Molecular Dissection of Neural Circuits Controlling Nicotine Aversion

Silke Frahm, PhD; Marta A. Slimak; Julio Santos-Torres, PhD; Beatriz Antolin-Fontes; Sebastian Auer, PhD; and Inés Ibañez-Tallon, PhD

> Department of Molecular Neurobiology Max Delbrück Center for Molecular Medicine Berlin, Germany

Introduction

Tobacco use is a major public health challenge leading to millions of preventable deaths every year (http:// www.who.int/tobacco/statistics/tobacco_atlas/en/). The principal addictive component of tobacco is the plant alkaloid nicotine, which binds and activates nicotinic acetylcholine receptors (nAChRs) (Dani and Heinemann, 1996). In the mammalian nervous system, eight alpha ($\alpha 2$ – $\alpha 7$ and $\alpha 9$ – $\alpha 10$) and three beta ($\beta 2 - \beta 4$) subunits assemble into pentameric nAChR combinations with distinctive pharmacological and functional properties (McGehee and Role, 1995; Gotti et al., 2009). Recently, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified genetic variants in the Chmb4-CHRNA3-CHRNA5 gene cluster as risk factors for nicotine dependence and lung cancer (Thorgeirsson et al., 2008; Weiss et al., 2008; Saccone et al., 2009; Amos et al., 2010a). These single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) include noncoding variants across the gene cluster, as well as amino acid substitutions (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/snp/). Given that *cis*-regulatory elements within the cluster coordinate transcription of these genes for assembly of $\alpha 3\beta 4$ -containing ($\alpha 3\beta 4^*$) and $\alpha 3\beta 4\alpha 5$ functional nAChRs (Xu et al., 2006; Scofield et al., 2010), the fact that a large number of SNPs map to noncoding segments of the cluster suggests that altered regulation of these genes can contribute to the pathophysiology of tobacco use. Indeed, the risk for nicotine dependence seems to stem from at least two separate mechanisms: the variability in the mRNA levels of these genes and functional changes due to nonsynonymous amino acid variants (Lu et al., 2009).

A number of mouse models with gene deletions, point mutations, or strain-specific variants in nAChR subunits have been critical to elucidating the role of the different nAChR combinations in nicotine addiction and withdrawal. For instance, α4β2 nAChRs (accounting for 80% of the highaffinity nicotine binding sites in the brain) (Whiting and Lindstrom, 1988) are major contributors to nicotine self-administration, as shown in B2 knockout (KO) mice (Picciotto, 1998; Maskos et al., 2005) and in knock-in mice with a gain-of-function mutation of $\alpha 4$ (Tapper et al., 2004). The nAChR β 4 subunit is almost always coexpressed with α 3, while the auxiliary $\alpha 5$ subunit assembles with the α 3 β 4 combination but can also be incorporated into $\alpha 4\beta 2$ receptor complexes. The expression of the $\alpha 3\beta 4^*$ nAChR combination is restricted to a few discrete brain areas, including the medial habenula (mHb) and interpeduncular nucleus (IPN), and to autonomic ganglia (Zoli et al., 1995). $\alpha 3\beta 4^*$ nAChRs have a lower affinity for nicotine than $\alpha4\beta2$ receptors and are likely less desensitized at the nicotine levels found in smokers than $\alpha4\beta2$ nAChRs. This suggests that $\alpha3\beta4^*$ nAChRs could play an important role in tobacco addiction, since they retain their sensitivity to fluctuating nicotine levels in smokers (Rose, 2007). $\beta4$ and $\alpha5$ KO mice show similar phenotypes, including decreased signs of nicotine withdrawal symptoms (Jackson et al., 2008; Salas et al., 2004, 2009), hypolocomotion, and resistance to nicotine-induced seizures (Kedmi et al., 2004; Salas et al., 2004). It has been more difficult to assess the role of $\alpha3^*$ nAChRs because KO mice die within 3 weeks after birth owing to severe bladder dysfunction (Xu et al., 1999).

