

Modafinil enhances thalamocortical activity by increasing neuronal electrotonic coupling

Francisco J. Urbano*, Elena Leznik†, and Rodolfo R. Llinás‡

Department of Physiology and Neuroscience, New York University Medical Center, 550 First Avenue, New York, NY 10016

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Modafinil (Provigil, Modiodal), an antinarcotic and mood-enhancing drug, is shown here to sharpen thalamocortical activity and to increase electrical coupling between cortical interneurons and between nerve cells in the inferior olivary nucleus. After irreversible pharmacological block of connexin permeability (i.e., by using either 18 β -glycyrrhetic derivatives or mefloquine), modafinil restored electrotonic coupling within 30 min. It was further established that this restoration is implemented through a Ca²⁺/calmodulin protein kinase II-dependent step.

dual-pair recording | *in vitro* | patch clamp | voltage-sensitive dye imaging | Provigil

Modafinil, a (diphenylmethyl) sulfinyl-2 acetamide derivative (also known as Provigil and Modiodal), has recently been used for the treatment of excessive sleepiness associated with narcolepsy (1, 2). Unlike amphetamine, modafinil-induced Fos activation is weak in cortical and thalamic areas as well as in dopamine-responsive areas, such as the striatum (3, 4). Modafinil may also inhibit dopamine 2-like receptors (5) and GABA release (6–10). The latter could be counteracted by serotonergic antagonist pretreatment (6–8, 11). Modafinil action has also been associated with increased glutamatergic, adrenergic, and histaminergic activity (for a review, see ref. 12). Thus, although modafinil has a large potential in neurology and psychiatry, its precise mechanism of action is still unclear.

The thalamocortical system, the most likely target for this drug, is a functionally recurrent neuronal circuit supported by two main interconnected anatomical regions, the thalamus and the cortex. The thalamus is populated by two distinct sets of neurons: cortically projecting relay elements that form glutamatergic excitatory synapses in the cortex which implement a thalamocortical loop, and local thalamic GABAergic neurons (13). The latter, the reticular thalamic neurons and the intrinsic inhibitory interneurons, form two local recurrent inhibitory circuits by recurrent collateral activation from the projecting neurons (14, 15). Corticothalamic afferents activate, very effectively, thalamic relay cell dendrites (16, 17). The recurrent loop is intrinsically oscillatory, both at thalamic as well as cortical levels, and supports inhibitory γ -band rhythmicity. This thalamocortical–corticothalamic system is directly related to functional global brain states (18, 19) in which cellular oscillatory activity is ubiquitous (13, 15). During activated states, noninvasive magnetoencephalographic recordings in humans (20) and *in vivo* recordings in cats (21) indicated that γ -band activity (30–70 Hz) is supported by recurrent activity between thalamic and cortical structures. Aberrations in such thalamocortical dynamics serve as the basis for a wide class of neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders, which have been grouped under the name thalamocortical dysrhythmia syndrome (22).

The neocortex contains pyramidal and nonpyramidal cells that show morphological diversity of dendritic and axonal arborization (23–26). Pyramidal cells are the largest broad class of neurons and provide most of the corticocortical and extracortical projections (26), receiving both excitatory as well as inhibitory postsynaptic potentials (27, 28). The nonpyramidal cells are GABAergic inhibitory interneurons that generate inhibitory postsynaptic potentials (27, 29).

Voltage-sensitive dye imaging (VSDI) experiments demonstrated that inhibitory interneurons play a major role in shaping the cortical activation elicited by afferent inputs (30, 31). Interneurons also exhibit intrinsic oscillatory activity in the γ -band frequency (32), and gap junction block reduces synchrony among them (33). The coexistence of both electrical and chemical synapses between inhibitory interneuron networks allows enhanced timing of spike transmission (34–40). Electrical coupling may contribute to several functional network properties in the cortex, such as spike synchronization and coincidence detection (34, 35, 38, 41–43). However, a too-extensive electrical coupling as initially shown by Connors *et al.* (44) for immature cortex may have a “shunting effect,” drastically decreasing the input resistance (45), which explains the absence of epileptiform discharges observed during the first weeks of postnatal development of neocortex (46) when there is extensive electrical coupling.

