

Transcription factors FOXA1 and FOXA2 maintain dopaminergic neuronal properties and control feeding behavior in adult mice

Alessandro Pristerà^a, Wei Lin^a, Anna-Kristin Kaufmann^b, Katherine R. Brimblecombe^c, Sarah Threlfell^{c,d}, Paul D. Dodson^{b,d}, Peter J. Magill^{b,d}, Cathy Fernandes^e, Stephanie J. Cragg^{c,d}, and Siew-Lan Ang^{a,1}

^aThe Francis Crick Institute Mill Hill Laboratory, London NW7 1AA, United Kingdom; ^bMedical Research Council Brain Network Dynamics Unit, Department of Pharmacology, University of Oxford, Oxford OX1 3TH, United Kingdom; ^cDepartment of Physiology, Anatomy and Genetics, University of Oxford, Oxford OX1 3QX, United Kingdom; ^dOxford Parkinson's Disease Centre, University of Oxford, Oxford OX1 3PT, United Kingdom; and ^eSocial, Genetic and Developmental Psychiatry Centre, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, London SE5 8AF, United Kingdom

Edited by Richard D. Palmiter, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, and approved July 8, 2015 (received for review February 26, 2015)

Midbrain dopaminergic (mDA) neurons are implicated in cognitive functions, neuropsychiatric disorders, and pathological conditions: hence understanding genes regulating their homeostasis has medical relevance. Transcription factors FOXA1 and FOXA2 (FOXA1/2) are key determinants of mDA neuronal identity during development, but their roles in adult mDA neurons are unknown. We used a conditional knockout strategy to specifically ablate FOXA1/2 in mDA neurons of adult mice. We show that deletion of Foxa 1/2 results in down-regulation of tyrosine hydroxylase, the rate-limiting enzyme of dopamine (DA) biosynthesis, specifically in dopaminergic neurons of the substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc). In addition, DA synthesis and striatal DA transmission were reduced after Foxa1/2 deletion. Furthermore, the burst-firing activity characteristic of SNc mDA neurons was drastically reduced in the absence of FOXA1/2. These molecular and functional alterations lead to a severe feeding deficit in adult Foxa1/2 mutant mice, independently of motor control, which could be rescued by L-DOPA treatment. FOXA1/2 therefore control the maintenance of molecular and physiological properties of SNc mDA neurons and impact on feeding behavior in adult mice.

FOXA1 | FOXA2 | dopamine | burst firing | feeding

ost dopaminergic (DAergic) neurons in the adult midbrain are grouped in the ventral tegmental area (VTA) and substantia nigra pars compacta (SNc). VTA and SNc neurons have been classically linked to diverse functions and different projection targets (1). VTA neurons project to the ventral striatum, cortical areas, and limbic structures. Midbrain dopaminergic (mDA) neurons in this group are implicated in emotional behavior, motivational functions, and reward mechanisms (2-4). On the other hand, SNc neurons mainly project to the dorsal striatum and regulate motor function (5). mDA neurons are of major interest in biomedical research because degeneration of SNc mDA neurons is the hallmark of Parkinson's disease (6). In addition, mDA neuron dysfunction is associated with cognitive impairment, motivational deficits, addiction, and drug abuse (7-10). The identification of factors that maintain dopamine (DA) function in developed adult neurons may contribute to the understanding of the mechanisms supporting the homeostasis of mDA neurons and therefore help in identifying therapeutic targets to treat disorders arising from dysfunctional mDA neurons.

FOXA1 and FOXA2 (FOXA1/2) are members of the wingedhelix/forkhead transcription factors, which share over 95% homology between mice and humans (11). FOXA1/2 are so-called "pioneer proteins" that, by binding to tightly condensed chromatin in promoters and enhancer regions, facilitate access of other transcription factors (12, 13). FOXA1/2 regulate the development of diverse organs, including the lung, liver, pancreas, prostate, and kidneys (14). We have also found that FOXA1/2 play a crucial role in the generation of mDA neurons during early and late development, regulating both their specification and differentiation in a dose-dependent manner (15). FOXA1/2 operate in successive feedforward loops with different cofactors to regulate the expression of distinct target genes in neuronal progenitors and immature neurons (16-19). There is accumulating evidence that transcription factors regulating the specification and differentiation of mDA neurons retain expression in the adult brain (20). Recent papers have addressed the adult-specific role of some of these transcription factors. For example, OTX2 expression is restricted to the VTA in adult mDA neurons and is necessary to control VTA identity and to protect these neurons from 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP)-mediated toxic insults (21). In addition, NURR1 has recently been found to sustain nuclear-encoded mitochondrial gene expression and to preserve neurite integrity of adult mDA neurons (22). A recent study from our laboratory demonstrated that late developmental inactivation of FOXA1/2 in mDA neurons leads to a phenotypic change, and mDA neurons lose their DAergic markers without incurring cell loss (23). FOXA1/2 are also expressed in adult mDA neurons (23, 24), but their role in these neurons has not been resolved. Foxa2 heterozygous mice carrying a null allele of Foxa2 show late-onset degeneration of mDA neurons at 18 months of age, which may be due to defects in either developmental or adult functions (24).

In this report, we determined the role of FOXA1/2 in adult mDA neurons using a conditional (drug-inducible) recombinase-based

Significance

Dopaminergic neurons in the brain control voluntary movement and a variety of cognitive functions, including reward-motivation mechanisms, mood regulation, addiction, and memory. Understanding how dopaminergic neurons' phenotype and function are maintained throughout their life span is of great importance in the light of the diverse roles that they play. Transcription factors FOXA1/2 control dopaminergic neurons' development and then retain their expression in adult neurons. The role of these factors during development is well established, but the meaning of their expression in the adult is still not well understood. We demonstrate here that FOXA1/2 are crucial to maintain key cellular and functional features of dopaminergic neurons in the adult brain. We also show that FOXA1/2-mediated deficits ultimately affect feeding behavior.

Author contributions: A.P., W.L., A.-K.K., S.T., P.D.D., P.J.M., C.F., S.J.C., and S.-L.A. designed research; A.P., W.L., A.-K.K., K.R.B., S.T., and C.F. performed research; A.P., W.L., A.-K.K., S.T., P.D.D., P.J.M., C.F., S.J.C., and S.-L.A. analyzed data; and A.P., A.-K.K., S.T., P.D.D., P.J.M., C.F., S.J.C., and S.-L.A. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

¹To whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: siew-lan.ang@crick.ac.uk.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10. 1073/pnas.1503911112/-/DCSupplemental.

strategy for gene deletion (CreERT2-loxP). We show that FOXA1/2 are necessary for maintaining normal DA synthesis and transmission, as well as burst-firing activity in SNc neurons in adult mice. Interestingly, deletion of FOXA1/2 in adult mDA neurons leads to a feeding behavior deficit and lethality in affected mice, which is not accompanied by an overall hypoactivity.

Results

FOXA1/2 Are Expressed in mDA Neurons in the Adult Brain and Can Be Efficiently Deleted in Slc6a3^{CreERT2/+};Foxa1/2^{flox/flox} Mice. In agreement with a previous report from our laboratory (23), we found that FOXA1/2 are expressed in the vast majority of tyrosine hydroxylase (TH)-positive mDA neurons of the VTA and SNc (Fig. 1 A-C) of adult $Foxa1/2^{flox/flox}$ mice, hereafter referred to as control mice. Sporadic TH-negative neurons within the midbrain, expressing FOXA1/2 were also detected (Fig. 1B, dotted arrows, left panel). Immunoreactivity for FOXA1/2 was localized to the nuclei of neurons (Fig. 1B, arrows), consistent with the DNA binding properties of FOXA1/2. To induce the deletion of FOXA1/2 specifically in mDA neurons, we administered tamoxifen intraperitoneally to $Slc6a3^{CreERT2/+}$; $Foxa1/2^{flox/flox}$ adult mice. In these tamoxifen-treated animals, henceforth referred to as adult Foxa1/2 conditional knockout (cKO) mice, we observed a very efficient gene deletion, as demonstrated by the lack of FOXA1/2 immunoreactivity in the vast majority of mDA neurons (Fig. 1 A-C), whereas their expression is not affected in THnegative cells (Fig. 1B, dotted arrow right panel). Quantification of the deletion is shown in Fig. 1C. These results indicate that FOXA1/2 expression is maintained into adulthood in the vast majority of mDA neurons, and that tamoxifen-induced Cre activity in DA transporter (DAT)-expressing neurons represents an efficient strategy to achieve robust knockdown of FOXA1/2 in adult mDA neurons.