Here we show that $\alpha 3\beta 4\alpha 5$ nicotinic acetylcholine receptor activity in vitro and in vivo is limited by the level of Chrnb4 expression and that the ability of the β 4 subunit to increase α 3 β 4 α 5 currents depends on a single, unique residue (S435). This residue maps to the intracellular vestibule of the nAChR complex adjacent to the rs16969968 SNP in CHRNA5 (D398N), which has been linked to a high risk of developing nicotine dependence in humans. We present a novel transgenic mouse model of the Chrnb4-Chrna3-Chrna5 gene cluster, referred to as Tabac (Transgenic a3b4a5 cluster) mice. In these mice, Chrnb4 overexpression enhances $\alpha 3\beta 4^*$ nAChR levels, resulting in altered nicotine consumption and nicotine-conditioned place aversion. Lentiviral vector-mediated transduction of the mHb of Tabac mice with the D398N Chrna5 variant reversed the nicotine aversion induced by β 4 overexpression. This study provides a new mouse model for nicotine dependence, demonstrates a critical role for the mHb in the circuitry controlling nicotine consumption, and elucidates novel molecular mechanisms that contribute to these phenotypes.

Results

The relative levels of α 5 and β 4 subunits strongly affect α 3 β 4 α 5 nAChR currents

Recently, it has been shown that $\alpha 5$ competes with $\beta 4$ for association with $\alpha 4$, and that this competition does not occur if $\beta 4$ is substituted by $\beta 2$ (Gahring and Rogers, 2010). The CHRNB4– A3–A5 gene cluster regulates the co-expression of $\beta 4$, $\alpha 3$ and $\alpha 5$ subunits, and SNPs in the regulatory regions of the cluster, as well as non-synonymous variants such as rs16969968 (corresponding to D398N in CHRNA5), associated with nicotine

dependence (Bierut et al., 2008; Saccone et al., 2009; Beirut, 2010). Given these evidences, we were first interested in determining whether varying the relative expression levels of $\alpha 3$, $\beta 4$, and $\alpha 5$ (wild type and D398N) subunits influences nicotine-evoked currents.

To measure this effect, we performed electrophysiological recordings in oocytes injected with cRNA transcripts of the different mouse subunits. In these experiments (Fig. 1), the cRNA concentration of α 3 was held constant (1 ng/oocyte), whereas the concentration of β 4 or β 2 input cRNA varied from 1, 2, 4, 5 to 10 ng, respectively. These experiments showed that β 4, but not β 2, was able to increase current amplitudes in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 1A,B). Next we held constant the concentrations of $\alpha 3$ and $\beta 4$ at 1:10 and added the cRNA of α 5 wild type (Wt) or the α 5 D397N variant (corresponding to the human $\alpha 5$ variant D398N) at ratios of 1:10:1, 1:10:5 and 1:10:10 (Fig. 1A). We observed a significant decrease of current amplitudes at higher concentrations of $\alpha 5$, and this effect was significantly more pronounced with α 5 D397N. These results suggest that α 5 and β 4 may compete for binding to α 3, in line with the studies showing such competition for binding to $\alpha 4$ (Gahring and Rogers, 2010).

Given that overexpression of $\beta 2$ with either $\alpha 3$ (Fig. 1A) or $\alpha 4$ (data not shown) did not increase currents, we were interested in identifying the residues differing between $\beta 4$ and $\beta 2$ that mediate this effect. Since the long cytoplasmic loop is the most divergent domain between nAChR subunits, and since it has been

implicated in cell-surface expression and trafficking of $\beta 2$ subunits (Nashmi et al., 2003; Ren et al., 2005), we generated $\beta 2$ – $\beta 4$ chimeras exchanging either this domain, or short motifs and single residues within this domain. Replacement of the cytoplasmic loop of $\beta 2$ with the corresponding sequences present in $\beta 4$ ($\beta 2/\beta 4$ 322–496) led to a strong increase of nicotinic currents (Fig. 1C). Introducing two $\beta 4$ -specific motifs: a serine/tyrosine rich motif ($\beta 2/+\beta 4$ 382–391) and gephyrin-like binding motif ($\beta 2/+\beta 4$ 401–419) into the $\beta 2$ loop had no influence on current amplitudes (Fig. 1C).

