Title:	A mathematical model of dopamine autoreceptors and uptake inhibitors and their influence on tonic and phasic dopamine signaling	
Running head:	Uptake and autoreceptors influence DA signals	
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3 **Abstract:**

4 Dopamine (DA) D2-like autoreceptors are an important component in the DA 5 system. But their influence on postsynaptic DA signaling is not well understood. 6 They are, directly or indirectly, involved in drug abuse and in treatment of 7 schizophrenia and attention deficit hyperactive disorder: DA autoreceptors influence 8 the behavioral effect of cocaine and methylphenidate and may be the target of 9 antipsychotic medication such as haloperidol. DA autoreceptors are active at two 10 levels: Somatodendritic autoreceptors mainly influence firing rate of DA neurons and 11 presynaptic autoreceptors control release of neurotransmitter at axonal terminals. 12 Here we develop a mathematical model that captures the dynamics of this dual 13 autoregulation system. Our model predicts a biphasic autoreceptor response 14 between DA terminals and somatodendritic regions that influences the postsynaptic 15 integration of DAergic firing patterns. We applied our model to study how DA 16 uptake inhibition affects the translation of DA cell firing into activation of post 17 synaptic DA receptors. While uptake inhibition increased tonic activation of low 18 affinity postsynaptic receptors, high affinity state receptors saturated and thus 19 became insensitive to phasic DA signaling. This effect had remarkable regional 20 specificity: While high affinity DA receptors in nucleus accumbens saturated at low 21 levels of uptake inhibition they only saturated at higher levels of uptake inhibition in 22 dorsal striatum. Based on high affinity receptor saturation, the model predicted that 23 removal of autoreceptor control would lead to cocaine hypersensitivity.

Keywords

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27	Burst, striatum, nucleus accumbens, D2 receptor, D1 receptor, cocaine,
28	methylphenidate, D2 antagonist, D2 agonist, locomotor, ADHD, reward
29	antipsychotic, modeling, computational
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Introduction

Dopamine (DA) in nucleus accumbens and dorsal striatum is critical for reward and
goal oriented behavior (Grace et al. 2007; Schultz 1998). DA signaling, or the lack
thereof, is the turning point of major disorders such as drug abuse, schizophrenia,
Parkinson's Disease, and attention deficit hyperactive disorder (ADHD) (Dagher and
Robbins 2009; Howes and Kapur 2009; Volkow et al. 2010).
A wide range of DA related behavior and cognitive functions are distorted by either
too low or too high DA levels (Cools and D'Esposito 2011). Thus precise control over
the DA signal seems highly critical to normal function. For this reason it is no surprise
that DA neurons are controlled by a complex system of D2 and D3 autoreceptors.
Reduced autoreceptor control has been implicated in impulsivity (Buckholtz et al.
2010) and enhances the behavioral effect of cocaine (Bello et al. 2011). DA
autoreceptors may even be primary target of certain antipsychotics (Moller 2005).
DA autoreceptors affect multiple aspects of DA signaling including firing rate, DA
synthesis and terminal release (Beaulieu and Gainetdinov 2011). DA release in
somatodendritic regions interacts with somatodendritic autoreceptors inhibiting
firing of DA neurons (Beckstead et al. 2004; Cragg and Greenfield 1997; Pucak and
Grace 1994). At the same time DA release from axonal terminals interacts with D2
receptors expressed on presynaptic terminals regulating release and synthesis
(Benoit-Marand et al. 2001; Dugast et al. 1997; el Mestikawy et al. 1986; Schmitz et
al. 2003).

The rich dynamics of DA autoreceptors and their influence on DA levels and transients has been studied intensively (Benoit-Marand et al. 2001; Gonon and Buda 1985; Phillips et al. 2002; Zhang et al. 2009). However, a unified description of the coupling between pre- and postsynaptic DA signaling is still lacking. Fixed amplitude models neglect dynamic changes in DA release (Dreyer et al. 2010; Venton et al. 2003; Wightman and Zimmerman 1990). Consequently, they are only valid for small perturbations in DA signaling. Variable release models include facilitation and depression of release by artificially evoked spike trains (Montague et al. 2004). However, the static parameters of the variable release model include implicit effects of multiple factors including autoreceptors, uptake, diffusion, and tonic DA activity. Thus the dynamic changes in DA signaling when their relative contributions are altered by drugs or disease are not accounted for. Here we model how somatodendritic and presynaptic autoreceptors influence activation of post synaptic DA D1 and D2 receptors by DA cell firing. In our model, the contribution of autoreceptors is explicit so that effects of their manipulations can be estimated and tested. Reliable estimates of concurrent pre- and postsynaptic DA transmission required a bottom-up biophysical reconstruction of DA release in axonal terminal fields, including estimates of the occupancy of terminal autoreceptors. At the same time concurrent somatodendritic release was simulated to provide negative feedback for the firing of DA neurons. In the first part of this report we provide estimates of DA levels and transients and make predictions on how these may be altered in typical experimental paradigms

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75	where DA release is evoked by electrical stimulations. We found that autoreceptors
76	introduce an interplay between somatodendritic and terminal DA.
77	We then investigate how autoreceptors influence postsynaptic signaling of naturally
78	occurring phasic firing patterns relevant for reward signaling (Schultz 1998). We
79	found that high and low affinity postsynaptic receptors were differentially affected
80	by bursts and pauses in DA cell firing. Autoreceptors effectively increased the
81	specificity of burst and pauses to low and high affinity post synaptic receptors.
82	Finally, we apply the model to study the effect of dopamine uptake inhibition on the
83	translation of DA cell firing to activation of postsynaptic receptors. Here, the most
84	prominent effect of uptake inhibition was saturation of high affinity post synaptic
85	receptors. This blocked their ability to respond to phasic DA cell firing. In nucleus
86	accumbens this occurred at levels of uptake inhibition in the therapeutic range
87	whereas dorsal striatum was affected by uptake inhibition at locomotor stimulating
88	levels.

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Glossary

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ADHD Attention Deficit Hyperactive Disorder $AR(\mathbf{r},t) \qquad \qquad \text{Occupancy at time } t \text{ of autoreceptors at location } \mathbf{r}$

Average occupancy autoreceptors at terminal i on

 $AR_{j}^{i}(t)$ neuron j

AUC Area under curve

C Concentration of DA

DA Dopamine

DAT Dopamine transporter

Incremental release of somatodendritic DA for a single

 $\Delta C_{\text{soma}} \hspace{1.5cm} \text{action potential} \\$

 D_{coc}^{ip} Dose of ip cocaine in mg/kg

 $D_{coc}^{i\nu}$ Dose of iv cocaine in mg/kg

High affinity postsynaptic dopamine receptor (EC50 =

DRH $0.010 \,\mu\text{M}$)

Low affinity postsynaptic dopamine receptor (EC50 = 1

DRL μ M)

DS Dorsal striatum

i.p. Intra peritoneal

i.v. Intra veneous

 k_{off} Off-rate for DA binding to presynaptic autoreceptors

 k_{on} On-rate for DA binding to presynaptic autoreceptors

K_{app} Apparent Michaelis Menten constant

*K*_i Inhibition constant for competive uptake inhibitor

K_m Michaelis Menten constant

MP Methylphenidate

NAcc Nucleus accumbens

Effective firing rate of DA neurons, realized by input

firing rate minus inhibition by somatodendritic

 V_{eff} autoreceptors

Input firing rate to the model. The firing rate realized in

*V*_{in} absence of somatodendritic autoinhibition

P_{max} Highest possible vesicular release probability

P_{min} Lowest possible vesicular release probability

P_r Vesicular release probability

SNc Substantia nigra pars compacta

 V_{max} Michaelis Menten uptake parameter

VTA Ventral tegmental area

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Methods

The aim of this work was to develop an integrated model of DA volume transmission

95 that can predict the dynamic effects of somatodendritic and presynaptic DA

autoreceptors and how these influence the postsynaptic effect of DA cell firing. The

97 input parameters to the model are primarily based on observations in rodents.