DAT is also expressed in some cells in the hypothalamus and olfactory bulbs (Paul Allen Brain Atlas; www.brain-map.org). Therefore, to further assess the specificity of our model, we analyzed FOXA1/2 immunoreactivity in the hypothalamus and olfactory bulbs of control mice, and identified DAergic cells by DAT expression. We found strong FOXA1/2 immunoreactivity in the mDA population (Fig. S1A and Fig. 1) and colocalization of FOXA1/2 and DAT expression in this DAergic neuronal population (Fig. S1A). In contrast, we did not observe coexpression of DAT with FOXA1/2 in other DAergic nuclei (Fig. S1), designated A12, A13, A14, and A15 groups in the hypothalamus, and A16 group in the olfactory bulb (25). DAergic neurons are also present in the enteric nervous system (26). FOXA1/2 are not expressed in enteric neurons, identified by expression of the panneuronal marker PGP9.5 (27), in the myenteric ganglia (Fig. S1B). Altogether, these data demonstrate that our mouse model specifically addresses the role of FOXA1/2 in mDA neurons.

FOXA1/2 Positively Regulate DA-Specific Phenotype and DA Content in Adult Neurons. Previous studies have demonstrated roles for FOXA1/2 in initiating and maintaining the molecular identity of mDA neurons during development at the transcriptional level (15–19). We therefore determined whether FOXA1/2 are still required to maintain the expression of transcripts that are pivotal for mDA neuron function, such as mRNA of *Th*, *Ddc*, *Slc18a2*, *Slc6a3*, and *Drd2* genes, by real-time quantitative PCR (rt-qPCR). RNA was isolated from laser-captured midbrain tissue containing the SNc and VTA. Statistically significant decreases in *Th*, *Ddc*, *Slc18a2*, *Slc6a3*, and *Drd2* transcripts were observed in adult *Foxa1/2* cKO mice, compared with levels in control mice, after 1 week as well as 6 weeks post-tamoxifen treatment (Fig. 24). These data demonstrate that FOXA1/2 are still required to maintain the expression of DA neurotransmitter identity genes in adult mDA neurons.

TH is the enzyme that catalyses the rate-limiting step in DA synthesis, and we explored whether a change in *Th* transcript was

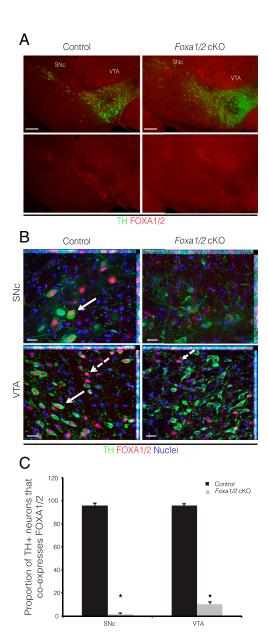


Fig. 1. FOXA1/2 are expressed in adult mDA neurons and can be efficiently deleted following CreERT2-mediated recombination. Low-magnification images show the distribution of FOXA1/2 immunoreactivity in mDA neurons of control mice, and their absence in adult *Foxa1/2* cKO mice. VTA and SNc neurons are identified by TH staining. [Scale bars: 200 μm (A).] Representative maximumintensity projection images of FOXA1/2 immunoreactivity within the VTA and SNc of control and adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice are shown in B. Solid arrows indicate TH+/FOXA1/2+ neurons, and dotted arrows indicate TH-/FOXA1/2+ cells. (Scale bars: 20 μm.) Quantification of FOXA1/2 colocalization with TH+ neurons, and efficiency of deletion is shown in the graph (C) (proportion of TH+ neurons that coexpresses FOXA1/2; control VTA = 95.8% \pm 2.9, control SNc = 95.8% \pm 3.6; Foxa1/2 cKO VTA = 10.4% \pm 3.6*, Foxa1/2 cKO SNc = 1.4% \pm 1.6*; n = 3; mean \pm SEM; *P < 0.001 vs. control, t test).

accompanied by an equal change in protein levels. Protein analysis by Western blotting showed that TH protein levels were indeed down-regulated in mDA neurons of adult *Foxa1/2* cKO mice (Fig. 2*B*). The activity of TH can be modulated by phosphorylation, and phospho-serine 40 TH (pSer40 TH) represents an active form of the enzyme (28). We found that, in *Foxa1/2* cKO mice, there was also a small but significant reduction in the amount of pSer40 TH, normalized to the total amount of TH

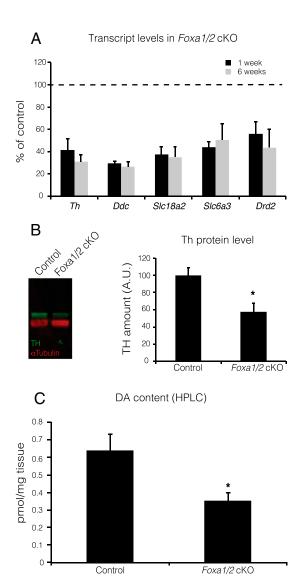


Fig. 2. Absence of FOXA1/2 leads to decreased expression of DA neuronenriched transcripts, TH protein level, and DA content. DA neuronenriched transcript levels in adult Foxa1/2 cKO, at 1 and 6 weeks after tamoxifen injections, were quantified by rt-qPCR (A). Levels are expressed as percentage change of Foxa1/2 cKO vs. controls (all data points P value < 0.05 vs. control; n = 3; t test). TH protein levels were quantified by Western blotting and a representative blot for TH and α -TUBULIN, used as loading control, is depicted in B. Bar graph, obtained by densitometric analysis of Western blot data, shows TH protein amount in adult Foxa1/2 cKO compared with control mice. Data are expressed as percentage change of adult Foxa1/2 cKO vs. controls (B, graphs) (TH protein amount in adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice vs. control = 57.6 \pm 10.1*; n = 4; *P < 0.02 vs. control, t test). Absolute DA content was quantified by HPLC in both control and Foxa1/2 cKO mice (C) [picomoles per milligram of tissue control = 0.63 ± 0.09 (n = 4), Foxa1/2 cKO = 0.35 ± 0.05 * (n = 6); *P < 0.02 vs. control, t test]. All data are presented as mean \pm SEM.

(Fig. S2). Down-regulation of TH and *Ddc* and a reduction of pSer40 TH converge to suggest that the ability of mDA neurons to synthesize DA might be impaired in adult *Foxa1/2* cKO mice. Accordingly, we found a statistically significant reduction in overall DA content in the forebrain of adult *Foxa1/2* cKO mice determined by HPLC (Fig. 2C). Together, these data demonstrate that FOXA1/2 are necessary for manifestation of some of the core molecular and neurochemical features of adult mDA neurons.

DA Transmission Shows Deficits Restricted to Dorsal Striatum of Foxa1/2 cKO Mice. Having established cellular and functional differences in mDA neurons of adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice compared with control animals, we investigated whether these changes resulted in changes to DA transmission in striatal target areas. We detected DA transmission using fast-scan cyclic voltammetry (FCV) at carbon fiber microelectrodes, which detects evoked DA release with subsecond resolution and in local subterritories. In the dorsal striatum, mean peak extracellular concentrations of DA ([DA]_o) evoked by single electrical stimulus pulses (0.2 ms) were significantly lower in adult Foxa1/2 cKO compared with control animals (Fig. 3A). However, in the ventral striatum including nucleus accumbens, no differences in evoked [DA]o between Foxa1/2 cKO and control mice were observed. The deficit in DA release in dorsal striatum was found to be restricted to dorsolateral striatum (Fig. 3B) and is likely the result of locally reduced DA content observed in dorsal striatum by HPLC analysis of tissue punches taken following FCV recordings (Fig. 3C). The deficit in DA release in dorsal striatum is unlikely to be a result of enhanced reuptake by DAT; comparison of uptake kinetics between control and Foxa1/2 cKO DA transients revealed significantly lower decay constants in Foxa1/2 cKO only under conditions of partial DAT blockade and not in drug-free control conditions (Fig. 3 D and E). Deficits in DA release were observed in dorsolateral striatum for a range of stimulus frequencies (five pulses at 5, 10, 25, or 100 Hz) that span the whole spectrum of DA neuron firing rates observed in vivo (Fig. 3F). The short-term plasticity of DA release (reflected in the relationship of stimulus frequency to [DA]_o) was unchanged (Fig. 3G) consistent with the reduction in DA content rather than to any changes to DA release probability. We hypothesized that reduced DA release in dorsal striatum would lead to reduced basal stimulation of postsynaptic neurons in this region. Previous studies have shown that Fos levels can be used as a marker of neuronal activity (29–33). We used Fos transcript levels as a mean to monitor neuronal activity of postsynaptic striatal neurons (33). rt-qPCR analysis revealed that dorsal striatal postsynaptic neurons in Foxa1/2 cKO mice showed decreased Fos transcripts compared with control neurons. In comparison, ventral striatal postsynaptic neurons only showed a marginal decrease in Fos transcripts, which did not reach statistical significance (Fig. 3*H*).