We next performed bioinformatic analyses and singled out eight β4-specific residues (indicated as T-1 to T-8 in supplemental Fig. S1C) present within highly conserved motifs. Six of these residues were not further considered: T-2, T-3, T-6, and T-7 residues differ between mouse and chicken B4 subunits, which are equally potent in enhancing nicotineevoked currents (Fig. S1B); T-4 residue lies within the tested motif in the $\beta 2/+\beta 4$ 382–391 chimera; and residues at position T-8 have the same charge (Fig. S1C). The remaining two candidates, T-1 (S324 in β4 and T327 in β2) and T-7 (S435 in β4 and R431 in β 2) (Fig. S1C), were tested by point mutagenesis in the β 2 subunit backbone. The β 2 T327S point mutant did not increase current, whereas replacement of B2 R431 with serine resulted in a 3.5-fold current increase (Fig. 1C). Furthermore, point mutation of the native S435 in the β 4 subunit to the arginine residue present in β 2 (β 4 S435R) abolished the β 4-specific activity. Thus, these data demonstrate that the distinctive ability of $\beta4$ to increase currents when overexpressed maps to a single residue (S435). This residue is both required in β 4 for current increase and can confer this property to $\beta 2$.



Supplemental Figure 1. Alignment of Chrnb4, Chrnb2, and Chrna5 protein sequences from different species reveals single differential amino acids within highly conserved regions. A custom track T $\beta 4/\beta 2, \alpha 5$ shows the differential conservation scores of $\beta 4$ sequences compared with $\beta 2$ and $\alpha 5$ (the resulting differential residues were designated T-3 and T-6-8). T $\beta 4/\beta 2, \alpha 5$ shows the differential conservation scores of $\beta 2$ sequences compared to $\beta 4$ and $\alpha 5$ (the resulting differential residues were designated T-1-2 and T-6-8). T $\beta 4/\beta 2, \alpha 5$ shows the global conservation and the consensus residues. Two residues of $\beta 4$ (S324 and S435, green and red arrows) showing differential conservation score were selected for generation of $\beta 2$ - $\beta 4$ chimeras shown in Figure 5D. HS, Homo sapiens; PT, Pan troglodytes; MM, Mus musculus; RN, Rattus norvegicus; BT, Bos taurus; GG, Gallus gallus; TM, transmembrane domain.



Figure 1. Increase of nAChR currents by $\beta4$ is competed by $\alpha5$ and maps to a single amino acid (S435). *A*, Quantification of nicotine-evoked currents (100 μ M, 20 s) recorded in *Xenopus* oocytes injected with mouse $\alpha3:\beta2$, $\alpha3:\beta4$, and $\alpha3:\beta4:\alpha5$ cRNAs at the indicated ratios. Current amplitudes from 1:3 to 1:10 $\alpha3\beta4$ combinations are significantly increased compared with 1:1 ratio (*p < 0.05; ***p < 0.001). Addition of $\alpha5$ to the $\alpha3\beta4$ complex leads to a significant decrease of current amplitudes when equal amounts of $\beta4$ and $\alpha5$ are injected (**p < 0.01 for Wt $\alpha5$; ***p < 0.001 for $\alpha5$ D397N). The D397N variant shows significantly stronger competition with $\beta4$ compared with Wt $\alpha5$ (*p < 0.05). Triangles indicate increasing relative amounts of one specified subunit. *B*, Representative traces of two-electrode voltage–clamp recordings. *C*, Schematic representation of $\beta2/\beta4$ chimeras indicating the domains, motifs, or residues exchanged between $\beta4$ (green) and $\beta2$ (black) subunits and corresponding amino-acid number and substitutions (left). Fold current increase (right) indicates the relative current amplitude of nicotine-evoked currents for each $\beta2/\beta4$ chimera expressed with the $\alpha3$ subunit at 1:10 relative to 1:1 ratio. All values are expressed as mean ± SEM; n = 5 per ratio in all experiments.

Transgenic mice of the Chrnb4/a3/a5 gene cluster (Tabac mice)

To test the hypothesis that β 4 is rate-limiting for nAChR assembly and function *in vivo* and that overexpression of β 4 can strongly influence nicotineevoked currents and behavioral responses to nicotine, we characterized a bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) transgenic line spanning the *Chrmb4–Chrma3– Chrma5* gene cluster (Gong et al., 2003). The BAC transgene included the intact coding sequences of the *Chrmb4* gene, modified sequences of *Chrma3*, and incomplete sequences of *Chrma5. Chrma3* was modified by insertion of an enhanced green fluorescent protein (eGFP) cassette, followed by polyadenylation signals at the ATG translation initiator codon of *Chrna3* (Fig. 2A). The upstream sequences of *Chrna5*, encoding exon 1 splice variants (Flora et al., 2000), are missing in the BAC transgene (Fig. 2A). To promote correct expression of *Chrnb4*, the BAC included the intergenic and 5' flanking regions encompassing the *cis*-regulatory elements that coordinate cotranscriptional control of the genes in the cluster (Bigger et al., 1997; Xu et al., 2006; Medel and Gardner, 2007).

