

1 **Dopamine signaling in wake promoting clock neurons is not required for the normal**
2 **regulation of sleep in *Drosophila***

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30 **Declarations**

31 **Author contributions**

32 FF-C performed and analyzed the patch-clamp recordings, CH-L performed and analyzed the
33 cAMP imaging and the behavioral experiments with permanent dopamine receptor
34 knockdown, AP performed the behavioral experiments with conditional dopamine receptor
35 knockdown, NL did the statistical analysis, MH and MS performed the histology, OTS, NIM and
36 CH-F designed the study and supervised the experiments, CH-F analyzed the behavioral
37 experiments with conditional dopamine receptor knockdown and wrote the paper with
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39

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51 Not applicable

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56 **Abstract**

57 Dopamine is a wakefulness promoting neuromodulator in mammals and fruit flies. In
58 *D. melanogaster*, the network of clock neurons that drives sleep/activity cycles comprises both
59 wake and sleep promoting cell types, indicating that the sleep-wake circuitry is intimately
60 linked to the circadian clock. The large and small ventrolateral neurons (l-LN_vs and s-LN_vs) have
61 been identified as wake-promoting neurons within the clock neuron network. The l-LN_vs are
62 innervated by dopaminergic neurons, and earlier work proposed that dopamine signaling
63 raises cAMP levels in the l-LN_vs and thus induces excitatory electrical activity (action potential
64 firing), which results in wakefulness and inhibits sleep. Here, we test this hypothesis by
65 combining cAMP imaging and patch-clamp recordings in isolated brains. We find that
66 dopamine application indeed increases cAMP levels and depolarizes the l-LN_vs, but
67 surprisingly, it does not result in increased firing rates. Down-regulation of the excitatory
68 dopamine receptor, Dop1R1 in the l- and s-LN_vs, but not of Dop1R2, abolished the
69 depolarization of l-LN_vs in response to dopamine. This indicates that dopamine signals via
70 Dop1R1 to the l-LN_vs. Down-regulation of Dop1R1 or Dop1R2 receptors in the l- and s-LN_vs
71 does not affect sleep. Unexpectedly, we find a moderate decrease of daytime sleep with
72 down-regulation of Dop1R1 and of nighttime sleep with down-regulation of Dop1R2. Since the
73 l-LN_vs do not utilize Dop1R2 receptors and the s-LN_vs respond also to dopamine, we conclude
74 that the s-LN_vs are responsible for the observed decrease in nighttime sleep. In summary,
75 dopamine signaling in the wake-promoting LN_vs is not required for daytime arousal, but likely
76 promotes nighttime sleep via the s-LN_vs.

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80 **Keywords:** wakefulness, sleep, clock neurons, dopamine, cAMP, patch-clamp recording

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82 **Significance statement**

83 In insect and mammalian brains, sleep promoting networks are intimately linked to the
84 circadian clock, and the mechanisms underlying sleep and circadian timekeeping are
85 evolutionarily ancient and highly conserved. Here we show that dopamine, one important
86 sleep modulator in flies and mammals, plays surprisingly complex roles in the regulation of
87 sleep by clock containing neurons. Dopamine inhibits neurons in a central brain sleep center to
88 promote sleep and excites wake-promoting circadian clock neurons. It is therefore predicted
89 to promote wakefulness through both of these networks. Nevertheless, our results reveal that
90 dopamine acting on wake promoting clock neurons promotes sleep, revealing a previously
91 unappreciated complexity in the dopaminergic control of sleep.