Differential Loss of DA Neuron-Enriched Transcripts in the Midbrain of Adult Foxa1/2 cKO Mice. Previous studies have established that SNc neurons predominantly innervate the dorsal striatum, whereas VTA neurons primarily target the ventral striatum (1, 25). Because we found a region-specific effect of reduced DA release and postsynaptic neuronal activity in the dorsal striatum, we determined whether these defects correlated with differences in the transcript levels of DA neuron-enriched genes between SNc and VTA. Using laser-assisted microdissection, we further dissected the mDA region into areas enriched in VTA or SNc neurons, and isolated RNA from these two areas, 4 weeks after tamoxifen injections. We validated our dissection protocol and ability to segregate VTA and SNc subgroups by checking whether the transcript levels of Otx2, a VTAspecific neuronal marker (34), was enriched in our VTA preparation. Our rt-qPCR analysis found the Otx2 mRNA levels in the VTA to be higher than in the SNc of control mice (Otx2 levels in SNc expressed as percentage of VTA levels = 34.8 ± 4.5 ; n = 4; P <0.0001, t test). When we analyzed the expression of DA neuronenriched genes in the VTA and SNc, we found that Th, Ddc, Slc18a2, and Drd2 transcripts were down-regulated in the SNc but not in the VTA of adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice, compared with the levels of control mice (Fig. 4A). The only transcript that was significantly changed in the VTA as well as in the SNc was Slc6a3 (Fig. 4A). In addition, we quantified the expression levels of *Pitx3* and Nr4a2, two transcription factors also expressed in adult mDA neurons (22, 35). We found that neither Pitx3 nor Nr4a2 expression



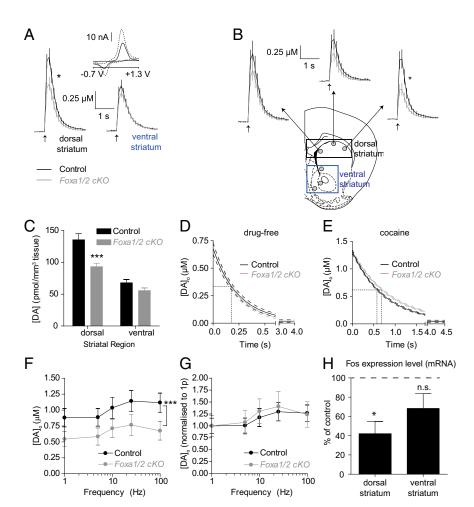
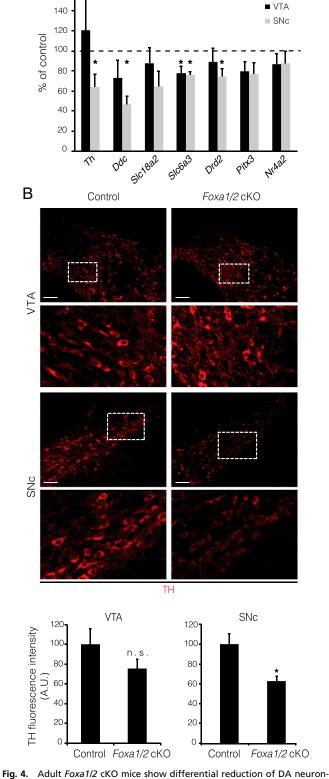


Fig. 3. Adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice show DA transmission deficits in the dorsal striatum. (A) Mean extracellular DA concentration ([DA]₀) profiles vs. time following single-pulse stimulation (†200 μs, 600 μA) in dorsal (Left) or ventral striatum (Right) of control (black) and Foxa1/2 cKO (gray) mice. Mean peak evoked [DA]_o was significantly lower in Foxa1/2 cKO (0.7 \pm 0.10 μ M) compared with controls (1.1 \pm 0.12 μ M; *P < 0.05; unpaired t test; n = 36; n = 6) in dorsal striatum but was not significantly different in ventral striatum (P > 0.05; unpaired t test; n = 36; n = 6). (B) FCV recording sites include three dorsal and three ventral striatum recordings. Mean [DA]_o vs. time plots from individual dorsal striatum recording sites from Foxa1/2 cKO and control mice highlights more prominent [DA]_o deficit in dorsolateral striatum (dorsolateral striatum, *P < 0.05; dorsomedial and dorso-mid striatum, P > 0.05; unpaired t test; n = 12 per region). (C) Mean DA content (picomoles per cubic millimeter of tissue) of Foxa1/2 cKO mice was significantly lower than control mice in dorsal striatum (P < 0.05, unpaired t test; n = 12; n = 6) but not in ventral striatum (P > 0.05, unpaired t test; n = 12; n = 6). Exponential curve fit to the decay phases of DA transients matched for concentration, following 5p 25-Hz stimulation in dorsolateral striatum in (D) drug-free conditions or (E) partial DAT blockade (cocaine, 5 µM). In drug-free conditions, there is no detectable difference in the decay constants between control and adult Foxa1/2 cKO conditions [D; k values: 4.1 s^{-1} , control, vs. 4.2 s^{-1} , Foxa1/2 cKO; $F_{(1,352)} = 0.02$, P > 0.05]. In partial DAT blockade, decay constants for Foxa1/2 cKO transients are significantly decreased compared with control [E; k values: 1.3 s⁻¹, control, vs. 1.1 s⁻¹, Foxa1/2 cKO; $F_{(1,422)} = 1.0$ 9.34, P < 0.01], which corresponds to a slight increase in half-life from 0.58 to 0.69 s. Dashed lines are half-lives, and dotted lines are 95% confidence intervals. (F) Mean peak $[DA]_0 \pm SEM$ vs. frequency during five pulse trains (1–100 Hz) in dorsolateral striatum reveals overall significantly lower $[DA]_0$ in Foxa1/2 cKO compared with control mice (P < 0.001; two-way ANOVA; n = 12 per frequency per genotype); however, relationship between stimulation frequency and mean peak [DA]_o between genotypes (G) is not significantly different. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM, n represents number of observations, and N represents number of mice. (H) Fos was used as a marker of basal striatal neuronal activity. rt-qPCR was used to quantify Fos expression levels in the dorsal and ventral striatum of both control and adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice. Data are presented as percentage change of Foxa1/2 cKO vs. matching region in control striata (dorsal striatum = 42.1 ± 12.8*, n = 4; ventral striatum = 68.4 ± 15.2, n = 5, not significant; mean ± SEM; *P < 0.05; t test).

was affected in the VTA and SNc of adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice (Fig. 4A).

We also quantified the fluorescence intensity of TH immunoreactivity in the VTA and SNc of control and Foxa1/2 cKO mice. Consistent with the rt-qPCR data, there was a significant reduction of intensity of TH immunoreactivity only in SNc neurons (Fig. 4B). These data are in agreement with the dorsoventral differences in DA release. Taken together, our data strongly suggest that a change in DA biosynthesis in the SNc leads to reduced DA content and consequently less DA released into the dorsal striatum. We also assessed whether deletion of FOXA1/2 led to the loss of mDA neurons in our model. For this purpose, we used control and Foxa1/2 cKO mice expressing the reporter YFP upon tamoxifen-mediated recombination. We found that both the total number of YFP-positive neurons and the percentage of YFP neurons expressing TH, were similar between control and adult Foxa1/2 cKO animals 4 weeks after tamoxifen injections (Fig. S3 A and B). These results show that the changes in DA neuron-enriched transcript levels are not accompanied by any loss of mDA cells in adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice.



