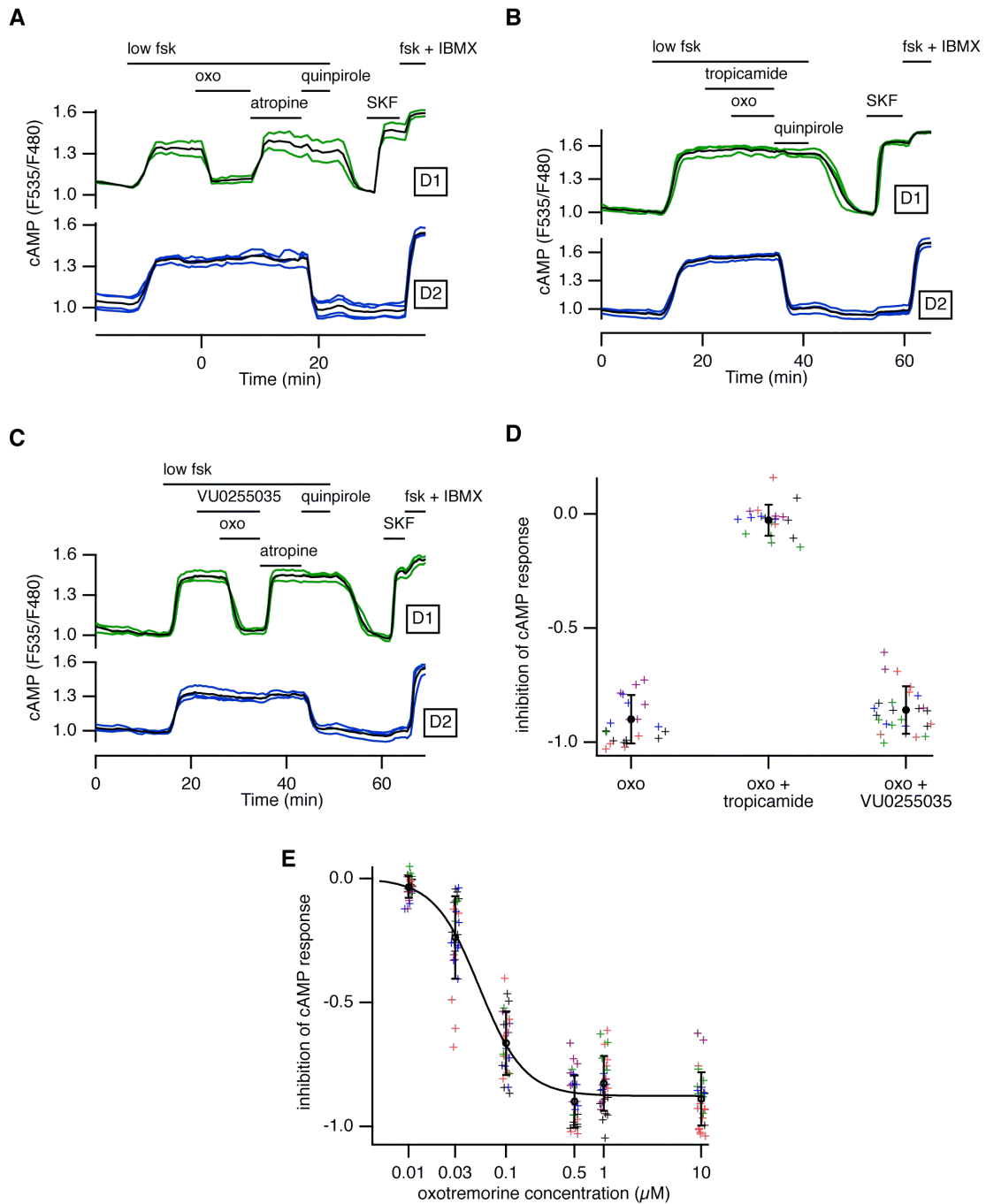
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**Figure 1: A negative cAMP response mediated by muscarinic receptors is present selectively in D1 neurons.**