The aim of this work was to characterize the effects of modafinil on both the thalamocortical and inferior olivary (IO) systems of rodents studied *in vitro* by using VSDI and electrophysiological recordings. Our results indicate that modafinil enhances thalamocortical activity by increasing gap junction coupling between cortical interneurons. A similar effect was observed between IO neurons. Moreover, modafinil-mediated effects required the activation of Ca²⁺/calmodulin protein kinase II (CaMKII).

Results

Modafinil was applied to cortical (31) or to the more extensive, thalamocortical slices (47) by using either a fast-exchange superfusion system or local pressure injection onto the tissue. Concentrations ranged between 0.2 and 200 μ M, in accordance with previous *in vitro* studies (5, 10, 11). Modafinil effects were observed after 15 min of continuous application and lasted for as long as we continued recording. No significant reversal was observed after <30 min of washout.

Cortical and Thalamocortical VSDI. The effects of modafinil were initially studied *in vitro* by using VSDI in coronal slices through the somatosensory cortex, i.e., without thalamic or striatum/putamen synaptic inputs (31). Two bipolar stimulation electrodes were placed on the subcortical white matter to deliver trains of 10-Hz or 40-Hz electrical pulses (Fig. 1A). These stimulus frequencies were selected because they had been shown to be optimal in generating wide and columnar cortical activation, respectively (31, 47). VSDI

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Abbreviations: CaMKII, Ca²⁺/calmodulin protein kinase II; EPSC, excitatory postsynaptic current; IO, inferior olivary; VB, ventrobasal; VSDI, voltage-sensitive dye imaging.

*Present address: Laboratorio de Fisiología y Biología Molecular, Universidad de Buenos Aires-Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas de Argentina (UBA-CONICET), Buenos Aires, Argentina.

†Present address: Department of Pathology, Taub Institute, Columbia University, New York, NY 10032.

‡To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: llinar01@med.nyu.edu.

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reduced the VSDI responses to control levels. Similar results were obtained by using mefloquine.

Dual Neuronal Impalement of Cortical Interneurons. A wide range of gap junction blockers prevented the effect of modafinil on the thalamocortical system. To investigate directly whether modafinil was augmenting electrotonic coupling, we carried out simultaneous dual whole-cell recording of electrically coupled interneurons in the cortex (Fig. 3C). After injection of a hyperpolarizing pulse to one interneuron (Fig. 3C, cell A, black trace), the adjacent cell (cell B, black trace) rapidly responded with a smaller change in membrane potential with a similar time course. In the presence of modafinil (Fig. 3C, red traces), the voltage in cell A decreased, but that in cell B increased compared with control values (Fig. 3C, black traces), indicating increased electrotonic coupling between these cells. Coupling coefficients (51) were calculated as the response amplitude in the coupled cell divided by the amplitude in the injected cell. The mean coupling coefficients were 70% larger in the presence of modafinil (100 μ M) (Fig. 3D).

Dual Neuronal Impalement of IO Neurons. We studied the effects of modafinil on IO neurons because they are extensively interconnected by dendrodendritic gap junctions (52). IO neurons have been well characterized as generating both synchronous rhythmic firing and coherent subthreshold oscillations (53–57). Modafinil (100–150 μ M) reduced the input resistance of IO neurons (Fig. 4A, red traces) compared with control conditions (Fig. 4A, black traces). Modafinil also brought subthreshold oscillations (Fig. 4B, black trace) to suprathreshold for action potential generation (Fig. 4B, red trace). The same effects were observed in seven other IO neurons. Note, however, that modafinil did not block the h-current ($n = 4$ neurons). These effects are consistent with an increase in the electrical coupling between IO neurons as seen in interneurons (Fig. 3).

Simultaneous recordings from adjacent IO neurons showed a clear increase in electrotonic coupling (Fig. 4C Left, black traces) in the presence of modafinil (Fig. 4C Left, red traces). There was a significant difference between the mean coupling coefficients before and after application modafinil (Fig. 4C Right).