Transcript levels in Foxa1/2 cKO

Α

160

Fig. 4. Adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice show differential reduction of DA neuron-enriched transcripts and TH levels, between the SNc and VTA. DA neuron-enriched transcript levels in VTA and SNc of control and adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice were quantified by rt-qPCR 4 weeks after tamoxifen injections (A). Levels are expressed as percentage change of Foxa1/2 cKO vs. controls (n=3; mean \pm SEM; *P<0.05 vs. control, t test). TH immunofluorescence was quantified in the VTA and SNc neurons of control and adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice (B). Pictures show representative low-magnification images of TH

Burst Firing of mDA Neurons Is Reduced in Vivo After Deletion of FOXA1/2. Next, we investigated whether reduced DA neurotransmission in the dorsal striatum is accompanied by changes in electrophysiological properties of mDA neurons in adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice. We made extracellular in vivo recordings of the action potentials fired by individual mDA neurons located in the SNc of anesthetized control and adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice. Following recording, each neuron was juxtacellularly labeled to confirm its location and DAergic identity (by expression of TH; Fig. 5 A-D). We first examined the effects of FOXA1/2 deletion on SNc neuron firing rate and regularity. The firing rate of SNc neurons in adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice was not significantly different from control mice (Fig. 5H). However, there was a significant increase in the firing regularity of SNc neurons compared with controls (assessed using CV2; Fig. 5G). SNc neurons can fire in different "modes," going from very regular firing (low CV2) to firing bursts of action potentials (high CV2) (36). Consequently, a decrease in firing variability could be due to a reduction in burst firing. We therefore examined the frequency of burst firing in SNc neurons; adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice showed a significant reduction in the occurrence of bursts (Fig. 5 E, F, K, and L). The reduction of burst firing in adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice was also reflected in the overall firing pattern as evinced by autocorrelation histograms. Firing patterns of SNc neurons in control mice could be almost evenly divided into those that were regular, irregular, or bursty (Fig. 51). However, this heterogeneity in firing was heavily biased toward regular firing in adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice, with only one neuron characterized as bursty (Fig. 51). These findings suggest that the FOXA1/2 transcription factors are required for the maintenance of appropriate firing patterns of SNc neurons in vivo.

Adult Foxa1/2 cKO Mice Display Feeding Deficits. The data presented above demonstrate that FOXA1/2 deletion results in impaired DA transmission in the dorsal striatum and reduced burst firing of SNc DAergic neurons. These changes in DAergic circuit function in the Foxa1/2 cKO animals were accompanied by a severe weight loss that started at 3 weeks after tamoxifen treatment. Weight differences became significant 4 weeks after tamoxifen injections (Fig. 6A). This phenotype was irreversible and the trend continued until the mice became hunched and runted. Eventually, 93.2% of adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice (n = 74)died between 6 and 7 weeks after tamoxifen injections. To further confirm that the weight loss phenotype is due to Foxa1/2 deletion we also injected tamoxifen into double heterozygous Foxa1^{flox/+};Foxa2^{flox/+} and Slc6a3^{CreERT2/+};Foxa1^{flox/+};Foxa2^{flox/+} mice at 8 weeks of age and monitored body weight up to 7 weeks later. These additional control mice did not show any loss of body weight (Fig. S4). These data demonstrate that tamoxifen injections in adult mice heterozygous for FOXA1 and FOXA2 at 8 weeks of age did not lead to aphagic phenotype during the 1–7 weeks post-tamoxifen treatment.

DAergic signaling in the brain is important for the engagement of goal-directed behavior. Classically, VTA neurons projecting to the nucleus accumbens have been linked to reward/motivation mechanisms, whereas SNc neurons are more often associated with motor control. Nevertheless, this functional segregation has been challenged and it is becoming apparent that SNc neurons projecting to the dorsal striatum are also linked to the motivation to engage in goal-directed behaviors, such as feeding and drinking (37). Given the involvement of the nigrostriatal pathway in feeding behavior, and the evidence that DA signaling is specifically impaired in the dorsal striatum (i.e.,

immunoreactivity, with regions within the frames magnified. (Scale bars: 100 μ m.) Bar graphs show the quantification of TH immunofluorescence levels in the VTA and SNc (n=3; mean \pm SEM; *P<0.05 vs. control, t test).

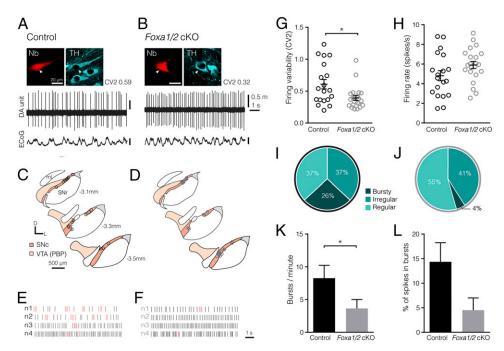


Fig. 5. SNc DAergic neurons of adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice show a reduction in burst firing in vivo. Spontaneous activity of identified DAergic SNc neurons in control (A) and adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice (B) is shown during robust cortical slow-wave activity [measured in the electrocorticogram (ECoG)]. Following recording, individual neurons were juxtacellularly labeled with Neurobiotin (Nb) and confirmed to be DAergic by expression of TH immunoreactivity. C and D show coronal schematics with locations of recorded and labeled DA neurons for control (C) and adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice (D) on three rostrocaudal levels (distance caudal to bregma shown in C). D, dorsal; D, lateral; D, medial lemniscus; D, parabrachial pigmented area of the VTA; SNc, substantia nigra pars compacta; SNr, substantia nigra pars reticulata (adapted from ref. 82). D and D are example raster plots denoting 10 s of spike firing of four example neurons from each genotype (mean D CV2 of four example neurons: control = D Cos; D Foxa1/2 cKO = D Cos). Spikes detected as occurring within bursts by Gaussian Surprise are highlighted in red. Mean firing variability (G) and firing rate (D) on SNc D A neurons (control, D) in control (regular: D), D0, Mann-Whitney rank sum test). D1 and D2 show relative distribution of autocorrelation histogram-based firing pattern classification in control (regular: D2, D3, D3, D3, D3, D4, D5, D5, D5, D6, D7, D8, D7, D8, D8, D9, D

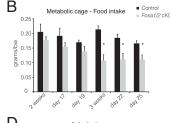
SNc target area) of adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice, we hypothesized that the weight loss was due to feeding deficits. We therefore housed the mice individually in metabolic cages and quantified the amount of food and water consumed within 24 h. Adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice showed a strong feeding deficit from week 3 after FOXA1/2 deletion, when the food intake, normalized to their body weight, dropped to 50% compared with control mice (Fig. 6B). This temporal kinetic correlates well with the weight loss described above, which also started in the third week after tamoxifen administration. Similarly, adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice also showed decreased water intake by week 3 (Fig. 6C). Interestingly, adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice also showed slightly reduced drive for rewarding stimuli. We assessed anhedonia by measuring preference to drink a sweetened solution (sucrose preference test) and Foxa1/2 cKO displayed reduced preference for sucrose following repeated exposure (Fig. 6D).

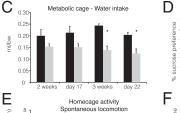
Abnormal DA signaling in the striatum has been linked to feeding deficits that are accompanied by an overall hypoactivity (37–39). To distinguish between the possibility of feeding deficits per se and decreased food intake because of compromised motor functions and/or basal activity, we tested home cage activity and performed rotarod and grip strength assays. We chose home cage activity to minimize potential confounding factors due to altered anxiety levels and exploratory behavior of mice in an open-field arena (40). Home cage activity was assessed at three time points during the dark phase (1 h after lights off, 1 h in the middle of the dark phase, and 1 h before lights on, across a single 24-h time period). This behavioral task revealed no differences between adult *Foxa1/2* cKO mice and control mice, either in spontaneous locomotion, quantified as the total distance moved

in the arena (Fig. 6E), or in the amount of entries to the feeding zone (Fig. 6F). We also tested motor coordination on an accelerating rotarod, and both control and adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice were equally able to learn and perform the task (Fig. 6G). Finally, muscle function was quantified using the grip strength test, and no differences were detected in either the forelimb or hindlimb of adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice compared with controls (Fig. 6H). These data collectively demonstrate that persistent FOXA1/2 expression in mDA neurons controls feeding behavior in adult mice. Because spontaneous locomotion, motor coordination, and muscle function are not affected in adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice, the feeding deficit is unlikely to be due to overall hypoactivity or inability to perform the task.

