

Chapter 6

Basal Ganglia Control of Substantia Nigra Dopaminergic Neurons

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Abstract Although substantia nigra dopaminergic neurons are spontaneously active both in vivo and in vitro, this activity does not depend on afferent input as these neurons express an endogenous calcium-dependent oscillatory mechanism sufficient to drive action potential generation. However, afferents to these neurons, a large proportion of them GABAergic and arising from other nuclei in the basal ganglia, play a crucial role in modulating the activity of dopaminergic neurons. In the absence of afferent activity or when in brain slices, dopaminergic neurons fire in a very regular, pacemaker-like mode. Phasic activity in GABAergic, glutamatergic, and cholinergic inputs modulates the pacemaker activity into two other modes. The most common is a random firing pattern in which interspike intervals assume a Poisson-like distribution, and a less common pattern, often in response to a conditioned stimulus or a reward in which the neurons fire bursts of 2–8 spikes time-locked to the stimulus. Typically in vivo, all three firing patterns are observed, intermixed, in single nigrostriatal neurons varying over time. Although the precise mechanism(s) underlying the burst are currently the focus of intensive study, it is obvious that bursting must be triggered by afferent inputs.

Most of the afferents to substantia nigra pars compacta dopaminergic neurons comprise monosynaptic inputs from GABAergic projection neurons in the ipsilateral neostriatum, the globus pallidus, and the substantia nigra pars reticulata. A smaller fraction of the basal ganglia inputs, something less than 30%, are glutamatergic and arise principally from the ipsilateral subthalamic nucleus and pedunculo-pontine nucleus. The pedunculo-pontine nucleus also sends a cholinergic input to nigral dopaminergic neurons. The

GABAergic pars reticulata projection neurons also receive inputs from all of these sources, in some cases relaying them disynaptically to the dopaminergic neurons, thereby playing a particularly significant role in setting and/or modulating the firing pattern of the nigrostriatal neurons.

Keywords Basal ganglia • Dopamine neuron • Electrophysiology • Parkinson's disease • Substantia nigra

Abbreviations

<i>SK</i>	Calcium-activated potassium	35
<i>ChAT</i>	Choline acetyltransferase	36
<i>DA</i>	Dopamine	37
<i>EPSP</i>	Excitatory postsynaptic potential	38
<i>GPe</i>	External part of the globus pallidus	39
<i>GP</i>	Globus pallidus	40
<i>IPSP</i>	Inhibitory postsynaptic potential	41
<i>GPI</i>	Internal part of the globus pallidus	42
<i>M1</i>	Muscarinic receptor 1	43
<i>PD</i>	Parkinson's disease	44
<i>PPN</i>	Pedunculo-pontine nucleus	45
<i>SN</i>	Substantia nigra	46
<i>SNc</i>	Substantia nigra pars compacta	47
<i>SNr</i>	Substantia nigra pars reticulata	48
<i>STN</i>	Subthalamic nucleus	49
<i>VGluT</i>	Vesicular glutamate transporter	50
<i>TRP</i>	Transient receptor potential	51

Introduction

The activity of substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc) dopaminergic neurons is influenced by the interactions between intrinsic membrane conductances and afferent input from other basal ganglia nuclei, as well as inputs from neurons outside the basal ganglia. When spontaneous activity is recorded in vitro where there is little afferent input, almost all nigral dopaminergic neurons exhibit a slow, very regular,

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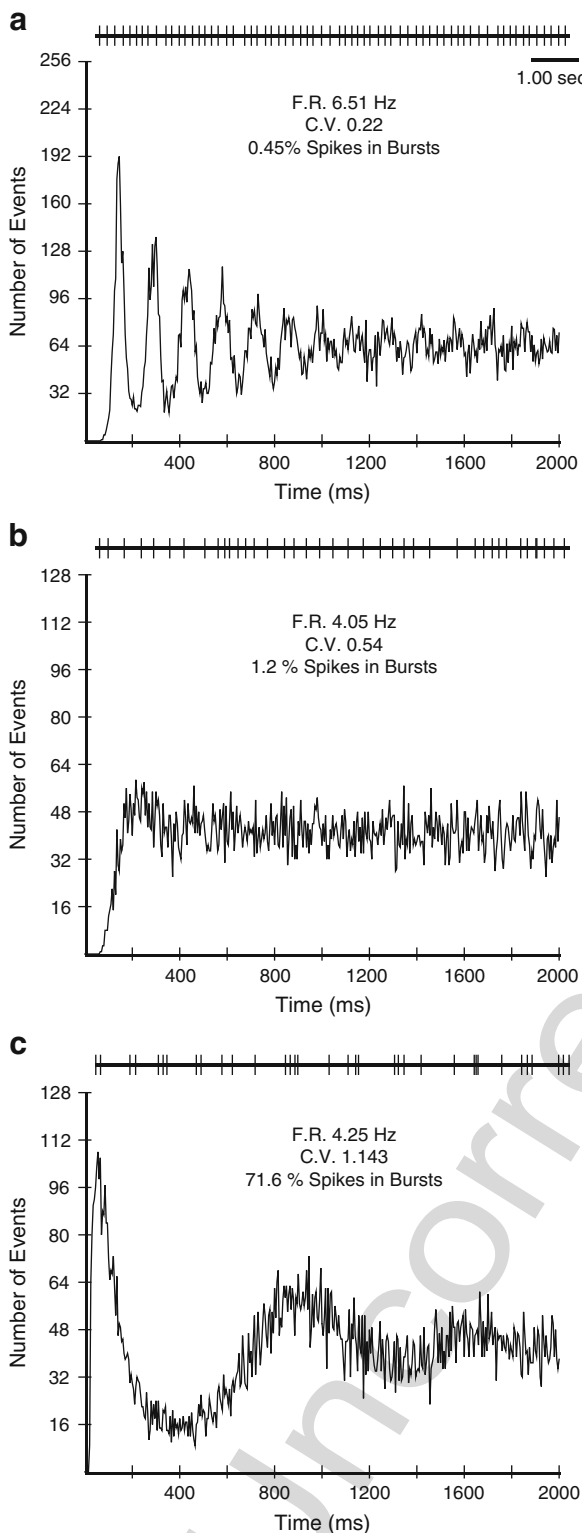


Fig. 1 Nigral dopaminergic neurons exhibit 3 distinct firing patterns or modes in vivo. (a) Pacemaker, (b) Random (c) Bursty. Each pattern gives rise to a characteristic autocorrelogram. Top insets show portions of the raw spike trains used to construct the autocorrelograms. Neurons exhibiting the pacemaker pattern with spikes occurring at fairly regular intervals produce autocorrelograms with three or more regularly occurring peaks (a). Neurons with spikes occurring more randomly produce

pacemaker-like firing pattern (Grace and Onn 1989; Yung et al. 1991; Richards et al. 1997; Paladini et al. 1999b; Gulácsi et al. 2003). However, when dopaminergic neurons are recorded in vivo, it becomes clear that dopaminergic neurons exhibit a variety of different firing patterns (Bunney et al. 1973; Wilson et al. 1977; Grace and Bunney 1984; Freeman et al. 1985; Tepper et al. 1995; Hyland et al. 2002; Fà et al. 2003). The firing patterns of dopaminergic neurons can be seen as existing along a continuum but can be classified into one of three more or less discrete firing patterns, regular or pacemaker, irregular or random, and bursty, based upon the shape of the autocorrelograms as illustrated in Fig. 1 (Tepper et al. 1995). Single neurons may shift among these different patterns and many classes of drugs, in particular agonists or antagonists of the neurotransmitters contained in the principal nigral afferents, GABA, and glutamate, exert potent and stereotyped effects on the firing pattern of dopaminergic neurons (Overton and Clark 1992; Engberg et al. 1993; Tepper et al. 1995; Paladini and Tepper 1999; Prisco et al. 2002; Blythe et al. 2007). The mean firing rates of neurons exhibiting these different firing patterns can be equal, suggesting that the mechanisms responsible for controlling firing pattern are largely independent of those modulating the firing rate in nigral dopaminergic neurons (Wilson et al. 1977; Tepper et al. 1995; Paladini and Tepper 1999; Tepper and Lee 2007).

In addition, the discharge of action potentials by dopaminergic neurons recorded in vivo is only loosely correlated between neurons under most conditions, suggesting that the different firing patterns are modified, but not directly driven by afferent inputs (Hyland et al. 2002).

Functionally, changes in the firing rate and more importantly the firing pattern of dopaminergic neurons are translated into changes in dopamine levels in terminal regions, with the bursty firing pattern being most efficacious in increasing terminal dopamine levels, especially in the nigrostriatal pathway (Gonon and Buda 1985; Gonon 1988; Bean and Roth 1991; Manley et al. 1992; Chergui et al. 1994b; Lee et al. 2004; but see Floresco et al. 2003). Similarly, afferent input can affect the release of dopamine from the somatodendritic region of dopaminergic neurons (Chen and Rice 2002; Cobb and Abercrombie, 2002, 2003a), sometimes independently of striatal dopamine release (Trent and Tepper 1991; Cobb and Abercrombie 2003b), which could

autocorrelograms with an initial trough and a rise to a steady state (b) while neurons with many of their spikes occurring in bursts produce autocorrelograms with an initial peak which declines to steady state or a damped oscillation as in this case indicating rhythmic bursting (c). Note that the firing rates are largely similar between firing patterns while the coefficient of variation, defined as the standard deviation of the interspike interval divided by the mean interspike interval, exhibits a progressive increase from pacemaker to random and bursty neurons. *FR* Firing rate, *CV* Coefficient of variation

112 in turn modulate the strength of GABAergic input through
 113 presynaptic D1 dopamine receptors as well as the firing of
 114 SNc dopaminergic neurons through D2 autoreceptors
 115 (Cameron and Williams 1993; Seutin et al. 1994; Radnikow
 116 and Misgeld 1998; Misgeld et al. 2007). Thus, it is clear
 117 that an understanding of the afferent control of nigral
 118 dopaminergic neurons is an important prerequisite for un-
 119 derstanding the complex interactions that take place both
 120 within the substantia nigra and throughout the basal ganglia
 121 network.