98 We analyzed DA signaling from a systems perspective and investigated volume

mediated signals by an ensemble of DA neurons projecting to a common target area

in NAcc or DS (Dreyer et al. 2010). We assumed that the activity of the ensemble was

described by the population averaged firing rate. The experimentally observed firing

rate is determined by a combination of external synaptic input and intrinsic currents

where inhibitory GIRK channels controlled by somatodendritic autoreceptors play a

104 partial role. In our systems approach we separated these terms so that

$$105 \qquad v_{eff} = v_{in} - \Delta v_{auto}$$

106 Equation 1

Here v_{eff} is the effective firing rate and v_{in} is the input firing rate. The effective firing rate is the firing rate observed experimentally and determines both somatodendritic and terminal release. The input firing rate is defined as the firing rate of DA neurons driven by all external and internal current inputs except those mediated by autoreceptors. The last term, Δv_{auto} , is the reduction in firing rate mediated by currents induced by somatodendritic autoinhibition.

To keep matters simple we avoided direct calculation of the ionic currents assumed to be responsible for these terms. Instead, we established an empirical relation between DA levels in the somatodendritic region directly and the effective firing rate based on experimental data (See Figure 1 and Equation 5).

Similarly we assumed terminal release probability to be regulated by the occupancy of presynaptic autoreceptors. These autoreceptors are assumed to be sensitive to the local DA level around release sites. Again we established a heuristic relation between occupancy of presynaptic autoreceptors at a given terminal and its release probability but avoid direct calculation of the underlying ionic currents at the terminal assumed to mediate the effect.

Consequently, the dual autoregulation system was modeled as two systems, somatodendritic and terminal, each providing a feedback mechanism based on the

local DA concentration. Finally, activation of post synaptic DA receptors was predicted from the spatiotemporal concentration extracellular DA in terminal areas assuming DA volume transmission (Dreyer et al. 2010). When applying the model to investigate the effect of uptake inhibition we assumed that these directly increased the apparent Michaelis Menten constant of the uptake.

Implementation of competitive uptake inhibition

131 When simulating inhibited uptake conditions we used an apparent Michaelis-

Menten constant K_{app} where $K_{app} \ge K_M$, where $K_M = 0.16 \,\mu\text{M}$ is the native uptake

133 constant (John and Jones 2007). To bridge with in vivo studies, we assumed the

following linear relation between i.p. dose of cocaine and apparent uptake constant

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$$K_{app} = 0.056 \mu \text{M} (\text{mg/kg})^{-1} D_{coc}^{ip} + K_M$$

136 Equation 2

where D_{coc}^{ip} is the i.p. dose of cocaine in mg/kg. Equation 2 is based on the observation by Oleson et al (Oleson et al. 2009) that K_{app} peaks at 1.0062 μ M following administration of 15 mg/kg i.p. cocaine. Note that for this value of K_{app} is reached 20 minutes after delivery of drug (Oleson et al. 2009). We also use Equation 2 when discussing uptake inhibited by i.p. methylphenidate (MP). In this case we correct for the different inhibitory potency at the DAT ($K_I = 0.35 \, \mu$ M for cocaine and $K_I = 0.21 \, \mu$ M for methylphenidate (John and Jones 2007)). Relative scales between K_{app} and doses of i.p. cocaine and i.p. MP are provided under the x-axis of Figure 1A. Under these assumptions, 2 mg/kg i.p. MP or 3 mg/kg i.p. cocaine blocks

approximately 50% of the DA transporters and we consider this to be the

therapeutically relevant level of DAT inhibition (Volkow et al. 1998).

148 In order to estimate apparent uptake constants following i.v. cocaine. Here we

interpolated linearly over the peak values in experimentally observed K_{app} by España

et al (Espana et al. 2008). The resulting relation was

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$$K_{app} = 0.80 \,\mu\text{M} \,(\text{mg/kg})^{-1} D_{coc}^{iv} + K_{M}$$

152 Equation 3

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Note that for iv administration the peak value occurs within 30-60s after delivery of

154 drug (Espana et al. 2008).

Our simulations assume steady state concentrations of inhibitor on a time scale of 1

minute which approximate i.p. administration better than i.v. adminstration. We will

therefore use Equation 2 except where noted.

158 Since we assume constant levels of uptake inhibitor our results are mostly relevant

for therapeutic applications, where methylphenidate is a typical drug. However

many animal studies use i.p. cocaine as model substance. Therefore we will compare

our computational results with empirical results of either cocaine or

methylphenidate where appropriate.

Determination of effective DAergic firing rate and somatodendritic DA

concentration

The effective firing rate is determined from the input firing rate and somatodendritic

autoinhibition depending on the somatodendritic DA concentration.

Thus we needed to calculate somatodendritic DA levels in our model. Experimentally the spike-amplitude of DA release in somatodendritic regions is modulated very little by autoreceptors (Cragg and Greenfield 1997). For simplicity we therefore used a fixed amplitude model to calculate the somatodendritic DA level as function of the effective firing rate (Wightman and Zimmerman 1990). The somatodendritic DA concentration, *C*, was determined numerically by solving

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$$\frac{dC_{soma}}{dt} = \Delta C_{soma} \Pi_{spike}(v_{eff}) - \frac{V_{max}^{soma} C_{soma}}{K_{app} + C_{soma}}$$

Equation 4

where $\Delta C_{soma} = 0.02~\mu\text{M}$ is the incremental release of DA pr spike, $V_{max}^{soma} = 0.2\mu\text{M/s}$ is the maximum DA uptake capacity in the somatodendritic region (John et al. 2006), and Π_{spike} is a stochastic variable taking value 1 if a spike occurs within the current time step of the integration and 0 otherwise. This was determined by a Poisson process depending on the effective firing rate ν_{eff} . To minimize the effect random fluctuations we averaged Equation 4 10 times to calculate C_{soma} .

To model somatodendritic autoreceptors we needed to determine the link between somatodendritic DA levels and how this reduce effective firing rate. For this we used the relation between tonic firing rate and iv dose of cocaine established by Einhorn et al (Einhorn et al. 1988). We first assumed that ν_{eff} = 4 Hz in the control case and linked effective firing rate and K_{app} calculated using Equation 3 (Figure 1A, each data point corresponds to an observation by Einhorn et al. Filled markers indicate conditions shown in Panel B). We then used Equation 4 to calculate somatic DA levels for each pair of ν_{eff} and κ_{app} (Figure 1B). We then observed a linear relation

between the average DA levels and effective firing rate (Figure 1C, circles are
 constructed from Einhorn observations, filled markers are the conditions shown in

191 Figure 1B, dashed line is the linear relation v_{eff} = 5 Hz - 8 Hz/ μ M* C_{soma}).

We assumed this linear relationship to reflect a fundamental relation between

different components affecting firing of DA neurons. We therefore generalized the

linear relation and assumed that autoreceptors reduce cell firing with an amount

proportional to somatodendritic DA levels.