Molecular Mechanism. To study the molecular mechanism by which modafinil may increase electrotonic coupling, we examined the effect of modafinil in the presence of the gap junction blocker mefloquine. Mefloquine (50 μ M; Fig. 4D, blue traces) alone increased the input resistance of the injected cell (Fig. 4D, cell A, compare black and blue traces) while reducing the amplitude of the voltage step in the coupled cell (Fig. 4D, cell B, compare black and blue traces), which indicates that less current was passing between the cells. Application of modafinil after mefloquine further increased the input resistance of cell A while reducing further the input resistance of the coupled cell (Fig. 4D, red traces). This effect was seen in three pairs of IO neurons. In one pair of IO neurons, the application of mefloquine after modafinil blocked electrical coupling. These findings indicate that modafinil increases electrical coupling by a mechanism that does not compete with that of mefloquine.

At this point it became important to determine whether modafinil facilitated thalamocortical activity after mefloquine washout. Because mefloquine has been described as slow-acting (50), slices were incubated for 45 min in 20 μ M mefloquine and transferred to the recording chamber where they were superfused with artificial cerebrospinal fluid. After 50 min of washout, local application of modafinil increased both the area and intensity of the VSDI signal elicited by 10-Hz white matter stimulation (Fig. 5A). This increase was observed in three slices. Larger modafinil-mediated facilitation was seen after a longer period of mefloquine washout in four slices (data not shown). Modafinil not only increased the peak of the response to stimulation but also increased the slope of the response

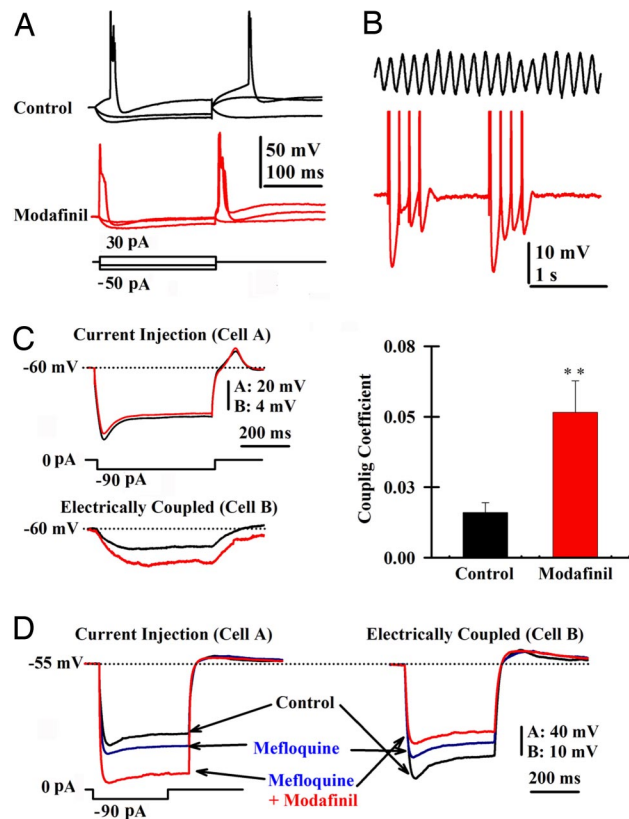


Fig. 4. Modafinil increases electrotonic coupling among IO neurons. (A) Single-patch recording of membrane potential changes before (black) and after local modafinil application (150 μ M, red). Note the increased input conductance. (B) Patch recordings of subthreshold oscillations in an IO neuron in control conditions (7 Hz, black) and after local application of modafinil (red). Modafinil made oscillation amplitude reach action potential threshold. (C Left) Superimposed membrane potential responses to a hyperpolarizing pulse before (black) and after modafinil (red) application recorded in a pair of IO neurons. (Right) Plot of mean coupling coefficient before (black; 0.016 ± 0.005) and after modafinil (150 μ M, red bar; 0.052 ± 0.011 ; $n = 7$ pairs). **, $P = 0.007$. (D) Superimposed membrane potential responses in control (black), 50 μ M mefloquine, and 150 μ M modafinil in the presence of 2 μ M tetrodotoxin. Note that the coupled neuron's membrane potential amplitude decreased even in the presence of modafinil.

to the first stimulus from 3.1 $\text{DF/F} \times \text{ms}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5B, black dotted line) to 4.2 $\text{DF/F} \times \text{ms}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5B, red dotted line).