122 **Afferent Inputs to SNc Dopaminergic** 123 **Neurons**

124 The basal ganglia are a collection of subcortical nuclei con-
 125 sisting of the neostriatum, the globus pallidus (GP), the sub-
 126 thalamic nucleus (STN), and the substantia nigra (Gerfen and
 127 Wilson 1996; Tepper et al. 2007), which is itself divided into
 128 the more dorsal pars compacta comprising primarily of dopa-
 129 minergic neurons and the ventral substantia nigra pars reticu-
 130 lata (SNr) consisting primarily of GABAergic projection
 131 neurons (Lee and Tepper 2007b). Recently, some have argued
 132 that the pedunculopontine nucleus (PPN) should also be in-
 133 cluded as a basal ganglia nucleus (Mena-Segovia et al. 2004)
 134 and we include PPN afferents for the purposes of this review.

135 All of the basal ganglia nuclei project to the substantia
 136 nigra where they synapse on both dopaminergic and
 137 GABAergic neurons and most of the basal ganglia projec-
 138 tions to the substantia nigra are GABAergic, with the excep-
 139 tion of the projection from the STN, which is glutamatergic
 140 (Rinvik and Ottersen 1993) and the inputs from the PPN
 141 (Rye et al. 1987), some of which are glutamatergic and some
 142 of which are cholinergic (Futami et al. 1995; Takakusaki
 143 et al. 1996). In addition to the long-range projections from
 144 other basal ganglia nuclei, there is a significant inhibitory
 145 interaction between the GABAergic neurons in the SNr and
 146 the dopaminergic neurons in the SNc. As would be expected,
 147 the majority of the synapses formed on SNc dopaminergic
 148 neurons are GABAergic (Bolam and Smith 1990), although
 149 the majority of the afferents to dopaminergic neurons in the
 150 adjacent ventral tegmental area are not (Smith et al. 1996).

151 **GABAergic Afferents**

152 **Neostriatum**

153 The striatum is the principal input structure of the basal
 154 ganglia. Most striatal afferents are glutamatergic and excitato-
 155 ry and derive from the neocortex and intralaminar thalamic

nuclei (Kemp and Powell 1971; Ingham et al. 1998). Most
 of the corticostriatal and thalamostriatal inputs terminate
 in the spiny regions of the principal neuron, the striatal
 spiny projection neuron, which also forms the only output
 of the nucleus. Striatal spiny neurons project to the GP as
 well as to the dopaminergic neurons of the SNc and the
 GABAergic projection neurons of the SNr (Grofová and
 Rinvik 1970; Grofová 1975; Somogyi et al. 1981; Totter-
 dell et al. 1984; Williams and Faull 1985; Bolam and
 Smith 1990; Bevan et al. 1994). Striatal projections to
 dopaminergic neurons terminate relatively distally. The
 striatonigral projection colocalizes substance P and dynor-
 phin in addition to GABA and has been called the direct
 pathway, in contrast to the striopallidal projections to the
 external GP that colocalize enkephalin and are termed the
 indirect pathway (Gerfen and Wilson 1996). Substance P
 immunoreactive terminals form symmetric synapses on
 the dendritic shafts of SNc dopaminergic neurons, with
 only a small proportion of boutons synapsing on dopami-
 nergic perikarya (Bolam and Smith 1990).

Globus Pallidus

The globus pallidus (external globus pallidus in higher mam-
 mals) sends inhibitory GABAergic projections to the STN as
 well as to both segments of the substantia nigra, thereby
 directly innervating both dopaminergic and GABAergic
 nigral neurons (Grofová 1975; Hattori et al. 1975; Totterdell
 et al. 1984; Smith and Bolam 1989, 1990; Smith et al. 1990;
 Bevan et al. 1996; Sato et al. 2000). Pallidal terminals form
 GABA-immunoreactive symmetric synapses that terminate
 on both the somata and proximal dendrites of nigral neurons,
 occasionally forming pericellular baskets around somata in
 the substantia nigra (Smith and Bolam 1990).

Substantia Nigra Pars Reticulata

The SNr provides one of the most important, yet least-
 understood and -characterized inhibitory inputs to nigral
 dopaminergic neurons. In addition to their long-range pro-
 jections to the thalamus and the superior colliculus (Rinvik
 1975; Clavier et al. 1976; Faull and Mehler 1978; Tokuno
 and Nakamura 1987; Harting et al. 1988; Kemel et al.
 1988; Williams and Faull 1988; Bickford and Hall 1992;
 Deniau and Chevalier 1992; Redgrave et al. 1992; Mana and
 Chevalier 2001; Sidibé et al. 2002; Lee and Tepper 2007b),
 they also issue local axon collaterals that mediate the inhibi-
 tion of neighboring dopaminergic and GABAergic neurons

200 within the substantia nigra (MacNeil et al. 1978; Walters and
201 Lakoski 1978; Grace and Bunney, 1979, 1985a,b; Waszczak
202 et al. 1980; Deniau et al. 1982; Hajós and Greenfield 1994;
203 Häusser and Yung 1994; Tepper et al. 1995; Lee et al. 2004;
204 Saitoh et al. 2004)

205 Local axon collaterals of SNr GABAergic projection
206 neurons arborize in both SNr and SNc and exhibit consider-
207 able variability from neuron to neuron in terms of the size,
208 extent of the collateral field, and its position with respect to
209 the dendritic tree of the cell of origin, and frequently bear
210 varicosities resembling both terminal and *en passant* bou-
211 tons (Deniau et al. 1982; Grofová et al. 1982; Kemel et al.
212 1988; Nitsch and Riesenberger 1988; Tepper et al. 2003;
213 Mailyly et al. 2003; Lee and Tepper 2007b; Figs. 2 and 3).
214 Electron microscopic analysis has revealed that the varicosi-
215 ties are large boutons that form symmetric synapses with
216 somata as well as proximal dendrites, often forming multiple
217 pericellular contacts (Damlama 1994; Tepper et al. 2003;
218 Boyes 2004; Fig. 3) similar to those originating from GP
219 axon terminals (Smith and Bolam 1990).

220 **Glutamatergic Afferents**

221 **Subthalamic Nucleus**

222 Although GABAergic afferents account for the majority of
223 the basal ganglia inputs to nigral dopaminergic neurons,
224 there are significant glutamatergic inputs as well. The best-
225 characterized basal ganglia glutamatergic input to substantia
226 nigra is from the STN (Hammond et al 1978; Chang et al.
227 1984; Kita and Kitai 1987). Although injections of PHA-L
228 into STN result in some labeling in SNc, the majority of
229 labeled boutons are found in SNr. Subthalamonigral axons
230 form boutons that contain small round vesicles and form
231 asymmetric synapses on medium- and small-sized dendrites,
232 mostly in SNr, and only rarely onto somata (Chang et al.
233 1984; Kita and Kitai 1987; Damlama 1994, Fig. 4). Most of
234 these synapses are formed onto TH-immunonegative (pre-
235 sumably GABAergic) dendrites, with only about 10% of
236 boutons originating from STN terminating on dopaminergic
237 dendrites in SNr as shown in Fig. 4 (Damlama 1994).

238 **Cholinergic Afferents**

239 **Pedunculopontine Nucleus**

240 The projection from the PPN is neurochemically diverse and
241 includes both glutamate and acetylcholine (Woolf and

Butcher 1986; Gould et al. 1989; Clements and Grant 242
1990; Charara et al. 1996). This is the only source of cholin- 243
ergic input to nigral dopaminergic neurons. At least some 244
PPN terminals express both choline acetyltransferase 245
(ChAT) and the vesicular glutamate transporter (VGluT) 246
and thus may be both cholinergic and glutamatergic (Lavoie 247
and Parent 1994). The majority of boutons labeled from 248
the PPN contain small round synaptic vesicles and form 249
asymmetric synapses as shown in Fig. 4 and are glutamate 250
immunoreactive, while a smaller proportion exhibits immu- 251
noreactivity for GABA and forms symmetric synapses 252
(Charara et al. 1996). As with glutamate, GABA and acetyl- 253
choline appear to be colocalized in some cell bodies in the 254
PPN (Jia et al. 2003). 255

256 Cholinergic synapses can be found on dopaminergic peri- 257
karya and dendrites as well as on GABAergic neurons in 258
the substantia nigra (Beninato and Spencer 1988; Martínez- 259
Murillo et al. 1989; Bolam et al. 1991; Charara et al. 1996). 260
Although the majority (65%) of boutons anterogradely la- 261
beled from the PPN synapse onto nondopaminergic neurons 262
and dendrites, the 35% that do synapse onto dopaminergic 263
dendrites is significantly greater than the proportion of term- 264
inals from the STN, of which only 10% synapse onto TH+ 265
dendrites. Furthermore, the PPN boutons tend to form 266
synapses onto larger diameter dendrites than the STN boutons 267
(Damlama 1994), as illustrated in Fig. 4, perhaps suggesting 268
that the PPN is a more potent source of direct excitation of 269
dopaminergic neurons than the STN (see below).

270 **Control of Nigral Dopaminergic Neurons by** 271 **Afferent Input**

272 The anatomical organization of the basal ganglia afferents to 273
the substantia nigra, and the microcircuitry within the sub- 274
stantia nigra itself forms much of the basis necessary for 275
understanding the effects observed in response to stimulation 276
of afferents to SNc dopaminergic neurons on both short- 277
and long-time scales. These responses are sometimes un- 278
expected and in many cases suggest that an important part 279
of the afferent input to SNc dopaminergic neurons is 280
relayed and filtered through the axon collaterals of SNr 281
GABAergic neurons.