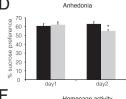
L-DOPA Treatment Delays Weight Loss in Adult Foxa1/2 cKO Mice. Having shown that FOXA1/2 positively regulate DAergic properties (Fig. 2) in adult mDA neurons and that the total DA amount is diminished in the dorsal striatum, we sought to rescue the survival of adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice by increasing DA content with L-DOPA, thus bypassing the TH-mediated ratelimiting step in DA biosynthetic pathway. We injected 50 mg/kg L-DOPA intraperitoneally or the equivalent volume of vehicle (ascorbic acid/PBS), twice a day from the second week to the fifth week after tamoxifen administration. This dose has previously been shown to increase DA levels and lead to functional changes (38, 39, 41, 42). L-DOPA did not affect the weight of control mice, as demonstrated by the similar growth curves of control mice treated with L-DOPA or vehicle (Fig. 7), whereas vehicle-treated Foxa1/2 cKO mice showed a pronounced weight loss. L-DOPA treatment over 3 weeks (second to fifth week after tamoxifen

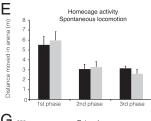


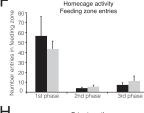


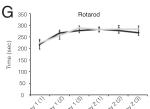


Α









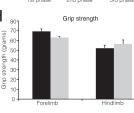


Fig. 6. Adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice show weight loss and are characterized by reduced feeding and drinking behavior, which is accompanied neither by hypoactivity nor motor dysfunction. Data relative to control and adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice are shown in black and gray, respectively. A shows body weight in grams, recorded weekly after tamoxifen injection. Each data point represents mean \pm SEM (n = 8; *P < 0.05 vs. control, two-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's multiple-comparison posttest). Feeding and drinking behavior, after tamoxifen injections, were assessed by housing the mice into metabolic cages. Food (B) and water (C) intake were quantified and are expressed as grams of food/body weight and milliliter of water/body weight, respectively (food intake: n = 6; *P < 0.001 vs. control, two-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's multiple-comparison posttest; water intake: n = 6; *P < 0.05 vs. control, two-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's multiplecomparison posttest). D shows quantification of sucrose preference test, following repeated exposure (percentage sucrose preference: control, n = 10; Foxa1/2 cKO, n = 9; *P < 0.05 vs. control, t test). Overall activity was assessed in home cages. Both spontaneous locomotion (total distance moved in meters) and number of entries to the feeding zone, across three time points during the dark phase, were calculated (E and F) (no statistical difference between groups, n = 10). Motor coordination was tested by rotarod. Latency to fall was scored in seconds (G) (no statistical difference between groups; control, n = 10; Foxa1/2 cKO, n = 9). Grip strength was quantified for both forelimbs and hindlimbs of control and cKO mice (H). Grip strength is expressed in grams (no statistical difference between groups; control, n = 10; Foxa1/2 cKO, n = 9). All data are presented as mean \pm SEM.

injections) stabilized the body weight of adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice over several weeks and delayed significant weight loss for up to 9 weeks after tamoxifen administration. Altogether, these data demonstrate that L-DOPA treatment delays the onset of weight loss and rescues the lethality observed in adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice.

In this study, we discovered a novel role for FOXA1/2 in maintaining DA biosynthesis in mDA neurons and DA transmission in the striatum. The reduction in DA content and transmission seen after conditional knockout of Foxa1/2 during adulthood is accompanied by loss of burst-firing activity in mDA neurons. These defects result in changes in feeding behavior that is incompatible with life in adult mice.

Our study shows that FOXA1/2 are required to maintain correct levels of Th, Ddc, Slc18a2, Slc6a3, and Drd2 transcripts in adult mDA neurons. During prenatal development, FOXA2 has previously been shown to cooperate with NURR1 to regulate the expression of Th, Ddc, and Slc18a2 through direct binding of transcriptional regulatory sequences of these three genes (23, 43). It is therefore possible that FOXA1/2 are still required to cooperate with NURR1 to regulate gene expression in adult mDA neurons. Loss of FOXA1/2 in mDA neurons during adulthood leads to only partial reduction of DA-enriched transcripts, in contrast to the complete loss of these transcripts when FOXA1/2 are inactivated in the same neurons from embryonic day 13.5 onward (23). This difference may be due to the maintenance of PITX3 expression in adult *Foxa1*/2 cKO mice (Fig. 4A), whereas PITX3 expression is lost in *Slc6a3Cre;Foxa1*^{flox/flox};*Foxa2*^{flox/flox} mice (23). As PITX3 also synergizes with NURR1 to regulate many genes that have enriched expression in mDA neurons (44, 45), it may be able to compensate partially for the loss of FOXA1/2 in adult mDA neurons. Regardless of the exact molecular mechanism of regulation, our study clearly demonstrates that FOXA1/2 are needed to maintain correct levels of DA neuron-enriched transcripts. Most importantly, absence of FOXA1/2 and the concomitant dysregulation of gene expression results in reduced DA content in the striatum.

In our adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice, reduction in DA content likely resulted in decreased DA transmission and postsynaptic neuronal activity (reduction in Fos mRNA levels) in the dorsal but not the ventral striatum. Notably, this dorsoventral difference in DA transmission in the striatum was paralleled by SNc-specific differences in gene expression in the midbrain. Surprisingly, ablation of FOXA1/2 in the midbrain specifically affected Th transcripts in the SNc only, whereas our earlier work showed that loss of FOXA1/2 during late development affected the expression of DA neuron-enriched genes in the majority of mDA neurons (23). Our finding is consistent with the observation of normal DA transmission in the ventral striatum, which receives projection from the VTA, where Th expression is maintained. These results suggest that FOXA1/2 are not required for regulating DA-specific properties in VTA neurons, perhaps due to a VTA-specific mechanism that is able to compensate for the function of FOXA1/2 deletion in these neurons. It is noteworthy that mutations in other uniformly expressed transcription factors in SNc and VTA neurons have also resulted in defects specific to SNc neurons, suggesting that these neurons are more vulnerable to changes from normal homeostasis (46–49).

Our adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice also show deficits in firing pattern of SNc neurons, which may also contribute to dysregulated DA signaling in the striatum. Presently, we cannot distinguish between a cell-autonomous role of FOXA1/2 in mediating burst firing and/or an indirect role through maintenance of DA tone. One possibility is that absence of FOXA1/2 in adult mice may alter the expression of proteins determining intrinsic cellular excitability (e.g., ion channels, scaffolding protein, signaling protein), and therefore affects both the ability of these neurons to generate physiological firing patterns and to respond to endogenous afferent inputs. Burst firing in mDA neurons is dependent on afferent inputs (50), as demonstrated by ex vivo midbrain preparations, which lack the burst-firing component (51). One major contributor to the burst firing displayed by mDA neurons is the glutamatergic input (52, 53), although GABAergic innervation can also modulate burst firing (54). It is tempting to hypothesize that the absence of burst firing is due to altered control of inputs to mDA neurons. mDA neurons project and receive, among others, innervation from the striatum (25, 55),

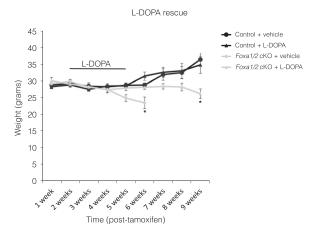


Fig. 7. Weight loss can be rescued by ι-DOPA treatments. Graph shows body weight in grams, recorded weekly after tamoxifen injection. ι-DOPA (or vehicle) was delivered intraperitoneally, twice a day between the second and fifth week after tamoxifen injections. Each data point represents mean \pm SEM (*P < 0.05 vs. control, two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple-comparison posttest; n = 5).

prefrontal cortex (56, 57), and peduncolopontine tegmental nucleus (58). In turn, endogenous DA can directly influence mDA neurons and their firing via a network feedback mechanism (51, 59). These evidence raise the possibility that reduced DA tone and transmission may influence mDA firing properties in our mutant mice by dysregulating glutamatergic/GABAergic afferent input. Another interesting possibility is that FOXA1/2 mutant mice fail to appropriately integrate signaling arising from the action of orexigenic peptides (60) and/or inputs from brain centers regulating feeding (61, 62), thus failing to sense the physiological energetic state.

Our mouse model showed a striking aphagic phenotype after FOXA1/2 deletion and, ultimately, death 6-7 weeks after tamoxifen administration in the majority of adult mice [a small proportion of mice (6.8%, n = 74) are able to bypass this lethality]. Adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice also show reduced preference for a sweetened solution, which may be indicative of a reduced drive for rewarding stimuli. DA role in feeding is well documented as DA-deficient mice are hypoactive and hypophagic (38, 39), pharmacological blockade of DA signaling in the striatum correlates with impaired feeding (63), and restoration of DA signaling in DA-deficient mice promotes feeding behavior (64). To distinguish direct roles of FOXA1/2 in regulating feeding behavior from motor activity, we have conducted motor function and activity assays. Our behavioral analyses rule out both hypoactivity (home cage) and gross motor function deficit (rotarod, grip strength). Because adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice do not show motor impairment, our model, featuring feeding deficit and anhedonia, suggests that FOXA1/2 control feeding behavior by impairing motivation and goal-directed behaviors.

