



Dopamine D4 receptor modulates inhibitory transmission in pallido-pallidal terminals and regulates motor behavior

Israel Conde Rojas¹ | Jackeline Acosta-García²  | Rene Nahum Caballero-Florán³ | Rafael Jijón-Lorenzo¹ | Sergio Recillas-Morales⁴ | José Arturo Avalos-Fuentes¹ | Francisco Paz-Bermúdez¹ | Gerardo Leyva-Gómez⁵ | Hernán Cortés⁶ | Benjamín Florán¹ 

¹Departamento de Fisiología, Centro de Investigación y de Estudios Avanzados del Instituto Politécnico Nacional, México, México

²Universidad Tecnológica de México, UNITEC MÉXICO, México, México

³Department of Pharmacology, Medical School University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

⁴Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Universidad Autónoma del Estado de México, Toluca, Estado de México, México

⁵Departamento de Farmacia, Facultad de Química, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Ciudad de México, México

⁶Laboratorio de Medicina Genómica, Departamento de Genómica, Instituto Nacional de Rehabilitación Luis Guillermo Ibarra Ibarra, Ciudad de México, México

Correspondence

Benjamin Florán. Departamento de Fisiología, Biofísica y Neurociencias,

Abstract

Two major groups of terminals release GABA within the Globus pallidus; one group is constituted by projections from striatal neurons, while endings of the intranuclear collaterals form the other one. Each neurons' population expresses different subtypes of dopamine D2-like receptors: D₂R subtype is expressed by encephalin-positive MSNs, while pallidal neurons express the D₄R subtype. The D₂R modulates the firing rate of striatal neurons and GABA release at their projection areas, while the D₄R regulates Globus pallidus neurons excitability and GABA release at their projection areas. However, it is unknown if these receptors control GABA release at pallido-pallidal collaterals and regulate motor behavior. Here, we present neurochemical evidence of protein content and binding of D₄R in pallidal synaptosomes, control of [³H] GABA release in pallidal slices of rat, electrophysiological evidence of the presence of D₄R on pallidal recurrent collaterals in mouse slices, and turning behavior induced by D₄R antagonist microinjected in amphetamine challenged rats. As in projection areas of pallidal neurons, GABAergic transmission in pallido-pallidal recurrent synapses is under modulation of D₄R, while the D₂R subtype, as known, modulates striato-pallidal projections. Also, as in projection areas, D₄R contributes to

Abbreviations: [³H] GABA, γ -[2,3-³H(N)]-Aminobutyric acid (GABA); [³H] YM-09151-2, cis-N-(1-benzyl-2-methylpyrrolidin-3-yl)-5-chloro-2-methoxy-4-methylaminobenzamide; AAOA, amino-oxyacetic acid; ACSF, Artificial Cerebrospinal Fluid; AMPA, α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid receptor; ATP-Mg, Adenosine 5'-triphosphate magnesium; CNQX, 6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione; D₁R, Dopamine D1 receptor(s); D₂R, Dopamine D2 receptor(s); D₃R, Dopamine D3 receptor (s); D₄R, Dopamine D4 receptor(s); DL-AP-5, 6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione; DL-AP-5, DL-2-amino-phosphonopentanoic acid; eIPSC, evoked inhibitory postsynaptic currents; GP, Globus pallidus; L 741,626, (\pm)-3-[4-(4-Chlorophenyl)-4-hydroxypiperidinyl]methylindole; L 741,626, DL-2-amino5phosphonopentanoic acid; L 745,870, (\pm)-3-[4-(4-Chlorophenyl)-4-hydroxypiperidinyl]methylindole; MSNs, Striatal medium-sized spiny neurons; NMDA, N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor; PD 168,077, 3-[4-(4-Chlorophenyl)piperazin-1-yl]methyl]-1H-pyrrolo[2,3-b]pyridine hydrochloride; Quinpirole, N-[[4-(2-Cyanophenyl)-1-piperazinyl]methyl]-3-methylbenzamide maleate salt; RTN, Reticular thalamic nucleus; SDS, Sodium lauryl sulfate; SDS-PAGE, Sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; sIPSC, Spontaneous inhibitory postsynaptic currents; SNr, Substantia nigra pars reticulata; Sth, Subthalamic nucleus; Sulpiride, trans-(−)-(4aR)-4,4a,5,6,7,8,8a,9-Octahydro-5-propyl-1H-pyrazolo[3,4-g]quinoline monohydrochloride; Sumanrole, Sumanrole, (S)-5-(Aminosulfonyl)-N-[(1-ethyl-2-pyrrolidinyl)methyl]-2-methoxybenzamide; TTX, Tetrodotoxin.

Editor: Yolanda Smith

[Correction added on 9 December 2020, after first online publication: URL for peer review history has been corrected.]

Centro de Investigación y de Estudios
Avanzados del Instituto Politécnico
Nacional, Apartado Postal 14-740, 07000
México D.F., México.
Email: bfloran@fisio.cinvestav.mx

Funding information

Centro de Investigación y de Estudios
Avanzados del Instituto Politécnico Nacional

control the motor activity differently than D₂R. This study could help to understand the organization of intra-pallidal circuitry.

KEYWORDS

dopamine, GABA release, Globus pallidus, turning behavior

1 | INTRODUCTION

The Globus pallidus (GP) receives GABA mainly from projections of striatal medium-sized spiny neurons (MSNs) (Parent & Hazrati, 1995a, 1995b) and the intranuclear collaterals of arky-pallidal and prototypic pallidal neurons (Abdi et al., 2015; Kita & Kitai, 1994; Mallet et al., 2012; Nambu & Llinas, 1997). The striato-pallidal fibers constitute the majority of GABAergic terminals in the GP, approximately 65%–80% of the total (Kita, 2007; Smith et al., 1998), from which two-thirds come from Enkephaline-positive MSNs that express D₂R and are part of the basal ganglia indirect pathway (Smith et al., 1998). The other terminals are collaterals from Substance P-positive MSNs that express dopamine D₁ receptor (D₁R) (Floran et al., 1990; Kawaguchi et al., 1990). Both afferents terminate mainly on the dendritic shafts of GP neurons (Falls et al., 1983; Okoyama et al., 1987). Arky-pallidal neurons represent about 25% of total GP neurons and send their axons back to the striatum (Str) (Hernandez et al., 2015; Mallet et al., 2012; Nambu & Llinas, 1997). Furthermore, these neurons also send local axon collaterals to the soma and proximal dendrites within GP (Abdi et al., 2015; Bevan et al., 1998; Kita & Kita, 2001; Kita & Kitai, 1991, 1994; Kita et al., 1999). On the other hand, prototypic neurons comprise about 70% of GP projection neurons (Hernandez et al., 2015; Mallet et al., 2012); they send their axons to projection areas such as the Subthalamic nucleus (Sth) (Hernandez et al., 2015; Mallet et al., 2012), the Substantia nigra pars reticulata (SNr) (le Boulch et al., 1991; Parent & Hazrati, 1995b), and the Reticular thalamic nucleus (RTN; Gandia et al., 1993; Hazrati & Parent, 1991; Kayahara & Nakano, 1998). Moreover, these neurons also send local axon collaterals within GP (Kita & Kitai, 1994; Mallet et al., 2012; Nambu & Llinas, 1997). Pallido-pallidal collaterals constitute 10%–20% of the total GABAergic terminals (Kita, 2007; Smith et al., 1998).

On the other hand, different subtypes of the dopamine D₂-like receptors family are expressed predominantly in each population of neurons: D₂ receptor subtype (D₂R) is preferentially expressed in enkephalin-positive MSNs (Surmeier et al., 1996), while pallidal neurons express the D₄ receptor subtype (D₄R) (Ariano et al., 1997; Mauger et al., 1998; Mrzljak et al., 1996). In this regard, D₂Rs modulate the

firing rate of MSNs (Hernandez-Lopez et al., 2000) and the GABA release at striato-pallidal terminals (Caballero-Floran et al., 2016; Cooper & Stanford, 2001; Floran et al., 1997; Jijon-Lorenzo et al., 2018) and striato-striatal collaterals (Guzman et al., 2003). Likewise, D₄Rs modulate the activity of pallidal neurons (Hernandez et al., 2006; Shin et al., 2003) and the GABA release at pallidal projections toward SNr (Aceves et al., 2011; Acosta-Garcia et al., 2009; Cruz-Trujillo et al., 2013), Sth (Floran et al., 2004b), and RTN (Barrientos et al., 2019; Crandall et al., 2010; Floran et al., 2004a; Gasca-Martinez et al., 2010; Govindaiah et al., 2010). However, it is unknown if D₄Rs are present and control the GABA release at pallido-pallidal recurrent collaterals. Also, if by the different proportion of striatal afferent terminals versus local recurrent terminals, they have a distinct contribution to the control of the GABA release within GP. This second issue is essential as the relative control of total GABA release by one receptor type would determine the motor behavior in a particular pharmacological condition.

Here, we present neurochemical and electrophysiological evidence of the presence of D₄Rs on pallidal recurrent collaterals, whose pharmacological manipulation impacts motor behavior. The functionality of D₄Rs in pallido-pallidal terminals and D₂Rs in striato-pallidal projections was tested by the relative contribution to the total control of GABA release within GP. Finally, the impact of D₂R and D₄R on motor behavior was evaluated by microinjections of selective antagonists into GP of amphetamine-challenged and not challenged rats.

2 | EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

2.1 | Animals

All procedures were carried out following the National Institutes of Health Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and approved by the Institutional Animal Care Committee of the CINVESTAV-IPN. Due to conveniences for technics and the amount of tissue required for experiments, Western blot, [³H] YM-09151-2 D₄R binding, [³H] GABA release, and behavioral observations were done using

male Wistar rats age 2 months (weighing 200–250 g). They were housed together (five per cage) with water and food available ad libitum and kept under a natural light cycle throughout. Mice (12–14 days postnatal) maintained in similar housing conditions were used for electrophysiological recordings.

2.2 | Reserpine treatment

For [³H]GABA release experiments in GP slices, rats were pretreated with reserpine (10 mg/kg, intraperitoneally, i.p.) 18 hr before the preparation of slices to avoid the effects of endogenous dopamine, as depolarization with a high K⁺ media massively increases endogenous dopamine and activates their receptors (Floran et al., 1997). This treatment produces more than a 90% reduction in dopamine content in the GP (Nava-Asbell et al., 2007).

2.3 | Lesion of GP with kainic acid

We used a method previously described by le Boulch et al. (1991) and modified by Acosta-Garcia et al. (2009). In brief, animals were anesthetized with Ketamine/Xylazine (80/10 mg/kg i.p.) and mounted in a stereotaxic apparatus. We injected a kainic acid solution unilaterally (1 µg/µl freshly dissolved in 0.2 M sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.4) with a Hamilton syringe. A single 0.5-µl injection was used (A = -7.0, L = -3, H = +5.2) employing a peristaltic pump, and at the end of the injection, the needle remained in place for further 5 min. Immediately after recovery from anesthesia, rats showed a rotation contralateral to the injected side, as reported previously (le Boulch et al., 1991). After surgery, animals received a single dose of enrofloxacin (2.5 mg/kg) and a daily subcutaneous injection of a 5% glucose solution in saline (1 ml) for 5 days. Fourteen days after the lesion, animals were killed to dissect the left and right Str, GP, and SNr for D₄R protein western blot in synaptosomes and [³H]YM-09151-2 binding in synaptosomal membranes.

The lesion's extension and selectivity within GP were assessed in rat coronal brain slices stained with NeuN, visualized with fluorescence microscopy, and analyzed for nuclei count with Image J software. In brief, rats were anesthetized with an overdose of pentobarbital (4 mg/kg, i.p.), perfused transcardially with saline Ringer solution followed by 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB), pH 7.4. Brains were dissected and postfixed with 4% PFA for 24 hr at 4°C. After, tissue was dehydrated in 0.1 M PB with 30% sucrose and then embedded in OCT (Miles Inc., Elkhart, IN, USA) and cut into coronal 30 µm sections on a freezing microtome (Leica, Nussloch, Germany). For immunofluorescence, the free-floating sections method was used. Nine slices

from bregma 0.7 to -2.4 mm from each rat (3 rats) were selected. Slices were incubated with 0.1% Triton X-100 and 1% serum bovine albumin in 0.1 M PB for 2 hr at room temperature. After complete blocking, sections were incubated with the primary antibody, monoclonal anti-NeuN (Chemicon®) (1:200). The slices were then incubated with the secondary antibody, Alexa Fluor 594 anti-mouse, at room temperature for 3 hr (1:200). Finally, after three washes with PB, slices were mounted in coverslips, washed, and dried. The immunofluorescent cells were viewed by epifluorescence through a 20X objective (numerical aperture [NA]: 0.5) Plan Fluor Lens coupled with a Nikon Eclipse-80i Microscope (Nikon Corp., Tokyo, Japan). Images were obtained and recorded using a Nikon digital sight-DG-Ril camera controlled with the Nikon NIS-Elements AR-3.0-SP7 software (Nikon). Images from three (0.27 mm²) sections of each slice were obtained, processed for nuclei counting, and analyzed with ImageJ 2.1.0/Java 1.8.0 with the Nucleus Counter plugin. It can be seen in Figure S1 that kainic acid injection produces a decrement of about 97% of NeuN-stained nuclei in the lesioned GP compared with the non-lesioned side. No significant changes in the border of the Str and the posterior regions to GP that include: the ventrolateral thalamic nucleus, ventral anterior thalamic nucleus, reticular thalamic nucleus, ventromedial thalamic nucleus, and ventral-posterolateral thalamic nucleus were observed.

2.4 | Preparation of brain slices from mice

The mice were decapitated under anesthesia, and oblique-sagittal slices (300 µm thick), including both the GP and the Str, were cut with a vibroslicer (Campden, Inc.) at an angle of 20° to the midline. The slices were next incubated in oxygenated standard ACSF solution (in mM: NaCl 125, KCl₃, KH₂PO₄ 1.25, NaHCO₃ 26, MgCl₂ 1, CaCl₂ 2.5, D-glucose 10, and equilibrated with 95% O₂ + 5% CO₂, pH 7.4) where they remained for at least 1 hr at room temperature (about 25°C). From rats. Animals were killed, and the brains isolated and immersed in oxygenated ice-cold Artificial Cerebrospinal Fluid (ACSF) solution (composition in mM: NaCl 118.25, KCl 1.75, MgSO₄ 1, KH₂PO₄ 1.25, NaHCO₃ 25, CaCl₂ 2, and D-glucose 10, and bubbled with 95% O₂ + 5% CO₂, pH 7.4). Coronal brain slices (300 µm thick) were obtained with the vibratome. The GP was microdissected under a stereoscopic microscope. The atlas of Paxinos (1997) was utilized to identify individual nuclei.

2.5 | Preparation of synaptosomes

Synaptosomal fractions were isolated from Str, GP, and SNr slices from 10 rats. The slices were homogenized in buffer

(sucrose 0.32 M, HEPES 0.005 M, pH 7.4), and then the homogenates centrifuged at 800 *g* for 10 min. The resulting supernatant was further centrifuged at 20,000 *g* for 20 min. We discarded the supernatant (S1) from this second centrifugation, the pellet (P1) was resuspended and placed in the sucrose 0.8 M/HEPES 0.005M buffer (pH 7.4) and newly centrifuged at 20,000 *g* for 20 min. Finally, we discarded the supernatant and employed the new pellet (P2) containing synaptosomes.

2.6 | Western blotting for D₄R protein

The synaptosomal fraction was incubated with RIPA buffer (sodium orthovanadate 1 mM, sodium pyrophosphate 10 mM, sodium fluoride 100 mM, glycerol 10%, Triton X-100 1%, Tris-HCl 50 mM, NaCl 150 mM, MgCl₂ 1.5 mM, EGTA 1 mM, SDS 0.1%, and sodium deoxycholate 1%) and a complete set of protease inhibitors (Roche Applied Science, México) for 15 min. Synaptosomal membranes were obtained by sonication of synaptosomes, and then resuspended in sample buffer (Glycerol 50%, Tris-HCl 125 mM, SDS 4%, Bromophenol blue 0.08%, 2-mercaptoethanol 5%) and heated at 100°C for 10 min. Protein was quantified by the Bradford method. The samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE, transferred onto PVDF membranes, and blotted for 1 hr at room temperature in Tris-buffered saline containing 0.2% Tween 20 and 5% non-fat powdered milk. Membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C with polyclonal antidopamine D₄ antibody (1:1,000) (ab20424; obtained from Abcam Inc. MA, USA). Antibody detection was performed by chemiluminescence (ECL-Plus Amersham) with an HRP-conjugated secondary antibody (1:10,000). Antibody provider test specificity according to the technical note: <https://www.abcam.com/drd4-antibody-ab20424.html>. The evaluation of band density changes was assessed considering the optic density of the ≈48 kd band from control and lesioned sides divided by the density of their respective actine band and then expressed as percent respect the non-lesioned side.