282 **Responses to GABAergic Input**

283 **Striatum**

284 Early studies showed that electrical stimulation of the 285
striatum in vivo in cats produced a monosynaptic inhibitory

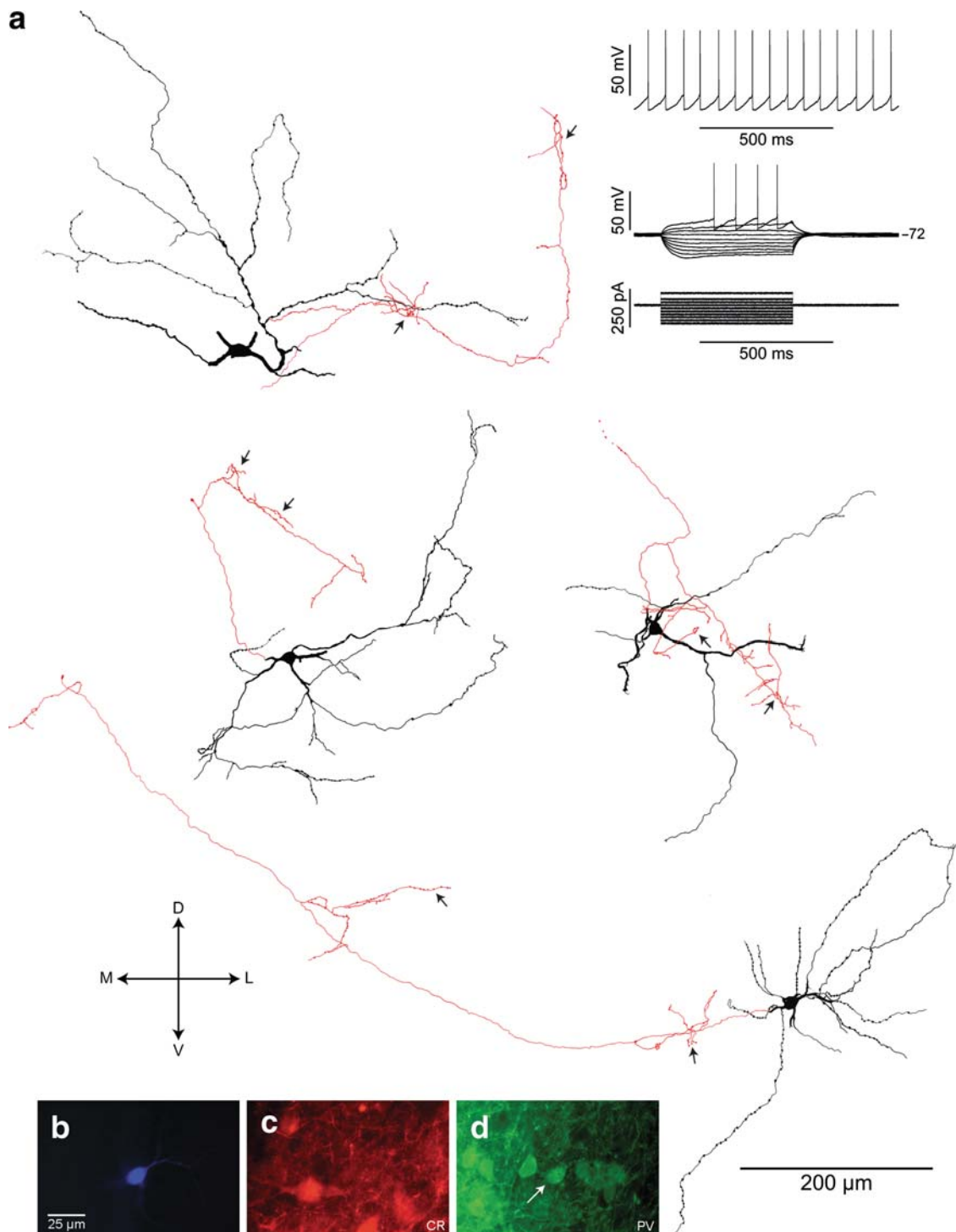


Fig. 2 Reconstructions of SNr GABAergic neurons filled with biocytin during whole-cell recording in vitro. (a) Representative examples of SNr GABAergic projection neurons recorded from coronal slices in vitro. Somata and dendrites are shown in black while axons are depicted in red. Note that all of the neurons issue local axon collaterals (*black arrows*) within the substantia nigra which in some cases can be observed to exhibit varicosities along their trajectories resembling *en passant* boutons as well as basket-like terminations with several large swellings characteristic of terminal boutons. Inset. Spontaneous activity and response to current injection (taken from bottom neuron) are typical for SNr GABAergic projection neurons. (b–d) Fluorescent images obtained from the bottom neuron show biocytin (b) calretinin (c) and parvalbumin (d). Note that the neuron exhibits immunoreactivity for parvalbumin (*white arrow*) but not calretinin. Other SNr GABAergic neurons containing calretinin as well as the small population containing both parvalbumin and calretinin similarly issue local axon collaterals. CR Calretinin, PV Parvalbumin, D Dorsal, V Ventral, M medial, L lateral. Orientation refers to reconstructed neurons. Modified from Lee and Tepper 2007b. Copyright 2007 Wiley-Liss, Inc

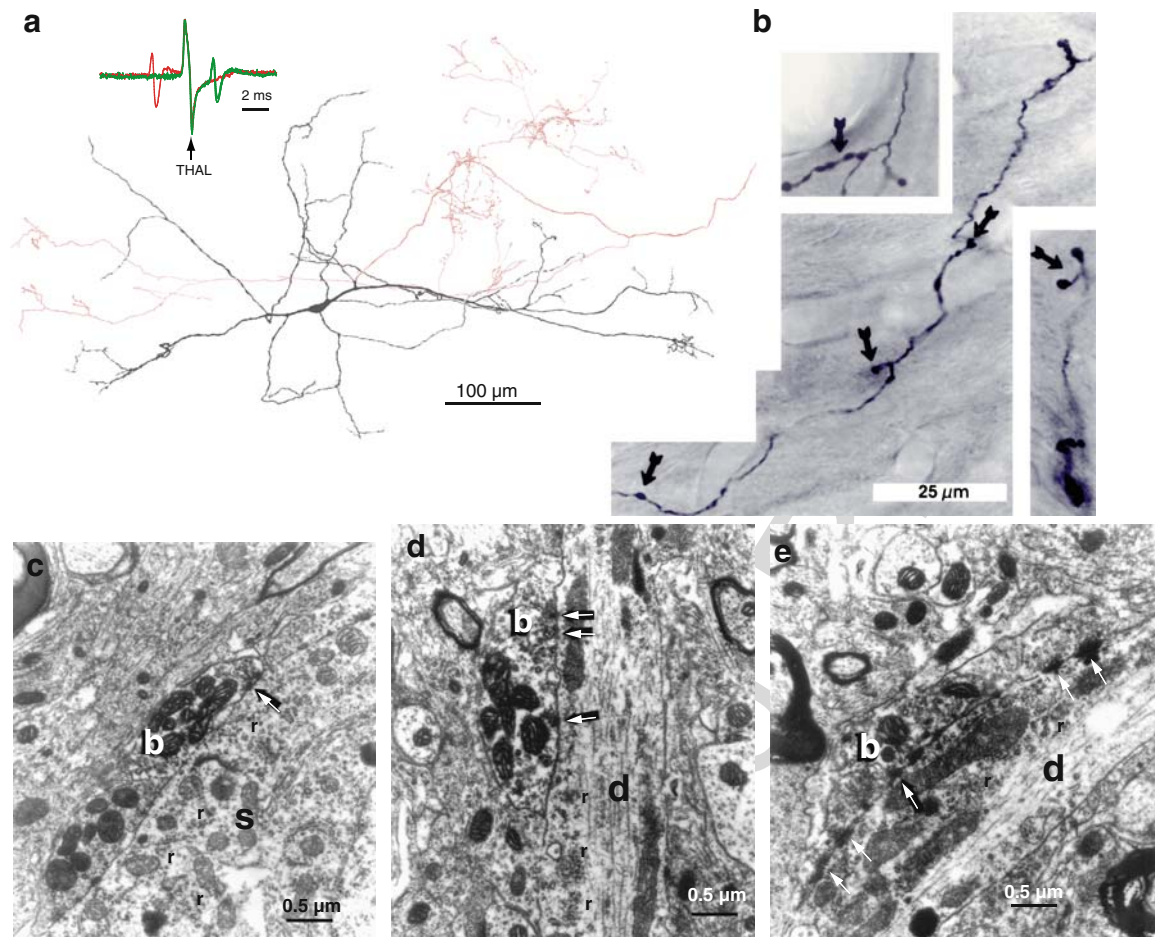


Fig. 3 Pars reticulata GABAergic projection neurons make synaptic contact with nigral dopaminergic neurons. (a) Reconstruction of an electrophysiologically identified rat nigrothalamic neuron juxtacellularly labeled with biocytin *in vivo*. The soma and dendrites are in black, the axon in red. Inset, 3 consecutive superimposed sweeps showing antidromic response of the nigrothalamic neuron following stimulation of the ventral thalamus (*arrow*). A collision is shown in the red trace. (b) High magnification light micrographs of portions of the local collateral arborization of a biocytin labeled nigrothalamic neuron. Note the varicosities (*arrows*) separated by long stretches of smooth axon. (c) Electron microscopic analysis of a biocytin filled varicosity shows that it is a large synaptic bouton (b) making a symmetric synapse (*white arrow*) onto the soma (s) of a dopaminergic neuron in pars compacta. Note the large number of free ribosomes (r) characteristic of dopaminergic neurons. (d) Large bouton (b) from a biocytin labeled nigrothalamic neuron makes a symmetric synapse onto a dopaminergic dendrite (d) in pars compacta. (e) Large biocytin-labeled bouton makes multiple symmetric contacts onto a large proximal dopaminergic dendrite in pars compacta

286 postsynaptic potential (IPSP) in unidentified nigral neurons
 287 that were almost certainly SNr GABAergic neurons (Precht
 288 and Yoshida 1971; Yoshida and Precht 1971) The IPSP had
 289 an onset latency of 14–20 ms and since an associated striatal-
 290 evoked field potential with the same latency was blocked
 291 by picrotoxin, this was considered to be a monosynaptic
 292 GABAergic response that we would today classify as being
 293 mediated by GABA_A receptors. Subsequent *in vivo* studies
 294 in rats recording from electrophysiologically identified do-
 295 paminergic neurons revealed similar monosynaptic inhibitory
 296 responses following striatal stimulation (Collingridge and
 297 Davies 1981; Grace and Bunney 1985a; Tepper et al. 1990;
 298 Paladini and Tepper 1999). This effect would be expected,

299 given the direct GABAergic projection from the striatum to
 300 SNc dopaminergic neurons (Bolam and Smith 1990).