As a result of these modifications in the BAC transgene, these mice (referred to as Tabac mice for Transgenic $\underline{a3b4a5}$ cluster) express high levels of $\beta4$



Figure 2. Tabac mice express elevated *Chrnb4* transcripts in *Chrna3*-eGFP labeled neurons. *A*, Scheme of the modified mouse BAC containing the *Chrnb4*-*Chrna3*-*Chrna5* gene cluster. Yellow boxes, exons; green box, eGFP cassette; white box, polyadenylation signal (pA); black arrows, direction of transcription; red crosses, truncated transcription; *cis*-regulatory elements marked in red; CNR4, conserved noncoding region; β 43' enhancer (Xu et al., 2006); E1/E2, SP1, and SP3 binding sites (Bigger et al., 1997); α 3-i, transcriptional silencer (Medel and Gardner, 2007). *B*, Western blot analyses of β 4 (53 kD), α 5 (2 splice variants: 50 kD and 53 kD), and α -Tubulin in brain extracts of Wt and Tabac mice. *C*-*H*, eGFP-expressing neurons (green) in peripheral SCG (*C*) and in sagittal brain sections (except *G*, coronal) of Tabac mice immunostained with TH (*D* and *E*) and ChAT (*F*-*H*) in red. *I*, *J*, *In situ* hybridization of *Chrnb4* transcripts in Wt and Tabac brain sections. fr, fasciculus retroflexus; LdT, laterodorsal tegmentum; pAg, periaqueductal gray; SCG, superior cervical ganglia; SN, substantia nigra. Scale bars: *C*, 100 µm; *D*-*F*, 500 µm (magnification of *D* is indicated by the dotted lines; scale bar, 50 µm); *G*, 50 µm; *H*, 250 µm; mHb, 100 µm; SuM, 50 µm; IPN, 250 µm; VTA, 100 µm.

but not $\alpha 5$ (Fig 2B), and expression of $\alpha 3$ is replaced by expression of an eGFP reporter cassette to monitor the sites expressing the transgene (Fig. 2C-H). As shown in Figure 2, neurons expressing eGFP were evident in autonomic ganglia (Fig. 2C) and in very restricted brain structures (Figs. 2D-H) known to express these genes (Zoli et al., 1995). Immunostaining with cholinergic (choline acetyltransferase [ChAT]) and dopaminergic (tyrosine hydroxylase [TH]) markers indicated high expression of Chrna3/eGFP in cholinergic neurons of the Hb-IPN system (Fig. 2G,H). Intense Chrna3/eGFP expression was also detected in other brain areas (Fig. $3D_{E}$) involved in nicotine addiction, such as the ventral tegmental area (VTA), the caudal linear nucleus (Cli), the supramammilary nucleus (SuM) (Ikemoto et al., 2006), and the laterodorsal tegmental nucleus (Fig. 2F), which provides modulatory input to the VTA (Maskos, 2008).

We performed in situ hybridization experiments to verify that the BAC accurately directed expression of transgenic Chrnb4 transcripts to eGFP-positive brain areas. Tabac mice showed a prominent enrichment of Chrnb4 transcripts in $\alpha 3\beta 4^*$ -positive areas such as the mHb and IPN, and in brain areas that have been shown to express lower levels of Chrnb4, such as SuM (Dineley-Miller and Patrick, 1992) and VTA (Yang et al., 2009) (Fig. 21,J). Reverse transcriptase (RT)-PCR studies showed that Chrna4, Chrna7, and Chrnb2 transcripts (which are not present in the BAC) are not altered in Tabac mice (data not shown). Taken together, these data show that Tabac mice express high levels of $\beta 4$, but not $\alpha 5$, in $\alpha 3/$ eGFP-labeled cells in CNS and PNS structures known to express the Chrnb4-Chrna3-Chrna5 nicotinic gene cluster. Thus, they provide a useful mouse model to test the consequences of enhanced β4 expression at endogenous sites.