2.7 | Binding of D₄R with [³H] YM-09151-2

Binding for D₄R in synaptosomal membranes was done according to Marazziti et al. (2009), with slight modifications. The synaptosomal membranes were obtained from GP, Str, and SNr from rats non-lesioned and lesioned with kainic acid. The tissue was resuspended in buffer Tris-HCl 50mM containing EGTA 1 mM (pH 7.4) and homogenized using 10 strokes of a handheld homogenizer at 400 rpm. Subsequently, the tissue was centrifuged at 1540 *g* for 20 min, and the pellet resuspended in D₄R buffer (containing 50 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA, 5 mM KCl, 1.5 mM CaCl₂, 4 mM MgCl₂,

120 mM NaCl, pH 7.4) for binding assay. One hundred fifteen microliters of GPe and SNr homogenates was incubated with eight increasing concentrations of [³H]-YM-09151-2 (PerkinElmer, Milan, Italy; specific activity: 85.5 Ci/mmol) ranging between 0.015 and 5 nM, in the presence of raclopride 100 nM at a final volume of 250 microliters. The non-specific binding was carried out by using L-745,870 500 nM. The incubation with [³H]-YM-09151-2 was performed for 2 hr at 22°C. The separation of bound and free ligand was carried out by vacuum filtration through GF/C fiber filters (Whatman, UK) presoaked in polyethyleneimine (2%) to minimize the non-specific binding to filters. A liquid scintillation counter was employed for counting the radioactivity. Only a concentration of 1 nM of ligand was tested to determine the effect of kainic acid lesions in the number of D₄R binding instead of saturation curves that only were made in normal animals.

2.8 | [³H]GABA release

[³H]-GABA release was determined with previous methods described in detail by Jijon-Lorenzo et al. (2018). In each experiment, Pallidal slices from eight rats were pooled in a single incubation assay tube and left equilibrating for 30 min in ACSF maintained at 37°C and gassed with O₂/CO₂ (95:5 v/v); then, they were incubated for 30 min in ACSF containing 80 nM [³H]-GABA (95 Ci/mmol). The labeling and perfusion solutions had amino-oxyacetic acid (10 μM) to prevent label degradation by GABA transaminase. At the end of this period, label excess was removed by washing twice with ice-cold ACSF that contained 100-μM nipecotic acid to prevent the recapture of [³H]-GABA. Nipecotic acid was also included in all solutions used in all the following steps of the experiment.

After removing the radioactive solution, slices were transferred to the perfusion chambers and superfused at a rate of 0.5 ml/min. Each chamber (80-μl volume) contained 3–4 slices; 4–5 of the 20 chambers of the superfusion apparatus shape an experimental group. Each chamber was randomly assigned to one experimental group (i.e., the release of each chamber was one replicate). Every experiment has 4–5 experimental groups, as indicated in the graph or results. Experiments were reproduced from 3–8 times as indicated.

After the distribution in the chambers, the slices were superfused with normal ACSF for 30 min before collecting fractions. Basal release of [³H]GABA was measured by collecting four fractions of the superfusate (total volume = 2 ml per fraction) before depolarizing the slices with a solution in which the [K⁺] was raised to 15 mM. The composition of the high K⁺ solution was (mM): NaCl 101.25, KCl 13.75, MgSO₄ 1, KH₂PO₄ 1.25, NaHCO₃ 25, CaCl₂ 2, and D-glucose 10, bubbled with 95% O₂ + 5% CO₂, pH 7.4. Six more fractions were collected

in the high K^+ medium. All drugs were added to the medium at fraction 2, before changing the superfusion to the high K^+ medium, to explore basal release effects. At the end of the experiment, the slices were collected to determine the total amount of tritium remaining in the tissue, treated with 1 ml of 1 N HCl, and allowed to stand for 1 hr before adding the scintillator. [3H] GABA release was initially expressed as a fraction of the total tritium remaining in the tissue. The effect of drugs on the basal release of [3H]GABA was assessed by comparing the fractional release in fraction 2 (immediately before exposure of the tissue to the drug) and fraction 4 (immediately before exposure to 15 mM of K^+). Changes in K^+ -evoked [3H]-GABA release was assessed by comparing the Area Under the appropriate release Curves (AUC) between the first and last fractions collected after the change to high K^+ . For each experimental condition, relative areas were expressed as a percentage of control.

2.9 | Electrophysiological recordings

2.9.1 | Recordings of spontaneous inhibitory postsynaptic currents (sIPSC)

A single slice from mice was transferred to a recording chamber placed on the stage of an upright microscope (Zeiss Axioscope), where GP neurons were visually identified and sampled (see Figure 5). Slices were superfused with ASCF 2 ml/min at room temperature and equilibrated with 95% O_2 -5% CO_2 containing (in mM): 126 NaCl, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 3 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4 , 1.6 $CaCl_2$, 1.5 $MgSO_4$, and 10 D-glucose, pH 7.45. Patch-clamp recordings were made using borosilicate glass pipettes (impedance 3–6 M Ω) prepared with a micropipette puller (David Kopf 730) and filled with an internal solution containing (in mM): 135 CsCl, 4 NaCl 0.4 GTP, 2 ATP-Mg, 0.5 EGTA Cs, 10 HEPES, and 0.5 $CaCl_2$, pH 7.25. GABA A-receptor-mediated sIPSCs were recorded in whole-cell voltage-clamp mode with a setup integrated by an Axopatch 200B amplifier, an acquisition Digidata 1200 analog-digital apparatus controlled by a Clampex 9.2 package software (Axon Instrument, Foster City, CA), and a digital oscilloscope used to monitor the recording during the experiment. Currents were isolated by incubating slices with 6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione (CNQX, 10 μM) and DL-2-amino-phosphonopentanoic acid (DL-AP-5, 40 μM), the NMDA and AMPA receptor antagonists, respectively. Signals were digitized at 20 kHz and low-pass filtered at 2 kHz, with a step pulse of -5 mV, we monitored series resistance at the end of each recording. Data were discarded when the series resistance increased by $>20\%$. Sample tracings of these spontaneous currents are shown in Figure 5. Their amplitude ranged from 40 to 100 pA. These discharges were abolished by incubation in either TTX (1 μM) or bicuculline (10 μM), indicating that they are dependent on spike firing in GABAergic projections (see Figure 5).

2.9.2 | Evoked GABA A-mediated inhibitory postsynaptic currents (eIPSCs)

eIPSCs were recorded in whole-cell configuration at a holding potential of -60 mV (after potential junction correction) and isolated with NMDA and AMPA antagonist similar to sIPSCs. Borosilicate pipettes (3–6 M Ω resistance) containing an internal solution of (in mM): 135 K-Gluconate, 4 NaCl, 0.4 GTP, 2 Mg-ATP, 0.5 EGTA, and 10 HEPES, pH 7.25 were employed to characterize electrophysiological properties of GP neurons (Figure 5b,d). In studies where eIPSCs were elicited, the internal solution was the same as for sIPSC. eIPSC was stimulated, giving a train of five pulses every 15 s with a 50 ms interval (20 Hz), using a bipolar platinum/iridium electrode positioned in the Str or within GP. Single rectangular electrical pulses ~ 10 –100 mV intensity, 0.5 ms pulse duration was used for stimulation in the Str, and ~ 1 –10 mV, 0.5 ms for stimulation within GP, were delivered through an isolated stimulation unit (DS2; Grass Instruments). Data amplitudes were calculated from the average of more than four trials each minute with Clampex 10 (Molecular Devices), and five-pulse ratios by dividing pulse X/pulse 1 of each condition.

2.10 | Behavioral observations

Male Wistar rats locally bred weighing 180–200 g were anesthetized with ketamine/xylazine (80/10 mg/kg, i.p.). A guide cannula (22 gauge, 14 mm long) was placed in GP of one side for microinjections. The coordinates used were as follows: -0.4 mm posterior and 3.0 mm lateral to bregma and 4.7 mm from the dura. The cannula was secured in place with dental acrylic glued to the skull and small stainless steel screws; a wire stylet was inserted into the cannula to prevent clogging. Rotational behavior was tested 3 days after surgery. A single dose of D-amphetamine (1 mg/kg i.p.) or saline was administered. Ten minutes after amphetamine as indicated, the rat was gently restrained, and the stylet was replaced by an injection cannula (30 gauge, 14.5 mm long) connected to a 5- μl Hamilton syringe. Then, the animals were returned to the observation chamber. Drugs or vehicle were applied in a volume of 1 μl delivered during 2 min by hand, and the cannula remained in place three additional minutes. The number of turns per minute was registered for every min by two blind independent observers for 40 min more.

Finally, the animals were killed by an overdose of ketamine/xylazine, the brains removed and fixed in 10% of formalin for 24 hr. Brain sections (150 μm) were obtained, and injection sites were assessed by the cannula's location on digitized images of the brain slices. These images were superimposed onto schemes of the brain (Paxinos, 1997). Experiments with cannula locations not corresponding to GPe were discarded.

We estimated the spread of microinjected drugs outside of the nucleus by injecting methylene blue into GP to support that the behavioral effect that occurs within this nucleus. In a set of experiments, anesthetized rats were injected with a 1 μ l of a methylene blue solution 1% (w/v). The animals were killed immediately (0 min), 30 min, or 60 min after the syringe's removal, and their brains were removed and placed in PBS/PFA 4% for 24 hr. Coronal brain slices (100 μ m thick) from bregma 0.60 to -1.80 mm containing the GP were obtained with a vibroslicer (Campden Inc., Cambridge, UK) and observed with a stereoscopic microscope. As shown in Figure S2, the dye remains within the pallidal structure even after 60 min, suggesting that drug effects occur by activating GP receptors.

2.11 | Statistical analysis

All data were analyzed using Graph Pad Software, San Diego, CA, USA, version 7.05. Differences in densitometry analysis for D₄R western blotting, B_{max} for binding studies, and changes in amplitude or frequency of sIPSC were analyzed with the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test. Differences in data from [³H] GABA release, the time course of drug effects on sIPSC, and eIPSC were analyzed with the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test. Changes in ratios of pulse stimulation of eIPSC were analyzed by the Friedman test followed by Dunn's test. In the case of comparison of observations between data from different experiments, Man-Whitney *U* test was performed. In behavioral experiments to obtain an unbiased estimate of Hill number, EC₅₀ values and E_{max} concentration-response data for amphetamine-induced turning behavior were fitted by Hill Plot and plotted on a semilog scale. A list of the relative affinities of drugs used in this project to activate D₂R or D₄R is shown in Table 1.

2.12 | Drugs

amino-oxyacetic acid; CNQX, 6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione; DL-AP-5, DL-2-amino-5-phosphopentanoic acid; L 741,626, (\pm)-3-[4-(4-Chlorophenyl)-4-hydroxypiperidinyl]methylindole; L 745,870, 3-[[4-(4-Chlorophenyl)piperazin-1-yl]methyl]-1H-pyrrolo[2,3-b]pyridine hydrochloride; nipecotic acid; PD 168,077, N-[[4-(2-Cyanophenyl)-1-piperazinyl]methyl]-3-methylbenzamide maleate salt; Quinpirole, trans-($-$)-(4aR)-4,4a,5,6,7,8,8a,9-Octahydro-5-propyl-1H-pyrazolo[3,4-g]quinoline monohydrochloride; Sulpiride, (S)-5-(Aminosulfonyl)-N-[(1-ethyl-2-pyrrolidinyl)methyl]-2-methoxybenzamide; Sumanrole, (5R)-5,6-Dihydro-5-(methylamino)-4H-imidazo[4,5,1-ij]quinolin-2(1H)-one

TABLE 1 Reported values for Ki or Kd for D₂ or D₄ receptors of drugs used in this study

Drug selectivity	Kd or Ki D ₂ R	Kd or Ki D ₄ R	Reference
Quinpirole D ₂ -like agonist	4.8–576	30–46	Vallone et al. (2000)
Sulpiride D ₂ -like antagonist	2.5–71	21–1,000	Vallone et al. (2000)
PD 168,907 D ₄ R agonist	3,740	8.7	Newman et al (2008), Glase et al. (1997)
Sumanrole D ₂ R agonist	9	>2,190	McCall et al. (2005)
L745,870 D ₄ R antagonist	960–1,600	0.43–1.5	Kulagowski et al. (1996), Patel et al. (1997)
L741,626 D ₂ R antagonist	0.9–2.4	129–220	Kulagowski et al. (1996), Vangveravong et al. (2010)

maleate, all drugs were obtained from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, USA). Radiochemicals: [³H] GABA, aminobutyric acid (GABA) γ -[2,3-³H(N)]-; Specific Activity: 25–40Ci (925GBq–1.48TBq)/mmol, 1mCi (37MBq), and [N-METHYL-³H] YM-09151-2, cis-N-(1-benzyl-2-methylpyrrolidin-3-yl)-5-chloro-2-methoxy-4-methylaminobenzamide; and Specific Activity: 84.4 Ci (3123GBq–1.75TBq)/mmol, 1mCi (9.25 MBq), were purchased from Perkin Elmer.

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Location of D₄R in pallido-pallidal collaterals

We evaluated the presence of the D₄R protein in intra-pallidal collateral recurrenents. Western blot for D₄R in synaptosomes from the ipsilateral and contralateral sides of GP from rats unilaterally lesioned with kainic acid (Acosta-Garcia et al., 2009; le Boulch et al., 1991) were performed. Also, we measured changes in protein expression in synaptosomes in the projection areas of pallidal neurons: the SNr and the Str. In Figure 1a, the presence of D₄R protein in synaptosomes of GP at a band of near 48 kDa in the control side (C) can be seen. In the lesioned side (L), a significant decrement in the protein content can be observed, which was confirmed by the densitometry analysis showed in the lower part of the graph (48 kDa band percentage of control side; control side 100%, versus median lesioned side 23%, rank 15–33, *W* = 0; *p* = 0.031, *n* = 5 experiments). No D₄R protein changes were observed after intra-pallidal lesion in striatal synaptosomes (Figure 1b, 48 kDa band percentage of control side; control