301 However, when the stimulation intensity is decreased,
 302 SNc dopaminergic neurons respond with an increase in
 303 firing caused by the inhibition of SNr GABAergic neurons
 304 (Collingridge and Davies 1981; Grace and Bunney 1985a)
 305 that are more sensitive to GABAergic inhibition than dopa-
 306 minergic neurons (Gulácsi et al. 2003; Fig. 5). Thus, under
 307 conditions of low to moderate levels of electrical stimula-
 308 tion, SNr GABAergic neurons are preferentially inhibited.
 309 The result is that SNc dopaminergic neurons are disinhibited
 310 from SNr GABAergic projection neurons and increase their
 311 firing rate (Grace and Bunney 1979, 1985a).

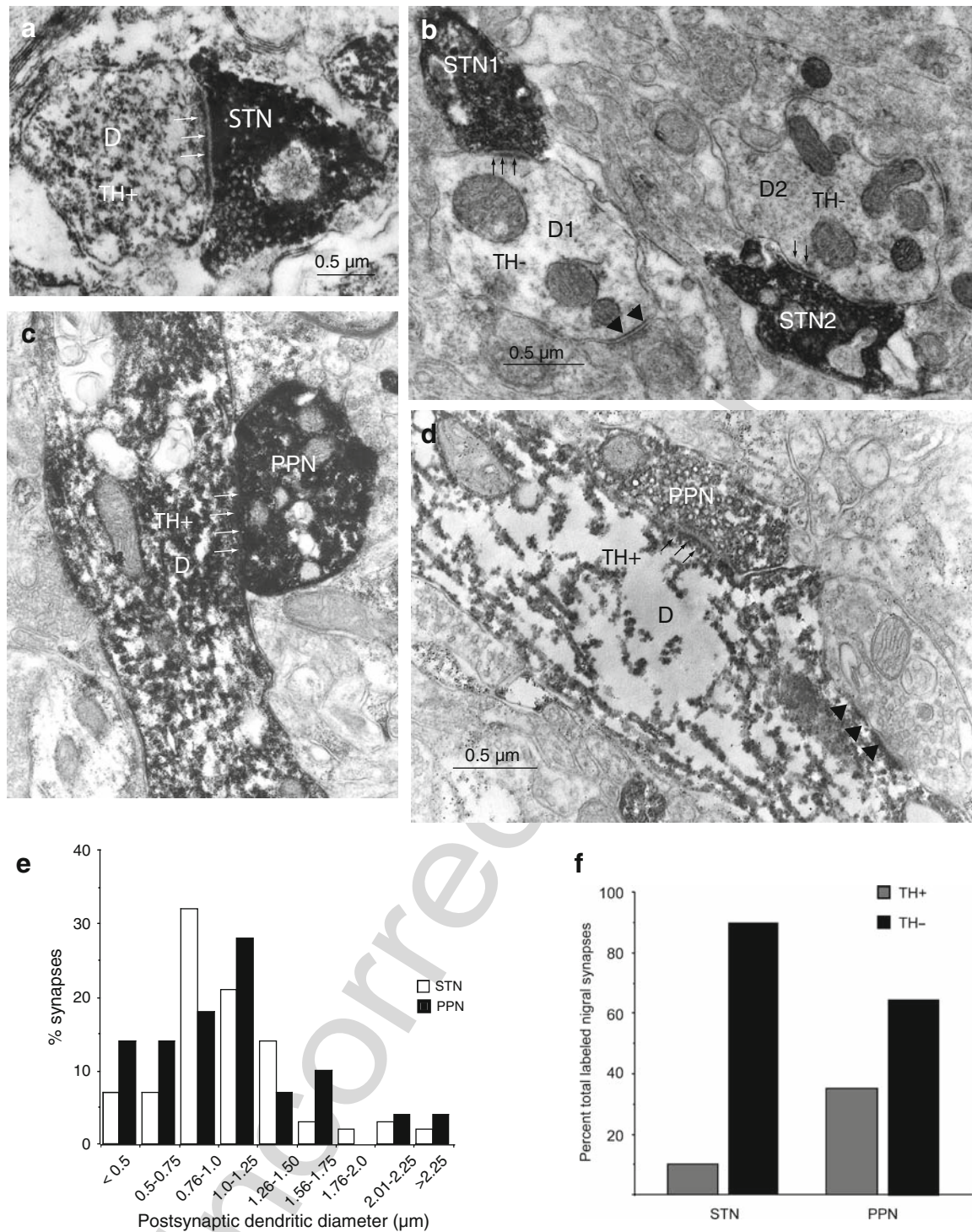


Fig. 4 Anterograde tracing of afferents from STN and PPN to substantia nigra. (a) A presynaptic bouton from STN labeled with PHA-L (STN) makes asymmetric synaptic contact (*arrows*) on TH-immunopositive (TH+) dopaminergic dendrite in pars compacta (D). (b) Two PHA-L labeled terminals from STN (STN1, STN2) make asymmetric synapses (*arrows*) onto medium-sized non-dopaminergic (TH-) dendrites (D1, D2) in pars reticulata. Note moderate postsynaptic thickenings that are much easier to see in the absence of TH immunolabeling. (c) Bouton (PPN) anterogradely labeled with PHA-L from PPN makes asymmetric synaptic contact (*arrows*) onto a medium sized dopaminergic (TH+) dendrite (D) in pars reticulata. (d) Another bouton labeled by PHA-L injection into the PPN makes a synapse onto a large proximal dopaminergic (TH+) dendrite in pars reticulata. (e) Histogram of the diameters of the dendrites at the site of synaptic contact made by afferents from STN and PPN showing that PPN afferents tend to make synapses with large, presumably more proximal dendrites than STN afferents. (f) Relative distribution of synaptic contacts in pars reticulata from STN and PPN afferents onto dopaminergic and non-dopaminergic dendrites. Note that the proportion of synapses made onto dopaminergic dendrites is much larger for boutons originating from PPN than from STN