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Since effective firing rate determines its own inhibition we constantly updated effective firing rate and somatodendritic DA levels in parallel. In each time step $\nu_{\rm eff}$ was determined from the instantaneous somatodendritic DA levels using

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$$v_{eff}(t) = \begin{cases} v_{\text{target}}(t) - \alpha C(t) & \text{for } \alpha C(t) < v_{\text{target}}(t) \\ 0 & \text{for } \alpha C(t) \ge v_{\text{target}}(t) \end{cases}$$
 Equation 5

where α =8 Hz/ μ M and where ν_{in} indicates the input firing rate. Note that if αC_{soma} > ν_{in} , the effective firing rate is set to 0. We use ν_{in} as control parameter of the model and bursts and pauses in neuron population are generated by temporal variations in input firing rate.

When simulating artificially evoked release we assumed that the firing rate of the evoked spike train was independent on somatodendritic autoinhibition.

Calculation of extracellular DA level in axon terminal regions

The DA levels in terminal regions were calculated by a diffusion model incorporating DA vesicular release from distinct release sites, extracellular diffusion and Michaelis Menten reuptake. Details and parameters are described in Dreyer et al. 2010). In brief, the model describes 3D spatiotemporal evolution of DA

concentration in cubic volume. DA levels in the simulation space were determined by vesicular release from spatially distinct terminals.

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By selecting different parameter settings we modeled DA signaling in either Nucleus accumbens (NAcc) or dorsal striatum (DS). In our model these two areas differ by innervation density of DA terminals (DS, 0.1 terminals pr μm³; NAcc, 0.06 terminals pr μ m³ (Doucet et al. 1986) and by total uptake capacity (DS, Vmax = 4.1 μ Ms⁻¹; NAcc, , Vmax = $1.5 \,\mu\text{Ms}^{-1}$)(Cragg and Rice 2004; Garris et al. 1994a). The size of the simulation space was set to accommodate exactly 1500 DA release sites. Thus the diameter of the simulation space was 29.2 μm when simulating NAcc and 24.7 μm when simulating DS. Figure 2A shows a high spatial resolution image of instantaneous DA concentrations during tonic firing. Black dots indicate DA release sites and the spatial concentration of extracellular DA is indicated by color. Due to anatomical constraints, the terminal simulation space is assumed to contain terminals from an ensemble of 100 different neurons. Spikes of each neuron were determined by independent Poisson processes with intensity determined by $v_{\rm eff}$. Thus the average firing rate across the ensemble was approximately $v_{\rm eff}$ but with fluctuations due to the random spike generating process. The Poisson process was also used when simulating evoked release.

In order to accurately model the location of DA transporters at terminals, we focused DA uptake at the release sites (Figure 2B, spatial resolution as in typical simulations). Details concerning the implementation of localized DA uptake are given below.

Autoreceptor control of terminal release probability

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Experimental voltammetry studies show that autoreceptor control of axonal terminal DA release is bidirectional: Release is increased by D2 antagonist drugs and decreased by D2 agonists. Typically the dynamic range observed roughly covers a factor of 2 to either side in evoked DA release (Dugast et al. 1997; Gonon and Buda 1985; Herr et al. 2010; Wu et al. 2002). In our model, the spike amplitude of terminal DA release is proportional to the density of release sites, the number DA molecules in DA vesicles, and the probability that a terminal releases a vesicle with an action potential (Dreyer et al. 2010; Wallace and Hughes 2008). Even though DA autoreceptors could potentially be involved in regulation a all of these factors, we find it most likely that the fast time scale effects relevant for phasic DA signaling are mediated by dynamic modulation of the release probability. In our model terminal i on neuron j release a vesicle with probability P_i^i when neuron *j* fires. In a preliminary study we estimated the typical vesicular release probability to be 6% (Dreyer et al. 2010). To be consistent with the approximately 2-fold dynamic range of release amplitudes we therefore set Pmin= 2.5 % as the minimal release probability, corresponding to terminal autoreceptors fully activated, and Pmax = 15% as the maximal release probability, realized when terminal autoreceptors are fully deactivated. To enable bidirectional control we assumed the EC50 of terminal autoreceptors to be 40 nM, around the expected basal level of the model (Dreyer et al. 2010).

Occupancy and spatial distribution of presynaptic autoreceptors

We assumed that the release probability pr action potential for each release site was controlled by autoreceptors sensitive to the time varying DA level around the terminal. The occupancy of autoreceptors at location **r** at time *t* was calculated dynamically by numerical integration of

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$$\frac{d \operatorname{AR}(\mathbf{r},t)}{dt} = C(\mathbf{r},t)k_{on} (1 - \operatorname{AR}(\mathbf{r},t)) - k_{off} \operatorname{AR}(\mathbf{r},t)$$

260 Equation 6

where $C(\mathbf{r},t)$ is the concentration of DA at position \mathbf{r} and at time t, AR(\mathbf{r},t) is the corresponding occupancy of autoreceptors and k_{off} and k_{on} denote the off and on rates of DA interaction with terminal D2 receptors. To our knowledge, these on-and off rates have not been directly measured for DA. We used $k_{on} = 10 \, \mu \text{M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Chance 1943) and set $k_{off} = 0.4 \, \text{s}^{-1}$ to give 50% occupancy at the EC50 described above. We verified that the time course of autoinhibition was in agreement with experimental observations (Benoit-Marand et al. 2001; Phillips et al. 2002).

Equation 6 describes the occupancy state of autoreceptors at any location in simulation space. The influence of autoreceptors on a particular terminal was determined as a weighted average of $AR(\mathbf{r}, t)$ where autoreceptors close to the terminal have the highest influence. Thus for terminal i on neuron j the average occupancy of terminal autoreceptors at time t was determined by as

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$$AR_{i}^{j}(t) = \int_{\Omega} \frac{AR(\mathbf{r},t)}{\left(2\pi r_{term}^{2}\right)^{3/2}} \exp\left(\frac{\left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_{ij}\right)^{2}}{2r_{term}^{2}}\right) d\mathbf{r}$$

274 Equation 7

where r_{term} = 0.25 μ m is the half width of the terminal (Pickel et al. 1992) and \mathbf{r}_{ij} is

the location of the terminal. The integral extends over the simulation space and the

277 normalization was corrected for boundary effects.

278 Once the average occupancy of terminal autoreceptors for the terminal was

established, the release probability was determined by linear interpolation

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$$P_i^j(t) = (P_{\min} - P_{\max})AR_i^j(t) + P_{\max}$$

281 Equation 8

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where P_{min} = 2.5% and P_{max} = 15% as described above (Figure 2 C shows relationship

between equilibrium DA concentration and P_r). Note that the release probability

describes the probability of release for a single terminal, number *i* on neuron *j*.