Figure 3. Tabac mice show increased $\alpha 3\beta 4^*$ nAChR nicotine-evoked currents and firing frequency in *Chrna3*-eGFP–labeled neurons. *A*–*F*, Whole-cell patch–clamp recordings of mHb neurons in acute brain slices from Wt and Tabac mice. Representative traces of nicotineevoked currents (*A*, 100 µM, 50 ms application) and corresponding concentration-response relationships (*B*, peak amplitudes ± SEM; *n* = 5–8 cells per genotype; *p* < 0.05 by 2-way ANOVA). Dose-response curves in *C* were calculated relative to the maximal response to nicotine from *B*. *D*, Mecamylamine (MEC) (3 µM, 3 min) inhibition of nicotine-evoked currents in neurons of Tabac mice. Representative current–clamp recordings (*E*) and quantification of action potentials upon local application of nicotine (1 µM, 3 s) in neurons of Wt and Tabac mice (*F*, mean firing frequency ± SEM; *n* = 4; *p* < 0.01). Numbers in parentheses represent number of neurons tested. All values expressed as mean ± SEM.

Increased nicotine-evoked currents in transgenic Tabac mice

Given the demonstration that the level of β 4 expression is rate-limiting for the function of $\alpha 3\beta 4\alpha 5$ receptors in vitro (Fig. 1), we were next interested in determining whether enhanced expression of Chrnb4 in Tabac neurons resulted in elevated nicotine-evoked currents in vivo. Previous studies have shown that neurons in the mHb express high levels of $\alpha 3\beta 4\alpha 5$ receptors (Quick et al., 1999). Accordingly, we employed patch-clamp recordings to measure nicotine-evoked currents in mHb neurons of Tabac mice. A large proportion of mHb neurons in Wt mice (n = 20 of N = 23 neurons recorded) responded to local fast application (50 ms) of nicotine (Fig. 4A,B). In Chrna3/eGFP-labeled mHb neurons of Tabac mice, nicotine elicited significantly increased peak currents in comparison with Wt littermates (on average, 3.4-fold at 100 µM nicotine, two-way ANOVA p < 0.05) (Fig. 3B). Similarly increased responses were obtained using acetylcholine (ACh) (data not shown). Dose-response curves for nicotine showed no significant differences between Wt and Tabac mice, indicating that the affinity of the receptors in the transgenic mice is not altered (Fig 3C). Application of mecamylamine, a nonselective potent inhibitor of $\alpha 4\beta 2^*$ and $\alpha 3\beta 4^*$ nAChRs (Bacher et al., 2009), resulted in a blockade of as much as 90% of the nicotine-elicited responses in Tabac mice (Fig. 3D). This finding demonstrates that the enhanced nicotine responses in Tabac neurons result directly from elevated levels of functional nAChRs.

To determine whether these additional receptors cause enhanced neuronal excitability, the firing rate of habenular neurons was measured in current–clamp assays in response to nicotine. Neurons from Wt and Tabac mice were silent at rest (–70 mV). Local nicotine application (1 μ M for 3 s) elicited single action potentials in Wt neurons, whereas nicotine induced a robust burst of action potentials with a 13-fold higher firing frequency on average in Tabac neurons (p < 0.005) (Fig. 4*E*,*F*). Together, these results indicate that the increased sensitivity of mHb neurons to nicotine in Tabac mice results from the presence of additional functional nAChRs rather than from changes in the nicotine affinity of existing receptors.

Tabac mice show strong aversion to nicotine consumption, and display nicotine-conditioned place aversion

We were next interested in the effects of elevated nAChR expression on the behavioral responses of Tabac mice to nicotine. Measurements of drinking volumes showed that Tabac mice consumed significantly less nicotine-containing water than Wt littermates (Fig. 4A,B). Because nicotine solutions have a bitter taste, nicotine was diluted in saccharin solution, and control experiments with a bitter solution (containing quinine) were performed. There were no differences in consumption of regular, sweetened, or bitter water between the two groups (Fig. 4A).

Next, we performed a free-choice consumption experiment in which mice were allowed to choose between regular water and water supplemented with different concentrations of nicotine (1-100 µg/ml) without saccharin. Analysis of the nicotine volume consumed relative to the total fluid intake (Fig. 4C) indicated that Tabac mice significantly avoided drinking nicotine solutions containing more than 5 μ g/ml nicotine (p < 0.05; two-way ANOVA), while Wt showed no preference between water and nicotine solutions below 50 µg/ml and avoided drinking the highest concentration of nicotine solution tested. It is possible that the decrease in drinking resulted from the negative consequences of hyperactivation of the autonomic nervous system, leading to gastric distress or nausea. However, we observed no significant differences in body weight (Fig. 4D), micturition, and digestion before and during the nicotine consumption experiments.