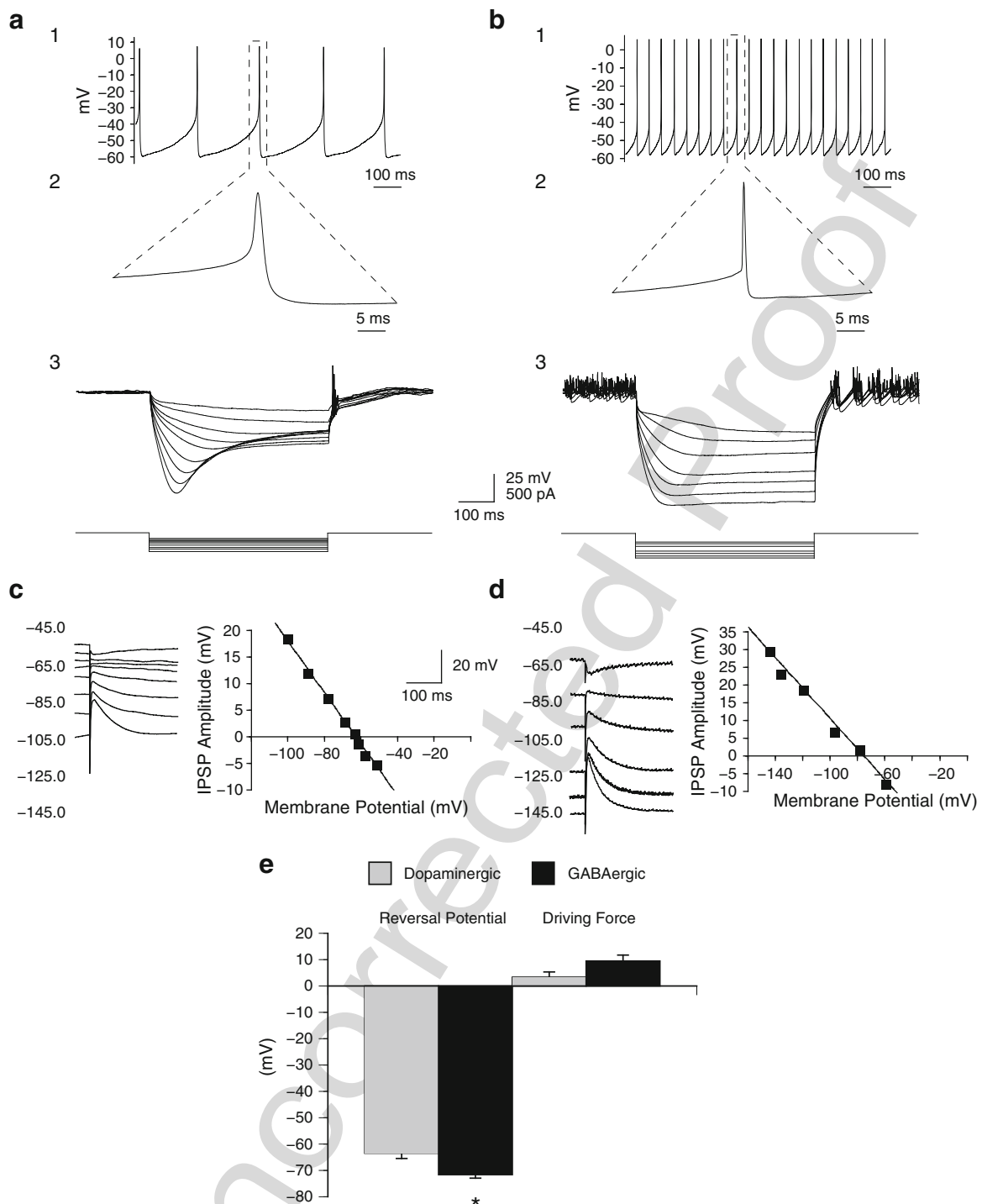


Fig. 5 The GABA_A IPSP is less hyperpolarizing in SNc dopaminergic neurons than in SNr GABAergic neurons. (**a1**, **b1**) Spontaneous activity of a substantia nigra dopaminergic (**a1**) and GABAergic (**b1**) neuron in vitro. (**a2**, **b2**) The action potential width and afterhyperpolarization duration is greater for the dopaminergic neuron (**a2**) compared to the GABAergic neuron (**b2**). (**a3**, **b3**) Responses to hyperpolarizing current pulses delivered from rest exhibit a strong sag caused by I_h in a dopaminergic neuron (**a3**) but not in a GABAergic neuron (**b3**). These characteristics allow for identification of nigral dopaminergic and GABAergic neurons based on their physiological properties in vitro. (**c**, **d**) Gramicidin perforated-patch recording of an SNc dopaminergic neuron (**c**) and SNr GABAergic neuron (**d**) showing the IPSP recorded at varying membrane potentials following local stimulation of the SNr. Reversal potentials were determined from plots of the IPSP amplitude against the membrane potential. (**e**) The GABA_A IPSP reversal potential was found to be less hyperpolarizing in dopaminergic neurons (-63.45 ± 2.02 mV) than in GABAergic neurons (-71.58 ± 1.37 mV). This corresponded to a greater hyperpolarizing driving force in GABAergic neurons (9.5 ± 2.2 mV) than in dopaminergic neurons (3.3 ± 2.0 mV). These findings indicate that nigral GABAergic neurons are more strongly hyperpolarized by GABA than the dopaminergic neurons, revealing an important mechanism underlying the seemingly paradoxical excitation of SNc dopaminergic neurons by GABAergic input and GABA_A agonists through SNr projection neurons. * $P < 0.01$. Modified from Gulácsi et al. 2003. Copyright 2003 the Society for Neuroscience

312 **Globus Pallidus**

313 Unlike afferents from the neostriatum the projection neu- 330
 314 rons of which fire slowly and episodically in vivo (Wilson 331
 315 1993), the GP exerts a tonic inhibitory influence over SNc 332
 316 dopaminergic and SNr GABAergic neurons. Pallidal pro- 333
 317 jection neurons fire spontaneously in vitro and exhibit very 334
 318 high spontaneous firing rates of ~10–100 Hz in vivo 335
 319 (DeLong 1971; Fillion and Tremblay 1991; Nambu and 336
 320 Llinas 1994; Celada et al. 1999; Cooper and Stanford 337
 321 2000). The tonic inhibitory input generated by these high 338
 322 firing rates regularizes the firing pattern of SNc dopaminer- 339
 323 gic neurons in vivo. Electrical stimulation of the GP inhib- 340
 324 its SNc dopaminergic neuron firing consistent with the 341
 325 monosynaptic innervation of SNc dopaminergic neurons by 342
 326 the GP (Paladini et al. 1999a). However, increasing pallidal 343
 327 neuronal activity by the local application of GABA_A recep- 344
 328 tor antagonists paradoxically *increases* the number of 345
 329 SNc dopaminergic neurons exhibiting the bursty firing 346
 347
 348
 349

pattern and causes neurons exhibiting the random and 330
 pacemaker firing patterns to shift to the bursty firing 331
 pattern, rather than causing the expected inhibitory effects 332
 (Celada et al. 1999; Lee et al. 2004; Fig. 6). Functionally, 333
 the increase in burst firing caused by pallidal excitation 334
 leads to an increase in striatal dopamine levels (Lee et al. 335
 2004; Fig. 6). 336

This is the same response that is observed when GABA_A 337
 receptor antagonists are infused locally within the substantia 338
 nigra, suggesting that the chemical stimulation of the GP 339
 leads to a reduction in inhibitory drive to SNc dopaminergic 340
 neurons. The explanation for this seemingly paradoxical 341
 response is that while the chemical stimulation of the GP 342
 results in an asynchronous release of GABA in substantia 343
 nigra, electrical stimulation causes a synchronous release. 344
 Although the asynchronous release is sufficient to effective- 345
 ly inhibit the more sensitive SNr GABAergic projection 346
 neurons, it does not effectively inhibit the less sensitive 347
 dopaminergic neurons with the overall result being a 348
 GABAergic disinhibition. The electrical stimulus, however, 349

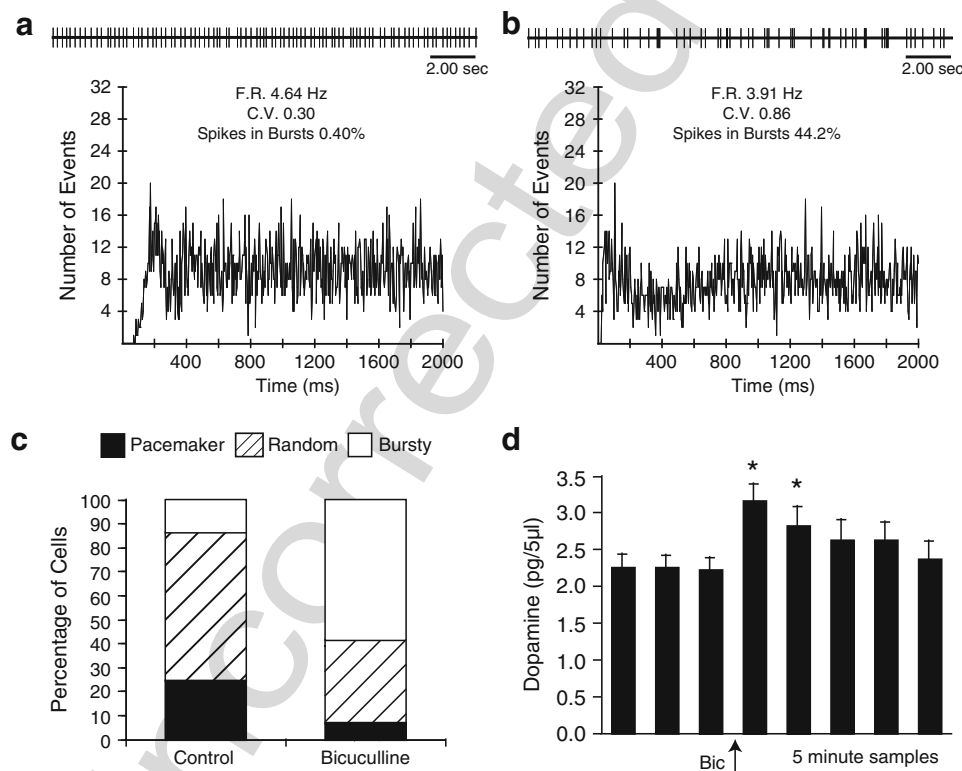


Fig. 6 Effects of pallidal excitation on SNc dopaminergic neuron firing pattern and striatal dopamine levels. **(a, b)** Autocorrelograms constructed from an extracellular recording of an SNc dopaminergic neuron in vivo. Portions of the raw spike train are shown above. This neuron was observed to exhibit a random firing pattern **(a)** which shifted to a bursty firing pattern following infusion of the GABA_A receptor antagonist, bicuculline into the GP **(b)**. Note that the firing rate (FR) was largely unchanged despite the significant increases in the coefficient of variation (CV) and overall percentage of total spikes fired in bursts. **(c)** The distribution of firing patterns exhibited by SNc dopaminergic neurons consisted mostly of the random firing pattern under control conditions, but pharmacological excitation of the GP with bicuculline shifted the distribution to one where the bursty firing pattern was most common. This is opposite to the effect that would be observed in response to a monosynaptic effect of the GP on SNc, demonstrating the important role of SNr GABAergic neurons in integrating synaptic input to the substantia nigra. **(d)** Simultaneous measurement of striatal dopamine levels with microdialysis revealed that pallidal excitation with bicuculline (*arrow*, Bic) led to a significant increase in striatal dopamine levels caused by the increase in burst firing. * $P < 0.05$. Modified from Lee et al. 2004. Copyright 2004 IBRO

350 causes a massive synchronous release that directly inhibits
 351 both SNr projection neurons and dopaminergic neurons with
 352 the overall result being direct inhibition of the dopaminergic
 353 neuron (Celada et al. 1999; Paladini et al. 1999a; Lee et al.
 354 2004; Tepper and Lee 2007; Brazhnik et al. 2008).

355 In contrast to the dramatic changes observed in firing
 356 pattern, the local application of GABA_A antagonists or
 357 disinhibition caused by the chemical excitation of the GP
 358 produces less pronounced increases in the firing rate (Celada
 359 et al. 1999; Paladini and Tepper 1999; Lee et al. 2004).
 360 Conversely, inhibition of the GP results in a regularization
 361 of the firing of SNc dopaminergic neurons and a
 362 slight decrease in their firing rate as a result of reduced
 363 inhibition of SNr GABAergic neurons and the resultant
 364 increase in local inhibition (Celada et al. 1999).