Classically, the mesocorticolimbic pathways have been associated with cognitive functions including motivation and goal-directed behaviors, whereas the nigrostriatal pathway regulates motor functions. However, this clear dichotomy has been challenged by studies showing that SNc neurons are also linked to reward and aversion mechanisms (65), addiction (66), learning (67), and motivation to feed (37). DA also contributes to maintain the value of rewarding stimuli, leading to reward-seeking behavior (68, 69), and serves as a modulator of food seeking (70). The different modalities of DA release (tonic vs. phasic) are believed to lead to differential DA receptor occupancy in the target areas, with phasic release thought to increase D1 receptor occupancy (71) and to subserve neuronal coding for different

behaviors (72). For example, a burst-firing mode has been shown to be sufficient for behavioral conditioning (conditioned place preference) (73) and to be necessary for learning of cue-dependent learning tasks (53). Furthermore, reward-related stimuli presentation (74) and food restriction (75) correlate with burst-firing increase, and burst firing in a subset of SNc neurons mediates novelty-induced exploration (76).

Because other genetic mouse models with a moderate reduction in DA content similar to that of adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice do not lead to an aphagic phenotype (22, 77), we therefore speculate that our model represents a scenario whereby a 50% reduction in DA content in combination with a reduction of burst firing together impair both the quantity and the temporal control of DA release in the striatum. This dysregulation primarily contributes to aphagia due to lack of motivation to feed/drink (37), whereas overall activity/motor function remains unaffected. L-DOPA rescue of aphagia demonstrates that this phenotype is DA dependent in adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice. In addition, L-DOPA treatment has been shown to inhibit or excite mDA neurons, depending on the experimental conditions (59, 78, 79). Interestingly, in the presence of DRD2 blocker, L-DOPA has an excitatory effect on SNc neurons (78). In our mouse model, characterized by reduced Drd2 transcripts, L-DOPA may exert an excitatory effect. Given the dual role of L-DOPA on mDA neuron properties, we hypothesize that L-DOPA treatments may rescue aphagia by increasing both DA production and firing rates of mDA neurons in adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice.

Understanding how DAergic features are maintained during adulthood is important in light of the role of mDA neurons in diverse cognitive functions and in Parkinson's disease. Our study proves that FOXA1/2 are not only required to determine DAergic features during development but are also crucial to maintain these properties and DA transmission in adult mDA neurons. It is noteworthy that a recent study using the same mouse model maintained in a different genetic background (C57Bl6N vs. our outbred background) showed that absence of FOXA1/2 in adult mDA neurons results in late (78 weeks after Foxa1/2 deletion) degeneration of mDA neurons (80), but this paper did not describe the analysis of mutant phenotypes at earlier time points, as described in our study. As 93.2% (n = 74) of our Foxa1/2 cKO mutant animals died by 6-7 weeks after tamoxifen treatment, we have examined a possible degeneration of mDA neurons by determining their total number only at 4 weeks after tamoxifen treatment. We found no significant difference in cell numbers in Foxa1/2 cKO compared with control mice at this stage (Fig. S3). This result agrees with the data reported by Domanskyi et al. (80), which showed that total mDA neuronal number in adult Foxa1/2 cKO mice (in a C57Bl6N background) was still normal at 24 weeks after tamoxifen treatment. It will be interesting to determine whether neurodegeneration of mDA neurons is also observed in Foxa1/2 cKO animals in an outbred background at later stages. However, this experiment is still pending given that the majority of these mice die by 4 months of age.

In conclusion, our study identifies FOXA1/2 as novel transcription factors in mDA neurons with a role in stimulating feeding behavior, by involving the nigrostriatal pathway in the midbrain. Future studies will focus on determining how FOXA1/2 contribute to the regulation of burst-firing activity in mDA neurons and whether they are required for the response of mDA neurons to orexigenic peptides.

Materials and Methods

Mice. Research involving animals has been approved by the Home Office–Secretary of State (ref. no. 80/2550) and Institutional Animals Welfare and Ethical Review Body of The Francis Crick Institute, which has been approved by the Home Office as a breeding, supplying, and research establishment (ref. no. 70/9092). All procedures were carried out in accordance with the Animals

NEUROSCIENCE

(Scientific Procedure) Act of 1986. Mice were maintained on a 12-h light/dark cycle with water and food ad libitum. Foxa1/2^{flox/flox} mice were generated as previously described (19). Foxa1/2^{flox/flox} mice were crossed with Slc6a3^{CreERT2/+} male mice (81) to generate Slc6a3^{CreERT2/+};Foxa1/2^{flox/flox} mice and were maintained in an outbred MF1 background. As control, we used littermates harboring only the floxed alleles. We confirmed by Western blotting that FOXA1/2 protein levels are similar in wild-type mice and mice harboring Foxa1/2 floxed alleles (Fig. S5). Pharmacological treatments are described in SI Materials and Methods.

Immunohistochemistry of Brain Sections. Mice were transcardially perfused with ice-cold heparin followed by 4% (wt/vol) paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS, pH 7.4. Brains were dissected, postfixed at 4 °C overnight in 4% PFA in PBS, and cryoprotected with 30% (wt/vol) sucrose in PBS for 24 h. Brains were embedded in optimal cutting temperature compound (VWR International), frozen, and sectioned in a cryostat (Leica). The 35-µm sections were collected with the aid of a fine brush in PBS as floating sections, washed three times, and blocked in 1% BSA, 0.2% Triton X-100 (TX100) in PBS. Primary antibody incubation was performed overnight at 4 °C with rabbit anti-TH (1:1,000; Pel-Freez), rat anti-DAT (1:100; Millipore), sheep anti-YFP (1:1,000; AbD Serotec), goat anti-FOXA1/2 (1:1,000; Santa Cruz), and rabbit anti-FOXA2 (1:1,000; Seven Hills). After extensive washes, sections were incubated with the appropriate secondary antibodies (1:250; Life Technologies), conjugated to fluorochromes (Alexa 488 and Alexa 594), for 1 h at room temperature. All antibodies were diluted in 1% BSA, 0.2% TX100 in PBS. Sections were washed and mounted on glass slides with mounting media containing DAPI (Vectashield). Pictures were acquired on an Axio Imager.Z2 ApoTome.2 microscope (Zeiss) equipped with an AxioCam MRm camera. Image analysis is described in SI Materials and Methods.

Laser-Assisted Microdissection and rt-qPCR. Mice were culled and brains were rapidly removed and snap frozen in optimal cutting temperature compound. The 14-µm sections were collected onto PEN-membrane covered glass slides (Zeiss) and stored at -80 °C until use. Sections processed for TH staining were washed and fixed in 4% PFA in PBS for 10 min at room temperature. After washes, sections were blocked with 1% BSA, 0.02% TX100 in PBS for 1 h at room temperature and incubated overnight at 4 °C with rabbit anti-TH (1:1,000; Pel-Freez). Following several washes, sections were incubated with

biotinylated secondary anti-rabbit antibody (1:250; Vector Laboratories). All antibodies were diluted in 1% BSA, 0.02% TX100 in PBS. TH was immunolocalized with 3,3'-diaminobenzidine, developed by using the ABC staining kit (Vector Laboratories) following manufacturer's instruction. Unstained sections were dehydrated by incubation in ascending ethanol series prepared in diethylpyrocarbonate-treated water [50%, 75%, 90%, 100% (vol/vol)]. VTA and SNc nuclei were rapidly collected from the unstained sections by using laser-assisted microscopy (PALM MicroBeam; Zeiss). Adjacent THstained sections were used as a mask to identify the VTA and SNc nuclei.

Total RNA was extracted from the microdissected VTA and SNc by using the Arcturus PicoPure RNA Isolation kit (Applied Biosystems). cDNA synthesis was performed with SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis kit, by using oligo-d(T) primers, following manufacturer's instruction (Invitrogen). Transcript levels were quantified by rt-qPCR performed with KAPA Sybr Fast rt-qPCR (Kapa Biosystems) mix in a total volume of 20 μL on a 7900HT fast real-time machine (Applied Biosystems). The threshold amplification cycles (Ct) were determined by using SDS2.3 software, and transcript levels, normalized to endogenous Gapdh levels, were quantified by the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method. Primer sequences are provided in SI Materials and Methods.

Western blotting, in vivo electrophysiology, FCV, and HPLC are described in detail in SI Materials and Methods.

Behavior. For the feeding behavior study, mice were individually housed in metabolic cages and maintained on a 12-h light/dark cycle with water and food available ad libitum. Food and water consumption was monitored regularly for the duration of the experiment. The food crumbs and water spillage that the mice produced were collected in appropriate holders to accurately measure food and water consumption across 24 h. Details of mice housing and other behavioral tests are in SI Materials and Methods.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We thank Profs. J. Paul Bolam and Jochen Roeper for stimulating and helpful discussions. This work was supported by the Francis Crick Institute, which receives its core funding from the UK Medical Research Council (MRC), and the Wellcome Trust. In addition, this research was supported by MRC Award MC_UU_12020/5 (to P.J.M.) and the Monument Trust Discovery Award from Parkinson's UK (Grant J-0901) (to P.J.M., S.T., and S.J.C.). A.-K.K. holds an MRC studentship, and K.R.B. was awarded Parkinson's Disease UK Studentship H-1003.