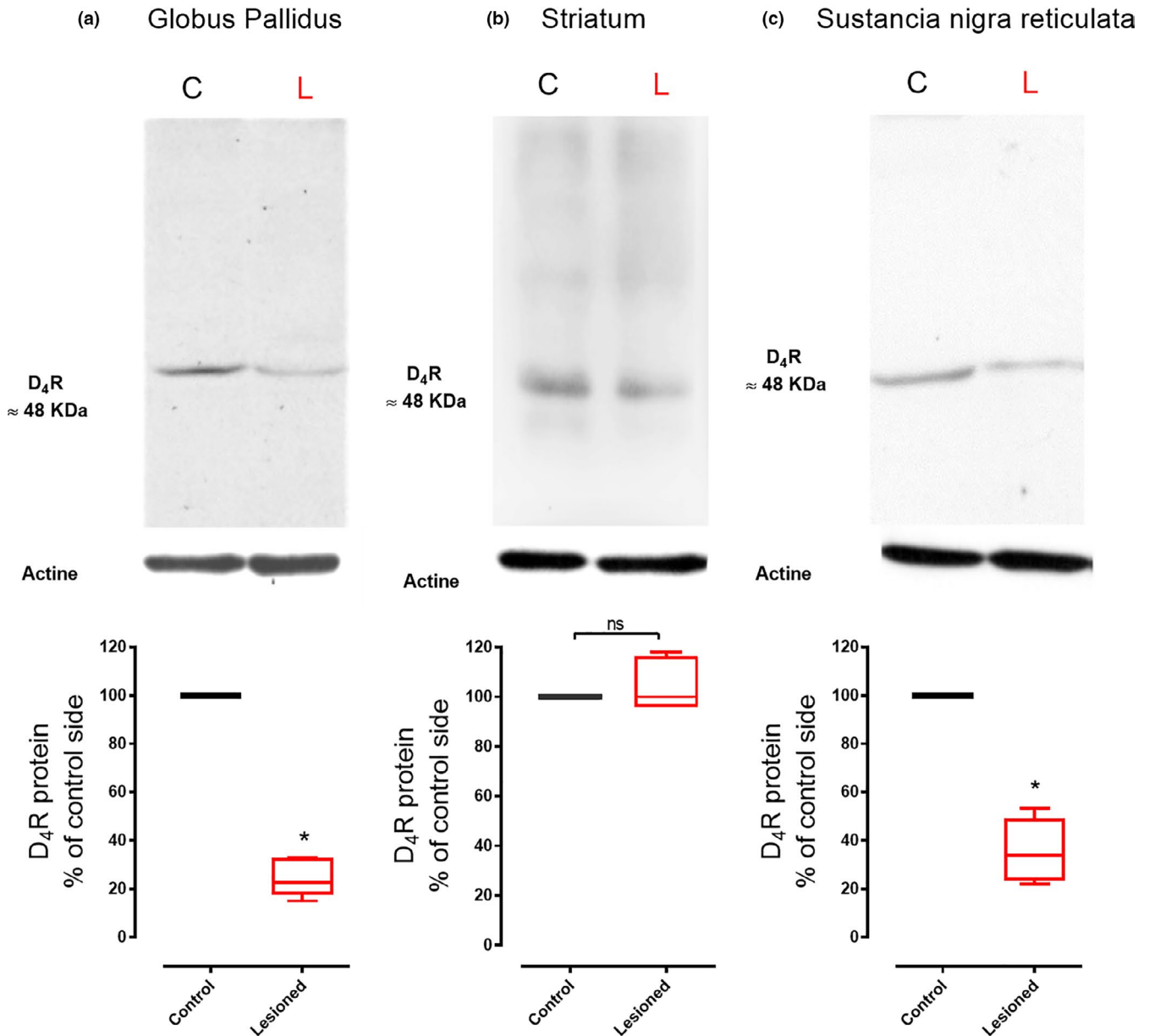


FIGURE 1 D₄R protein is located at pallido-pallidal and pallido-nigral but not in pallido-striatal terminals. (a–c) Representative western blots of D₄R protein in synaptosomes of GP, Str, and SNr, in the control C, and lesioned L sides of rats unilaterally lesioned into the GP with kainic acid. Lower graphs depict the densitometry analysis of five blots expressed as a percentage of D₄R protein with respect to the control side. Data are graphed in Tukey boxes and analyzed by Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test, W values are 15 in a and c, and 4 in b. * $p = 0.03$, $p = 0.31$ in ns, not significant differences, $n = 5$ experiments [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

side 100%, versus median denervated side 100%, rank 96–118, $W = 4$, $p = 0.31$, $n = 5$ experiments). As expected, a substantial decrement was also observed in SNr synaptosomes protein (Figure 1c, 48 kDa band percentage of control side; control side 100%, versus median denervated side 34%, rank 22–53, $W = 15$, $p = 0.031$, $n = 5$ experiments).

The membranal expression of D₄R of pallidal, striatal, and nigral synaptosomes in the non-lesioned (control) and lesioned side of unilaterally kainic acid-lesioned animals was determined. We performed saturation binding studies with a non-selective D₂-like tritiated ligand [³H] YM-09151-2

with a protocol in which D₂R and D₃R binding were discarded pharmacologically (see Methods). In non-lesioned animals, GP presynaptic D₄R has an estimated median B_{\max} of 122 fmol/mg protein, rank 98–135, and a median K_d of 0.56 nM, rank 0.41–0.75 (a representative experiment of five can be seen in Figure 2a). In experiments in rats in which one GP had been lesioned with kainic acid, a significant decrement in receptors bound with [³H]YM-09151-2 (1 nM) was found when compared the control and lesioned sides (Figure 2d, control side: median bound 84 fmol/mg protein, rank 74–97 versus median lesioned side 34 fmol/mg protein,

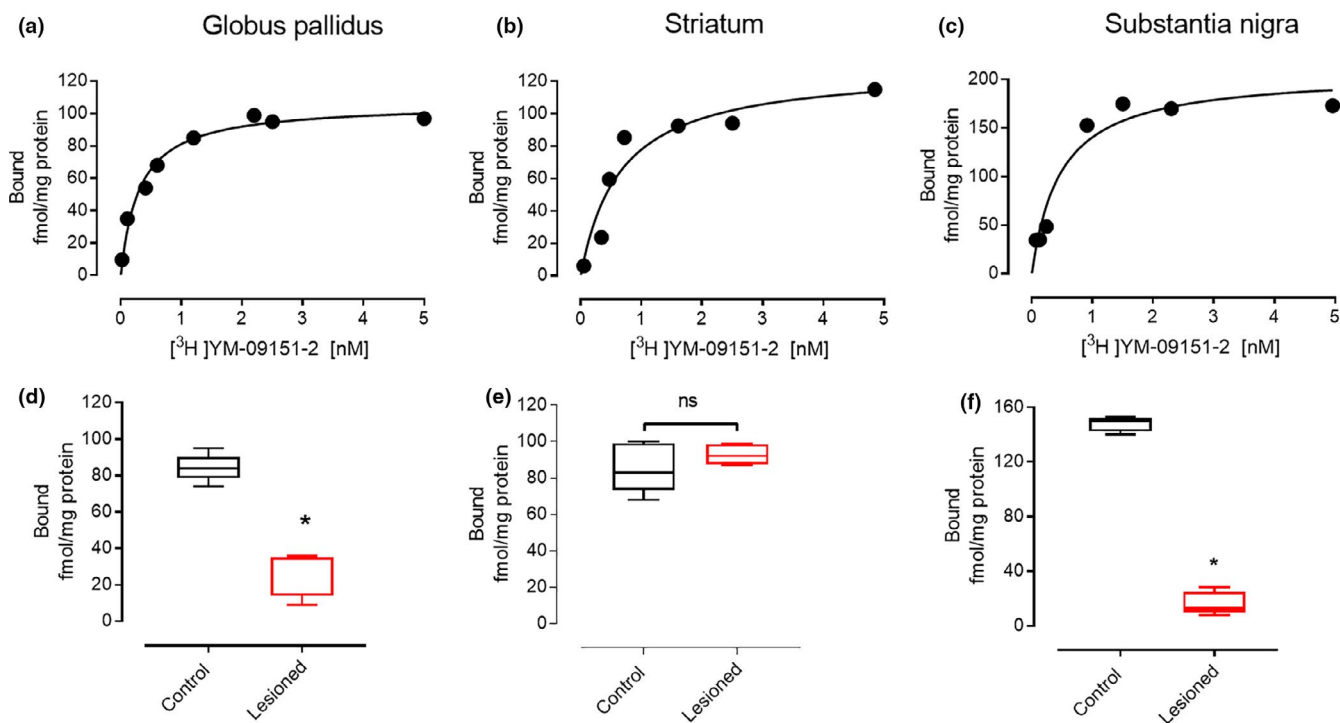


FIGURE 2 D_4R binding decreases in pallido-pallidal and pallido-nigral but not in striatal terminals after pallidal kainic acid lesion. (a–c) Show representative saturation curves of $[^3H]YM-09151-2$ in D_4R in synaptosomes of GP, Str, and SNr, respectively. (d–f) The specific binding of $[^3H]YM-09151-2$ 1 nM in synaptosomes of the different nuclei comparing the control and lesioned sides of kainic acid-treated rats. Data are graphed in Tukey boxes and analyzed by Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test, W values are -15 in d and f, and -7 in b. $*p = 0.031$, and in ns $p = 0.219$, $n = 5$ experiments [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

	Saturation curve $[^3H]$ YM-09151-2		Bound $[^3H]YM-09151-2$ 1 nM	
	Bmax fmol/ mg protein	Kd, nM	Control side, fmol/mg protein	Lesioned side fmol/mg protein
Globus pallidus	122 rank 98–135	0.56 rank 0.41–0.75	84 rank 74–97	34 rank 9–36
Striatum	128 rank 114–135	0.67 rank 0.59–0.78	83 rank 68–100	92 rank 87–99
Substantia Nigra	188 rank 175–191	0.65 rank 0.51–0.76	150 rank 140–153	13 rank 8–28

TABLE 2 Binding values for $[^3H]YM-09151-2$ of saturation curves and at 1 nM of experiments of figure 2

ranks 9–36, $W = -15$, $p = 0.0313$, $n = 5$ experiments). In non-lesioned animals, D_4R in Str has an estimated median B_{max} of 128 fmol/mg protein, rank 114–135, and a median Kd of 0.67 nM, rank 0.59–0.78 (a representative experiment of five can be seen in Figure 2b), parameters similar to pallidal receptors. However, the pallidal lesion did not modify bound with $[^3H]YM-09151-2$ (Figure 2e, control side: median bound 83 fmol/mg protein, rank 68–100 versus lesioned side median bound 92 fmol/mg protein, ranks 87–99, $W = -7$, $p = 0.219$, $n = 5$ experiments.). Finally, corresponding with GP, nigral D_4R had similar sensitivity with a higher expression level measured by a median B_{max} of 188 fmol/mg of protein, rank 175–191 and median Kd of 0.65 nM, rank

0.51–0.76 (a representative experiment of five can be seen in Figure 2c). Bound of $[^3H]YM-09151-2$ (1 nM) decreased significantly in SNr after pallidal lesion (Figure 2f, control side: median bound 150 fmol/mg protein, rank 140–153 versus median bound lesioned side 13 fmol/mg protein, ranks 8–28, $W = -15$, $p = 0.031$, $n = 5$ experiments). Judging by the B_{max} of saturation curves, the estimated number of receptors at nerve terminals was significantly higher in SNr. At the same time, it was similar between GP and Str (median B_{max} SNr 188 fmol/mg protein, rank 175–191 versus median GP 122, rank 98–135, mean rank difference -8.5 , $p = 0.003$, and versus median Str 128, rank 114–135, mean rank difference -6.5 , $p = 0.021$, $n = 5$ determinations per

nucleus, Kruskal–Wallis followed by Dunn's test). No significant differences were found in Kd (median Kd GP 0.56 nM, rank 0.41–0.75 versus median Str 0.67, rank 0.59–0.78, mean rank difference -4.6 , $p = 0.103$, and versus median SNr 0.65, rank 0.51–0.76, mean rank difference -3.2 , $p = 0.620$ $n =$ five determinations per nucleus). Table 2 summarizes the Bmax and Kd values obtained for the different nuclei and the bound of [3 H]YM-09151-2 (1 nM) in control and lesioned sides of kainic acid-lesioned animals.

3.2 | D₄R has less relative contribution in the total control of GABA release with respect to D₂R in GP

As the motor effects of presynaptic dopamine receptors depend upon their relative expression and their effects on neurotransmitter release (Briones-Lizardi et al., 2019), we studied the relative contribution of D₂R and D₄R in the control of GABA release in GP slices from reserpinized rats.

The effect of the D₂-like agonist Quinpirole (1 μ M) on K⁺-induced [3 H] GABA release is shown in Figure 3e, a significant decrement of about 60% was observed (GABA release; median control 100% versus median Quinpirole 39%, ranks 24–50; mean rank difference 24, $***p < 0.001$, $n = 10$). The D₂-like antagonist Sulpiride (100 nM) prevented all effects of Quinpirole (GABA release; median

control 100% versus median Quinpirole + Sulpiride 101, ranks 82–114, mean rank difference -2 , $p = 0.70$, ns, $n = 10$). In contrast, the blockade of D₄R with its selective antagonist (Patel et al., 1997) L 745,870 (100 nM) prevented partially the Quinpirole effect diminishing it in around 28% (GABA release; median Quinpirole 39%, ranks 24–50 versus median Quinpirole + L 745,870 69%, ranks 60–75, mean rank difference -10 , $p = 0.05$, $n = 10$). These data indicate the control of GABA release by D₂R and D₄R. To establish the sole contribution of D₂R, we performed experiments with slices perfused with the selective D₄R antagonist throughout the experiment (Jijon-Lorenzo et al., 2018). In this condition, D₂-like agonist Quinpirole only decreased GABA release in circa of 40% (Figure 3f, GABA release; median control 100% versus median Quinpirole 64%, ranks 53–71, mean rank difference 10, $p = 0.0136$, $n = 6$). Likewise, Sulpiride prevented all the Quinpirole inhibitory effect without modification in release itself.

As Quinpirole activates all D₂-like receptors, we performed experiments with selective D₂R and D₄R agonists to investigate their relative contribution. In Figure 3g, the effect of D₂R selective agonist Sumanriole is shown (100 nM, McCall et al., 2005), which inhibits the release circa of 45% (GABA release; median control 100% versus median Sumanriole 55%, rank 32–59, mean rank difference 15, $p = 0.0027$, $n = 6$), an effect prevented by Sulpiride, but not by the D₄R antagonist L 745,870 (GABA release;

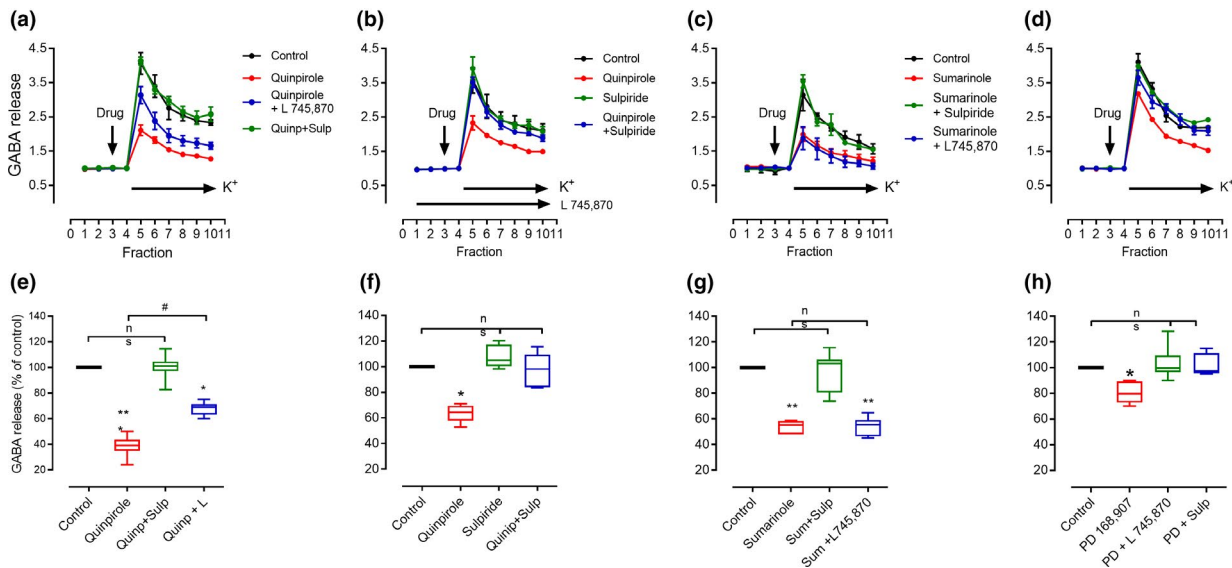


FIGURE 3 D₂R control [3 H]GABA release to a more extent in GP with respect to D₄R. (a–d) Typical experiments of the fractional course of K⁺-induced [3 H]GABA release in pallidal slices from the rat; control conditions are in black circles, in the presence of Quinpirole (1 μ M), the selective D₂R agonist Sumanriole (100 nM), or the selective D₄R agonist PD 168,077 (100 nM). Green and blue circles are different co-administration of antagonists alone or with selective agonists. (e–H) The change in the relative area under the curve as a percentage of control from upper experiments. Data are graphed in Tukey boxes and analyzed by the Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Dunn's test. (e) $***p < 0.001$ mean rank difference 24 and $**p = 0.0066$ mean rank difference 14 respect control, $\#p = 0.05$ mean rank difference -10 , $n = 10$ experiments. (f) $*p = 0.0136$ mean rank difference 10, $n =$ six experiments. (g) $**p = 0.0027$ mean rank difference 15, $n =$ six experiments. (h) $*p = 0.0273$, mean rank difference 15.17, $n =$ six experiments. ns, indicate no significant differences among groups according to Dunn's test [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

median control 100% versus median Quinpirole + Sulpiride 103%, ranks 74–116, mean rank difference -0.83 , $p = 0.869$, ns. GABA release; Sumanriole median 55%, ranks 32–59 versus median Sumanriole + L745,870 56%, ranks 45–65, mean rank difference -0.33 , $p = 0.947$, ns, $n = 6$). Sumanriole was more potent than Quinpirole in the presence of L 745,870 to inhibit GABA release (Figure 3f median Quinpirole + L 745,870 64%, ranks 53–71 versus Figure 3g Sumanriole 55%, ranks 32–59, $U = 5$, $p = 0.368$, Mann–Whitney test, $n = 6$ in each group). In contrast, the D_4R selective agonist PD 168,077 (100 nM, Kulagowski et al., 1996) inhibits only circa of 20% GABA release (Figure 3h, GABA release median control 100% versus

median PD 168,077 80%, ranks 70–89, mean rank difference 15.17, $p = 0.0273$, $n = 6$), the effect was prevented by the selective D_4R antagonist L 745,870 and by Sulpiride (GABA release; median control 100% versus median PD 168,077 + L 745,870 99%, ranks 90–128, mean rank difference 0.08, ns; and median control 100% versus median PD 168,077 + Sulpiride 98%, ranks 95–115, mean rank difference -3 , ns, $n = 6$ experiments). The magnitude of inhibition produced by PD 168,077 is similar to the difference in the effect of Quinpirole alone compared in the presence of L 745,870 (Figure 3e, red bar minus blue bar). Figure 3a–d present the fractional course of typical release experiments of the lower graphs.