As an independent measure of the effects of nicotine in Tabac mice, conditioned place aversion (CPA) assays were performed. Because conditioning to nicotine is dependent on both concentration and strain (O'Dell and Khroyan, 2009), we measured CPA in Wt C57BL/6 littermates at 0.5 mg nicotine/kg body weight. Under these conditions, we observed neither a preference for nor an aversion to nicotine. In contrast, strong conditioned place aversion to nicotine was observed in Tabac mice (Fig. 4E). These data both confirm the conclusions of the nicotine consumption assays and demonstrate that negative reward learning associated to nicotine is strongly increased in Tabac mice. We conclude that overexpression of the B4 subunit in vivo leads to an increase in functional $\alpha 3\beta 4^*$ receptors, resulting in a higher sensitivity to the aversive properties of nicotine.

Lentiviral-mediated expression of the α 5 D397N variant in the medial habenula reverses nicotine aversion in Tabac mice

Our observations showed that the $\alpha 5$ D397N variant reduces $\alpha 3\beta 4\alpha 5$ nicotine-evoked currents in oocytes (Fig. 1) and that the mHb contains a high density of native $\alpha 5$ nAChR subunits in combination with $\alpha 3\beta 4$ subunits (Fig. 2). They suggested that the enhanced nicotine aversion evident in Tabac mice could be



Figure 4. Tabac mice consume less nicotine and show conditioned place aversion. *A*, *B*, Nicotine consumption in a no-choice paradigm (1 drinking bottle). *A*, Drinking volumes (ml/mouse/day) of water, sweet water (2% saccharine), and bitter water (5 mM quinine). The tested period of consumption was 3 d (paired t test; p < 0.05). *B*, The dose of nicotine consumed expressed as the mg of nicotine consumed per day considering the body weight of the mouse (mg/kg/d) (p < 0.05). Wt mice (n = 10); Tabac mice (n = 10). *C*, Nicotine consumption in a two-bottle-choice paradigm between water and water containing the indicated nicotine concentrations, expressed as percent of the volume of nicotine solution consumed divided by the total fluid intake and per day. Each concentration was tested for 3 d. Dashed line at 50% indicates no preference. Wt mice (n = 7); Tabac mice (n = 6); two-way ANOVA; p < 0.05. *D*, Body weight of Wt and Tabac mice after nicotine drinking tests. *E*, Nicotine administration (0.5 mg/kg) elicits place aversion to nicotine-paired environment in Tabac mice. Following conditioning, Tabac mice preferred the saline-paired environment compared with Tabac mice (*p < 0.05). Wt mice (n = 6); Data are expressed as time spent in drug-paired environments after drug conditioning. All values are expressed as mean \pm SEM.

reversed by expression of the $\alpha 5$ variant in the mHb. To test this hypothesis, we employed lentiviral vectormediated transduction to express the $\alpha 5$ D397N in mHb neurons of Tabac mice. We bilaterally injected either control lentivirus (LV-PC) or the LV- $\alpha 5$ D397N (LV- $\alpha 5$ N) viruses in Tabac mice. As shown in Figure 5B, immunostaining for the mCHERRY reporter of LV- $\alpha 5$ N expression or direct fluorescence derived from the control LV demonstrated that the lentiviral-transduced area corresponds with that occupied by $\alpha 3\beta 4^*$ -eGFP– labeled neurons in the mHb of Tabac mice.