Gap Junction Exteriorization and CaMKII. The ability of modafinil to rescue thalamocortical activity after mefloquine block suggested the possibility that exteriorization of new gap junctions could be the mechanism responsible for the return of electrotonic coupling. Gap junction exteriorization usually requires the activation of intracellular kinase pathways (58–60). In the presence of KN-93 (10 μ M, a broad spectrum inhibitor of CaMKII), the VSDI cortical signals were not affected by modafinil, as shown in the VSDI images of the slices (Fig. 5C) and pixel profiles (Fig. 5D). The same result was observed in six different cortical slices. Modafinil facilitated the VSDI signal in the presence of 2 μ M KT5720 (a PKA-selective inhibitor) (data not shown, $n = 3$ slices). Modafinil-dependent increases in the electrotonic coupling between of IO neurons were not seen in the presence of KN-93, although there was a clear depolarizing effect (see membrane potential in Fig. 5E), as described recently (61). This effect was seen in two coupled pairs of IO neurons.

In conclusion, modafinil increases electrical coupling by a mechanism that does not compete with mefloquine and depends on a

by using IGOR Pro-based software (WaveMetrics, Inc., Lake Oswego, OR).

Recording and Analysis of VSDI Signals. VSDI recording were obtained as described previously (31, 47). Slices were stained with either the voltage-sensitive dye RH 414 or di-4ANEPPS (0.025 mg/ml; Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR). Optical signals were monitored with either fast CCD camera HR Deltaron 1700, Fujix (MathWorks, Inc., Natick, MA) or MICAM Ultima (1 ms per frame, vs. 0703, BrainVision, Inc, Irvine, CA). Changes in membrane potentials were evaluated as fractional fluorescence, DF/F_0 ($F - F_0/F_0$, where F_0 is the base fluorescence level). Movies were analyzed off-line, and the viewpoint of the signals was changed from the default value of 90° to 45° to display VSDI signals as 3D figures.

Patch Recordings. Coupling was studied in cortical interneurons and IO neurons by injecting negative current pulses into one neuron of a pair and recording the voltage response in both neurons of the pair. Because voltage deflection of coupled neurons ranged from <1 mV to a few mV, the mean of 10–20 individual trials is displayed. Coupling coefficients were calculated as the response amplitude in the noninjected cell divided by the response amplitude in the injected cell. Patch recordings were made at 32°C in a fast-exchange chamber (3–4 ml/min). Neuron pairs were chosen by eye based on the proximity of their somata. Patch electrodes were made from borosilicate glass and had resistances of 3–10 MΩ when filled with a high potassium intracellular solution (130 mM KMeSO₃/10 mM NaCl/10 mM Hepes/1 mM EGTA/4 mM MgATP/0.4 mM NaGTP/2 mM MgCl₂/10 mM sucrose/10 mM phosphocreatine, pH 7.3, 290 mOsm). Amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid-mediated synaptic currents were

recorded with a high cesium/QX314 (high Cs⁺) intracellular solution (120 mM CsMeSO₃/8 mM NaCl/10 mM Hepes/5 mM EGTA/10 mM tetraethylammonium chloride/4 mM MgATP/0.5 mM GTP/7 mM phosphocreatine, pH 7.3, 290 mOsm). Recordings were achieved by using a motorized multimicromanipulator MPC200/ROE200 (Sutter Instrument, Novato, CA) attached to a MultiClamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices) in combination with the PCLAMP 10.0 software (Molecular Devices). Biocytin was sometimes included in the intracellular solution to permit characterization of the recorded neuron's morphology by using the ABC kit-DAB method.

Pharmacological Reagents. Drugs were purchased from Sigma–Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). KT5720 was purchased from EMD Biosciences (La Jolla, CA). KN-93 was purchased from Tocris (Ellisville, MO). The voltage-sensitive dyes were purchased from Molecular Probes. Mefloquine was provided by the Drug Synthesis and Chemistry Branch, Developmental Therapeutics Program, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health (Bethesda, MD).

Statistical Analysis. Sigmaplot 10.0 (Systat Software, Inc., San Jose, CA) was used for statistical analysis. Statistics were performed with two-tailed unpaired and paired Student's *t* tests. Differences were considered significant if at least *P* < 0.05. Population statistics are presented here as mean ± SEM.

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