Different terminals in the simulation space will generally experience different

dynamical DA concentrations and therefore have different release probability. In

particular, a single vesicular release event will brifly reduce the release probability of

the releasing terminal in a time span after the release (Figure 2 D, see red line at T =

2.2 s and blue line at T = 4.3 s).

Presynaptic location of dopamine transporters

291 Since DA transporters are primarily expressed on DA neurons near release sites

292 (Hersch et al. 1997) we used a space dependent uptake,

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$$V_{\text{max}}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{ij} \frac{V_0}{\left(2\pi r_{term}^2\right)^{3/2}} \exp\left[\frac{\left(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_{ij}\right)^2}{2r_{term}^2}\right]$$

294 Equation 9

where V_0 is a constant equivalent to the uptake capacity pr terminal, other parameters are defined as in Equation 7. The value of V_0 was selected so that the total volume-averaged uptake was equal $V_{\rm max}$ in the simulation space, such as 1.5 μ M/s for simulation of NAcc. In Equation 9 the uptake capacity is high near release sites and low further away as shown in Figure 2B.

Electrochemical measurements of DA uptake typically use carbon about 50 μ m long (Venton et al. 2003). Such electrodes sample volumes considerably larger than 1 μ m³ and therefore report the volume average of V_{max} (\mathbf{r}). In our simulations the DA levels and activation of pre- and post synaptic receptors was also mainly determined by the volume averaged uptake (see below).

1.1 Quantification of post synaptic DA signaling.

Post synaptic DA receptors are classified into D1-like and D2 like receptors depending on their ability to facilitate or depress the production of post synaptic cyclic AMP (Beaulieu and Gainetdinov 2011). Both of these receptor subtypes may exist in high and low affinity states. We hypothesized spatially uniform distributions of low affinity (DRL, EC50 \approx 1000 nM) and high affinity (DRH, EC50 \approx 10 nM) receptors (May 1992) and assumed these receptors to be sensitive to DA volume transmission in terminal areas. In each time step of the simulation, the activity of post synaptic DA receptors was determined as a 3D volume integral of the spatial

distribution of terminal DA (Figure 2A) assuming local quasi-equilibrium (Dreyer et al. 2010).

316 The effect of bursts or pauses was quantified in terms the change in area under

317 curve (\triangle AUC), calculated as

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$$\Delta AUC = \int_{0}^{T} \left(DR_{phasic}(t) - \left\langle DR_{tonic} \right\rangle \right) dt$$

319 Equation 10

where $DR_{\mathrm{phasic}}(t)$ is the estimated activation of DA receptor (either high or low affinity) and $\left\langle DR_{\mathrm{tonic}}\right\rangle$ is the average activation by tonic firing in the same brain region and with the same level of uptake inhibition. Except where stated, the integral extended over the whole duration of the transient, including possible long-term compensatory effects of somatodendritic and terminal autoinhibition. Note that when the phasic signal is a pause, the Δ AUC becomes negative.

Bursts and pauses were simulated as a repeating pattern of 4 cycles each with a period of 10 s simulated time. The initial DA level in the simulation space was estimated by the tonic firing rate, uptake and autoinhibition. To stabilize DA levels, simulations were run for 5s simulated time before collecting results.

The model was implemented in Matlab 7.8 (The Mathworks) and numerical integration was performed using the forward Euler method.

Results

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333 Tonic and phasic activation of terminal autoreceptors 334 We used our model to investigate DA signaling in DS and NAcc, areas highly 335 innervated by DA terminals. 336 We first investigated DA levels produced by steady state tonic firing. By setting ν_{in} = 337 5 Hz, our model stabilized at approximately 4 Hz effective firing rate and with 338 constant somatodendritic DA level around 0.1 µM. 339 The tonic activity gave 0.047 \pm 0.01 μ M baseline level in DS and 0.067 \pm 0.01 μ M in 340 NAcc (mean \pm standard deviation). Here the standard deviation indicates variability 341 due to random fluctuation in firing rate and stochastic release. Considering that 342 critical parameters such as tonic firing rate, DA innervation density, and uptake have 343 high variability even within same subject, we consider the above difference in tonic 344 DA levels between NAcc and DS to be relatively small compared to the inherent 345 uncertainty in our model (Garris et al. 1994b; Grace and Bunney 1984b; Hyland et al. 346 2002; Koulchitsky et al. 2012; Moquin and Michael 2009; Wightman et al. 2007). 347 With tonic activity, the average release probability across terminals was 7-8% (Figure 348 2D black line). Comparing with the maximal release probability ($P_{max} = 15\%$) this 349 relative difference indicates a substantial tonic occupancy of terminal 350 autoreceptors as observed by Dugast et al (Dugast et al. 1997). In comparison, the

difference between input firing rate (5 Hz) and effective firing rate (4 Hz) mediated by tonic DA levels in somatodendritic regions was relatively small. This is in agreement with the 20% increase in firing rate after administration of D2 receptor antagonists observed by Pucak and Grace (Pucak and Grace 1994). We then investigated the time course of autoinhibition using evoked transients. Here we simulated two evoked DA transients each generated by evoked release equivalent to 3 spikes at 100 Hz firing rate. The trains were separated by a small time difference Δt . We then determined the amplitude of the second transient relative to the first transient (Figure 3 A1). We found that inhibition was maximal at Δt = 200 ms - 400 ms and decayed over 2 s (Figure 3 A2, circles). The time course is similar to observations *in vivo* by Benoit-Marand et al (Benoit-Marand et al. 2001)(Figure 3 A2, asterisk) and in vitro by Phillips et al (Phillips et al. 2002). However, at Δt < 100 ms our model underestimates the trailing DA transient,

Complex interplay between DA levels in the somatodendritic region,

probably because it does not include pulse-to-pulse facilitation.

firing rate and terminal release

Our model couples somatic and terminal autoinhibition, two systems with different kinetics and behavior. When the DA system is perturbed from the resting state, for example by strong evoked release, the combined response of these systems may not be easily discerned experimentally. We therefore modeled typical experimental situations where transient release from DA neurons is evoked artificially.

We first investigated the case where tonic firing is interrupted by an evoked 0.5 s stimulus at 20 Hz firing rate (giving on average 10 spikes per DA neuron). The effective firing rate during the stimulus was assumed to overcome the effect of somatodendritic autoinhibition; only the spontaneous activity after the stimulus was affected.

The stimulus evoked a somatodendritic DA transient of $0.2~\mu M$ (Figure 3 B, solid) that in turn caused a temporal post stimulus depression in effective firing rate, from 4 Hz before the stimulus to 2.4 Hz after the stimulus. The slow decay of the somatodendritic DA transient lead to a relatively slow recovery of the effective firing rate (Figure 3 C, inset, solid).

In DS we observed DA transient of about 0.3 μ M in amplitude (Figure 3 D, solid black). The onset of the transient was relatively fast. However, during the stimulus the release was reduced and the transient stagnated. This was mediated by temporal reduction of the release probability at the terminal level (Figure 3E, solid black). Thus saturation of terminal autoreceptors affected the shape of the transient. We then calculated the effective firing rate following a strong stimulus, equivalent to 50 spikes at 60 Hz. Because the stimulus evoked a somatodendritic transient higher than 0.63 μ M (Figure 3 B, dashed), we observed a complete stop in firing ($\nu_{\rm eff}$ = 0) lasting 3 s after termination of the stimulus and a depression of firing for up to 10 s after end of the stimulus (Figure 3 C, inset dashed). This may be compared to experimental observations by Kuhr et al., where electrical stimulation of the medial

forebrain bundle by 120 pulses at 60 Hz caused a 90% reduction of DA cell firing in

the first 10 s and a 50% reduction of cell firing between 10 and 20 s after the stimulus (Kuhr et al. 1987).