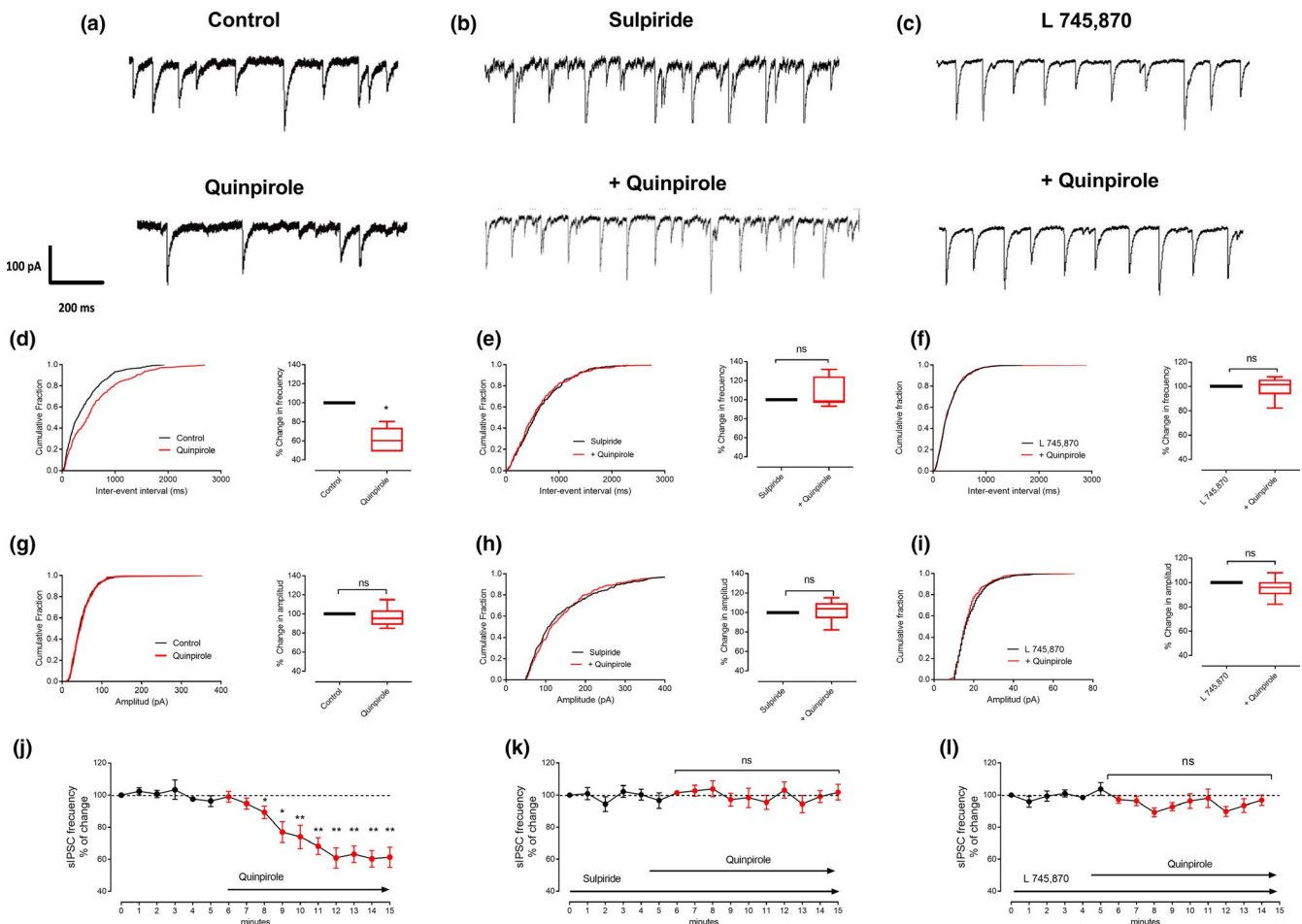


FIGURE 4 Quinpirole depressed sIPSC frequency but not amplitude. The inhibitory effects were blocked by L 745,870 and Sulpiride. (a–c) Sample traces showing spontaneous IPSCs before and during the application of Quinpirole (1 μ M), alone (in a), and in the presence of Sulpiride (100 nM, in b) or L 745,870 (100 nM, in c). The cumulative distribution of the inter-event intervals and amplitudes of one typical recording from a neuron is shown, respectively, in d and g for Quinpirole alone, in e and h in the presence of Sulpiride, and in f and i in the presence of L 745,870. The Kolmogorov–Smirnov test was used to determine the significance of the difference between Quinpirole versus control or in the presence of Sulpiride or L 745,870. The percentual change in frequency or amplitude of the total amount of neurons recorded is shown in the right graph. Data are graphed in Tukey boxes and analyzed by Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test, W values are -21 in d and 6 and 3 in e and f, respectively, $*p = 0.0156$, and indicated with ns when no significant differences were found, $n = 6$, 6 and 7 neurons recorded in an equal number of experiments. (j–l) The time course of the effect of drugs, respectively. The time course is expressed in mean \pm SE, but data analyzed by the Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Dunn's test. KS statistic and p were as follows: 69 and $p < 0.0001$ in j, 7.57, and $p = 0.94$ in k, 23.32, and $p = 0.0553$ in l $n =$ six cells recorded in j and k, and 7 in l. Dunn's test $*p < 0.05$ and $**p < 0.01$ and ns, not significant differences respect control period [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

3.3 | D₄R modulates pallidal sIPSC

First, we corroborated that we registered GP neurons correctly. We characterized a set of 17 neurons by their electrophysiological properties. Representative records in current-clamp conditions of the response to different current injections of the two subtypes of neurons that correspond to types A and B in mice previously reported in the literature are shown in Figure S3 (Akopian et al., 2016; Bugaysen et al., 2013; Engler et al., 2006; Kita & Kitai, 1991; Shin et al., 2003; Stanford & Cooper, 1999). Type A neurons were characterized by an input resistance of $410 \pm 9 \text{ M}\Omega$, a firing rate of $8 \pm 1 \text{ Hz}$, an action potential duration of $1.8 \pm 0.2 \text{ ms}$, a regular firing, and the presence of time- and voltage-dependent “sag” caused by the I_h current and rebound depolarization. Type B neurons were characterized by an input resistance of $302 \pm 9 \text{ M}\Omega$, a firing rate of $7 \pm 1.4 \text{ Hz}$, an action potential duration of $1.3 \pm 0.4 \text{ ms}$, an irregular firing rate, and lack of “sag.” We found that 11 from 17 characterized neurons (65%) corresponded to type A, and 6 corresponded to type B. We did not find neurons that putatively correspond to type C. A similar pattern has been identified in the rat GP (Cooper & Stanford, 2000) with comparable proportions. We pooled all neurons' data because we and others (Shin et al., 2003) cannot distinguish between different types of neurons during patch-clamp experiments. The sIPSCs registered were sensitive to TTX and Bicuculline, indicating the GABAergic nature and action potential dependence of currents (Nambu & Llinas, 1994). In Figure S3, we also show representative recordings of sIPSC in non-determined type (A or B) neurons. In the control condition and the presence of CNQX and AP5, it can be seen records whose amplitude ranged from 40 to 100 pA and the frequency from 3.7 to 10.8 Hz. The perfusion of CNQX and AP-5 decreased the frequency but not the mean amplitude. The remaining currents were abolished by pretreatment of TTX (1 μM) and bicuculline (10 μM).

Spontaneous activity in GP neurons can be recorded in their somas in a slice preparation. According to Kita and Kitai (1991), it corresponds to action potential mainly from pallidal neurons and, to a lesser extent, from afferents. Thus, it is possible to study both the presynaptic and somatic effects of receptors, in this case, D₄R. Figure 4 shows the effects of Quinpirole (1 μM) on sIPSCs in GP neurons, and its modification by Sulpiride (100 nM) and L 745,870 (100 nM). Quinpirole significantly decreased the inter-event interval but not the amplitude of sIPSC in pallidal neurons in approximately 39% (Figure 4d,g). The time course of the effect on frequency is shown in Figure 4j, which becomes statistically significant respect control period after 2 min of perfusion and with a maximum effect 6 min later. Data for temporal effect on amplitude are not shown because no changes were observed. The cumulative distribution of frequency of inter-event interval and amplitude comparing at minute 5

(before drug perfusion) and minute 15 (10 min after initiation of the drug) of a single representative neuron is shown in Figure 4d,g, respectively. In the same graphs, the percentual change in both parameters from minute 15 respect minute 5 confirmed the decrement in frequency but not in amplitude (Figure 4d,g, percentage of change in frequency: median control 100% versus median Quinpirole 60%, ranks 49–80, $W = -21$, $*p = 0.0156$; percentage of change in amplitude: median control 100% versus median Quinpirole 95%, ranks 85–114, $W = -6$, $p = 0.25 \text{ ns}$, $n = 6 \text{ cells}$). The lack of a significant effect on sIPSC amplitude was uniform throughout the experiments. Thus, the description of these effects was omitted from the rest of the text. However, they are still shown in the figures.

The effect of Quinpirole on inter-event interval was prevented either by Sulpiride (Figure 4e percent of change in frequency: median control Sulpiride 100% versus median Quinpirole + Sulpiride 98%, ranks 93–131, $W = 6$, $p = 0.35 \text{ ns}$, $n = 6$) or by the D₄R antagonist L 745,870 administered before D₂-like activation (Figure 4f, percent of change in frequency: median control L 745,870 100% versus Quinpirole + L 745,870 102%, ranks 82–108, $W = 3$, $p = 0.85$, $t = 0.81$, $n = 7$). Neither Sulpiride nor L 745,870 modified the amplitude or frequency of IPSC (data not shown). The time course of the effect is shown in Figure 4k,l. The distribution of frequency of inter-event interval and amplitude compared at minute 5 and minute 15 is depicted in Figure 4e,f,h,i. Figure 4a–c show representative traces of sIPSC recorded.

3.4 | D₄R modulates pallidal eIPSC from collaterals but not of striatal afferents

Previous studies indicated that the activation of D₂R located on striatal afferents depresses GABA release (Cooper & Stanford, 2001; Floran et al., 1997), which leads to increased GP neuronal activity (Querejeta et al., 2001). On the other hand, our neurochemical data indicate the presence of D₄R on collateral recurrents of pallidal neurons. Thus, we studied changes in eIPSC by D₂R and D₄R activation stimulating striatal afferents. We placed the stimulation electrode in Str to activate striato-pallidal afferents preferentially, and we put the stimulation electrode within the GP to activate recurrents preferentially. As both forms of stimulation can evoke IPSC from recurrents and afferents, we discriminated between them by their differences in short-term synaptic plasticity (Connelly et al., 2010) by stimulating them with five pulses at 20 Hz, according to Miguez et al. (2012). We registered a total of 30 neurons whose striatal (28 neurons) or pallidal local stimulation (2 neurons) produced facilitating short-term synaptic plasticity, and a total of 42 neurons whose striatal (3 neurons) or pallidal local stimulation (39 neurons) produced depressing short-term synaptic plasticity. The effects

of D2-like drugs in grouped putative striato-pallidal and pallido-pallidal terminals are summarized in Table 3.

The presynaptic action of the D2-like agonist Quinpirole on D₂R was studied at striato-pallidal putative afferents. Quinpirole (1 μM) depressed the amplitude of eIPSCs in about 30% (Figure 5b,e show the time course of the change in first pulse), which becomes significant 1–4 min after perfusion, with a maximal effect at minute 10. This effect was associated with a significant increment in synaptic facilitation, as can be seen by the change in the ratio of pulse X/pulse 1 (Figure 5c, median ratio control 1.4, ranks 1–1.62 versus median ratio in the presence of Quinpirole 1.72, rank 1–2.02, rank-sum difference 7, $p = 0.0269$, $n = 13$ neurons, 11 from striatal stimulation, and two from pallidal stimulation, Friedman test followed by Dunn's test). The effect of

Quinpirole was entirely prevented by the co-perfusion of the D2-like antagonist Sulpiride (100 nM) (Figure 5b), which associated with a recovery of the increment in synaptic facilitation judged by the ratio of pulse X/pulse one (Figure 5c, median ratio control 1.40, rank 1–1.62 versus median ratio in the presence of Quinpirole + Sulpiride 1.37, rank 1 to 1.58, rank-sum difference -2 , $p = 0.527$, $n = 13$ neurons). The inhibitory effect of Quinpirole at putative striato-pallidal terminals was not modified by the D₄R selective antagonist L 745,870, as seen in Figure 5e. This effect also corresponds to a lack of modification of the ratio of pulse X/pulse one elicited by Quinpirole (Figure 5f, the median ratio in the presence of Quinpirole 1.89, rank 1–2.10 versus median ratio in the presence of Quinpirole + L 745,870 1.82, ranks 1–2.11, rank sum difference 5, $p = 0.114$, $n = 10$ neurons all registered by

TABLE 3 Summary of number and drug effect on eIPSC recorded in this study

Treatment	Number of records	% of total of records	% of inhibition respect 1st minute	Median ratio pulse x/pulse 1
Putative Striato-pallidal records (Facilitating synaptic plasticity 30 records)				
Recorded from striatal stimulation				
Quinpirole + Sulpiride (Figure 5b,c)	11	37%	70%	Control 1.40 rank 1–1.61 + Quinpirole 1.71 rank 1–2.03 + Sulpiride 1.37 rank 1–1.58
Quinpirole + L 745,870 (Figure 5e,f)	10	33%	74%	Control 1.50 rank 1–1.78 + Quinpirole 1.89 rank 1–2.01 + L 745,870 1.82 rank 1–2.11
Not responding to Quinpirole	7	23%	101%	Control 1.33 rank 1–1.64 Quinpirole 1.40 rank 1–1.65
Recorded from intra-pallidal stimulation				
Quinpirole + Sulpiride (Figure 5b,c)	2	7%	72%	Control 1.42 rank 1–1.71 + Quinpirole 2.44 rank 1–2.73 + Sulpiride 1.43 rank 1–1.85
D ₂ R responding of total	23	77%		
Putative Pallido-pallidal records (Depressing synaptic plasticity 42 records)				
Recorded from striatal stimulation				
Not responding to Quinpirole	3	7%	97%	Control 0.85 rank 0.65–1 Quinpirole 0.82 rank 1–1.65
Recorded from intra-pallidal stimulation				
Quinpirole + L 745,870 (Figure 5h,k)	10	24%	74%	Control 0.87 rank 0.80–1 + Quinpirole 0.92 rank 0.87–1 + L 745,870 0.86 rank 0.77–1
PD 168,907 + L 745,870 (Figure 5k,l)	9	21%	76%	Control 0.84 rank 0.74–1 + PD 168,907 0.91 rank 0.87–1 + L 745,870 0.81 rank 0.75–1
Quinpirole + Sulpiride treated (data not shown)	10	24%	78%	Control 0.76 rank 0.71–1 + Quinpirole 0.87 rank 0.82–1 + Sulpiride 0.76 rank 0.73–1
Not responding to Quinpirole	10	24%	103%	Control 0.85 rank 0.74–1 + Quinpirole 0.88 rank 0.75–1
Total not responding to D2R agents	13	31%		
D ₄ R responding of total	28	67%		

striatal stimulation). Interestingly, not all neurons with facilitatory synaptic plasticity responded to Quinpirole; in a group of seven neurons (about 23%), Quinpirole did not modify eIPSC amplitude and pulse x/pulse one ratio (see Table 3).