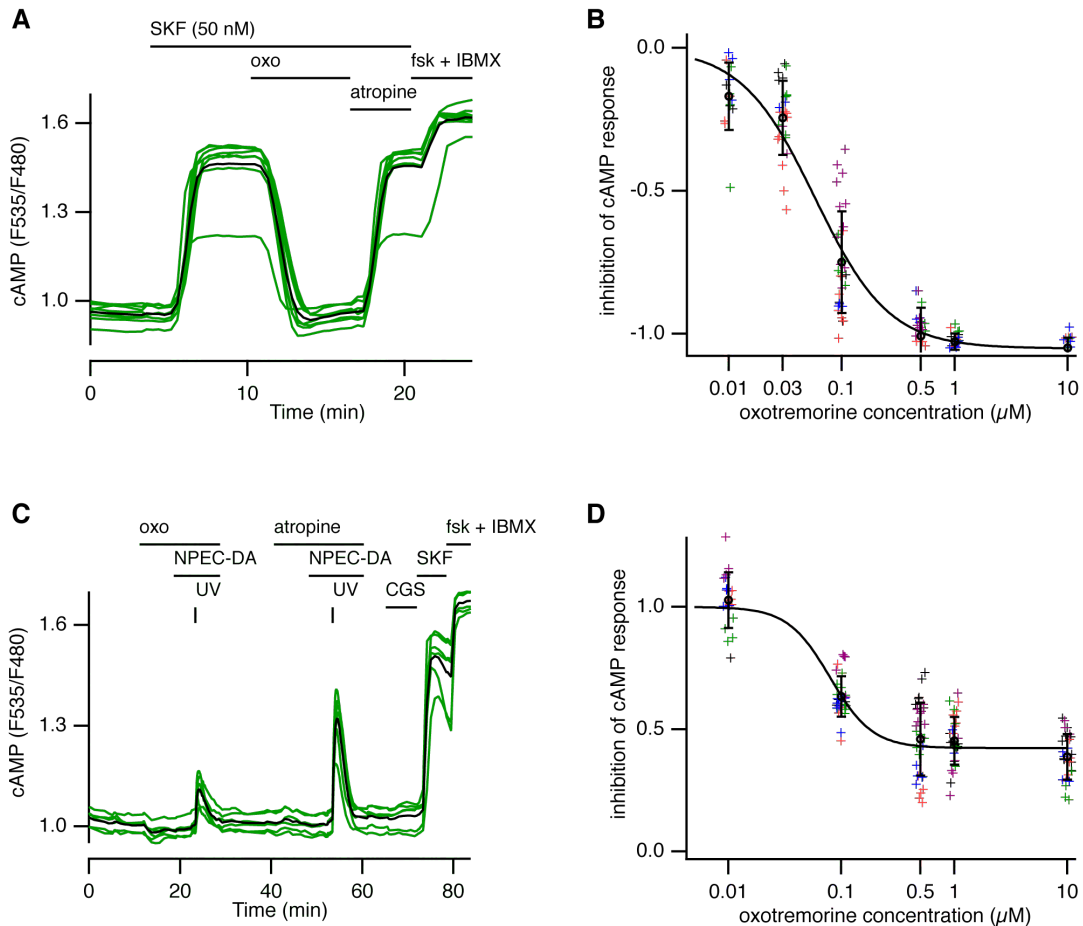
(A) A part of the image stack showing one D1 and two D2 MSNs (out of 21 neurons) in a brain slice expressing the cAMP biosensor Epac-S<sup>H150</sup>, imaged with two-photon microscopy: raw fluorescence of the donor is displayed in grey and donor/acceptor fluorescence ratio is displayed in pseudo-colour. Images (a-g) show the ratio corresponding to the time points indicated on the graph below. (B) Each trace indicates the emission ratio measured on the cell body of individual neurons. Traces are grouped on the basis of their similar response pattern. Thick colored traces correspond to the 3 cells illustrated in (A). Black traces represent the average response. Bath application of SKF-81297 (SKF, 100 nM) revealed MSNs which express D1-like receptors. A low dose of forskolin (low fsk, 0.5 μM) increased cAMP in all MSNs. Addition of the muscarinic agonist oxotremorine (1 μM) decreased cAMP in the neurons which also responded to the D<sub>1</sub> agonist. The neurons that did not respond to oxotremorine responded to the D<sub>2</sub> agonist quinirole (1 μM) and therefore were D<sub>2</sub> MSNs. The final application of forskolin (to activate adenylyl cyclases, fsk, 13 μM) and IBMX (to inhibit phosphodiesterases, 200 μM) showed the maximal ratio response for each neuron. The calibration square indicates from left to right increasing intensity levels, from bottom to top increasing ratio values, i.e. increasing intracellular cAMP concentration. The size of the square is 10 μm.



