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NICOTINE-INDUCED AND D1-RECEPTOR-DEPENDENT DENDRITIC **REMODELING IN A SUBSET OF DORSOLATERAL STRIATUM MEDIUM** SPINY NEURONS

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- Abstract—Nicotine is one of the most addictive substances 16 known, targeting multiple memory systems, including the ventral and dorsal striatum. One form of neuroplasticity commonly associated with nicotine is dendrite remodeling. Nicotine-induced dendritic remodeling of ventral striatal medium spiny neurons (MSNs) is well-documented. Whether MSN dendrites in the dorsal striatum undergo a similar pattern of nicotine-induced structural remodeling is unknown. A morphometric analysis of Golgi-stained MSNs in rat revealed a natural asymmetry in dendritic morphology across the mediolateral axis, with larger, more complex MSNs found in the dorsolateral striatum (DLS). Chronic nicotine produced a lasting (21 day) expansion in the dendritic complexity of MSNs in the DLS, but not dorsomedial striatum (DMS). Given prior evidence that MSN subtypes can be distinguished based on dendritic morphology, MSNs were segregated into morphological subpopulations based on the number of primary dendrites. Analysis of these subpopulations revealed that DLS MSNs with more primary dendrites were selectively remodeled by chronic nicotine exposure and remodeling was specific to the distal-most portions of the dendritic arbor. Co-administration of the dopamine D1 receptor (D1R) antagonist SCH23390 completely reversed the selective effects of nicotine on DLS MSN dendrite morphology, supporting a causal role for dopamine signaling at D1 receptors in nicotine-induced dendrite restructuring. Considering the functional importance of the DLS in shaping and expressing habitual behavior, these data support a model in which nicotine induces persistent and selective changes in the circuit connectivity of the DLS that may promote and sustain addiction-related behavior. © 2017 IBRO. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

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Key words: addiction, habit, direct pathway, indirect pathway, plasticity, adolescence.

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INTRODUCTION

Nicotine is a potent reinforcing stimulus, making it among the most addictive substances known (Pontieri et al., 1996). The progression from casual to compulsive drug use is thought to be mediated by mechanisms of neuronal plasticity that underlie normative learning and memory processes (Hyman, 2005). Nicotine targets multiple memory systems associated with reward learning, including the striatum (Rice and Cragg, 2004). The striatum is positioned at the center of cortico-basal ganglia loops that integrate a wide range of input necessary for reinforcement learning, decision-making and motor control (Graybiel, 2000). The striatum is broadly defined along the dorsal and ventral axis (Voorn et al., 2004), with the ventral striatum being the most intensely studied striatal region in the context of reinforcement learning and addiction (Everitt and Robbins, 2005). However, the dorsal striatum also critically participates in reinforcement learning, including decision-making related to action selection (Balleine et al., 2007).

While the ventral striatum is an established target for neuroadaptations in response to nicotine (Koob and Volkow, 2010), nicotine also induces neuroplasticity in the dorsal striatum (Valjent et al., 2004; Pascual et al., 2009; Ortega et al., 2013; Clemens et al., 2014). The dorsal striatum is anatomically and functionally segregated into medial and lateral zones. During the course of instrumental learning, one model suggests the acquisition of goal-directed action selection initially mediated by the DMS is gradually taken over by the dorsolateral striatum (DLS) and expressed as habits (Yin et al., 2004, 2006; Balleine and O'Doherty, 2010). As addiction has been conceptualized as a transition from voluntary consumption to compulsive habit, with a loss of control over drug intake in the face of negative consequences (Belin et al., 2009), a shift in neuronal control from DMS to DLS could underlie the progression from voluntary to habitual drug intake (Yin et al., 2004; Corbit et al., 2012; Gremel and Lovinger, 2016).

One exceptionally persistent form of neuroplasticity 57 commonly associated with addictive drug exposure is 58 dendritic remodeling (Robinson and Kolb, 2004). 59

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Abbreviations: BAC, bacterial artificial chromosome; D1R, dopamine D1 receptor; DLS, dorsolateral striatum; DMS, dorsomedial striatum; MSNs, medium spiny neurons; PCA, principal components analysis.

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Nicotine-induced dendritic remodeling in the ventral stria-60 tum is well-documented (Brown and Kolb, 2001; Hamilton 61 and Kolb, 2005) and is particularly pronounced when 62 exposure occurs during adolescence (McDonald et al., 63 2007). Furthermore, systemic blockade of dopamine 1 64 (D1) receptors during nicotine exposure in the adolescent 65 brain completely blocks nicotine-induced dendrite remod-66 67 eling in the ventral striatum (Ehlinger et al., 2016), suggesting a causal role for dopaminergic signaling at D1 68 receptors in nicotine-induced dendritic plasticity in the 69 ventral striatum. Comparable measures in the dorsal 70 striatum are lacking. To address this research gap, the 71 72 dendritic morphology of Golgi-stained medium spiny neu-73 rons (MSNs) in the DMS and DLS were completely reconstructed in three-dimensions and morphometrically 74 analyzed after a chronic systemic intermittent nicotine 75 regimen (subcutaneous 0.5 mg/kg, 2 weeks, 8 total injec-76 tions) during adolescence (PN28-42) in male Sprague-77 Dawley rats, with or without, co-administration of the 78 highly selective D1 receptor antagonist SCH23390 (sub-79 cutaneous 0.05 mg/kg). Because addiction is also defined 80 by chronic relapse (NIDA, 2014), it is important to identify 81 long-lasting changes in cellular plasticity following drug 82 83 exposure (Grueter et al., 2012), therefore dendritic mor-84 phology was measured at a protracted time frame (21-85 days) following the end of nicotine exposure.