365 **Substantia Nigra Pars Reticulata**

366 An important interaction between GABAergic SNr neurons
 367 and the overlying dopaminergic neurons was suggested by
 368 the finding of an inverse relationship between the spontane-
 369 ous activity of some dopaminergic neurons and some pars
 370 reticulata nondopaminergic neurons in *in vivo* extracellular
 371 recordings (Grace and Bunney 1979). The study of this
 372 interaction has been complicated by the close proximity of
 373 the dopaminergic and GABAergic dendrites that are inter-
 374 mingled throughout SNr (Tepper et al. 1987). This precludes
 375 the direct stimulation of SNr GABAergic neurons and the
 376 recording of SNc dopaminergic neurons as has been used to
 377 study the afferent control exerted by other basal ganglia
 378 nuclei.

379 Although it has been postulated that intranigral inhibition
 380 might be carried out by specialized interneurons (Juraska
 381 et al. 1977; Francois et al. 1979; Grace and Bunney 1979,
 382 1985a,b; Lacey et al. 1989; Johnson and North 1992; Bon-
 383 tempi and Sharp 1997; Hebb and Robertson 2000), the
 384 majority of the direct evidence suggests that the predominant
 385 sources of intranigral inhibition are the axon collaterals from
 386 SNr projection neurons (Deniau et al. 1982; Grofová et al.
 387 1982; Tepper et al. 1995; Celada et al. 1999; Paladini et al.
 388 1999a; Lee and Tepper 2007b; Brazhnik et al. 2008).

389 The GABAergic output neurons of the SNr exhibit spon-
 390 taneous, pacemaker-like firing at high rates both *in vivo*
 391 (~20–40 Hz) and *in vitro* (~10–40 Hz) (DeLong 1971;
 392 Deniau et al. 1978; Guyenet and Aghajanian 1978; Nakanishi
 393 et al. 1987b; Lacey et al. 1989; Yung et al. 1991;
 394 Richards et al. 1997; Celada et al. 1999; Gulácsi et al.
 395 2003; Windels and Kiyatkin 2004; Atherton and Bevan
 396 2005; Lee and Tepper 2007b) and are thus well suited to
 397 serve as a source of tonic inhibition and the mediators of
 398 disinhibition of dopaminergic neurons.

Spontaneous GABA_A IPSPs are frequently encountered
 in SNc dopaminergic neurons *in vitro*, where afferent inhib-
 itory projections from sources outside of the substantia
 nigra are disrupted, and local stimulation of the SNr
in vitro elicits evoked IPSPs in dopaminergic neurons
 (Hajós and Greenfield, 1993, 1994; Häusser and Yung
 1994; Fiorillo and Williams 1998; Saitoh et al. 2004;
 Gulácsi et al. 2003). Although these results are suggestive
 of the local inhibition of SNc dopaminergic neurons by SNr
 neurons, they could also be due to stimulus-evoked or
 spontaneous release of GABA from terminals arising
 from the striatum or GP (e.g., Iribe et al. 1999). The most
 definitive physiological evidence for the direct inhibition of
 SNc dopaminergic neurons by SNr projection neurons
 comes from the antidromic activation of local SNr axon
 collaterals by stimulating the thalamus or the superior col-
 liculus *in vivo*, which produces powerful short latency
 inhibition of SNc dopaminergic neurons that cannot be
 mediated by anything other than monosynaptic synaptic
 connections made by the local axon collaterals of SNr
 projection neurons (Tepper et al. 1995; Paladini et al.
 1999a; Brazhnik et al. 2008).

As mentioned earlier, SNr GABAergic neurons exhibit
 apparently greater sensitivity to inhibition by GABA than
 nigral GABAergic output neurons. This is due to different
 chloride regulatory mechanisms in the two cell types. The
 SNr projection neurons express KCC2, the typical potassiu-
 m-chloride cotransporter found in most mature CNS neu-
 rons (Farrant and Kaila 2007) that keeps the intracellular
 chloride concentration low enough so that GABA_A recep-
 tor stimulation results in a hyperpolarizing IPSP. Dopami-
 nergic neurons, on the other hand, lack this cotransporter
 (although they do express a different, less efficient chloride
 exchanger) with the result that the opening of chloride
 channels by GABA_A receptor activation produces a signifi-
 cantly smaller hyperpolarization that is responsible, at
 least in part, for the decreased sensitivity to GABAergic
 inhibition relative to the SNr output neurons (Gulácsi et al.
 2003).

The increased sensitivity of SNr neurons to GABA and
 the resultant effects on the physiology of SNc dopaminergic
 neurons is manifest in several ways. SNc dopaminergic
 neurons respond to GABA_A receptor agonists applied either
 locally in the SN or administered intravenously with an
increase in firing (MacNeil et al. 1978; Walters and Lakoski
 1978; Grace and Bunney 1979; Waszczak et al. 1980) con-
 comitant to a decrease in the firing rate of SNr GABAergic
 neurons (MacNeil et al. 1978; Walters and Lakoski 1978;
 Grace and Bunney 1979; Waszczak et al. 1980). This unique
 property likely underlies, at least in part, the rewarding
 effects of many drugs with abuse potential that act as
 GABA_A agonists such as ethanol, benzodiazepines, and
 barbiturates (Ross et al. 1982; Mereu et al. 1984; Mereu

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452 and Gessa 1985; Tepper and Lee 2007). Further, the local
453 infusion of a GABA_A agonist within the substantia nigra
454 results in *increased* striatal dopamine levels (Santiago and
455 Westerink 1992), and dopaminergic neurons that lack μ
456 opioid receptors are *excited* by μ agonists (Lacey et al.
457 1989; Johnson and North 1992). All of these seemingly
458 paradoxical effects are likely to be caused by disinhibition
459 mediated via the GABAergic SNr projection neurons.

460 **Receptors Mediating GABAergic Inhibition** 461 **of SNc Dopaminergic Neurons**

462 Anatomical studies have demonstrated that SNc dopaminergic
463 neurons possess both ionotropic GABA_A and G-protein
464 coupled GABA_B receptors (Bowery et al. 1987; Nicholson
465 et al. 1992; Charara et al. 2000; Boyes and Bolam 2003).
466 GABA_A receptors mediate a hyperpolarizing conductance
467 that is carried mostly by chloride (Gulácsi et al. 2003;
468 Farrant and Kaila 2007), while GABA_B receptors activate
469 a potassium conductance (Lacey et al. 1988). The activa-
470 tion of either GABA_A or GABA_B receptors produces hyper-
471 polarization and/or suppression of firing in vitro and causes
472 an additional regularization of firing pattern in vivo (Grace
473 and Bunney 1979; Waszczak et al. 1980; Pinnock 1984;
474 Lacey et al. 1988; Erhardt et al. 1998; Gulácsi et al. 2003).

475 However, the vast majority of the evidence from in vivo
476 studies in rats has suggested that SNc dopaminergic neurons
477 are subject to tonic suppression of burst firing and are
478 phasically inhibited primarily through GABA_A as opposed
479 to GABA_B receptors (Nakamura et al. 1979; Grace and
480 Bunney 1985a; Tepper et al. 1995; Paladini and Tepper
481 1999). The inhibition produced by the stimulation of
482 GABAergic afferents from the striatum, GP, or SNr in vivo
483 was found to be blocked by GABA_A but not GABA_B recep-
484 tor antagonists in rat (Paladini et al. 1999a). In fact, the
485 local application of GABA_B antagonists *potentiates* evoked
486 inhibition and leads to the regularization of the firing pattern,
487 suggesting that presynaptic GABA_B autoreceptors, located
488 on all the basal ganglia GABAergic nigral afferents, are
489 tonically activated in vivo and suppress GABA release and
490 reduce evoked inhibition of SNc dopaminergic neurons
491 (Paladini et al. 1999a; Paladini and Tepper 1999; Boyes
492 and Bolam 2003). Presynaptic GABA_B receptors likely
493 also suppress excitatory input to SNc dopaminergic neurons
494 (Wu et al. 1999).

495 However, local electrical stimulation in vitro and especially
496 high-frequency train stimulation can elicit slow, long-lasting,
497 GABA_B-mediated IPSP and currents in SNc dopaminergic
498 neurons, suggesting that GABA_B receptor activation from
499 synaptically released GABA does indeed occur, but for
500 some reason is not detected in the in vivo experiments

(Johnson and North 1992; Cameron and Williams 1993; 501
Hajós and Greenfield, 1993, 1994; Häusser and Yung 502
1994; Saitoh et al. 2004). This is likely caused by the 503
extrasynaptic location of GABA_B receptors in relation to 504
GABAergic synapses (Boyes and Bolam 2003). In this 505
situation, GABA must overcome reuptake and diffuse 506
from the synaptic cleft to activate the extrasynaptic recep- 507
tors, as has been shown in the hippocampus (Scanziani 508
2000). In some cases, the rhythmic firing of GABAergic 509
afferents can cause sufficient GABA release to overcome 510
reuptake and activate the extrasynaptic GABA_B receptors 511
(Scanziani 2000), but this has not been observed following 512
train stimulation of GABAergic afferents to SNc 513
dopaminergic neurons in rat (Paladini et al. 1999a). The 514
local application of GABA_A but not GABA_B receptor 515
antagonists increases striatal dopamine levels, further 516
indicating a tonic regulation by GABA through GABA_A 517
but not GABA_B receptors (Santiago and Westerink 1992). 518

519 In recent in vivo experiments in mice, however, the
520 stimulation of the striatum, GP, or SNr was shown to reliably
521 induce inhibition with an early component mediated by
522 GABA_A receptors and a late protracted component mediated
523 by GABA_B receptors, even in response to single-pulse stim-
524 ulation (Brazhnik et al. 2008). The late, GABA_B-mediated
525 response was lengthened following the inhibition of GABA
526 reuptake, suggesting that GABA reuptake mechanisms help
527 to reduce GABA_B receptor activation in vivo (Brazhnik et al.
528 2008). Interestingly, the application of a GABA_B receptor
529 antagonist in mice led to a slight decrease in the spontaneous
530 firing rate and a slight regularization of the firing pattern of
531 SNc dopaminergic neurons just as it does in rats (Tepper
532 et al. 1995; Paladini and Tepper 1999) in the same neurons in
533 which a blockade of postsynaptic GABA_B receptors attenu-
534 ated the late inhibition, as shown in Fig. 7. Thus, just as in
535 rat, there appears to be a tonic presynaptic stimulation of
536 GABA_B autoreceptors without the tonic activation of post-
537 synaptic GABA_B receptors (Brazhnik et al. 2008). The ap-
538 pearance of the late, GABA_B-sensitive component in mice
539 but not rats was attributed to the smaller size and greater
540 packing density of neurons of the mouse brain resulting in
541 similar stimuli evoking substantially greater GABA release
542 that was able to escape reuptake and reach extrasynaptic
543 GABA_B receptors.