As a result of the high effective firing rate, we observed a 1.6 μ M DA transient in DS. The transient had biphasic shape, with quick onset transiting into a slower increase phase 200-300 ms after onset of stimulus. After the stimulus the concentration of DA reached 0 due to the post stimulus inhibition of firing rate (Figure 3 D and inset, black dashed).

The strong stimulus evoked considerable increase in presynaptic autoinhibition.

During the 60 Hz stimulus, the release probability came close to the minimum value of 2.5%. Interestingly, after the stimulus ended the long lasting depression of tonic firing was compensated by a reduction in tonic terminal autoinhibition. Thus 3-8 s after the stimulus terminal release probability was increased compared to the resting value (Figure 3 E, black dashed).

Qualitative differences in autoreceptor control between DS and NAcc are often observed experimentally (Zhang et al. 2009). It is not known whether these differences are mediated directly by different autoreceptor architecture or in directly, by differences in release and uptake. We therefore compared simulated autoreceptor control of evoked release in NAcc and DS.

DAergic neurons that project to NAcc are located in ventral tegmental area (VTA) whereas DAergic neurons in substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc) project to DS. For simplicity we assumed that somatodendritic DA concentrations could be estimated using same parameters. Therefore the evoked stimuli in either region shared

somatodendritic DA concentration and also the same effective firing rate (Figure 3 B and Figure 3 C). The transients produced by the same stimuli were of similar size but transients in NAcc appeared less bimodal and thus seemed less affected by terminal autoreceptors than in DS (Figure 3D, gray. Solid low stimulus, dashed high stimulus). However, the temporal evolution of the release probability in the two simulated regions was qualitatively similar (Figure 3E, gray). Thus, in our model, differences in release and uptake accounts for different shape of evoked transients in DS and NAcc.

Autoinhibition allows specific post synaptic integration of phasic DA

signals

Bursts and pauses in firing of midbrain DA neurons are hypothesized to encode reward prediction errors giving crucial information for behavior (Bayer et al. 2007; Schultz 1998). Our model predicts that a brief burst will be followed by a long lasting somatodendritic depression in firing rate. Also, a pause in cell firing may evoke temporary increased firing rate after the pause. These effects oppose phasic signals and, if not carefully balanced, they could possibly quench their post synaptic integration. We therefore estimated how autoreceptors affected the post synaptic activation of high affinity (DRH) and low affinity (DRL) dopamine receptors to bursts and pauses.

We represented bursts by tonic activity interrupted by 21 Hz input firing rate (giving 20 Hz effective firing rate with the amount of autoinhibition generated by tonic somatodendritic DA levels). The bursts were of varying length between 0.05 s and 0.6 s, equivalent to 1-12 spikes at 20 Hz effective rate.

The effective firing rate during bursts was influenced by somatodendritic autoinhibition. At burst onset, the effective firing rate was close to 20 Hz (Figure 4 A1). Hereafter, the effective firing rate decreased slightly during the burst and for the longest burst the effective firing rate was 19 Hz at the end (Figure 4 B1). After the burst, increased somatodendritic autoinhibition lead to lower effective tonic firing rates: after the longest burst the tonic firing rate had dropped to 2.8 Hz (Figure 4 B1 inset). The opposite effect was observed for pauses in firing patterns. Here there was a transient decrease in somatodendritic DA levels (Figure 4 A2) and subsequent increase up to 4.9 Hz in tonic firing rate (Figure 4 B2). In both cases the autoreceptor compensation increased with the duration of the phasic signal. Phasic DA levels in NAcc were affected by compensation of somatodendritic and terminal autoreceptors. The bursts generated 0.2-0.4 µM DA transients in NAcc (Figure 4 C1). The combination of somatodendritic and presynaptic autoinhibition affected the shape of the transients especially from long bursts. Thus after the transient DA levels in NAcc were reduced compared to tonic levels (Figure 4 C1) and after pauses DA levels were temporarily increased (Figure 4 C2). We then evaluated the effect of bursts and pauses on time resolved activity of high and low affinity dopamine receptors. With tonic firing of DA neurons, the low affinity

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DA receptors (DRL) were 6% activated. Bursts transiently increased activation to 20-30% depending on burst length (Figure 4 D1). Tonic firing lead to 83% activation of high affinity receptors (DRH). Here bursts transiently increased activation to 90-95% depending on burst length (Figure 4 E1).

Autoreceptors dynamically affected activation of post synaptic receptors after the bursts. Under some circumstances these effects contributed with nearly equal magnitude as the phasic signal itself (Figure 4 E1, inset). We therefore quantified the impact of the burst on post synaptic DA receptors by calculating the change in area under curve (\triangle AUC) of the receptor activation relative to the tonic baseline (Equation 10). Upward transient receptor activation above baseline gives a positive contribution to the AUC, downward transients gives a negative contribution. In our case a burst first gave a transient of high activation, contributing positively to the AUC (see for example Figure 4 E1, inset, dark gray area). Bursts were followed by a period of lower than average receptor activity which gave a negative contribution to the AUC (see for example Figure 4 E1, inset, dark gray area). For low affinity receptors, the net change in AUC of the burst and subsequent autoreceptor inhibition was positive (Figure 4 F1, filled) even though autoreceptors reduced the postsynaptic signal (Figure 4 F1, asterisk). On the other hand, the cancellation between positive and negative contributions to the \triangle AUC strong for DRH receptors: Here the \triangle AUC of the whole transient after the burst was nearly 0 (Figure 4 G1, filled), whereas the positive contribution was of similar magnitude as the influence of bursts on DRL (Figure 4 F1, circles). This indicates that autoreceptors strongly reduce the effect of isolated bursts when integrated by high affinity receptors. For pauses there was a similar trend: Here the autoreceptor contribution was

positive and competed with the negative AUC generated by the pause. Effectively

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autoreceptors gave a 30% reduction in DRL signaling of pauses. On the other hand for DRH the compensation for pauses was hardly noticeable (Figure 4 F2 and G2).

Thus our model predicts that bursts affected the activation of low affinity receptors more than high affinity receptors (compare Figure 4 D1 and E1). Pauses in DA cell firing affected high affinity DA receptors more than low affinity receptors (compare Figure 4 D2 and E2). Autoreceptors increase the specificity in burst and pauses targeting low and high affinity receptor population.

Effect of DA uptake inhibition on dopamine signaling

The baseline level of extracellular DA in terminal and somatodendritic regions is sensitive to DA uptake inhibition. However, changes in uptake also evoke multiple compensatory responses of autoreceptors (Aragona et al. 2008; Einhorn et al. 1988; Rouge-Pont et al. 2002). The multiple competing effects make it difficult to deduce how DA uptake inhibitors affect DA signaling without the unified perspective on DA signaling offered by our model.