**FIGURE 2: M4 MUSCARINIC RECEPTORS DOSE-DEPENDENTLY DECREASES cAMP PRODUCTION IN D1 MSNs.**

Striatal brain slice expressing the cAMP biosensor Epac-S<sup>H150</sup> were imaged with wide-field microscopy. For all experiments, a low concentration of forskolin (low fsk, 250 nM) was applied to increase cAMP production. D1 MSNs (green traces) were revealed by their positive cAMP response to 100 nM SKF-81297 (SKF). D2 MSNs (blue traces) were revealed by their negative cAMP response to 1  $\mu\text{M}$  quinpirole. (A) Oxotremorine (oxo, 0.5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) decreased cAMP, an effect which was blocked by 2  $\mu\text{M}$  of the non-selective muscarinic antagonist atropine. (B) Oxotremorine had no effect in the presence of the M4 antagonist

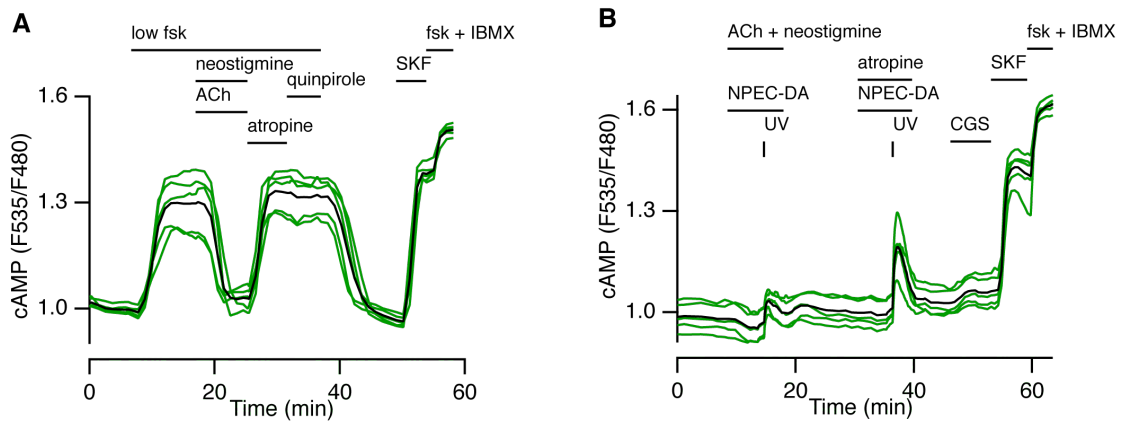
tropicamide (1  $\mu\text{M}$ ). (C) The M1-selective antagonist VU0255035 (0.5  $\mu\text{M}$ ) did not prevent the negative response to oxo. (D) Summary of the oxo effect, and in the presence of tropicamide or VU0255035. (E) The protocol illustrated in (A) was repeated with different oxo concentrations. The average was fitted to a Hill equation with an  $\text{EC}_{50}$  of  $53 \text{ nM} \pm 18 \text{ nM}$ , a maximal reduction of  $88 \% \pm 7 \%$  and a Hill coefficient of 1.9. (D-E) The same experiment was repeated 5 times for each condition. Each symbol (+) represents the measurement performed on a single D1 MSN, displayed in a same color for a same experiment.