544 **Responses to Glutamatergic Input**

545 **Subthalamic Nucleus**

546 Subthalamic nucleus neurons fire spontaneously both in vivo
547 and in vitro at ~6–30 Hz (Nakanishi et al. 1987a; Bergman

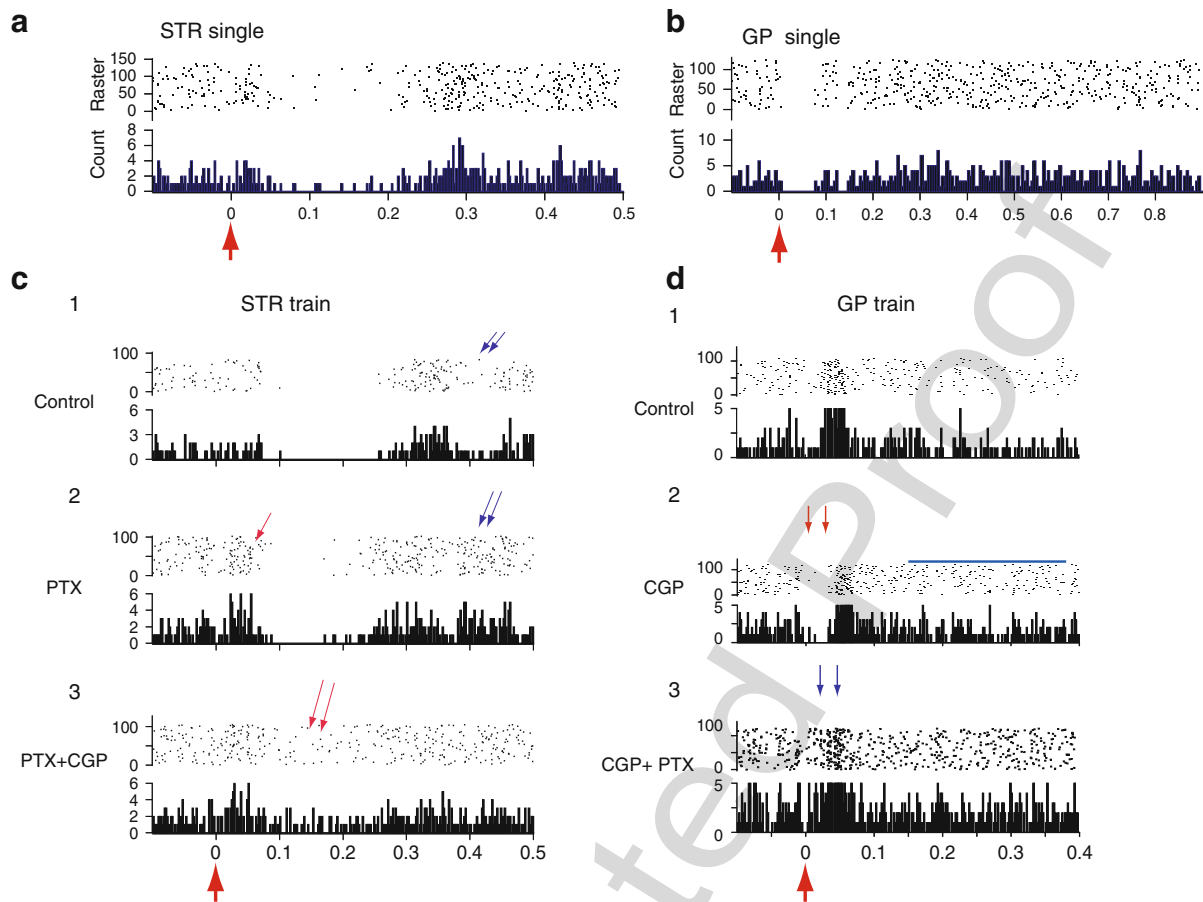


Fig. 7 GABAergic afferents to nigrally dopaminergic neurons in mice exert both GABA_A and GABA_B receptor mediated effects. (a) Response of a substantia nigra dopaminergic neuron to single pulse stimulation of neostriatum (*arrow*). Note the rather long latency to the onset of the inhibitory response, the incomplete suppression of firing and the length of the inhibition that extends beyond 200 ms, all typical for striatal-evoked responses. (b) Similar stimulation of GP evokes an inhibitory response that exhibits a very short onset latency, a complete suppression of firing during the inhibition and shorter overall duration of inhibition than striatal-evoked responses (note different time scales in a and b). (c) The early and late components of the striatal-evoked inhibition of nigrally dopaminergic neurons are mediated by different GABA receptors. (c1) Control recordings following trains of striatal stimulation (5 pulses of 300 μ A at 100 Hz). Note the second period of inhibition seen at around 450 ms (*double blue arrows*). (c2) Local pressure application of GABA_A receptor antagonist, picrotoxin (500 μ M) completely blocks the early part of the inhibition (unmasking an excitatory response as well, *single red arrow*) and the delayed inhibition (*double blue arrows*) but does not affect the late component of the inhibition. (c3) Subsequent simultaneous application of picrotoxin and the GABA_B-selective antagonist, CGP-55845A (500 μ M) blocks both components of the evoked inhibition indicating that the early inhibition is due to GABA_A receptor activation whereas the late inhibition is mediated by GABA_B receptor stimulation. (d) Both presynaptic and postsynaptic GABA_B effects can be seen in the same neuron. (d1) Control recordings of brief train stimuli delivered to GP at low intensity. (d2) Following application of CGP-55845A, the early inhibition is markedly strengthened due to increased GABA_A receptor activation (*double red arrows*) as a result of the blockade of inhibitory GABA_B autoreceptors on pallidonigral afferents. At the same time, CGP-55845A almost completely eliminates the late component of the inhibitory response (*horizontal blue line*) due to blockade of postsynaptic GABA_B receptors. D3. Subsequent simultaneous application of picrotoxin and CGP-55845A eliminates all inhibition. Modified from (Brazhnik et al. 2008). Copyright 2008 by the Society for Neuroscience

548 et al. 1994; Wichmann et al. 1994; Bevan and Wilson 1999;
 549 Beurrier et al. 1999; Do and Bean 2003; Hallworth et al.
 550 2003; Wilson et al. 2006), thus providing SNc dopaminergic
 551 neurons with a source of tonic glutamatergic input.

552 Glutamatergic input, particularly via NMDA receptor
 553 stimulation, induces burst firing in vivo while blocking
 554 NMDA receptors in vivo leads to a regularization of firing
 555 pattern (Grace and Bunney 1984; Charley et al 1991; Over-
 556 ton and Clark 1992, 1997; Chergui et al. 1993). Similar

results have been obtained in vitro (Johnson et al. 1992;
 Morikawa et al. 2003; Blythe et al. 2007). Lesions or
 pharmacological inhibition of the STN similarly decreases
 burst firing in SNc dopaminergic neurons (Smith and Grace
 1992), most likely due to the decrease in NMDA receptor
 stimulation.

Burst firing can also be produced in vivo by the local
 blockade of GABA_A receptors. The local application
 of bicuculline or picrotoxin produces intense burst firing

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(Tepper et al. 1995; Paladini and Tepper 1999; Brazhnik et al. 2008) as does the disinhibition of the GABAergic input from SNr (Celada et al. 1999; Lee et al. 2004). Either GABA_A or GABA_B receptor stimulation can prevent NMDA-induced burst firing in vivo or in vitro (Engberg et al. 1993; Seutin et al. 1994; Paladini et al. 1999b; Erhardt et al. 2002): an effect explained in computational studies by alterations in the dynamical interaction among membrane potential, conductance, and dendritic coupling (Canavier 1999; Komendantov et al. 2004; Kusnetsov et al. 2006). Thus, although glutamatergic input to NMDA receptors promotes burst firing, this effect of glutamatergic input on bursting in dopaminergic neurons is powerfully modulated by GABAergic afferents.

Experimentally induced increases in the activity of the STN by electrical or chemical stimulation have led to mixed effects on SNc dopaminergic neurons. Early in vivo recordings revealed a short latency excitation of SNc dopaminergic neurons elicited by STN stimulation (Hammond et al. 1978). Later experiments using either electrical or chemical stimulation of the STN in vivo revealed mixed excitatory and inhibitory responses, the latter being attributed to polysynaptic inhibition evoked by STN-induced excitation of pallidal or nigral GABAergic neurons (Robledo and Féger 1990; Féger and Robledo 1991; Smith and Grace 1992; Chergui et al. 1994a), with the initial short latency response consisting most often of inhibition (Smith and Grace 1992). However, longer duration pharmacological stimulation of the STN increased firing rate and induced burst firing in SNc dopaminergic neurons, which was at least partly due to the activation of NMDA receptors (Smith and Grace 1992; Chergui et al. 1994a). The explanation for these mixed effects was revealed to be a near simultaneous activation of a monosynaptic EPSP that was blocked by a non-NMDA receptor antagonist (although under certain conditions, an MK-801 sensitive component could be seen) and polysynaptic IPSP that was blocked by a GABA_A receptor antagonist. The mixed EPSP/IPSP survived transection of striatonigral and pallidonigral pathways indicating that the IPSP was due, at least in part, to STN-evoked activation of the axon collaterals of pars reticulata projection neurons (Iribe et al. 1999).