We first asked how different degrees of DA uptake inhibition would affect basal DA levels in NAcc.

In our model the coupling between somatodendritic dopamine levels and effective firing rate was deduced from experimental observations of firing rate as function of cocaine dose. Therefore, the modeled reductions in firing rate induced by uptake inhibition will by definition be in agreement with experimental data from Einhorn et al. (Compare Figure 5 A1 with Figure 1 A) (Einhorn et al. 1988).

However, even though the firing rate was reduced, uptake inhibition increased the extracellular DA baseline in terminal regions of NAcc from 0.066 μ M in the absence of uptake inhibition ($K_{app} = 0.16 \mu$ M) to 0.134 μ M with uptake inhibition equivalent to 15 mg/kg i.p. cocaine ($K_{app} = 1.0 \mu$ M)(Figure 5 B1, compare blue and cyan, and Figure 5 E1, black circles).

DA uptake inhibition affected tonic activation of postsynaptic receptors. For DRL, the activation increased almost proportionally with increased DA levels (Figure 5 C1 and Figure 5 E1, red). On the other hand the change in activation of high affinity receptors was minor (Figure 5 D1 and Figure 5 E1, blue)

We then asked how DA uptake inhibition would affect post synaptic signaling when tonic firing was interrupted by a burst (Figure 5, second column).

The duration of the burst was 0.25 s, equivalent to 5 spikes at 20 Hz effective firing rate (Grace and Bunney 1984a). The firing rate during bursts was only slightly affected by DA uptake inhibition (Figure 5 A2). Bursts transiently increased the concentration of extracellular DA in NAcc. Without uptake inhibition the height of the transient was 0.23 μ M (Figure 5 B2, blue). As uptake inhibition increased, the relative transient height remained nearly constant.

The transient changes in DA level were closely replicated by the activation of low affinity receptors (DRL, Figure 5 C2). In order to take into account the fact that uptake inhibition decreased the amplitude of transients but increased their width, we quantified the AUC of the transients compared to the baseline (Equation 10).

526 Then the net activation of low affinity receptors from bursts increased slightly 527 (Figure 5 E2, red circles). 528 The integration of bursts by high affinity postsynaptic receptors (DRH) was only 529 marginally affected by DA uptake inhibition: already 90% activated by tonic DA 530 levels, the activity remained high in all conditions and was barely affected by DA 531 uptake inhibition (Figure 5 D2 and Figure 5 E2, blue circles). 532 We then examined the effect of uptake inhibition on postsynaptic integration of a 533 collective 1s pause in DA cell firing. 534 As DA uptake inhibition only affected the tonic firing rate, the effective firing rate 535 during the pause was always 0 (Figure 5 A3 and inset). 536 In absence of uptake inhibition the extracellular DA in NAcc was evacuated within a 537 few hundred milliseconds of the onset of the pause (Figure 5 B3, blue. See also 538 Figure 4). The lowest DA level during the pause was less than 1 nM. 539 With low levels of uptake inhibition, the time course of the temporal depletion of DA 540 during the pause was only slightly changed and the lowest DA level was 3 nM (Figure 541 5 B3, compare green and blue). With the highest level of DAT inhibition, the DA level 542 remained above 50 nM in spite of the pause in cell firing (Figure 5 B3, cyan). 543 As before, activation of low affinity postsynaptic receptors was also sensitive to low 544 DA level in terminal regions during the pause (Figure 5 C3). DAT inhibition had 545 relatively little effect on the Δ AUC from the pause (Figure 5 E3, red). However, the 546 ability of high affinity postsynaptic receptors to respond to pauses in DA neuron 547 firing was dramatically reduced by DAT inhibition: the occurrence of low receptor

activation during the pause was strongly reduced even by low levels of uptake inhibition (Figure 5 D3, compare blue and green) and it was completely extinguished at intermediate levels and above (Figure 5 D3, compare blue with red or cyan, see also Figure 5 E3, blue circles).

We then tested the effect of DA uptake inhibition on phasic signaling in DS. Here we found similar change in basal DA level and in transient integration by low affinity receptors as in NAcc (Figure 5 E1, dashed black, DS, and solid black, NAcc, are nearly coincident. Figure 5 E2, compare dashed red, DS, and red circles, NAcc). However, in comparison to NAcc, the integration of pauses by DS high affinity receptors was substantially less affected by uptake inhibition. For values of K_{app} less than 0.35 μ M there was very little change in Δ AUC. For K_{app} above 0.35 μ M, the response was slower and full saturation was not observed (Figure 5 D3, inset, and Figure 5 E3, dashed blue).

Interestingly, the value of K_{app} at which the DS high affinity receptor ΔAUC is reduced by 50% corresponds to a dose of 15 mg/kg i.p. cocaine. This correlates with the range of doses that lead to increased locomotor activity in rodents (Thomsen and Caine 2011). In a recent study it was shown that mice with conditional knock out of dopamine autoreceptors have increased sensitivity for the locomotor stimulating effects of cocaine (Bello et al. 2011). We therefore asked if removal of autoreceptors would also lead to increased sensitivity to uptake inhibition in our model. And in particular we asked if saturation of high affinity receptors would occur at a lower levels of uptake inhibition (removal of terminal autoreceptors was simulated by setting P_{min} = 14% and removal of somatodendritic autoreceptors was simulated by

setting $v_{eff} = v_{in}$ regardless of somatodendritic DA levels. Other parameters were set for simulation of DS).

We found that DA levels increased much stronger with uptake inhibition in the absence of autoreceptors (Figure 5 E1, black asterisks). Also bursts gave terminal DA transients of the order of 1 μ M. Initially the Δ AUC for low affinity receptors increased with uptake inhibition but was ultimately limited by saturation of the receptors (Figure 5 E2, red asterisks).

Importantly, high affinity receptors were less sensitive to pauses under uptake inhibition: A reduction of 50% of the AUC occurred with $K_{app}=0.55~\mu M$, equivalent to 6.9 mg/kg ip cocaine in agreement with experiment (Bello et al. 2011) (Figure 5 E3, blue asterisks). Note: In absence of uptake inhibition the Δ AUC of the pause is slightly more negative in autoreceptor knock-out simulations than simulations of normal DS. This is because increased DA levels in autoreceptor knock out simulation giving higher tonic activation of the receptor before and after the pause.

Our estimates of P_{\min} and P_{\max} are subject to some experimental uncertainty, and biological variability in these variables is also expected. We therefore controlled for the sensitivity for details in our implementation by using a fixed amplitude model to predict post synaptic receptor activity (Dreyer et al. 2010). Here we found qualitatively similar results regarding the effect of DA inhibition on activation of post synaptic receptors.