Striatal MSNs can be divided into distinct 86 87 subpopulations based on anatomical connectivity (i.e., striatonigral "direct" and striatopallidal "indirect" 88 pathways), molecular composition (i.e., D1- and D2-89 expressing) and functionality (Kreitzer and Malenka, 90 2008; Kravitz et al., 2012). Recent evidence suggests that 91 striatal MSNs can also be divided into distinct morpholog-92 ical subpopulations (Gertler et al., 2008; Gagnon et al., 93 2017). Whether nicotine selectively influences the den-94 dritic branching pattern of these morphologically defined 95 96 MSN subpopulations has not been analyzed. MSNs were 97 segregated into subpopulations based on the number of primary dendrites (first order dendrites emanating from 98 the soma). The use of primary dendrites as a criterion 99 structural feature for segregating MSN subpopulations is 100 advantageous in the context of nicotine exposure, as 101 nicotine does not influence this particular feature of 102 103 MSN morphology (Brown and Kolb, 2001; McDonald et al., 2005, 2007; Hamilton and Kolb, 2005; Ehlinger 104 et al., 2012) and primary dendrite number has been 105 shown previously to differentiate striatal MSN cell types 106 (Gertler et al., 2008). DMS and DLS MSN dendritic 107 remodeling in response to nicotine with or without D1 108 antagonist co-administration was characterized within 109 110 morphologically subdivided "large" and "small" subpopulations, based on primary dendrite number. 111

Our results reveal (1) a naturally existing asymmetry in 112 MSN dendrite morphology between the DLS and DMS, (2) 113 a lasting (at least 21 days) increase in the dendritic 114 complexity of MSNs in the DLS, but not DMS, following 115 chronic nicotine exposure, (3) selective dendritic 116 remodeling for a morphological distinct DLS MSN 117 subpopulation that contains more primary dendrites 118 (large subpopulation), and (4) a blockade of this 119 structural plasticity when animals are co-administered 120

the D1 antagonist SCH23390 during nicotine exposure.121Collectively, these results suggest a selective,122persistent, and D1 receptor-dependent influence of123chronic nicotine on a morphologically discrete DLS MSN124subpopulation.125

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Animals

All data analyzed in this study were derived from tissue 128 generated using experimental procedures that were 129 described in detail in a previously published study 130 (Ehlinger et al., 2016). Male Sprague-Dawley rats 131 (N = 32) (Harlan, IN, USA) arrived to the vivarium at 132 PN21, were housed in groups (n = 3-4) in standard 133 caging, and allowed ad libitum access to food and water. 134 The vivarium was controlled for temperature, humidity 135 and light cycle. All experimental procedures were carried 136 out in accordance with the National Research Council 137 Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and 138 the George Mason University IACUC. Disclosure of hous-139 ing and husbandry procedures was in accordance with 140 recommendations for standard experimental reporting in 141 behavioral neuroscience research (Prager et al., 2011). 142

Drugs and injection schedule

(-)-Nicotine hydrogen tartrate (Nicotine: Sigma Aldrich, St. 144 Louis, MO, USA) was dissolved in 0.9% saline and 145 administered at a dose of 0.5 mg/kg. R(+)-SCH-23390 146 hydrochloride (SCH-23390; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, 147 USA) was dissolved in 0.9% saline and administered at a 148 dose of 0.05 mg/kg. Physiological saline (0.9% NaCl) 149 was the vehicle control. All drugs were administered 150 subcutaneously at a volume of 1 mL/kg. Drugs were 151 administered during adolescence (PN28-42) in rats that 152 were randomly assigned to one of four pretreatment-153 treatment groups (n = 8 per group): (1) vehicle-vehicle, 154 (2) SCH-23390-vehicle, (3) vehicle-nicotine or (4) SCH-155 23390-nicotine. The pretreatment drug (vehicle or SCH-156 23390) was administered exactly 20 min prior to the 157 treatment drug (vehicle or nicotine). Animals were dosed 158 intermittently in their home-cage every other day during 159 an adolescent (PN28-42) timeframe (eight total 160 injections). Rats were grouped housed throughout the 161 course of the study, eliminating isolation-induced stress 162 effects. 163

Golgi-stain

Prior to Golgi staining there were 21 drug-free days 165 (PN42-63). On PN63, rats were anesthetized with a 166 ketamine/xylazine cocktail and then perfused 167 intracardially with 0.9% saline. The whole brain was 168 placed into a Golgi solution (mercuric chloride, 169 potassium chromate, and potassium dichromate) and 170 stored in the dark at room temperature for 14 days 171 (Golgi solution refreshed after two days). Brains were 172 then transferred into a 30% sucrose solution for three 173 days prior to sectioning. Brains were sectioned (200 µm; 174 coronal) on a vibratome and placed onto gelatinized 175

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