Furthermore, glutamatergic input can modify the firing pattern of SNr GABAergic neurons and evoke burst firing in those neurons as well (Ibáñez-Sandoval et al. 2007; Lee and Tepper 2007a). Therefore, the STN likely controls both the timing and pattern of inhibition coming from the SNr.

Although many of the effects of glutamate on dopaminergic neurons are mediated by NMDA receptors (Johnson and North 1992; Johnson et al. 1992; Overton and Clark 1992, 1997; Chergui et al. 1993; Meltzer et al. 1997b; Paladini et al. 1999b) while others are mediated by non-NMDA receptors (Zhang et al. 1994; Blythe et al. 2007), glutamatergic

input from the STN might affect SNc dopaminergic neurons through other mechanisms (Fiorillo and Williams 1998; Morikawa et al. 2003; Blythe et al. 2007). SNc dopaminergic neurons express both group I metabotropic glutamate receptors as well as ionotropic glutamate receptors (Martin et al. 1992; Ong et al. 1997; Paquet et al. 1997; Kosinski et al. 1998; Yung 1998; Chatha et al. 2000; Hubert et al. 2001; Kaneda et al. 2003). The actions of metabotropic glutamate receptors on the SNc dopaminergic neurons are complex. Group I receptor activation has been reported to cause an IPSP following brief agonist exposure in vitro that desensitizes following continued agonist exposure revealing an excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP) (Mercuri et al. 1993; Shen and Johnson 1997; Fiorillo and Williams 1998). The initial hyperpolarization is caused by calcium-activated potassium (SK) channel activation, while the depolarization is caused by activation of nonselective transient receptor potential (TRP) channels (Fiorillo and Williams 1998; Tozzi et al. 2003; Bengtson et al. 2004).

In vivo, and in vitro metabotropic glutamate receptor activation has been reported to potentiate burst firing and to exert mixed effects on the firing rate of SNc dopaminergic neurons. Similar to the GABA_B receptors, metabotropic glutamate receptors are localized at extrasynaptic sites, suggesting that reuptake might serve as a significant barrier to their activation (Hubert et al. 2001). In addition, group II and III metabotropic glutamate receptors have been reported to suppress excitatory synaptic input to SNc dopaminergic neurons (Wigmore and Lacey 1998; Valenti et al. 2005; Wang et al. 2005), suggesting that glutamate can affect the strength of afferent input which might act at ionotropic receptors (Meltzer et al. 1997a; Prisco et al. 2002).

Therefore, glutamatergic input to the substantia nigra can directly excite SNc dopaminergic neurons, indirectly inhibit them by exciting SNr GABAergic neurons, and directly inhibit or excite them by activating metabotropic glutamate receptors on the dopaminergic neurons.

Responses to Cholinergic Input

Pedunculopontine Nucleus

Although there is some heterogeneity in the physiological properties of PPN neurons and the identity of the neurotransmitters the neurons are releasing is unclear due to the high degree of colocalization of acetylcholine with glutamate, given that these neurons fire spontaneously at ~0.5–20 Hz in vivo and in vitro (Scarnati et al. 1987; Takakusaki et al. 1997), it seems reasonable to assume that SNc dopaminergic neurons receive tonic cholinergic and glutamatergic input

666 from the PPN. Consistent with this, the firing rate of SNc
667 dopaminergic neurons decreases in response to the micro-
668 infusion of exogenous acetylcholinesterase, which decreases
669 cholinergic tone to SNc dopaminergic neurons (Greenfield
670 et al. 1981).

671 Electrical stimulation of the PPN either in vitro or in vivo
672 produces excitatory responses in SNc dopaminergic neu-
673 rons. Excitatory postsynaptic potentials elicited by PPN
674 stimulation in vitro are partly blocked by glutamate receptor
675 antagonists and wholly blocked by the addition of acetylcholine
676 receptor antagonists (Futami et al. 1995). In vivo electrical
677 stimulation of the PPN produces short latency activation
678 of most neurons recorded, which is also blocked by gluta-
679 mate (non-NMDA) and acetylcholine receptor antagonists
680 (Scarnati et al. 1986; Scarnati et al. 1987; Di Loreto et al.
681 1992; Lokwan et al. 1999). It is possible that the glutamater-
682 gic input to SNc dopaminergic neurons from the PPN
683 favors the activation of non-NMDA receptors (Di Loreto
684 et al. 1992; Meltzer et al. 1997b), but the basis for this is
685 unclear. Nevertheless, the activity seen in SNc dopaminergic
686 neurons following electrical stimulation of the PPN frequently
687 contains burst firing (Lokwan et al. 1999). Chemical stimula-
688 tion of the PPN results in an increase in burst firing, but not the
689 firing rate of ventral tegmental area dopaminergic neurons,
690 which are similar but not identical to nigral dopaminergic
691 neurons in their responses to afferent input (Floresco et al.
692 2003; Keath et al. 2007).

693 **Receptors Mediating Cholinergic Actions on** 694 **SNc Dopaminergic Neurons**

695 Anatomical studies have demonstrated the presence of both
696 ionotropic nicotinic receptors and G-protein coupled musca-
697 rinic receptors in the substantia nigra (Deutch et al. 1987;
698 Nastuk and Graybiel 1991). Nicotinic agonists potentiate
699 glutamatergic EPSPs (Yamashita and Isa 2004) and the
700 firing rate of nigral dopaminergic neurons decreases in re-
701 sponse to a nicotinic antagonist (Clarke et al. 1985). The
702 infusion of a muscarinic antagonist into the SN reduces
703 striatal dopamine levels (Miller and Blaha 2005). Thus,
704 both nicotinic and muscarinic receptors contribute to the
705 tonic cholinergic modulation of SNc dopaminergic neuron
706 activity. In addition, there are likely presynaptic effects
707 mediated by the cholinergic input as acetylcholine acts
708 to decrease glutamatergic and GABAergic input to midbrain
709 dopaminergic neurons through muscarinic receptors
710 (Grillner et al. 2000; Grillner and Mercuri 2002; Zheng
711 and Johnson 2003) and enhances both glutamatergic and
712 GABAergic inputs through nicotinic receptors (Mansvelder
713 et al. 2002, but see Grillner and Mercuri 2002).

Peripherally administered nicotine induces an increase in
the firing rate as well as burst firing in SNc dopaminergic
neurons in vivo (Lichtensteiger et al. 1976, 1982; Clarke
et al. 1985; Grenhoff et al. 1986). In vitro, nicotinic receptor
stimulation causes a depolarization and increase in firing
rate, but not burst firing, in midbrain dopaminergic neurons
as well as the subsequent activation of a calcium-activated
nonselective cation conductance (Calabresi et al. 1989;
Pidoplichko et al. 1997; Sorenson et al. 1998; Yin and
French 2000; Matsubayashi et al. 2003; Yamashita and
Isa 2003).

Muscarinic receptor stimulation causes an increase in
firing rate and burst firing in ventral tegmental area neurons
in vivo, but only the effect on firing rate, not burst firing
is observed in SNc dopaminergic neurons (Gronier and
Rasmussen 1998). In vitro, muscarinic (M1) receptor
stimulation causes a depolarization of SNc dopaminergic
neurons and an increase in their spontaneous firing rate
and the frequency of oscillatory potentials underlying
firing (Lacey et al. 1990; Scroggs et al. 2001). However,
with varying durations of activation, muscarinic receptors
have been observed to cause hyperpolarization with brief
activation and depolarization with more prolonged activa-
tion (Fiorillo and Williams 2000; Blythe et al. 2007). The
initial hyperpolarization is caused by the activation of an
SK channel, while the depolarization is likely caused by the
activation of a nonselective cation current (Lacey et al.
1990; Fiorillo and Williams 2000). Nevertheless, the main
effect of PPN stimulation is an increase in striatal dopa-
mine levels, suggesting that the main role of the mixed
input from the PPN is to increase activity in SNc dopami-
nergic neurons (Forster and Blaha 2003).

746 **Summary and Conclusions**

747 Though receiving input from outside the basal ganglia, the
748 afferents from within the basal ganglia play a major role in
749 the control and modulation of the firing rate and the pattern
750 of activity of substantia nigra dopaminergic neurons.
751 Although these neurons do not require any synaptic input
752 to generate spontaneous activity, a tonic glutamatergic input
753 from the STN and PPN increases their firing rate and appears
754 necessary for burst firing. Burst firing is powerfully sup-
755 pressed by GABAergic input originating from striatum,
756 globus pallidus, and substantia nigra pars reticulata projec-
757 tion neurons and modulated by cholinergic input through
758 both nicotinic and muscarinic receptors, as well as metabo-
759 tropic glutamate receptors. Glutamatergic and cholinergic
760 G-protein coupled receptors have been shown to attenuate
761 synaptically evoked activity in SNc dopaminergic neurons
762 in vitro, suggesting that brief, synaptically evoked activation

of these receptors is generally inhibitory, but different responses could be expected with varying durations of activation as might occur in vivo. Therefore, GABAergic, cholinergic, and metabotropic glutamate receptors largely act as gain control mechanisms, decreasing and increasing the effect of glutamate acting through ionotropic receptors on the firing pattern of SNc dopaminergic neurons.

The interactions of afferent input that shape the activity of SNc dopaminergic neurons are complex and involve a multitude of ionotropic and metabotropic receptors acting directly on the neurons themselves, as well as presynaptically shaping the inputs to them. In addition, the neurons can modulate the input they receive on a local level through dendritic dopamine release leading to the activation of presynaptic dopamine receptors that affect GABA release, as well as their own responsiveness to afferent input by controlling dendritic excitability through D2 autoreceptors. The complex actions and interactions of afferent input to nigral dopaminergic neurons serve as the basis for the signaling repertoire displayed by these neurons, which through their effects on forebrain dopamine levels, influences much of the functioning of the basal ganglia as a whole.

Conflicts of interest statement We declare that we have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments Supported in part by NS034865 (JMT). We thank Fulva Shah for helpful comments on the manuscript.

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