- 1. Roeper J (2013) Dissecting the diversity of midbrain dopamine neurons. Trends Neurosci 36(6):336-342.
- 2. Wise RA (2006) Role of brain dopamine in food reward and reinforcement, Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci 361(1471):1149-1158.
- 3. Wise RA (2004) Dopamine, learning and motivation. Nat Rev Neurosci 5(6):483-494.
- 4. Ikemoto S (2007) Dopamine reward circuitry: Two projection systems from the ventral midbrain to the nucleus accumbens-olfactory tubercle complex. Brain Res Brain Res Rev 56(1):27-78.
- 5. Iversen L, Iversen S, Dunnett S, Bjorklund A (2009) Dopamine Handbook (Oxford Univ Press, New York), 1st Ed.
- 6. Obeso JA, et al. (2010) Missing pieces in the Parkinson's disease puzzle. Nat Med 16(6):
- 7. Milton AL, Everitt BJ (2012) The persistence of maladaptive memory: Addiction, drug memories and anti-relapse treatments. Neurosci Biobehav Rev 36(4):1119-1139.
- 8. Tye KM, et al. (2013) Dopamine neurons modulate neural encoding and expression of depression-related behaviour. Nature 493(7433):537-541.
- 9. Volkow ND, Fowler JS, Wang GJ, Swanson JM, Telang F (2007) Dopamine in drug abuse and addiction: Results of imaging studies and treatment implications. Arch Neurol 64(11):1575-1579.
- 10. Winterer G. Weinberger DR (2004) Genes, dopamine and cortical signal-to-noise ratio in schizophrenia. Trends Neurosci 27(11):683-690.
- 11. Jackson BC. Carpenter C. Nebert DW. Vasiliou V (2010) Update of human and mouse forkhead box (FOX) gene families. Hum Genomics 4(5):345-352.
- 12. Cirillo LA, et al. (2002) Opening of compacted chromatin by early developmental transcription factors HNF3 (FoxA) and GATA-4. Mol Cell 9(2):279-289.
- 13. Hannenhalli S, Kaestner KH (2009) The evolution of Fox genes and their role in development and disease. Nat Rev Genet 10(4):233-240.
- 14. Friedman JR, Kaestner KH (2006) The Foxa family of transcription factors in devel-
- opment and metabolism. Cell Mol Life Sci 63(19-20):2317-2328. 15. Ang SL (2009) Foxa1 and Foxa2 transcription factors regulate differentiation of midbrain dopaminergic neurons. Adv Exp Med Biol 651:58-65.
- 16. Lin W, et al. (2009) Foxa1 and Foxa2 function both upstream of and cooperatively with Lmx1a and Lmx1b in a feedforward loop promoting mesodiencephalic dopamineraic neuron development, Dev Biol 333(2):386-396.
- 17. Mavromatakis YE, et al. (2011) Foxa1 and Foxa2 positively and negatively regulate Shh signalling to specify ventral midbrain progenitor identity. Mech Dev 128(1-2):
- 18. Metzakopian E, et al. (2012) Genome-wide characterization of Foxa2 targets reveals upregulation of floor plate genes and repression of ventrolateral genes in midbrain dopaminergic progenitors. Development 139(14):2625–2634.

- 19. Ferri AL, et al. (2007) Foxa1 and Foxa2 regulate multiple phases of midbrain dopaminergic neuron development in a dosage-dependent manner. Development 134(15): 2761-2769
- 20. Doucet-Beaupré H, Lévesque M (2013) The role of developmental transcription factors in adult midbrain dopaminergic neurons. OA Neurosci 1(1):3.
- 21. Di Salvio M, et al. (2010) Otx2 controls neuron subtype identity in ventral tegmental area and antagonizes vulnerability to MPTP. Nat Neurosci 13(12):1481-1488.
- 22. Kadkhodaei B. et al. (2013) Transcription factor Nurr1 maintains fiber integrity and nuclear-encoded mitochondrial gene expression in dopamine neurons. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 110(6):2360-2365.
- 23. Stott SR, et al. (2013) Foxa1 and foxa2 are required for the maintenance of dopaminergic properties in ventral midbrain neurons at late embryonic stages. J Neurosci 33(18):8022-8034.
- 24. Kittappa R, Chang WW, Awatramani RB, McKay RD (2007) The foxa2 gene controls the birth and spontaneous degeneration of dopamine neurons in old age. PLoS Biol 5(12):e325.
- 25. Björklund A, Dunnett SB (2007) Dopamine neuron systems in the brain: An update. Trends Neurosci 30(5):194-202.
- 26. Li ZS, Pham TD, Tamir H, Chen JJ, Gershon MD (2004) Enteric dopaminergic neurons: Definition, developmental lineage, and effects of extrinsic denervation. J Neurosci
- 27. Sasselli V. Pachnis V. Burns AJ (2012) The enteric nervous system. Dev Biol 366(1): 64-73.
- 28. Dunkley PR, Bobrovskaya L, Graham ME, von Nagy-Felsobuki El, Dickson PW (2004) Tyrosine hydroxylase phosphorylation: Regulation and consequences. J Neurochem 91(5):1025-1043.
- 29. Cohen S, Greenberg ME (2008) Communication between the synapse and the nucleus in neuronal development, plasticity, and disease. Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol 24:183-209.
- 30. Herdegen T, Leah JD (1998) Inducible and constitutive transcription factors in the mammalian nervous system: Control of gene expression by Jun, Fos and Krox, and CREB/ATF proteins. Brain Res Brain Res Rev 28(3):370-490.
- 31. Robertson GS, Vincent SR, Fibiger HC (1992) D1 and D2 dopamine receptors differentially regulate c-fos expression in striatonigral and striatopallidal neurons. Neuroscience
- 32. Sheng M, McFadden G, Greenberg ME (1990) Membrane depolarization and calcium induce c-fos transcription via phosphorylation of transcription factor CREB. Neuron 4(4):571-582.
- 33. Yang L, Gilbert ML, Zheng R, McKnight GS (2014) Selective expression of a dominantnegative type Ia PKA regulatory subunit in striatal medium spiny neurons impairs