Discussion

592	The model we present here involves a number of simplifications. For example, we
593	did not include facilitation of DA release during burst firing (Montague et al. 2004).
594	The effect of this assumption is apparent in our pair pulse study on short time scales
595	where predictions of our model are lower compared to the <i>in vivo</i> observations
596	(Figure 3 A2, compare blue and green at Δt < 0.1 s) (Benoit-Marand et al. 2001).
597	Also, since the aim of this study was to describe fast time-scale modulation by
598	autoreceptors we did not take limited dopamine stores into account and
599	autoreceptor regulation of the DA synthesis (Beaulieu and Gainetdinov 2011).
600	We described autoreceptors from a systems level perspective. In this spirit we
601	connected the occupancy of presynaptic autoreceptors directly to the terminal
602	release probability and firing rate, omitting calculation of ionic currents mediated by
603	GIRK channels associated with autoreceptors. The finite on and off rate of DA with
604	autoreceptors was included for terminal autoreceptors only. This assumption
605	implicitly assumes that the interaction between DA and somatodendritic
606	autoreceptors is much faster than variations in somatodendritic DA concentration
607	(Beckstead et al. 2004; John et al. 2006).
608	In our study, DA uptake inhibition increased the basal DA level monotonically but not
609	linearly (Figure 5 E1, black circles). In comparison a meta analysis of microdialysis
610	studies by Frank et al. (Frank et al. 2008) revealed a linear correlation between
611	relative increase in basal DA level and ip administered dose of cocaine in mg/kg
612	(Frank et al. 2008). At low or moderate doses our model agrees relatively well with
613	the analysis by Frank et al.: For K_{app} < 0.5 μ M (equivalent to ip cocaine less than 6

mg/kg) our model predicts increase tonic DA levels which agree by more than 80% of the result by Frank. However at uptake inhibition equivalent 20 mg/kg cocaine our model predicts only half the increase observed by Frank et al. In this respect it is also worth noting that we determined the somatodendritic influence on firing rates from empirical data of animals under anesthesia (Einhorn et al. 1988) where cocaine reduces the firing rate to greater extent than recently observed in freely moving animals (Koulchitsky et al. 2012). We believe this could lead to our model underestimating the increase in DA by high doses of cocaine.

Our model of somatodendritic DA levels (Equation 4) is based on voltammetry data

from mouse slices (John et al. 2006). We found somatodendritic DA transients on the order of 100 nM, which is in relatively good agreement with other voltammetry observations in anesthetized rats (Kita et al. 2009) and in guinea pig slices (Rice et al. 1997). On the other hand, our calculated tonic somatodendritic DA levels are higher than the 1 nM level reported with microdialysis (Kalivas and Duffy 1993). However, calculation of absolute DA levels from microdialysis measurements is a complex problem. Elaborate models suggest that tissue damage near dialysis probes influence measurements of basal DA levels (Borland et al. 2005; Bungay et al. 2003). Our model, on the other hand, is based on a minimal number of experimentally determined assumptions, and does not take such effects into account. We therefore choose to test our model by predicting dynamical aspects of DA signaling where experimental data is less subject to such artifacts (Peters et al. 2004).

To our knowledge, the present model constitutes the first integrated description of DA signaling and how this is affected by both terminal and somatodendritic DA

autoreceptors and DA uptake inhibition. Our analyses revealed a multitude of experimentally relevant dynamical effects of the dual autoreceptor system. We predict that somatodendritic autoinhibition exerts indirect influence on terminal release: Strong evoked release induced a reduction of tonic cell firing which lead to facilitation of terminal release 3-8 s after the transient (Figure 3E). Even though the compensatory effects of autoreceptors are appreciable, they do not invalidate our previous estimates of the post synaptic response to phasic reward related signals (Dreyer et al. 2010): Low affinity receptors were sensitive to bursts and high affinity receptors were mostly sensitive to pauses (Figure 4 F1 and G2). Autoreceptors strongly compensated the effect of bursts on high affinity receptors and also reduced the effect of pauses on low affinity receptors which increases selectivity of bursts and pauses in targeting different receptor populations (Figure 4 G1 and Figure 4F1). We applied the model to the case of DA uptake inhibition and investigated how this would affect post synaptic integration of tonic and phasic DA signals. Our model was in agreement with experimental studies suggesting a strong influence of DA autoreceptors in the effect of cocaine (Aragona et al. 2008; Bello et al. 2011; Rouge-Pont et al. 2002). The most prominent post synaptic effect of uptake inhibition was that high affinity receptors (DRH) decoupled from pauses in phasic firing patters (Figure 5 C). At certain levels of uptake inhibition DRH receptor signaling underwent a transition from phasic (DRH activation sensitive to pauses in firing pattern) to essentially tonic

(DRH tonically activated regardless of firing pattern). In NAcc high affinity receptor

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decoupling occurred at therapeutic levels of uptake inhibition, similar to 2.7 mg/kg i.p. methylphenidate (MP). In DS same degree of decoupling occurred with uptake inhibition close to locomotor stimulating doses around 15 mg/kg i.p. cocaine (Thomsen and Caine 2011). Removal of autoreceptor control lead to decoupling at lower levels of uptake inhibition, similar to 7 mg/kg i.p cocaine. Obviously the exact location of the transition from phasic to tonic activation of DRH is depending on our choice of 1 s as a 'typical' length of a pause in DAergic firing. We also tested high and low affinity receptor activation with a phasic firing pattern containing a distribution of bursts and pauses of different length. Here short pauses were decoupled at even lower levels of uptake inhibition while post synaptic integration of long pauses was reliable at higher levels of uptake inhibition and with similar differences between NAcc and DS (not shown). Pauses in DA cell firing observed in classical reward prediction experiments are on the order of 200-400 ms (Bayer et al. 2007; Schultz 1998). However in other experimental paradigms the inhibition of DA neuronal activity may last several seconds (Mileykovskiy and Morales 2011) and 1 second pauses in firing are relatively common in phasic firing patterns, see examples in Bingmer et al. (Bingmer et al. 2011)). Dopamine D1-like and D2-like receptors have both high affinity and low affinity states for agonist binding (May 1992). However indisputable determination of the biological function of these states is still lacking (Skinbjerg et al. 2012). Our implementation of autoreceptors embraces this range of affinities: The high

somatodendritic DA levels required to reduce effective firing rate implicitly assumes

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low affinity of somatodendritic D2 autoreceptors whereas our presynaptic D2 autoreceptors are assumed to have EC50 \approx 40 nM.

Assuming that postsynaptic D2 receptors are predominantly in the high affinity state and that D1 receptors are in low affinity state, our model complies $in\ vivo$ studies showing high tonic activity of D2 receptors (Bertran-Gonzalez et al. 2008; Svenningsson et al. 2000). However, this raises new questions because D2 receptors are often ascribed an important role in mediating hyperlocomotor effects of DA uptake inhibitors (Chausmer and Katz 2001). How can this be possible if they are already saturated by spontaneous DAergic activity? We resolve this problem by considering high affinity D2 receptors to be modulated by a dynamic DA signal. In the unperturbed state, pauses in DA cell firing constitute an efficient method for mediating time resolved signals to high affinity receptors. However, this signal is crucially dependent on DATs to remove extracellular DA during the pause. Therefore low and intermediate doses of DA uptake strongly modulate or even block this part of the DA signal with sensitivity inversely dependent on $V_{\rm max}$.