At putative pallido-pallidal afferents, Quinpirole also inhibited the amplitude of eIPSC (Figure 5h), which becomes significant after 1 min of perfusion, with a maximal effect at minute 10, similarly to striato-pallidal afferents. This effect produced a decrement in synaptic depression judged by the change in the ratio of pulse X/pulse 1 (Figure 5i, median ratio control 0.87, rank 0.80–1 versus median ratio in the presence of Quinpirole 0.92, rank 0.87–1, rank sum difference 8, $p = 0.011$, $n = 10$ neurons, all records obtained by intra-pallidal stimulation). The D₄R selective antagonist L 745,870 (100 nM) reverted the inhibitory effect of Quinpirole on eIPSC amplitude (Figure 5h) and recovered the decrement in synaptic depression (Figure 5i, median ratio control 0.87, ranks 0.80–1 versus median ratio in the presence of Quinpirole + L745,870 0.86, rank 0.77–1, rank sum difference 4, $p = 0.2059$; $n = 10$ neurons). In a set of 10 neurons, the effect of Quinpirole was also prevented by Sulpiride (not shown in figures, see Table 3).

Quinpirole effects were mimicked by the D₄R selective agonist PD 168,077 (100 nM) and also prevented by the co-perfusion of L 745,870, as well as inhibition of eIPSC (Figure 5k) and the ratio of pulses (Figure 5l, median ratio control 0.84, rank 0.74–1 versus median ratio in the presence of PD 168,077 0.91, rank 0.87–1, rank sum difference 7, $p = 0.0269$; and versus median ratio in the presence of PD 168,077 + L 745,870 0.81, ranks 0.75–1, rank sum difference 2, $p = 0.527$, $n =$ nine neurons). Importantly, as occurs at putative striato-pallidal neurons, a set of neurons recorded with depressing synaptic plasticity produced by intra-pallidal (10) or striatal (3) stimulation did not respond to Quinpirole, which represents circa of 24% of the total. Representative traces of the eIPSC showing the facilitation or depression of synaptic plasticity of this type of afferents are depicted in Figure 5a,d,g,h (Migueluez et al., 2012).

3.5 | Pallidal D₄Rs decreased motor activity

Finally, we investigated if presynaptic D₄Rs that control GABA release within GP impact motor behavior and their magnitude compared to D₂Rs. We tested the effect of D₄R antagonist L 745,870 (Kulagowski et al., 1996; Patel et al., 1997) versus D₂R antagonist L 741,626 (Kulagowski et al., 1996; Vangveravong et al., 2010), injected into GP in naïve rats. The effect of intra-pallidal injection of 750 ng of agonists is shown in Figure 6e. The D₂R antagonist induces a minimal ipsilateral turning after injection, which was not significantly different from saline (Figure 6f, median of total 40 min turns, saline 7, rank 5–7 versus median L 741,626 7,

ranks 4–10, mean rank difference 0.33, $p = 0.88$, $n = 3$ rats each group). In contrast, D₄R antagonist produces a modest but significant turning behavior different from saline and L 741,626 (Figure 6f, median of total 40 min turns saline 7, rank 5–7 versus median L 745,870 47, ranks 42–54, mean rank difference 4.67, $p = 0.0338$, $n = 3$ rats each group). Then, we studied the effect of blockade of both receptors in amphetamine-challenged rats (1mg/kg i.p.) as endogenous dopamine can activate both receptors and, through releasing GABA, can modify the activity of pallidal neurons and motor behavior.

D₄R and D₂R antagonists dose-dependent decreased motor activity manifested by ipsilateral turning behavior (Figure 6g,h). The effect had more efficacy for D₄R antagonist as E_{max} was higher and statistically different (judged by the confidence interval) from D₂R antagonist (Figure 6i, E_{max} L 745,870, 275 turns/min CI = 253–312 versus L 741,626, 129 turns/min CI 120–138, $n =$ three rats per dose) and both exhibited similar potency (Figure 6i, EC_{50} L 745,870, 190 ng CI = 163–243 versus L 741,626, 186 ng CI 170–215, $n =$ three rats per dose, Figure 6g). For comparison, the effect of a higher dose of the non-selective D₂-like antagonist Sulpiride (1,000 ng) is shown compared with the co-administration of 500 ng of L745,870 and 500 ng of L741,626 in a single injection (Figure 6j). The ipsilateral turns per minute were nearly similar, indicating the additive effect of antagonists closing similar values to Sulpiride (Figure 6k, median of total 40 min turns Sulpiride 339, ranks 311–378 versus median L 745,870 + L 741,626 318, ranks 297–335, sum ranks 13,8 U = 2, $p = 0.4$, $n = 3$ rats each group). The approximate location of the cannulas for different drugs injected is shown in Figure 6a–d.

4 | DISCUSSION

Our data indicate the presence and functionality of presynaptic D₄R at pallido-pallidal collaterals that inhibit GABA release similarly to D₂R at striato-pallidal terminals and affect motor behavior. These findings could help understand the pallidal microcircuit and explain the pharmacological effect of D₂-like receptor modifications at the GP on motor behavior.

4.1 | Location of D₄R at pallido-pallidal terminals

The expression of D₄R in GABAergic GP neurons has been reported at the level of protein and mRNA in mice (Mauger et al., 1998), rats (Ariano et al., 1997), and primates (Mrzljak et al., 1996). This expression is considered lesser than in the prefrontal cortex neurons, but significantly

higher than in Str (Ariano et al., 1997). Thus, it is feasible that receptors can be sent to terminals to control release. Here, we found neurochemical evidence for the presence of D₄R in pallido-pallidal collaterals based on the substantial

decrement of protein in pallidal synaptosomes after kainic acid lesion of the GP (Figure 1). The fact that a critical decrement also occurs in SNr indicates not only that D₄R is expressed in nigral terminals (Acosta-Garcia et al., 2009)

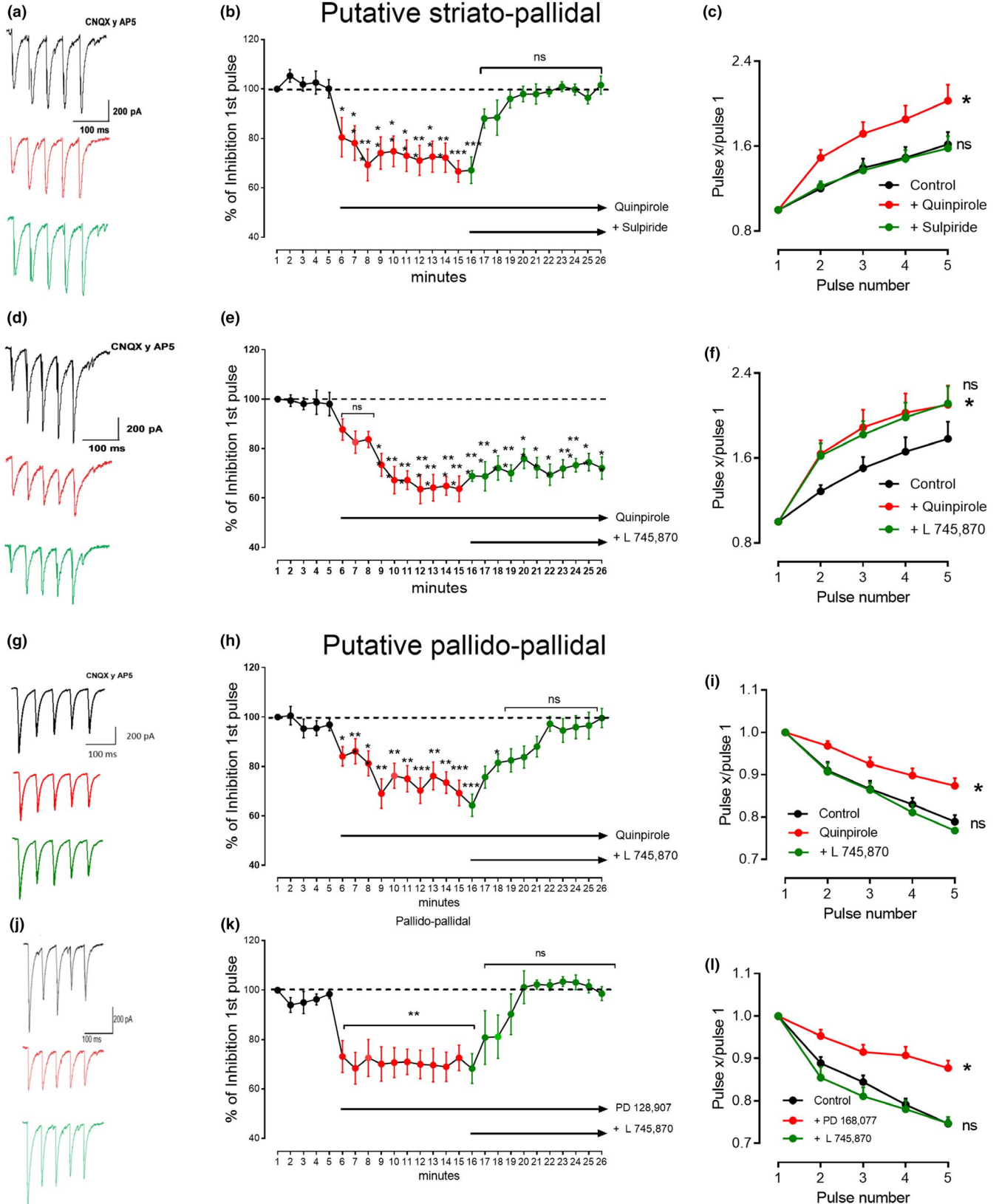


FIGURE 5 D₄Rs decrease eIPSCs in putative pallido-pallidal terminals, whereas D₂Rs decrease at putative striato-pallidal terminals grouped independently of recorded by striatal or intra-pallidal stimulation. (a, d, g, and j) Representative records of eIPSC in GP neurons elicited by striatal or pallidal minimal stimulation of a train of 5 pulses at 20 Hz in control (black trace), D₂R agonist Quinpirole (1 μM) or PD 168,077 (100 nM) (red traces), and in the presence of D₂-like antagonist Sulpiride (100 nM) or D₄R antagonist L 745,870 (100 nM) (green traces). (b, e, h, and k) The time course of the percentage of inhibition of the first pulse compared in the control condition (black points), D₂ agonist (red points), and agonist + antagonist drug (green points). The time course was graphed in mean ± SE, but data analyzed by the Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Dunn's test. KS statistic and p were as follows: 124.2 and $p < 0.0001$ in b; 128.3, and $p < 0.0001$ in e; 101.1, and $p < 0.001$ in h; 106.6, and $p < 0.0001$ in k. Dunn's test: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, and *** $p < 0.001$ and ns, not significant differences respect minute 1. (c, f, i, and l) The ratio of the amplitude of pulse x /pulse 1, respect to the pulse number in the different experimental conditions. Data are graphed in mean ± SEM and analyzed by Friedman test following Dunn's test. Friedman's statistic and p were as follows: 6.5 and $p = 0.0417$ in c, f, and l, 8, and $p = 0.0046$ in i. Dunn's test: in c, control versus + Quinpirole rank sum difference 7, * $p = 0.0269$ and control versus +Sulpiride rank sum difference -2, ns, $p = 0.527$. (f) Control versus +Quinpirole rank sum difference 7, * $p = 0.0269$ and control versus +L 745,870 rank sum difference 5, ns, $p = 0.114$. (i) control versus +Quinpirole rank sum difference 8, * $p = 0.011$ and control versus +L 745,870 rank sum difference 4, ns, $p = 0.2059$. (l) Control versus +PD 168,077 rank sum difference 7, * $p = 0.0269$ and control versus +L 745,870 rank sum difference 2, ns, $p = 0.5271$. $n = 13$ a–c, 10 in d–f, 10 in g–i, and 9 in j–l [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

but it also demonstrates that the decrement in GP protein occurs in intra-pallidal collaterals from the same neurons that project to SNr, most probably the prototypic pallidal neurons (le Boulch et al., 1991; Mallet et al., 2012; Parent & Hazrati, 1995b). The presence of D₄R in the neuropil of GP has been shown (Rivera et al., 2003), and striatal lesion with ibotenic acid decreases immunoreactivity, suggesting a presynaptic location in striato-pallidal terminals. However, the functionality of these receptors in the control of GABA release has not been found (Cooper & Stanford, 2001; Shin et al., 2003, this paper), and the expression of D₄R by mRNA and protein in Str has been proposed to low (Ariano et al., 1997; Surmeier et al., 1996).

Our binding studies support the presynaptic location of D₄R at pallido-pallidal and pallido-nigral terminals. To our knowledge, this is the first time that receptors are evaluated by binding in SNr and GP terminals. Consistent with protein data, D₄R binding decreased substantially in SNr and GP but not in Str after regional delimited pallidal kainic acid lesions (Figure 2). In all regions, D₄R sensitivity (K_d) was very similar, compatible with literature data concerning Str (Defagot et al., 1997; Marazziti et al., 2009). However, the estimated number of receptors judged by B_{max} is quite different. SNr has the most significant presynaptic D₄R, almost twice as GP or Str (Figure 2), which has two possible explanations. One is that the density of receptors is less in GP as not all collaterals express the receptors. We believe that most D₄R is in the prototypic neuron collaterals as the pallidal GABAergic projections to Sth, SNr, and RTN come from these neurons that express the functional D₄R (Aceves et al., 2011; Acosta-Garcia et al., 2009; Cruz-Trujillo et al., 2013; Floran et al., 2004a, 2004b; Gasca-Martinez et al., 2010). In contrast, in the Str, D₄R seems to be mainly located presynaptically in cortical afferents (Berger et al., 2001; Vallone et al., 2000), modulating glutamate release but not GABA (Gonzalez et al., 2012), probably due to the lack of location or functionality in GABAergic pallido-striatal terminals and striatal interneurons. Thus, possibly arky pallidal projections

do not express D₄R. Of course, a more rigorous experimental demonstration is required, for example, immunohistochemical studies. The other explanation is that GP neurons traffic and concentrate more D₄R at nigral terminals, and probably in all their projections areas to a more extent, to establish a robust functional control of GABA release.

4.2 | Regulation of GABA release by intra-pallidal D₄R

The present study revealed that the D₂R agonist Quinpirole depressed both eIPSCs elicited by electrical stimulation at putative striato-pallidal and pallido-pallidal terminals and the sIPSC tetrodotoxin-sensitive GABAergic activity in neurons of the GP. The effect of Quinpirole was prevented by the D₄R selective antagonist L 745,870 (Patel et al., 1997) in eIPSC in pallido-pallidal terminals, and in sIPSC but not in eIPSC at striato-pallidal terminals. Also, the effect of Quinpirole in pallido-pallidal terminals was mimicked by the D₄R selective agonist PD 168,077 (Glase et al., 1997; Newman et al., 2008).