Given that the maximal difference in nicotine consumption in Tabac mice occurred at 25 μ g/ml nicotine (Fig. 5C), mice were again given a twobottle choice test to measure nicotine aversion. These experiments were performed in Tabac mice backcrossed to the inbred mouse line C57/BL6 (Fig. 5C), which has been shown to have a high basal level of self-selection of nicotine (Meliska et al., 1995; Robinson et al., 1996; Glatt et al., 2009), and in Tabac mice outbred between FBV/N mixed and Swiss Webster (Fig. 5D). As shown in Figure 5C, in C57/BL6 Tabac mice, injection of the LV- α 5N virus reversed their nicotine aversion compared with mice injected with the control virus. In outbred Tabac mice, we observed no alteration in nicotine aversion in Tabac mice injected with the control virus (Fig. 5D) with respect to uninjected Tabac mice (Fig. 5C). Importantly, infection with LV- α 5N virus reversed nicotine aversion in Tabac mice (Fig. 5D), restoring nicotine consumption in α 5D397N-



Figure 5. Reversal of nicotine aversion in Tabac mice by lentiviral vector–mediated expression of the α 5 D397N variant in the mHb. *A*, Schematic representation of the lentiviral (LV) constructs used for brain stereotactic injections. LV- α 5N carries the mouse α 5 variant D397N followed by an IRES and the mCHERRY reporter. The control virus (LV-PC) carries mCHERRY fused to the N-terminus of the transmembrane domain of the platelet-derived growth factor receptor (TM-PDGF) via a linker domain. *B*, Coronal brain sections of Tabac mice stereotactically injected in the mHb with the indicated lentivirus. Colocalization of eGFP fluorescence driven by the transgene in Tabac mice and mCHERRY red fluorescence for LV-PC, or mCHERRY immunofluorescence for mice injected with LV- α 5N. Two-bottle choice nicotine consumption in Tabac mice after stereotactic bilateral injection of control (LV-PC) and mutated α 5 (LV- α 5N) lentiviral constructs in the mHb. Tabac mice backcrossed to C57BL6; n = 4 for LV- α 5N; p < 0.05 (C) and Tabac mice hybrid of FVB/N and Swiss Webster; n = 8 for LV-PC; n = 9 for LV- α 5N (D). IRES, internal ribosomal entry site; LTR, long terminal repeat; WPRE, woodchuck postregulatory element. Scale bars: *B*, *C*, *D*, 100 µm.

infected Tabac mice to levels evident in Wt mice (Fig. 5C). These results demonstrate a major role for the mHb in nicotine consumption.

Discussion

Human genetic studies have established an association between the Chrnb4-CHRNA3-CHRNA5 locus and tobacco use (Thorgeirsson et al., 2008; Weiss et al., 2008; Saccone et al., 2009; Amos et al., 2010b). Here we report a novel mouse model (Tabac mice) with altered nicotine consumption and conditioned place aversion caused by elevated levels of B4, enhanced nicotine-evoked currents, and increased surface expression of functional nAChRs at endogenous sites. The ability of β 4 to enhance nicotine-evoked currents depends on a single critical residue (S435) located in the intracellular vestibule of the receptor. Interestingly, modeling studies revealed that one of the most common SNPs associated with tobacco usage, D398N in the α 5 subunit, also maps to this domain. Functional analyses of this variant demonstrate that alterations in this domain can result in profound effects on nicotineevoked currents. Based on our studies in Tabac mice in which enhanced current is associated with increased aversion to nicotine, we predicted that the $\alpha 5$ variant (corresponding to D397N in mice) should increase nicotine consumption consistent with its association with smoking. To test this idea, and given that the mHb contains a very high concentration of endogenous α 3 β 4 α 5 receptors, as well as elevated levels of β 4 driven by the Tabac transgene, we introduced the $\alpha 5$ variant by viral-mediated transduction in habenular neurons of Tabac mice. The reversal of the nicotine aversion achieved in Tabac mice observed in these experiments demonstrates that the mHb plays a major regulatory role in nicotine consumption.

Three main points are addressed in this study. First, changes both in the coordinated expression of $\alpha 3\beta 4\alpha 5$ subunits (i.e., overexpression of the $\beta 4$ subunit) as well as in single residues (i.e., *in vivo* viral-mediated expression of the $\alpha 5$ D397N variant) have a strong influence on nicotine consumption in mice. This is consistent with recent genome-wide association studies that have identified SNPs in both regulatory and coding regions of the *Chmb4–CHRNA3–CHRNA5* gene cluster that are associated with nicotine dependence (Levitin et al., 2008; Thorgeirsson et al., 2008; Saccone et al., 2009). Thus, our studies provide a new model for further exploration of the involvement of $\alpha 3\beta 4\alpha 5$ nAChR function in nicotine consumption.