Under the hypothesis that DRH describes the majority of D2 receptors and DRL describes D1 receptors, our model predicts that DA uptake inhibitors will influence post synaptic targets differently depending on activity state of DA neurons. With tonically firing DA neurons DAT inhibitors mainly increase D1 receptor activation but leave D2 activation largely unaffected (Figure 5 E1). This is similar to observations by Svenningson et al (Svenningsson et al. 2000) and by Bertran-Gonzales et al (Bertran-Gonzalez et al. 2008). However, with phasically firing DA neurons, where firing patterns include bursts and pauses, both D1 and D2 signaling is affected. As a

corollary, our model predicts that in experimental paradigms associated with increased phasic signaling, such as stress (Anstrom et al. 2009; Valenti et al. 2011), locomotor responses to DA uptake inhibition will be augmented compared to experimental situations where DA signal is dominated by tonic firing. The exact role of DA in the therapeutic mechanism of psychostimulant medication of ADHD is debated (Gonon 2009; Volkow et al. 2010). Even though the present results suggest that significant changes in high affinity receptor signaling can occur at therapeutic doses, this does not exclude that other mechanisms, such as noradrenalin or DA signaling in prefrontal cortex, mediates the therapeutically beneficial action of methylphenidate in ADHD (Berridge et al. 2006). Thus it may as well be that the changes in phasic DA signaling we observe is an adverse effect and that the therapeutically optimal dose has minimal influence. In summary, our mathematical model provides the unified description of the link between somatodendritic DA release, firing patterns of DA neurons and pre- and post synaptic DA receptor activation. We used this model to show that the qualitative effect of DAT inhibition depends strongly on the firing patterns of DA neurons and indentified critical levels of uptake inhibition at which high affinity DA receptor signaling looses sensitivity to pauses in DA cell firing. In NAcc this effect occurred in the therapeutic range of DAT inhibition whereas high affinity receptors in DS were sensitive to higher levels that induce locomotor symptoms in behaving animals.

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Disclosures

No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by the authors.

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735 Figure 1

Construction of somatodendritic autoreceptor feedback. Panel A: Firing rates from Einhorn et al. (Einhorn et al. 1988) plotted against estimated apparent uptake constant using Equation 3. Firing rate was put on an absolute scale assuming 4 Hz firing rate in the control case. Filled markers indicate the 3 conditions plotted in Panel B. Panel B: Concentration of somatodendritic DA using the combination of firing rate and estimated apparent uptake constant shown in Panel A. The 3 conditions correspond to v_{eff} = 4 Hz and K_{app} = 0.16 μ M (lowest line), v_{eff} = 3.4 Hz and K_{app} = 0.40 μ M (middle line), and v_{eff} = 2.1 Hz and K_{app} = 1.35 μ M (top line). Panel C: Einhorn firing rate plotted against numerically determined somatodendritic DA levels, filled markers indicate the conditions shown in B. Dashed line: Effective firing rate as given by Equation 5.

Figure 2

Construction of terminal DA release and presynaptic autoreceptor feedback. Panel

A: spatial distribution of DA in terminal simulation space during tonic firing. Color indicates extracellular concentration of DA as indicated on the color bar. Black dots

indicate DA release sites. Note that the volume is filled with 1500 DA release sites and only those close to the boundary are visible on this plot. In order to better illustrate 3D heterogeneity of DA concentration, the image has higher spatial resolution than during typical simulations. Panel B: Distribution of DA uptake capacity in a section through the simulation space in the yz-plane. Color indicates V_{max} . The spatial resolution is as in typical simulations. Panel C: Relation between equilibrium DA levels and release probability, P_r . Dashed black line shows the resting value of P_r and baseline DA levels under 4 Hz tonic firing. Panel D: Release probability of different terminals. Black line indicates average.

Figure 3

Analysis of interaction between somatodendritic and terminal autoinhibition with evoked release. Panel A1: Data from pair pulse simulation. Each transient was evoked by simulating a train of 3 pulses at 100 Hz, each train was separated by Δt . Height of first transient is denoted P_1 and the height of the second transient P_2 . Panel A2: Circles, P_2/P_1 as function of Δt ; asterisks, experimental data reproduced from Benoit-Marand et al (Benoit-Marand et al. 2001). In Panels B, C, D, and E dashed lines indicate strong stimulus (50 spikes at 60 Hz), and solid lines indicate light stimulus (10 spikes at 20 Hz). Panel B: Somatodendritic DA levels from stimulated release and tonic firing rate. The plot shows 2 cycles each of 10 s. Panel C: Effective firing rate of DA neurons corresponding to somatic DA levels in Panel B. Inset in C: Close view of effective firing rate during one stimulus cycle. Note that during stimulated release, the effective firing rate is not affected by autoinhibition.

Panel D: Resulting DA levels in terminal regions. Results for DS are shown in black and NAcc in gray. Inset in D: Close view of DS DA levels after strong stimulus. Panel E: Concurrent release probability at the terminal level, same colors as in Panel D.

Figure 4

Autoreceptor influence on DA phasic signals. Panel A1: somatodendritic DA levels during bursts (Δt_{burst} = 0.1 s, 0.3 s, and 0.6 s). Panel B1: Concurrent effective firing rate. Inset in B1: Close view of firing rates. Panel C1: DA levels in NAcc. Panel D1: Activation of low affinity receptors (DRL) during bursts. Panel E1: Activation of high affinity receptors (DRH) during bursts. Inset in E1: schematic illustration of positive (dark gray) and negative (light gray) contributions to the Δ AUC. Panel F1: Δ AUC of DRL activity from bursts of duration Δt_{burst} . Circles: total Δ AUC including positive and negative contributions. Asterisk: positive part of the peak only. Panel G1: Δ AUC of DRH from bursts, same markers as in Panel F1. Panel A2: Somatodendritic DA levels during pauses (Δt_{pause} = 0.8 s, 1.6 s, 2.4 s). Panel B2: Effective firing rate during and after the pauses. Panel C2: DA levels in NAcc. Panel D2: Activation of DRL during pauses. Panel E1: Activation of DRH during pauses. Panel F2: Δ AUC of DRL activity during pauses. Circles: Negative contribution only. Asterisk: Total AUC including

positive compensation by autoreceptors. Panel G2: Δ AUC of DRH for pauses, same markers as in Panel F2.

Figure 5

Influence of DA uptake inhibition on the post synaptic effect of phasic DA signaling. Except where noted the figure shows results for simulations of NAcc. Colors in A-D indicate different values of K_{app} . Blue, $K_{app}=0.16~\mu\text{M}$ (control); green, $K_{app}=0.35~\mu\text{M}$; red $K_{app}=0.7~\mu\text{M}$; and cyan, $K_{app}=1~\mu\text{M}$. Panels A1-E1 show the effect of uptake inhibition on tonic firing. Panels A2-E2 show a burst ($\Delta t_{burst}=0.25~\text{s}$). Panels A3-E3 show the effect of a pause ($\Delta t_{pause}=1~\text{s}$). Panels A1- A3 show effective firing rate as function of time. Insets in A2 and A3 show close view of firing rate around the burst/pause. Panels B1-B3 show space averaged DA levels, panels C1-C3 show DRL activation, and panels D1-D3 show DRH activation. Inset in Panel D3: Activation of DS DRH during pauses. Color code for panels E1-E3: Black, DA levels; red, DRL; and blue, DRH. Line styles in Panels E1-E3: Solid lines with circles, NAcc signals. Dashed lines: DS signals. Dashed with asterisks: autoreceptor knock-out simulations. Panel E1 shows relative increase in tonic signaling as function of K_{app} . Panel E2 shows change in Δ AUC from bursts. Panel E3: Δ AUC from pause.

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