alestinian Territory, occupied on January 3, 2022

- gene expression and leads to reduced feeding and locomotor activity. *J Neurosci* 34(14):4896–4904.
- Di Salvio M, Di Giovannantonio LG, Omodei D, Acampora D, Simeone A (2010) Otx2
 expression is restricted to dopaminergic neurons of the ventral tegmental area in the
 adult brain. Int J Dev Biol 54(5):939–945.
- Luk KC, et al. (2013) The transcription factor Pitx3 is expressed selectively in midbrain dopaminergic neurons susceptible to neurodegenerative stress. J Neurochem 125(6): 932–943.
- Grace AA, Bunney BS (1983) Intracellular and extracellular electrophysiology of nigral dopaminergic neurons—1. Identification and characterization. Neuroscience 10(2): 301–315
- Palmiter RD (2008) Dopamine signaling in the dorsal striatum is essential for motivated behaviors: Lessons from dopamine-deficient mice. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1129: 35_16
- Zhou QY, Palmiter RD (1995) Dopamine-deficient mice are severely hypoactive, adipsic, and aphagic. Cell 83(7):1197–1209.
- adipsic, and aphagic. Cell 83(7):1197–1209.
 39. Szczypka MS, et al. (1999) Feeding behavior in dopamine-deficient mice. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 96(21):12138–12143.
- Lad HV, et al. (2010) Behavioural battery testing: Evaluation and behavioural outcomes in 8 inbred mouse strains. *Physiol Behav* 99(3):301–316.
- Chartoff EH, Marck BT, Matsumoto AM, Dorsa DM, Palmiter RD (2001) Induction of stereotypy in dopamine-deficient mice requires striatal D1 receptor activation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 98(18):10451–10456.
- Kim DS, Szczypka MS, Palmiter RD (2000) Dopamine-deficient mice are hypersensitive to dopamine receptor agonists. J Neurosci 20(12):4405–4413.
- Yi SH, et al. (2014) Foxa2 acts as a co-activator potentiating expression of the Nurr1induced DA phenotype via epigenetic regulation. *Development* 141(4):761–772.
- Jacobs FM, et al. (2009) Pitx3 potentiates Nurr1 in dopamine neuron terminal differentiation through release of SMRT-mediated repression. *Development* 136(4): 531–540
- Martinat C, et al. (2006) Cooperative transcription activation by Nurr1 and Pitx3 induces embryonic stem cell maturation to the midbrain dopamine neuron phenotype. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 103(8):2874–2879.
- Hegarty SV, Sullivan AM, O'Keeffe GW (2013) Midbrain dopaminergic neurons: A review of the molecular circuitry that regulates their development. *Dev Biol* 379(2): 123–138
- Kramer ER, et al. (2007) Absence of Ret signaling in mice causes progressive and late degeneration of the nigrostriatal system. PLoS Biol 5(3):e39.
- Maxwell SL, Ho HY, Kuehner E, Zhao S, Li M (2005) Pitx3 regulates tyrosine hydroxylase expression in the substantia nigra and identifies a subgroup of mesencephalic dopaminergic progenitor neurons during mouse development. Dev Biol 282(2): 467–479
- 49. van den Munckhof P, et al. (2003) Pitx3 is required for motor activity and for survival of a subset of midbrain dopaminergic neurons. *Development* 130(11):2535–2542.
- Floresco SB, West AR, Ash B, Moore H, Grace AA (2003) Afferent modulation of dopamine neuron firing differentially regulates tonic and phasic dopamine transmission. Nat Neurosci 6(9):968–973.
- Paladini CA, Robinson S, Morikawa H, Williams JT, Palmiter RD (2003) Dopamine controls the firing pattern of dopamine neurons via a network feedback mechanism. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 100(5):2866–2871.
- Overton PG, Clark D (1997) Burst firing in midbrain dopaminergic neurons. Brain Res Brain Res Rev 25(3):312–334.
- Zweifel LS, et al. (2009) Disruption of NMDAR-dependent burst firing by dopamine neurons provides selective assessment of phasic dopamine-dependent behavior. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 106(18):7281–7288.
- Tepper JM, Lee CR (2007) GABAergic control of substantia nigra dopaminergic neurons. Prog Brain Res 160:189–208.
- Watabe-Uchida M, Zhu L, Ogawa SK, Vamanrao A, Uchida N (2012) Whole-brain mapping of direct inputs to midbrain dopamine neurons. *Neuron* 74(5):858–873.
- Land BB, et al. (2014) Medial prefrontal D1 dopamine neurons control food intake. Nat Neurosci 17(2):248–253.
- Naito A, Kita H (1994) The cortico-nigral projection in the rat: An anterograde tracing study with biotinylated dextran amine. Brain Res 637(1-2):317–322.
- Charara A, Smith Y, Parent A (1996) Glutamatergic inputs from the pedunculopontine nucleus to midbrain dopaminergic neurons in primates: *Phaseolus vulgaris*-leucoagglutinin anterograde labeling combined with postembedding glutamate and GABA immunohistochemistry. *J Comp Neurol* 364(2):254–266.
- Robinson S, Smith DM, Mizumori SJ, Palmiter RD (2004) Firing properties of dopamine neurons in freely moving dopamine-deficient mice: Effects of dopamine receptor activation and anesthesia. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 101(36):13329–13334.
- Abizaid A, et al. (2006) Ghrelin modulates the activity and synaptic input organization of midbrain dopamine neurons while promoting appetite. J Clin Invest 116(12): 3229–3239.

- Cone JJ, McCutcheon JE, Roitman MF (2014) Ghrelin acts as an interface between physiological state and phasic dopamine signaling. J Neurosci 34(14):4905–4913.
- Egecioglu E, et al. (2011) Hedonic and incentive signals for body weight control. Rev Endocr Metab Disord 12(3):141–151.
- Terry P, Gilbert DB, Cooper SJ (1995) Dopamine receptor subtype agonists and feeding behavior. Obes Res 3(Suppl 4):5155–523S.
- Hnasko TS, et al. (2006) Cre recombinase-mediated restoration of nigrostriatal dopamine in dopamine-deficient mice reverses hypophagia and bradykinesia. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 103(23):8858–8863.
- 65. Ilango A, et al. (2014) Similar roles of substantia nigra and ventral tegmental dopamine neurons in reward and aversion. *J Neurosci* 34(3):817–822.
- Wise RA (2009) Roles for nigrostriatal—not just mesocorticolimbic—dopamine in reward and addiction. Trends Neurosci 32(10):517–524.
- Robinson S, Rainwater AJ, Hnasko TS, Palmiter RD (2007) Viral restoration of dopamine signaling to the dorsal striatum restores instrumental conditioning to dopamine-deficient mice. *Psychopharmacology (Berl)* 191(3):567–578.
- Bromberg-Martin ES, Matsumoto M, Hikosaka O (2010) Dopamine in motivational control: Rewarding, aversive, and alerting. Neuron 68(5):815–834.
- Wanat MJ, Willuhn I, Clark JJ, Phillips PE (2009) Phasic dopamine release in appetitive behaviors and drug addiction. Curr Drug Abuse Rev 2(2):195–213.
- Roitman MF, Stuber GD, Phillips PE, Wightman RM, Carelli RM (2004) Dopamine operates as a subsecond modulator of food seeking. J Neurosci 24(6):1265–1271.
- Dreyer JK, Herrik KF, Berg RW, Hounsgaard JD (2010) Influence of phasic and tonic dopamine release on receptor activation. J Neurosci 30(42):14273–14283.
- Grace AA, Floresco SB, Goto Y, Lodge DJ (2007) Regulation of firing of dopaminergic neurons and control of goal-directed behaviors. *Trends Neurosci* 30(5):220–227.
- Tsai HC, et al. (2009) Phasic firing in dopaminergic neurons is sufficient for behavioral conditioning. Science 324(5930):1080–1084.
- Hyland BI, Reynolds JN, Hay J, Perk CG, Miller R (2002) Firing modes of midbrain dopamine cells in the freely moving rat. Neuroscience 114(2):475–492.
- Branch SY, et al. (2013) Food restriction increases glutamate receptor-mediated burst firing of dopamine neurons. J Neurosci 33(34):13861–13872.
- Schiemann J, et al. (2012) K-ATP channels in dopamine substantia nigra neurons control bursting and novelty-induced exploration. Nat Neurosci 15(9):1272–1280.
- Darvas M, Henschen CW, Palmiter RD (2014) Contributions of signaling by dopamine neurons in dorsal striatum to cognitive behaviors corresponding to those observed in Parkinson's disease. Neurobiol Dis 65:112–123.
- Guatteo E, et al. (2013) Dual effects of L-DOPA on nigral dopaminergic neurons. Exp Neurol 247:582–594.
- Harden DG, Grace AA (1995) Activation of dopamine cell firing by repeated L-DOPA administration to dopamine-depleted rats: Its potential role in mediating the therapeutic response to L-DOPA treatment. J Neurosci 15(9):6157–6166.
- Domanskyi A, Alter H, Vogt MA, Gass P, Vinnikov IA (2014) Transcription factors Foxa1 and Foxa2 are required for adult dopamine neurons maintenance. Front Cell Neurosci 8:275.
- Rieker C, et al. (2011) Nucleolar disruption in dopaminergic neurons leads to oxidative damage and parkinsonism through repression of mammalian target of rapamycin signaling. J Neurosci 31(2):453–460.
- Franklin KBJ, Paxinos G (2012) Paxinos and Franklin's the Mouse Brain in Stereotaxic Coordinates (Academic, San Diego), 4th Ed.
- Janezic S, et al. (2013) Deficits in dopaminergic transmission precede neuron loss and dysfunction in a new Parkinson model. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 110(42):E4016–E4025.
- Brown MT, Henny P, Bolam JP, Magill PJ (2009) Activity of neurochemically heterogeneous dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra during spontaneous and driven changes in brain state. J Neurosci 29(9):2915–2925.
- Holt GR, Softky WR, Koch C, Douglas RJ (1996) Comparison of discharge variability in vitro and in vivo in cat visual cortex neurons. J Neurophysiol 75(5):1806–1814.
- Ko D, Wilson CJ, Lobb CJ, Paladini CA (2012) Detection of bursts and pauses in spike trains. J Neurosci Methods 211(1):145–158.
- 87. Wilson CJ, Young SJ, Groves PM (1977) Statistical properties of neuronal spike trains in the substantia nigra: Cell types and their interactions. *Brain Res* 136(2):243–260.
- 88. Grayton HM, Missler M, Collier DA, Fernandes C (2013) Altered social behaviours in neurexin 1α knockout mice resemble core symptoms in neurodevelopmental disorders. *PLoS One* 8(6):e67114.
- Monleon S, et al. (1995) Attenuation of sucrose consumption in mice by chronic mild stress and its restoration by imipramine. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 117(4):453–457.
- Holmes A, et al. (2001) Behavioral characterization of dopamine D5 receptor null mutant mice. Behav Neurosci 115(5):1129–1144.
- Whittemore LA, et al. (2003) Inhibition of myostatin in adult mice increases skeletal muscle mass and strength. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 300(4):965–971.