Second, our studies demonstrate that the intracellular vestibule of the $\alpha 3\beta 4\alpha 5$ receptor exerts an important effect on nicotine-evoked currents. The high

concentration of charges in this membrane-associated domain is conserved in the superfamily of Cys-loop receptors (Kelley et al., 2003; Unwin, 2005; Carland et al., 2009). Electrostatic calculations by homology with the Torpedo nAChR predict that $\alpha 3\beta 4\alpha 5$ receptors form a highly electronegative vestibule most likely to promote a stabilizing environment for cation outflow. The change in current amplitude produced by substitutions of charged residues (S435R and D397N) in this domain of the receptor predicts that alterations of the electrostatic charge of the vestibule are critical for receptor function. This finding is consistent with studies of the inner vestibule in other Cys-loop receptor channels. For example, in 5HT3A receptors, the substitution of arginine-positive residues increased channel conductance, whereas introduction of basic residues in this domain of $\alpha 1$ glycine receptors decreases glycine-evoked currents (Kelley et al., 2003; Carland et al., 2009). Numerous reports have linked the α 5 D398N polymorphism to smoking incidence (Saccone et al., 2009; Bierut, 2008, 2010). Incorporation of D398N α 5 variant into $\alpha 4\beta 2$ -containing receptors in transfected cells results in a twofold reduction in epibatidine-evoked calcium currents without a change in surface expression (Bierut et al., 2008), consistent with the reduction in nicotine-evoked current amplitudes reported here upon incorporation of this variant into $\alpha 3\beta 4$ containing nAChRs.

Taken together, these observations support the hypothesis that substitution of this charged residue modifies the vestibule electrostatic charge but not the number of receptors incorporated into the plasma membrane. In contrast, the increase in receptor-surface expression in Tabac mice and the identification of a single unique residue in the β 4 subunit (S435R) suggest that the β 4 subunit is rate-limiting for the formation of α 3 β 4 α 5 nAChRs. S435R is essential for the increase of currents observed in this study upon overexpression of the β4 subunit; further, S435R can confer this property to β 2 subunits. Although the precise role of S435 is not yet clear, it may be involved in stabilizing nAChR complexes, export of the receptors from the endoplasmic reticulum, interactions with trafficking proteins, or alterations in its turnover from the cell surface. For example, rapsyn binding to the α -helical domains corresponding to the inner vestibule of $\alpha 1\beta 1\gamma \delta$ nAChR is required for surface expression of this receptor (Lee et al., 2009). It also has been shown that binding of UBXD4 to the cytoplasmic loop of α 3 can interfere with its ubiquitination and, consequently, the number of α 3-containing receptors at the cell surface (Rezvani et al., 2010). Thus,

our studies point to two mechanisms mediated by specific residues in the inner vestibule: one leading to ion permeation changes within a single $\alpha 3\beta 4\alpha 5$ receptor and the other leading to increased surface expression of receptors by native $\beta 4$.

Third, the studies presented here demonstrate that the mHb has a major influence on the control of nicotine consumption. These studies extend the findings from previous studies on the role of the habenula in nicotine withdrawal and drug addiction (Taraschenko et al., 2007; Jackson et al., 2008; Salas et al., 2004, 2009) and, recently, in nicotine self-administration (Fowler et al., 2011). Although multiple interconnected brain regions, including the prefrontal cortex, VTA, thalamus, striatum, and amygdala, are affected by chronic use of nicotine, the habenular system is emerging as an important station in pathways regulating the behavioral effects of nicotine (Rose, 2007; De Biasi and Salas, 2008; Changeux, 2010). The mHb projects mainly to the IPN, which, in turn, seems to inhibit the motivational response to nicotine intake. Thus, inactivation of the mHb and IPN both result in increased intake of nicotine (Fowler et al., 2011). Consistent with these studies, overexpression of B4 results in enhanced activity of the mHb, resulting in the opposing effect: aversion to nicotine. Reversal of nicotine aversion in Tabac mice overexpressing β 4 is achieved by expression of the $\alpha 5$ D397N in mHb neurons. Similarly, $\alpha 5$ re-expression in the habenula of $\alpha 5$ KO mice normalizes their nicotine intake (Fowler et al., 2011).

Taken together, these studies provide direct evidence that the mHb acts as a gatekeeper in the control of nicotine consumption and that the balanced contribution of $\beta4$ and $\alpha5$ subunits is critical for this function. Further analyses of nAChR function in the habenulo-IPN tract and its associated circuitry will be required to fully understand the addictive properties of nicotine.

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