**FIGURE 3: ACTIVATION OF MUSCARINIC RECEPTORS WITH OXOTREMORINE INHIBITS D1-INDUCED cAMP PRODUCTION.**

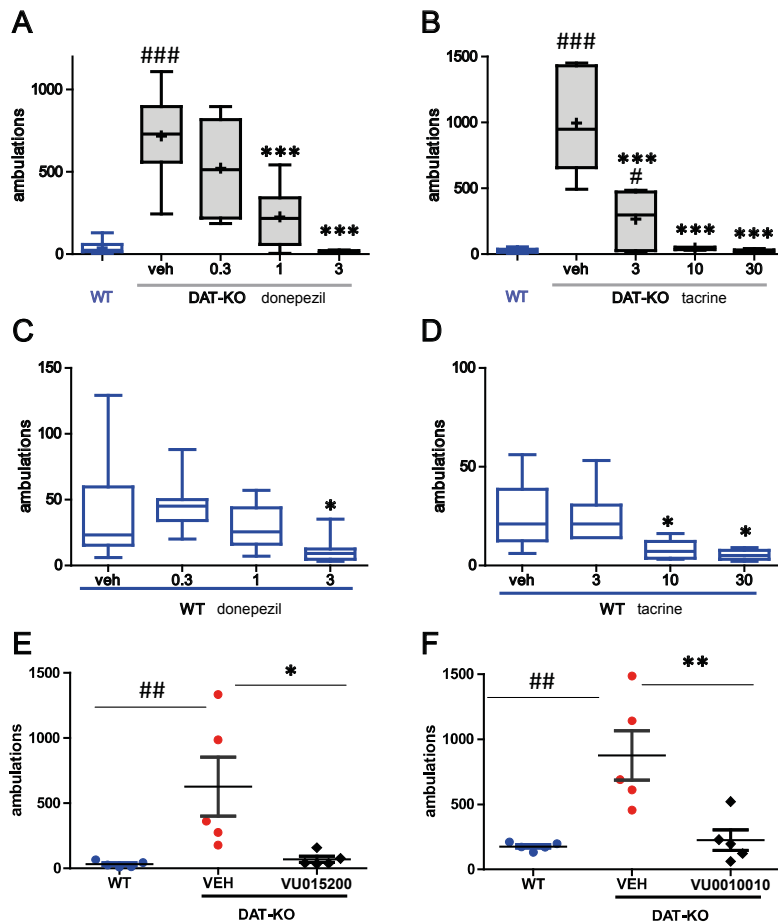
Striatal brain slice expressing the cAMP biosensor Epac-S<sup>H150</sup> were imaged with wide-field microscopy. (A) A low concentration of SKF (50 nM) increased cAMP in D1 MSNs. Application of 1 μM oxotremorine (oxo) decreased cAMP, and this effect was reversed with atropine (2 μM). (B) The same protocol was repeated with different oxotremorine concentrations. The average was fitted to a Hill equation with an EC<sub>50</sub> of 58 nM ± 20 nM, a maximal reduction of 105 % ± 3 % and a Hill coefficient of 1.3. (C) 1 μM oxotremorine (oxo) reduced the response to dopamine. 3 μM of caged dopamine (NPEC-DA) was applied in the bath and the dopamine was released by a flash of UV light. A second uncaging protocol was performed in the presence of 2 μM atropine. Lack of response to CGS and positive response to SKF confirmed the D1 identity of the recorded neurons. (D) The same protocol was repeated with different doses of oxo, measuring the ratio of the second peak divided by the first peak. The average was fitted to a Hill equation with an EC<sub>50</sub> of 79.4 nM ± 67 nM, a maximal reduction of 42 % ± 7 % and a Hill coefficient of 2.3. (B,D) The same experiment was repeated 5 times for each condition. Each symbol (+) represents the measurement performed on a single D1 MSN, displayed in a same color for a same experiment.





**FIGURE 4: ACETYLCHOLINE SUPPRESSES THE RESPONSE TO DOPAMINE.**

Striatal brain slices were imaged with wide-field microscopy expressing the cAMP biosensor Epac-S<sup>H150</sup> (A, B) or the AKAR3 biosensor which reports the PKA/phosphatase equilibrium (C). (A) A low concentration of forskolin (low fsk, 250 nM) was applied to increase cAMP production. In the presence of the acetylcholinesterase inhibitor neostigmine (1  $\mu$ M), application of acetylcholine (ACh, 100 nM) decreased cAMP, an effect that was reversed by atropine (2  $\mu$ M). Quinpirole (1  $\mu$ M) had no effect whereas SKF-81297 (SKF, 100 nM) increased cAMP, confirming the D1 identity of the recorded neurons. (B) 1  $\mu$ M caged dopamine (NPEC-DA) was applied in the bath together with acetylcholine and neostigmine. Uncaging dopamine with a flash of UV light produced little cAMP response. A second uncaging in the presence of atropine produced a cAMP response that was larger than the first one. Lack of response to CGS and positive response to SKF confirmed the D1 identity of the recorded neurons.



**FIGURE 5: ACETYLCHOLINE DECREASES SPONTANEOUS HYPERLOCOMOTION IN DAT-KO MICE VIA STRIATAL M4 RECEPTORS.**

The acetylcholinesterase inhibitors donepezil (A,C) and tacrine (B,D) dose-dependently reduce spontaneous hyperlocomotion in DAT-KO mice (A,B) and at higher doses in WT counterparts (C,D) (indicated doses are in mg/kg i.p.). This effect was mimicked by an M4-receptor positive allosteric modulator administered either i.p. (E; VU0152100; 1 mg/kg) or locally in the striatum (F; VU0010010; 1  $\mu$ L/10  $\mu$ M bilateral infusion). # $p$ <0.05; ### $p$ <0.01; #### $p$ <0.001 vs WT treated with same dose; \* $p$ <0.05; \*\* $p$ <0.01; \*\*\* $p$ <0.001 vs same genotype treated with vehicle. Data in all panels were analyzed with one-way ANOVA and Duncan's post hoc.