One would expect that the striatal electrical stimulation would activate both striato-pallidal and pallido-striatal GABAergic fibers whose collaterals terminate in pallidal neurons (Guzman et al., 2003; Kita & Kitai, 1991; Miguez et al., 2012). However, by striatal stimulation, the majority of responses that we found corresponded to terminals that responded with facilitating synaptic plasticity, that is, striato-pallidal 70% (21 records), and another 7% (2 records) came from records from intra-pallidal stimulation (see Table 3). Striatal stimulation produced a low percentage (23%) of facilitatory records that did not respond to Quinpirole (7 records), which probably represents striato-pallidal projections from collaterals (Kawaguchi et al., 1990) that express D₁R (Floran et al., 1990). On the other hand, striatal stimulation produced a low proportion of records that expresses depressing synaptic responses (3 records), about 7% of the total of

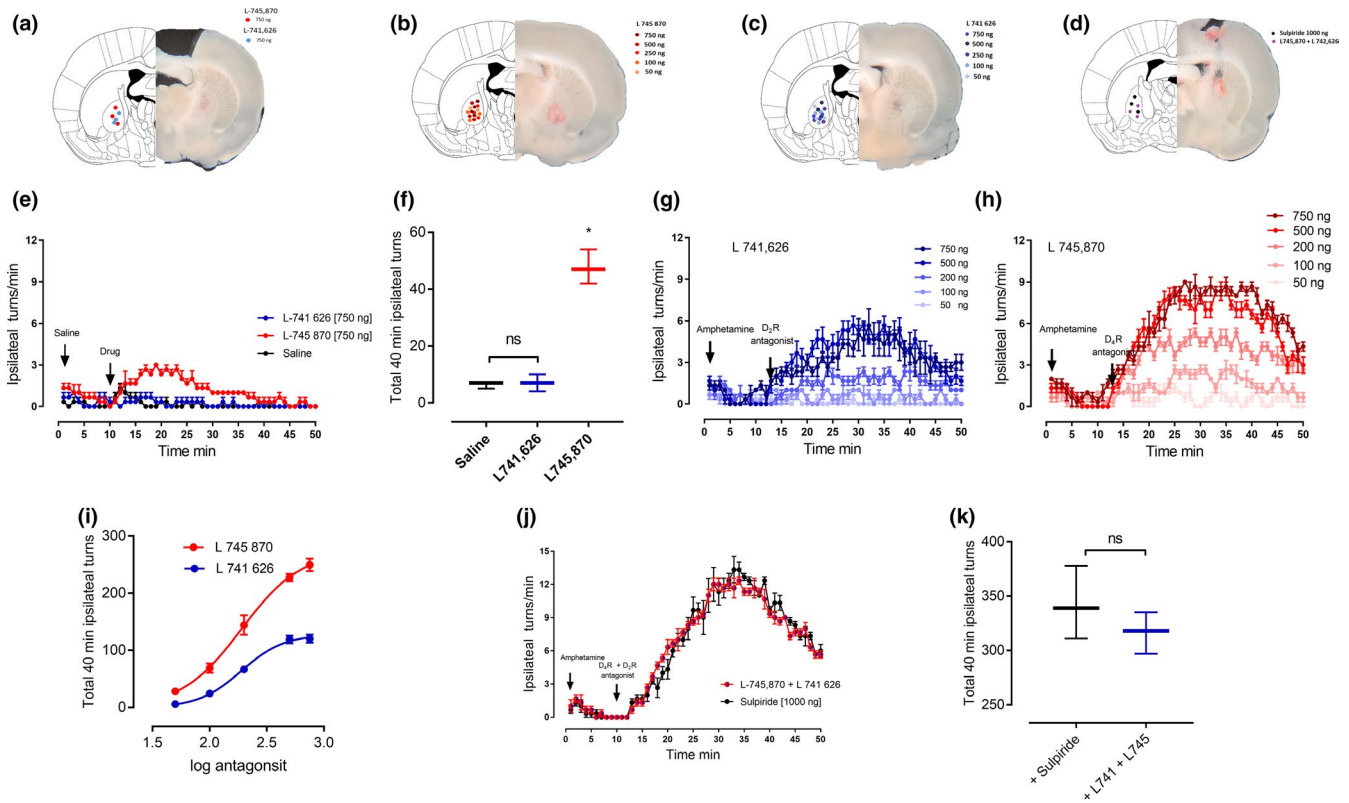


FIGURE 6 D₂R and D₄R blockade induce ipsilateral turning in amphetamine challenged rats. (a–d) Mixed images of schematic draws and microphotographs of slices. The dots indicate where the cannula's tip was located in each animal of the group, and the pictures are a coronal section from brain slices at the GP of a representative animal of the group. (e, g, h, and j) The time courses of turning behavior induced by a single dose (range 50–750 ng) of the selective D₂R antagonist L 745,870 (red circles) or D₂R antagonist L 741,626 (blue circles) Sulpiride (black circles) or a mixed dose of 500 ng of L 745,870 and 500 ng of L 741,626 (mixed red and blue circles), in non-challenged (e) or amphetamine-challenged rats (1 mg/kg i.p. g, h, and j). F compares the effect of total ipsilateral turns during the session of drugs of e and k of the J groups. Data graphed in Tukey boxes and analyzed by the Kruskal–Wallis test, followed by Dunn's test in f and by the Mann–Whitney test in k. * $p = 0.033$, respect saline or L 741,626 and ns, not significant differences between groups, $n = 3$ rats per group. I Dose–response curve of the entire session ipsilateral turning of both antagonists from rats of graphs g and h [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

records with this type of synaptic plasticity recorded in this study. They did not respond to Quinpirole (see Table 3). The differences can be explained because the pallido-pallidal fibers have relatively low-density with respect to striato-pallidal fibers (Hernandez et al., 2015; Mallet et al., 2012; Nambu & Llinas, 1997). On the contrary, intra-pallidal stimulation increased the probability of obtaining records of terminals with depression of synaptic plasticity, that is, pallido-pallidal, about 93% of the total records (see Table 3). With this stimulation, 24% did not respond to Quinpirole or PD 168,077, which might represent the collaterals of arky-pallidal neurons (Kita & Kitai, 1994; Mallet et al., 2012; Nambu & Llinas, 1997). Thus, the different records with distinct types of synaptic plasticity and response to D₂-like agonists represent differences in afferents and collaterals within GP.

In our study, we found that Quinpirole and PD 168,077 affected pallido-pallidal inhibitory inputs by decreasing eIPSC with characteristics of depressive short-term synaptic plasticity. Those agonists reduced eIPSC amplitude and modified the pulse x/pulse 1 ratio through an L 745,870

sensitive process (Figure 5g–l). The same effect was observed in pallido-nigral synapses (experiments not shown, Aceves et al., 2011). Change in pulse x/pulse 1 ratio indicates that the agonist may be acting at the presynaptic site; hence, D₄R control GABA release in collaterals efferents in GP. The effects of Quinpirole on eIPSC of putative striato-pallidal terminals blocked by Sulpiride but not by L745,870 (Figure 5a–f) agree with previous observations showing that activation of D₂R but not D₄R depresses GABA release in striato-pallidal terminals (Cooper & Stanford, 2001; Shin et al., 2003) and the inhibition of action potential firing in the GP produced by stimulation of the Str in the anesthetized rat (Querejeta et al., 2001).

Respect the presence of D₄R in striato-pallidal terminals suggested in electron microscopy-based studies (Rivera et al., 2003), possibly these D₄Rs at striato-pallidal terminals are not functional, pharmacologically distinct, or too low to be detected by our methods. In contrast to anatomical data, the decrease in GABA release by D₂-like at putative striato-pallidal terminals is not sensitive to D₄R selective antagonist (Cooper & Stanford, 2001; Shin et al., 2003, this paper).

Also, GABAergic striatal projection neurons have collaterals within the Str that express D₂R and represent a substantial source of GABA in the Str (Guzman et al., 2003); however, studies evaluating [³H] GABA release in the Str did not show any effect of D₄R selective drugs (Gonzalez et al., 2012). Thus, neurochemical evidence indicates D₄R in striatal neurons, but functional and pharmacological evidence is adverse. We believe that more research should be performed in this sense. A possibility is a low density of this receptor and/or presence in a population of striatal efferents, an extensive sampling of eIPSC in pallidal neurons recorded from stimulation of different regions of the Str could help. Another possibility is a different expression of splicing variants type of D₄R, with different pharmacological sensitivity or strength of signaling (Sánchez-Soto et al., 2019). Thus, exploration with a broad range of selective agonists/antagonists could be useful. Our data, with the reported low expression of D₄R in striatal neurons and the lack of effect of pallidal lesion on the expression of striatal D₄R in synaptosomes does not support that striato-pallidal terminal have functional D₄Rs.

Migueluez et al. (2012) analyzed pallido-pallidal transmission characterized by depression of short-term plasticity. They found a lack of effect of the D₂-like agonist Quinpirole that is contrary to our observations. Several different experimental conditions could be responsible. An alternative explanation for this apparent inconsistency could be the differences in the age and species of studied animals. Sprague–Dawley rats (P30–45) were used for electrophysiological experiments by Migueluez, while we used mice from P12–14. Thus, it is essential to consider that short-term synaptic plasticity is known to change considerably as animals age (Fedchyshyn & Wang, 2005) and probably among species. Other factors could also cause discrepancies. Possibly D₄R-mediated depression of the eIPSC was not seen in these studies because the activity in the scarcer D₄R-bearing pallido-pallidal fibers might have been masked by the responses of the most abundant striato-pallidal fibers bearing D₂R.

On the other hand, it has not established the relationship between the pre- and postsynaptic neurons in the recurrent collateral-pallidal neuron adequately (see Hegeman et al., 2016). Thus, it is also possible that the lack of effect of Quinpirole in neurons sampled in the Migueluez study was due to contact from recurrenents that do not express D₄R. In this issue, as pointed out (Hegeman et al., 2016), more research in recurrent collateral type of neuron relationship is necessary, and this can help solve this discrepancy that evidently could help understand the organization of pallidal microcircuitry. Recent evidence indicates that D₂R on astrocytes modulate striato-pallidal transmission through modulation of GABA transporter (Chazalon et al., 2018), also D₄R seems to be expressed in astrocytes (Miyazaki et al., 2004), thus, if a similar modulation of pallido-pallidal transmission occurs, it represents a perspective of this work.

Two ways of GABAergic influences may decrease pallidal neurons spiking, reducing the number of spikes that arrive at the local collateral terminals, one is the striato-pallidal, and another one is the recurrent collaterals (Bugaysen et al., 2013). These influences are characterized by the different firing properties between striatal and pallidal neurons in *in vitro* preparations. The striatal neurons are often silent and may fire at low rates; usually, 3–5 spikes/s (Cui et al., 2014) but fire up to 70–100 spikes/s in episodes lasting on the order of seconds associated with specific sensory, motor, or motivational events (Opris et al., 2011). The burst will then produce a profound enhancement of GABA release (Connelly et al., 2010). In contrast, pallidal neurons are highly active. Prototypic neurons fire in a tonic and regular rate in a range 20–60 Hz, while arkypallidal neurons in ~30 Hz *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Abdi et al., 2015). Therefore, the sIPSC responses and eIPSC with synaptic depression mechanisms reflect the activity of pallidal neurons, a specific signature of this synapse. The depressing effects of Quinpirole on tetrodotoxin-sensitive sIPSC in the GP represent a novel finding. GP neurons recorded in slice preparations showed a relatively high rate of sIPSC. GP axons form relatively large boutons with large synapses that terminate mainly on the somata and proximal dendrites (Falls et al., 1983; Kita & Kitai, 1994; Okoyama et al., 1987; Shink & Smith, 1995), which would tend to produce large-amplitude sIPSC recorded at the soma. The amplitude of the sIPSC ranged from 10 to over 100 pA with a Cl⁻ driving force of approximately 50 mV (Matsui & Kita, 2003; Ogura & Kita, 2000; Figure 4). Thus, this sIPSC originated from the GP local axon collaterals, and the effect of Quinpirole indicates that activation of D₂-like receptors depresses transmission in pallido-pallidal synapses. This evidence also suggests that D₄R most likely mediates the effect because it was antagonized by L 745,870, which has high selectivity for this receptor (Glase et al., 1997; Kulagowski et al., 1996; Patel et al., 1997). In our experiments, D₄R stimulation produced a reduction in the frequency of sIPSC without a change in amplitude. Previously, such a response has been interpreted as evidence for an effect on the presynaptic terminals (Azad et al., 2014; Kodirov et al., 2010; Llano et al., 1991; Ogura & Kita, 2000). Although other mechanisms are also conceivable, such as a change in the firing rate of pallidal neurons, the available evidence of dopamine action on pallidal soma concerning GABAergic transmission (Shin et al., 2003) does not support such a mechanism. The authors found that the most significant effect of the D₄R activation in pallidal neurons was the GABAergic transmission blockade by a PKA inhibition-dependent mechanism. They also found that striato-pallidal transmission that decreases GABAergic current is not involved in this mechanism because this effect would favor increased pallidal spiking rather than the observed decrease when dopamine was added to the nucleus (Querejeta et al., 2001).

Moreover, this effect would also produce an increment in sIPSC frequency or amplitude, which was not observed in our experiments; thus, our evidence favors a presynaptic action site. The control by D₄R of GABA in the site of action potential's generation may overlap with the effect of D₄R in the dendritic shafts. Thus, the mechanism of somatic D₄R on the soma of GP neurons should be meticulously examined. Several possible mechanisms could account for D₄R effects on the pallido-pallidal synaptic terminals. These include, among others, an effect on voltage-gated Ca²⁺ currents reducing their magnitude, as was shown in pallido-nigral terminals (Recillas-Morales et al., 2014). Evidence to select among these specific mechanisms by D₄R in collaterals is not available yet.

Together with the decrease in eIPSC with characteristics of short-term synaptic plasticity, depression and sIPSC frequency induced by Quinpirole and antagonized by L 745,870 are consistent with the conclusion that dopamine acting at presynaptic D₄R reduces the neurotransmitter release at GABAergic terminals within GP, in SNr, and the STN.

4.3 | Effects of D₂R and D₄R on motor behavior

Intra-pallidal injections of dopamine-related drugs modify motor activity with variable latencies and time duration but are all related to dopamine receptors activity (Avila et al., 2020; Caballero-Floran et al., 2016; Galvan et al., 2001; Kelsey et al., 2009). In our case, the antagonists produced an asymmetry expressed as turning 2–3 min after injection that lasts approximately 40 min. This length of the effect could be interpreted as an effect of drug diffusion outside the pallidal structure, particularly to the Str. Nevertheless, experiments with injections of methylene blue that has a similar molecular weight as the antagonists used here remain inside GP for 1 hr, although MW is not the only determinant for the diffusion of the drug in brain tissue (Myers, 1966). Besides, the potency of stimulation of dopamine release by amphetamine can be a factor that influences the duration of the effects. In a previous study, we used challenge with methamphetamine, a more potent drug, to evoke dopamine mobilization (Caballero-Floran et al., 2016). The duration of pallidally injected drugs lasted near 2 hr, compared with 1 hr in the amphetamine challenge used in this study, indicating that the potency of releaser influences the duration of response. Also, amphetamine challenge with doses used in this study induces the firing of striatal neurons within 30 min that return to normal state after 2 hr (West et al., 1997). We believe that these observations and the fact that no significant turning behavior was observed when drugs were injected in surrounding areas make it feasible to think that the injected antagonist's effect was located

in the pallidal structure. In non-challenged rats, only D₄R antagonist L 745,870 induces motor asymmetry expressed as ipsilateral turns (Figure 6e,f), indicating tonic activation of D₄R by endogenous dopamine. In a meeting, we reported that in microdialysis coupled to behavior experiments, intra-nigral perfusion of L 745,870 in normal rats increases GABA release at pallidal projections and promotes motor behavior and turning (Rodríguez et al., 2016). This finding was also compatible with the activation of receptors by endogenous dopamine as the effect was not observed in 6-OH dopamine-lesioned rats. Thus, as indicated in our electrophysiological experiments (Figures 4 and 5), the antagonist perfusion in GP will increase GABA release at presynaptic D₄R. On the contrary, perfusion of D₂R selective antagonist did not modify basal motor activity indicating low or none stimulation by endogenous dopamine to receptors in these conditions. Last, it is similar to D₁R in SNr, as perfusion of D₁R selective antagonist SCH 23390 modifies neither GABA release nor spontaneous motor behavior (Rodríguez-Sánchez et al., 2019).

One of the main differences in the striato-nigral and striato-pallidal neurons that express D₁R and D₂R concerning pallidal neurons that express D₄R is the higher spontaneous firing rate of pallidal neurons (Cui et al., 2014; Opris et al., 2011). Probably, dopamine receptors expressed in a high spiking neuron are more sensitive to dopamine or drugs and, consequently, in the modulation of spontaneous motor behavior. In this respect, activation of D₃R by endogenous dopamine regulates glutamate released in the high spiking subthalamic-nigral neurons and motor activity (Rodríguez-Sánchez et al., 2019). A factor that can also contribute to this effect is pallido-pallidal terminals at the soma and initial segment of the pallidal neuron (Kita & Kitai, 1994). This location implies that a minimal change in GABA release could significantly impact neuron firing and, in consequence, motor activity.

In contrast, D₂R located in terminals at dendritic shafts (Falls et al., 1983; Okoyama et al., 1987) requires extensive modification of GABA release at terminals to impact the activity of pallidal output neurons. The goal-directed motor behaviors mediated by D₂R receptors required cortical activation of striatal neurons to trigger motor activity (Albin et al., 1989); this increases firing of striato-pallidal neuron up to 70–100 Hz (Opris et al., 2011) and, in this condition, D₂R activation now become evident in motor behavior as proposed in basal ganglia models (Albin et al., 1989). Amphetamine challenge induces significant increments in the firing of striatal neurons related to types of motor behavior (West et al., 1997), similarly as the cortical stimulation.

Blockade of D₄R or D₂R can induce a motor imbalance in amphetamine-treated rats as both increase interstitial GABA in the ipsilateral side of the injection. The pharmacological effect

of D₄R and D₂R blockade in a condition in which are activated by an equal amount of dopamine released by amphetamine (Figure 6g–i) indicate a more powerful effect in the control of motor behavior by D₄R, which contrast with the relatively less amount of total GABA controlled by this receptor compared with D₂R (Figure 3). The contrasting less effect of D₄R in the control of GABA release respect D₂R indicates that a selective effect on soma and initial segment of the pallidal neuron can be determinant for a behavioral effect and not only the amount of total GABA release controlled by one receptor. The effect of co-administration of both antagonists is mimicked by the administration of the non-selective antagonist Sulpiride (Figure 6j,k) that indicates that manipulation of intra-pallidal D₂-like antagonist observed here and in previous reports (Caballero-Floran et al., 2016; Munoz-Arenas et al., 2015) involve both receptors. Thus, the antagonist response differences can be explained by the anatomical targeting of D₂R-regulated striato-pallidal versus D₄R-regulated pallido-pallidal terminals and their effects on pallidal excitability.

In this regard, systemic injections of D₄R ligands have a weak effect on general motor behavior (Bristow et al., 1997; Clifford & Waddington, 2000; Millan et al., 1998; Nayak & Cassaday, 2003), even though that low doses of drugs bind receptors (Bristow et al., 1997; Patel et al., 1997); thus, D₄R might participate in the low states of motor behavior. The fact that in pathophysiological conditions, such as models of ADHD (Zhang et al., 2001) and Parkinsonism (Erlj et al., 2012), D₄R ligands have a significant effect when administered systemically reinforces this possibility. Nevertheless, the role of other receptors in behavior has been clarified after changing brain activity by previously drug injections (Florán et al., 2002; Jiang et al., 1993; Popoli et al., 1994). Thus, the specific role of D₄R in specific types of behaviors should be studied in more detail.

5 | CONCLUSIONS

Similar to projection areas of prototypic pallidal neurons, GABAergic transmission in pallido-pallidal recurrent synapses is under modulation of D₄R, while the D₂R subtype modulates striato-pallidal projections. As in projection areas, D₄R contributes to control motor behavior that might be different for behavior for D₂R. This study may contribute to understanding the organization of intra-pallidal circuitry.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The funding provided by CINVESTAV supported this work.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest regarding the publication of this study.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Designed the study ICR, RNCF, BF; Collected data ICR, RNCF, RJL, JA, SRM, JAAF, BF; Analyzed data ICR, RNCF, JAAF, FPB, GLG, BF; Wrote the manuscript HC and BF.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data could be obtained upon reasonable request from the corresponding author.

PEER REVIEW

The peer review history for this article is available at <https://publons.com/publon/10.1111/ejn.15020>.

ORCID

Jackeline Acosta-García  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9839-7648>

Benjamín Florán  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3430-9335>

REFERENCES

- Abdi, A., Mallet, N., Mohamed, F. Y., Sharott, A., Dodson, P. D., Nakamura, K. C., Suri, S., Avery, S. V., Larvin, J. T., Garas, F. N., Garas, S. N., Vinciati, F., Morin, S., Bezard, E., Baufreton, J., & Magill, P. J. (2015). Prototypic and arky pallidal neurons in the dopamine-intact external globus pallidus. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, *35*(17), 6667–6688. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4662-14.2015>
- Aceves, J. J., Rueda-Orozco, P. E., Hernandez-Martinez, R., Galarraga, E., & Vargas, J. (2011). Bidirectional plasticity in striatonigral synapses: A switch to balance direct and indirect basal ganglia pathways. *Learning & Memory*, *18*(12), 764–773. <https://doi.org/10.1101/lm.023432.111>
- Acosta-García, J., Hernandez-Chan, N., Paz-Bermudez, F., Sierra, A., Erlj, D., Aceves, J., & Florán, B. (2009). D₄ and D₁ dopamine receptors modulate [3H] GABA release in the substantia nigra pars reticulata of the rat. *Neuropharmacology*, *57*(7–8), 725–730. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropharm.2009.08.010>
- Akopian, G., Barry, J., Cepeda, C., & Levine, M. S. (2016). Altered membrane properties and firing patterns of external globus pallidus neurons in the R6/2 mouse model of Huntington's disease. *Journal of Neuroscience Research*, *94*(12), 1400–1410.
- Albin, R. L., Young, A. B., & Penney, J. B. (1989). The functional anatomy of basal ganglia disorders. *Trends in Neurosciences*, *12*(10), 366–375. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0166-2236\(89\)90074-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0166-2236(89)90074-X)
- Ariano, M. A., Wang, J., Noblett, K. L., Larson, E. R., & Sibley, D. R. (1997). Cellular distribution of the rat D₄ dopamine receptor protein in the CNS using anti-receptor antisera. *Brain Research*, *752*(1–2), 26–34. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0006-8993\(96\)01422-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0006-8993(96)01422-9)
- Avila, G., Picazo, O., Chuc-Meza, E., & García-Ramírez, M. (2020). Reduction of dopaminergic transmission in the globus pallidus increases anxiety-like behavior without altering motor activity. *Behavioural Brain Research*, *386*, 112589.
- Azad, C. E. M., Mariscano, G., Lutz, B., Zieglansberger, W., & Rammes, G. (2014). Activation of the cannabinoid receptor type 1 decreases glutamatergic and GABA synaptic transmission in the lateral amygdala of the mouse. *Learning & Memory*, *10*, 116–128.

- Barrientos, R., Alatorre, A., Martínez-Escudero, J., García-Ramírez, M., Oviedo-Chavez, A., Delgado, A., & Querejeta, E. (2019). Effects of local activation and blockade of dopamine D4 receptors in the spiking activity of the reticular thalamic nucleus in normal and in ipsilateral dopamine-depleted rats. *Brain Research*, 1712, 34–46. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brainres.2019.01.042>
- Berger, M. A., Defagot, M. C., Villar, M. J., & Antonelli, M. C. (2001). D4 dopamine and metabotropic glutamate receptors in cerebral cortex and striatum in rat brain. *Neurochemical Research*, 26(4), 345–352.
- Bevan, M. D., Booth, P. A., Eaton, S. A., & Bolam, J. P. (1998). Selective innervation of neostriatal interneurons by a subclass of neuron in the globus pallidus of the rat. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, 18(22), 9438–9452. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.18-22-09438.1998>
- Briónes-Lizardi, L. J., Cortes, H., Avalos-Fuentes, J. A., Paz-Bermudez, F. J., Aceves, J., Erlij, D., & Floran, B. (2019). Presynaptic control of [(3)H]-glutamate release by dopamine receptor subtypes in the rat substantia nigra. Central role of D1 and D3 receptors. *Neuroscience*, 406, 563–579.
- Bristow, L. J., Collinson, N., Cook, G. P., Curtis, N., Freedman, S. B., Kulagowski, J. J., Leeson, P. D., Patel, S., Ragan, C. I., Ridgill, M., Saywell, K. L., & Tricklebank, M. D. (1997). L-745,870, a subtype selective dopamine D4 receptor antagonist, does not exhibit a neuroleptic-like profile in rodent behavioral tests. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 283(3), 1256–1263.
- Bugaysen, J., Bar-Gad, I., & Korngreen, A. (2013). Continuous modulation of action potential firing by a unitary GABAergic connection in the globus pallidus in vitro. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, 33(31), 12805–12809. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1970-13.2013>
- Caballero-Floran, R. N., Conde-Rojas, I., Oviedo Chavez, A., Cortes-Calleja, H., Lopez-Santiago, L. F., Isom, L. L., Aceves, J., Erlij, D., & Floran, B. (2016). Cannabinoid-induced depression of synaptic transmission is switched to stimulation when dopaminergic tone is increased in the globus pallidus of the rodent. *Neuropharmacology*, 110(Pt A), 407–418. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropharm.2016.08.002>
- Chazalon, M., Paredes-Rodríguez, E., Morin, S., Martínez, A., Cristóvão-Ferreira, S., Vaz, S., Sebastião, A., Panatier, A., Boué-Grabot, E., Miguez, C., & Baufreton, J. (2018). GAT-3 dysfunction generates tonic inhibition in external globus pallidus neurons in parkinsonian rodents. *Cell Reports*, 23(6), 1678–1690. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2018.04.014>
- Clifford, J. J., & Waddington, J. L. (2000). Topographically based search for an “Ethogram” among a series of novel D(4) dopamine receptor agonists and antagonists. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, 22(5), 538–544. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0893-133X\(99\)00141-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0893-133X(99)00141-4)
- Connelly, W. M., Schulz, J. M., Lees, G., & Reynolds, J. N. (2010). Differential short-term plasticity at convergent inhibitory synapses of the substantia nigra pars reticulata. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, 30(44), 14854–14861. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3895-10.2010>
- Cooper, A. J., & Stanford, I. M. (2000). Electrophysiological and morphological characteristics of three subtypes of rat globus pallidus neuron in vitro. *The Journal of Physiology*, 527(Pt 2), 291–304.
- Cooper, A. J., & Stanford, I. M. (2001). Dopamine D2 receptor mediated presynaptic inhibition of striatopallidal GABA(A) IPSCs in vitro. *Neuropharmacology*, 41(1), 62–71. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0028-3908\(01\)00038-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0028-3908(01)00038-7)
- Crandall, S. R., Govindaiah, G., & Cox, C. L. (2010). Low-threshold Ca²⁺ current amplifies distal dendritic signaling in thalamic reticular neurons. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, 30(46), 15419–15429. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3636-10.2010>
- Cruz-Trujillo, R., Avalos-Fuentes, A., Rangel-Barajas, C., Paz-Bermudez, F., Sierra, A., Escartin-Perez, E., Aceves, J., Erlij, D., & Floran, B. (2013). D3 dopamine receptors interact with dopamine D1 but not D4 receptors in the GABAergic terminals of the SNr of the rat. *Neuropharmacology*, 67, 370–378. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropharm.2012.11.032>
- Cui, G., Jun, S. B., Jin, X., Luo, G., Pham, M. D., Lovinger, D. M., Vogel, S. S., & Costa, R. M. (2014). Deep brain optical measurements of cell type-specific neural activity in behaving mice. *Nature Protocols*, 9(6), 1213–1228. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2014.080>
- Defagot, M. C., Malchiodi, E. L., Villar, M. J., & Antonelli, M. C. (1997). Distribution of D4 dopamine receptor in rat brain with sequence-specific antibodies. *Brain Research. Molecular Brain Research*, 45(1), 1–12. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-328X\(96\)00235-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-328X(96)00235-5)
- Engler, B., Freiman, I., Urbanski, M., & Szabo, B. (2006). Effects of exogenous and endogenous cannabinoids on GABAergic neurotransmission between the Caudate-Putamen and the Globus Pallidus of the mouse. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 316, 608–617.
- Erlij, D., Acosta-García, J., Rojas-Marquez, M., González-Hernández, B., Escartin-Perez, E., Aceves, J., & Floran, B. (2012). Dopamine D4 receptor stimulation in GABAergic projections of the globus pallidus to the reticular thalamic nucleus and the substantia nigra reticulata of the rat decreases locomotor activity. *Neuropharmacology*, 62(2), 1111–1118. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropharm.2011.11.001>
- Falls, W. M., Park, M. R., & Kitai, S. T. (1983). An intracellular HRP study of the rat globus pallidus. II. Fine structural characteristics and synaptic connections of medially located large GP neurons. *The Journal of Comparative Neurology*, 221(2), 229–245. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.902210210>
- Fedchyshyn, M. J., & Wang, L. Y. (2005). Developmental transformation of the release modality at the calyx of Held synapse. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, 25(16), 4131–4140. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0350-05.2005>
- Floran, B., Aceves, J., Sierra, A., & Martínez-Fong, D. (1990). Activation of D1 dopamine receptors stimulates the release of GABA in the basal ganglia of the rat. *Neuroscience Letters*, 116(1–2), 136–140. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-3940\(90\)90399-T](https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-3940(90)90399-T)
- Florán, B., Barajas, C., Florán, L., Erlij, D., & Aceves, J. (2002). Adenosine A1 receptors control dopamine D1-dependent [3H] GABA release in slices of substantia nigra pars reticulata and motor behavior in the rat. *Neuroscience*, 115(3), 743–751. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0306-4522\(02\)00479-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0306-4522(02)00479-7)
- Floran, B., Floran, L., Erlij, D., & Aceves, J. (2004a). Activation of dopamine D4 receptors modulates [3H]GABA release in slices of the rat thalamic reticular nucleus. *Neuropharmacology*, 46(4), 497–503. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropharm.2003.10.004>
- Floran, B., Floran, L., Erlij, D., & Aceves, J. (2004b). Dopamine D4 receptors inhibit depolarization-induced [3H]GABA release in the rat subthalamic nucleus. *European Journal of Pharmacology*, 498(1–3), 97–102. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejphar.2004.07.078>
- Floran, B., Floran, L., Sierra, A., & Aceves, J. (1997). D2 receptor-mediated inhibition of GABA release by endogenous dopamine in the rat globus pallidus. *Neuroscience Letters*, 237(1), 1–4. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-3940\(97\)00784-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-3940(97)00784-2)

- Galvan, A., Floran, B., Erlij, D., & Aceves, J. (2001). Intrapallidal dopamine restores motor deficits induced by 6-hydroxydopamine in the rat. *J Neural Transm (Vienna)*, *108*(2), 153–166. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s007020170085>.
- Gandia, J. A., De Las, H. S., Garcia, M., & Gimenez-Amaya, J. M. (1993). Afferent projections to the reticular thalamic nucleus from the globus pallidus and the substantia nigra in the rat. *Brain Research Bulletin*, *32*(4), 351–358. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0361-9230\(93\)90199-L](https://doi.org/10.1016/0361-9230(93)90199-L)
- Gasca-Martinez, D., Hernandez, A., Sierra, A., Valdiosera, R., Anaya-Martinez, V., Floran, B., Erlij, D., & Aceves, J. (2010). Dopamine inhibits GABA transmission from the globus pallidus to the thalamic reticular nucleus via presynaptic D4 receptors. *Neuroscience*, *169*(4), 1672–1681. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2010.05.048>
- Glase, S. A., Akunne, H. C., Georgic, L. M., Heffner, T. G., MacKenzie, R. G., Manley, P. J., Pugsley, T. A., & Wise, L. D. (1997). Substituted [(4-phenylpiperazinyl)-methyl]benzamides: Selective dopamine D4 agonists. *Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, *40*(12), 1771–1772.
- Gonzalez, S., Rangel-Barajas, C., Peper, M., Lorenzo, R., Moreno, E., Ciruela, F., Borycz, J., Ortiz, J., Lluís, C., Franco, R., McCormick, P. J., Volkow, N. D., Rubinstein, M., Floran, B., & Ferre, S. (2012). Dopamine D4 receptor, but not the ADHD-associated D4.7 variant, forms functional heteromers with the dopamine D2S receptor in the brain. *Molecular Psychiatry*, *17*(6), 650–662. <https://doi.org/10.1038/mp.2011.93>
- Govindaiah, G., Wang, T., Gillette, M. U., Crandall, S. R., & Cox, C. L. (2010). Regulation of inhibitory synapses by presynaptic D(4) dopamine receptors in thalamus. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, *104*(5), 2757–2765.
- Guzman, J. N., Hernandez, A., Galarraga, E., Tapia, D., Laville, A., Vergara, R., Aceves, J., & Bargas, J. (2003). Dopaminergic modulation of axon collaterals interconnecting spiny neurons of the rat striatum. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, *23*(26), 8931–8940. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.23-26-08931.2003>
- Hazrati, L. N., & Parent, A. (1991). Projection from the external pallidum to the reticular thalamic nucleus in the squirrel monkey. *Brain Research*, *550*(1), 142–146. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993\(91\)90418-U](https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993(91)90418-U)
- Hegeman, D. J., Hong, E. S., Hernandez, V. M., & Chan, C. S. (2016). The external globus pallidus: Progress and perspectives. *The European Journal of Neuroscience*, *43*(10), 1239–1265. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ejn.13196>
- Hernandez, A., Ibanez-Sandoval, O., Sierra, A., Valdiosera, R., Tapia, D., Anaya, V., Galarraga, E., Bargas, J., & Aceves, J. (2006). Control of the subthalamic innervation of the rat globus pallidus by D2/3 and D4 dopamine receptors. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, *96*(6), 2877–2888.
- Hernandez, V. M., Hegeman, D. J., Cui, Q., Kelder, D. A., Fiske, M. P., Glajch, K. E., Pitt, J. E., Huang, T. Y., Justice, N. J., & Chan, C. S. (2015). Parvalbumin+ neurons and Npas1+ neurons are distinct neuron classes in the mouse external globus pallidus. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, *35*(34), 11830–11847. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4672-14.2015>
- Hernandez-Lopez, S., Tkatch, T., Perez-Garci, E., Galarraga, E., Bargas, J., Hamm, H., & Surmeier, D. J. (2000). D2 dopamine receptors in striatal medium spiny neurons reduce L-type Ca²⁺ currents and excitability via a novel PLC[beta]1-IP3-calcineurin-signaling cascade. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, *20*(24), 8987–8995.
- Jiang, H., Jackson-Lewis, V., Muthane, U., Dollison, A., Ferreira, M., Espinosa, A., Parsons, B., & Przedborski, S. (1993). Adenosine receptor antagonists potentiate dopamine receptor agonist-induced rotational behavior in 6-hydroxydopamine-lesioned rats. *Brain Research*, *613*(2), 347–351. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993\(93\)90925-D](https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993(93)90925-D)
- Jijon-Lorenzo, R., Caballero-Floran, I. H., Recillas-Morales, S., Cortes, H., Avalos-Fuentes, J. A., Paz-Bermudez, F. J., Erlij, D., & Floran, B. (2018). Presynaptic dopamine D2 receptors modulate [(3)H] GABA release at striatopallidal terminals via activation of PLC->IP3->calcineurin and inhibition of AC->cAMP->PKA signaling cascades. *Neuroscience*, *372*, 74–86.
- Kawaguchi, Y., Wilson, C. J., & Emson, P. C. (1990). Projection subtypes of rat neostriatal matrix cells revealed by intracellular injection of biocytin. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, *10*(10), 3421–3438. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.10-10-03421.1990>
- Kayahara, T., & Nakano, K. (1998). The globus pallidus sends axons to the thalamic reticular nucleus neurons projecting to the centromedian nucleus of the thalamus: A light and electron microscope study in the cat. *Brain Research Bulletin*, *45*(6), 623–630. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0361-9230\(97\)00464-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0361-9230(97)00464-4)
- Kelsey, J. E., Langelier, N. A., Oriol, B. S., & Reedy, C. (2009). The effects of systemic, intrastriatal, and intrapallidal injections of caffeine and systemic injections of A2A and A1 antagonists on forepaw stepping in the unilateral 6-OHDA-lesioned rat. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)*, *201*(4), 529–539. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00213-008-1319-0>
- Kita, H. (2007). Globus pallidus external segment. *Progress in Brain Research*, *160*, 111–133.
- Kita, H., & Kita, T. (2001). Number, origins, and chemical types of rat pallidostriatal projection neurons. *The Journal of Comparative Neurology*, *437*(4), 438–448. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.1294>
- Kita, H., & Kitai, S. T. (1991). Intracellular study of rat globus pallidus neurons: Membrane properties and responses to neostriatal, subthalamic and nigral stimulation. *Brain Research*, *564*(2), 296–305. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993\(91\)91466-E](https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993(91)91466-E)
- Kita, H., & Kitai, S. T. (1994). The morphology of globus pallidus projection neurons in the rat: An intracellular staining study. *Brain Research*, *636*(2), 308–319. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993\(94\)91030-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993(94)91030-8)
- Kita, H., Tokuno, H., & Nambu, A. (1999). Monkey globus pallidus external segment neurons projecting to the neostriatum. *NeuroReport*, *10*(7), 1467–1472. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00001756-199905140-00014>
- Kodirov, S. A., Jasiewicz, J., Amirmahani, P., Psyraakis, D., Bonni, K., Wehrmeister, M., & Lutz, B. (2010). Endogenous cannabinoids trigger the depolarization-induced suppression of excitation in the lateral amygdala. *Learning & Memory*, *17*(1), 43–49. <https://doi.org/10.1101/lm.1663410>
- Kulagowski, J. J., Broughton, H. B., Curtis, N. R., Mawer, I. M., Ridgill, M. P., Baker, R., Emms, F., Freedman, S. B., Marwood, R., Patel, S., Patel, S., Ragan, C. I., & Leeson, P. D. (1996). 3-((4-(4-Chlorophenyl)piperazin-1-yl)-methyl)-1H-pyrrolo-2,3-b-pyridine: An antagonist with high affinity and selectivity for the human dopamine D4 receptor. *Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, *39*(10), 1941–1942.
- le Boulch, N. L., Truong-Ngoc, N. A., Gauchy, C., & Besson, M. J. (1991). In vivo release of newly synthesized [(3)H]GABA in the substantia nigra of the rat: Relative contribution of GABA striato-pallido-nigral afferents and nigral GABA neurons. *Brain Research*, *559*(2), 200–210. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993\(91\)90003-E](https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993(91)90003-E)
- Llano, I., Leresche, N., & Marty, A. (1991). Calcium entry increases the sensitivity of cerebellar Purkinje cells to applied GABA and

- decreases inhibitory synaptic currents. *Neuron*, 6(4), 565–574. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0896-6273\(91\)90059-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/0896-6273(91)90059-9)
- Mallet, N., Micklem, B. R., Henny, P., Brown, M. T., Williams, C., Bolam, J. P., Nakamura, K. C., & Magill, P. J. (2012). Dichotomous organization of the external globus pallidus. *Neuron*, 74(6), 1075–1086. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2012.04.027>
- Marazziti, D., Baroni, S., Masala, I., Giannaccini, G., Betti, L., Palego, L., Catena Dell'Osso, M., Consoli, G., Castagna, M., & Lucacchini, A. (2009). [(3)H]-YM-09151-2 binding sites in human brain post-mortem. *Neurochemistry International*, 55(7), 643–647. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuint.2009.06.005>
- Matsui, T., & Kita, H. (2003). Activation of group III metabotropic glutamate receptors presynaptically reduces both GABAergic and glutamatergic transmission in the rat globus pallidus. *Neuroscience*, 122(3), 727–737. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2003.08.032>
- Mauger, C., Sivan, B., Brockhaus, M., Fuchs, S., Civelli, O., & Monsma, F. Jr (1998). Development and characterization of antibodies directed against the mouse D4 dopamine receptor. *The European Journal of Neuroscience*, 10(2), 529–537. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1460-9568.1998.00056.x>
- McCall, R. B., Lookingland, K. J., Bedard, P. J., & Huff, R. M. (2005). Sumanitrole, a highly dopamine D2-selective receptor agonist: In vitro and in vivo pharmacological characterization and efficacy in animal models of Parkinson's disease. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 314(3), 1248–1256.
- Migueluez, C., Morin, S., Martinez, A., Goillandeau, M., Bezard, E., Bioulac, B., & Baufreton, J. (2012). Altered pallido-pallidal synaptic transmission leads to aberrant firing of globus pallidus neurons in a rat model of Parkinson's disease. *The Journal of Physiology*, 590(22), 5861–5875. <https://doi.org/10.1113/jphysiol.2012.241331>
- Millan, M. J., Newman-Tancredi, A., Brocco, M., Gobert, A., Lejeune, F., Audinot, V., Rivet, J. M., Schreiber, R., Dekeyne, A., Spedding, M., Nicolas, J. P., & Peglion, J. L. (1998). S 18126 ([2-[4-(2,3-dihydrobenzo[1,4]dioxin-6-yl)piperazin-1-yl methyl]indan-2-yl]), a potent, selective and competitive antagonist at dopamine D4 receptors: An in vitro and in vivo comparison with L 745,870 (3-(4-[4-chlorophenyl]piperazin-1-yl)methyl-1H-pyrrolo[2,3b]pyridine) and raclopride. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 287(1), 167–186.
- Miyazaki, I., Asanuma, M., Diaz-Corrales, F. J., Miyoshi, K., & Ogawa, N. (2004). Direct evidence for expression of dopamine receptors in astrocytes from basal ganglia. *Brain Research*, 1029(1), 120–123. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brainres.2004.09.014>
- Mrzljak, L., Bergson, C., Pappy, M., Huff, R., Levenson, R., & Goldman-Rakic, P. S. (1996). Localization of dopamine D4 receptors in GABAergic neurons of the primate brain. *Nature*, 381(6579), 245–248. <https://doi.org/10.1038/381245a0>
- Munoz-Arenas, G., Paz-Bermudez, F., Baez-Cordero, A., Caballero-Floran, R., Gonzalez-Hernandez, B., Floran, B., & Limon, I. D. (2015). Cannabinoid CB1 receptors activation and coactivation with D2 receptors modulate GABAergic neurotransmission in the globus pallidus and increase motor asymmetry. *Synapse (New York, N. Y.)*, 69(3), 103–114.
- Myers, R. D. (1966). Injection of solutions into cerebral tissue: Relation between volume and diffusion. *Physiology & Behavior*, 1(2), 171–174.
- Nambu, A., & Llinas, R. (1994). Electrophysiology of globus pallidus neurons in vitro. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 72(3), 1127–1139.
- Nambu, A., & Llinas, R. (1997). Morphology of globus pallidus neurons: Its correlation with electrophysiology in guinea pig brain slices. *The Journal of Comparative Neurology*, 377(1), 85–94.
- Nava-Asbell, C., Paz-Bermudez, F., Erlij, D., Aceves, J., & Floran, B. (2007). GABA(B) receptor activation inhibits dopamine D1 receptor-mediated facilitation of [(3)H]GABA release in substantia nigra pars reticulata. *Neuropharmacology*, 53(5), 631–637.
- Nayak, S., & Cassaday, H. J. (2003). The novel dopamine D4 receptor agonist (PD 168,077 maleate): Doses with different effects on locomotor activity are without effect in classical conditioning. *Progress in Neuro-Psychopharmacology and Biological Psychiatry*, 27(3), 441–449.
- Newman-Tancredi, A., Heusler, P., Martel, J.-C., Ormière, A.-M., Leduc, N., & Cussac, D. (2008). Agonist and antagonist properties of anti-psychotics at human dopamine D4.4 receptors: G-protein activation and K⁺ channel modulation in transfected cells. *The international journal of neuropsychopharmacology*, 11, 293–307.
- Ogura, M., & Kita, H. (2000). Dynorphin exerts both postsynaptic and presynaptic effects in the Globus pallidus of the rat. *Journal of Neurophysiology*, 83(6), 3366–3376.
- Okoyama, S., Nakamura, Y., Moriizumi, T., & Kitao, Y. (1987). Electron microscopic analysis of the synaptic organization of the globus pallidus in the cat. *The Journal of Comparative Neurology*, 265(3), 323–331.
- Opris, I., Lebedev, M., & Nelson, R. J. (2011). Motor planning under unpredictable reward: Modulations of movement vigor and primate striatum activity. *Frontiers in Neuroscience*, 5, 61.
- Parent, A., & Hazrati, L. N. (1995a). Functional anatomy of the basal ganglia. I. The cortico-basal ganglia-thalamo-cortical loop. *Brain Research Reviews*, 20(1), 91–127.
- Parent, A., & Hazrati, L. N. (1995b). Functional anatomy of the basal ganglia. II. The place of subthalamic nucleus and external pallidum in basal ganglia circuitry. *Brain Research. Brain Research Reviews*, 20(1), 128–154.
- Patel, S., Freedman, S., Chapman, K. L., Emms, F., Fletcher, A. E., Knowles, M., Marwood, R., McAllister, G., Myers, J., Curtis, N., Kulagowski, J. J., Leeson, P. D., Ridgill, M., Graham, M., Matheson, S., Rathbone, D., Watt, A. P., Bristow, L. J., Rupniak, N. M., ... Ragan, C. I. (1997). Biological profile of L-745,870, a selective antagonist with high affinity for the dopamine D4 receptor. *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 283(2), 636–647.
- Paxinos, G. W. C. (1997). *The rat brain in stereotaxic coordinates*. Academic Press.
- Popoli, P., Pezzola, A., & de Carolis, A. S. (1994). Modulation of striatal adenosine A1 and A2 receptors induces rotational behaviour in response to dopaminergic stimulation in intact rats. *European Journal of Pharmacology*, 257(1–2), 21–25. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0014-2999\(94\)90689-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0014-2999(94)90689-0)
- Querejeta, E., Delgado, A., Valdiosera, R., Erlij, D., & Aceves, J. (2001). Intrapallidal D2 dopamine receptors control globus pallidus neuron activity in the rat. *Neuroscience Letters*, 300(2), 79–82. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-3940\(01\)01550-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-3940(01)01550-6)
- Recillas-Morales, S., Sanchez-Vega, L., Ochoa-Sanchez, N., Caballero-Floran, I., Paz-Bermudez, F., Silva, I., Aceves, J., Erlij, D., & Floran, B. (2014). L-type Ca(2)(+) channel activity determines modulation of GABA release by dopamine in the substantia nigra reticulata and the globus pallidus of the rat. *Neuroscience*, 256, 292–301. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2013.10.037>
- Rivera, A., Trias, S., Penafiel, A., Angel Narvaez, J., Diaz-Cabiale, Z., Moratalla, R., & de la Calle, A. (2003). Expression of D4 dopamine

- receptors in striatonigral and striatopallidal neurons in the rat striatum. *Brain Research*, 989(1), 35–41. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0006-8993\(03\)03328-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0006-8993(03)03328-6)
- Rodríguez, M., Escartín-Pérez, E., Loya-López, S., Erij, D., & Florán, B. (2016). Motor effects of nigral D4 receptors in normal and hemiparkinsonian rats. *Soc Neurosci Abstr* 498.16.
- Rodríguez-Sánchez, M., Escartín-Pérez, R. E., Leyva-Gómez, G., Avalos-Fuentes, J. A., Paz-Bermúdez, F. J., Loya-López, S. I., Aceves, J., Erij, D., Cortés, H., & Florán, B. (2019). Blockade of intranigral and systemic D3 receptors stimulates motor activity in the rat promoting a reciprocal interaction among glutamate, dopamine, and GABA. *Biomolecules*, 9(10), 511. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biom9100511>
- Sánchez-Soto, M., Yano, H., Cai, N. S., Casadó-Anguera, V., Moreno, E., Casadó, V., & Ferré, S. (2019). Revisiting the functional role of dopamine D 4 receptor gene polymorphisms: Heteromerization-dependent gain of function of the D 4.7 receptor variant. *Molecular Neurobiology*, 56(7), 4778–4785. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12035-018-1413-1>
- Shin, R. M., Masuda, M., Miura, M., Sano, H., Shirasawa, T., Song, W. J., Kobayashi, K., & Aosaki, T. (2003). Dopamine D4 receptor-induced postsynaptic inhibition of GABAergic currents in mouse globus pallidus neurons. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, 23(37), 11662–11672. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.23-37-11662.2003>
- Shink, E., & Smith, Y. (1995). Differential synaptic innervation of neurons in the internal and external segments of the globus pallidus by the GABA- and glutamate-containing terminals in the squirrel monkey. *The Journal of Comparative Neurology*, 358(1), 119–141. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.903580108>
- Smith, Y., Bevan, M. D., Shink, E., & Bolam, J. P. (1998). Microcircuitry of the direct and indirect pathways of the basal ganglia. *Neuroscience*, 86(2), 353–387.
- Stanford, I. M., & Cooper, A. J. (1999). Presynaptic mu and delta opioid receptor modulation of GABAA IPSCs in the rat globus pallidus in vitro. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, 19(12), 4796–4803.
- Surmeier, D. J., Song, W. J., & Yan, Z. (1996). Coordinated expression of dopamine receptors in neostriatal medium spiny neurons. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, 16(20), 6579–6591. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.16-20-06579.1996>
- Vallone, D., Picetti, R., & Borrelli, E. (2000). Structure and function of dopamine receptors. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, 24(1), 125–132. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-7634\(99\)00063-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-7634(99)00063-9)
- Vangveravong, S., Taylor, M., Xu, J., Cui, J., Calvin, W., Babic, S., Luedtke, R. R., & Mach, R. H. (2010). Synthesis and characterization of selective dopamine D2 receptor antagonists. 2. Azaindole, benzofuran, and benzothiophene analogs of L-741,626. *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry*, 18(14), 5291–5300. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bmc.2010.05.052>
- West, M. O., Peoples, L. L., Michael, A. J., Chapin, J. K., & Woodward, D. J. (1997). Low-dose amphetamine elevates movement-related firing of rat striatal neurons. *Brain Research*, 745(1–2), 331–335. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0006-8993\(96\)01215-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0006-8993(96)01215-2)
- Zhang, K., Tarazi, F. I., & Baldessarini, R. J. (2001). Role of dopamine D(4) receptors in motor hyperactivity induced by neonatal 6-hydroxydopamine lesions in rats. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, 25(5), 624–632. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0893-133X\(01\)00262-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0893-133X(01)00262-7)

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section.

How to cite this article: Conde Rojas I, Acosta J, Caballero-Florán RN, et al. Dopamine D4 receptor modulates inhibitory transmission in pallido-pallidal terminals and regulates motor behavior. *Eur J Neurosci*. 2020;52:4563–4585. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ejn.15020>