92 Introduction

93 The fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* has become a powerful and widely-used model system
94 for sleep research (reviewed by Cirelli, 2009; Dubowy and Sehgal, 2017; Helfrich-Förster,
95 2018). As in mammals, the sleep-like state of *Drosophila* is associated with reduced sensory
96 responsiveness and reduced brain activity (Nitz et al., 2002; van Swinderen et al., 2004), and is
97 subject to both circadian and homeostatic regulation (Hendricks et al., 2000; Shaw et al.,
98 2000). Furthermore, as in mammals, dopamine and octopamine (the insect functional
99 homolog to noradrenaline) promote arousal in fruit flies (Andretic et al., 2005; Kume et al.,
100 2005; Lima and Miesenböck, 2005; Wu et al., 2008, Lebestky et al., 2009; Crocker et al., 2010;
101 Riemensperger et al., 2011), and GABA promotes sleep (Agosto et al., 2008; Gmeiner et al.,
102 2013). Dopamine is most probably the strongest wake-promoting neuromodulator in fruit flies
103 (reviewed by Birman, 2005). Hyperactive and sleepless *fumin* mutants carry a mutation in the
104 dopamine transporter, which transports released dopamine back into the dopaminergic
105 neurons (Kume et al., 2005). The *fumin* mutation results in a hypomorphic transporter, which
106 leads to permanently high dopamine levels that continue to activate dopamine receptors on
107 the postsynaptic neurons. Similar wake-promoting and sleep-reducing effects are observed
108 when dopaminergic neurons are excited (Lima and Miesenböck, 2005; Wu et al., 2008, Shang
109 et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012; Ueno et al., 2012). Conversely, mutants deficient for tyrosine
110 hydroxylase (TH), the rate-limiting enzyme for dopamine synthesis in the nervous system, have
111 reduced dopamine levels and increased sleep throughout the day (Riemensperger et al., 2011).

112 In *D. melanogaster* the mushroom bodies (Joiner et al., 2006; Pitman et al., 2006; Yuan
113 et al., 2006), the pars intercerebralis (Foltényi et al., 2007; Crocker et al., 2010) and lateralis
114 (Chen et al., 2016), the fan-shaped body of the central complex (Liu et al., 2012; Ueno et al.,
115 2012; Pimentel et al., 2016; Donlea et al., 2018) have been identified as brain regions that
116 regulate sleep. In addition, the Pigment-Dispersing Factor (PDF)-expressing large and small
117 ventral Lateral Neurons (l-LN_vs and s-LN_vs), which belong to the circadian clock neurons have

118 been identified as wake-promoting neurons within the flies circadian clock neuron network
119 (Parisky et al., 2008; Sheeba et al., 2008a; Shang et al., 2008; Lebestky et al., 2009; Guo et al.,
120 2016; Guo et al., 2018; Potdar and Sheeba, 2018; Liang et al., 2019).

121 The l-LN_vs respond to both dopamine and octopamine through increases in cAMP, but
122 the responses to dopamine are clearly stronger (Shang et al., 2011). Furthermore, the l-LN_vs
123 are directly light sensitive and promote arousal and activity in response to light, especially in
124 the morning (Shang et al., 2008; Sheeba et al., 2008b; Fogle et al., 2011). Despite the strong
125 responses of the l-LN_vs to dopamine and their proposed role in controlling arousal, it is not
126 known how dopamine-signaling to the l-LN_vs increases wakefulness and inhibits sleep.
127 Receptivity to dopamine in the s-LN_vs has not been previously addressed. Here, we down-
128 regulated the activating D1-like dopamine receptors Dop1R1 and Dop1R2 in the wake
129 promoting l- and s-LN_vs and examined the consequences on intracellular cAMP levels, resting
130 membrane potential, and electrical firing rate in the electrophysiologically accessible l-LN_vs.
131 Moreover, we analyzed the behavioral consequences of Dop1R1/ Dop1R2 knock-down in the l-
132 and s-LN_vs on sleep and activity rhythms. As expected, we find that the knockdown of Dop1R1
133 reduces cAMP and electrophysiological responses to dopamine in the l-LN_vs, confirming that
134 dopamine signals via Dop1R1 receptors. Unexpectedly, we find that the down-regulation of
135 the excitatory Dop1R1 receptor slightly decreases daytime sleep, suggesting that dopamine
136 signaling via Dop1R1 to the LN_vs usually promotes daytime sleep rather than wakefulness.
137 Finally, we find that dopamine also likely signals to the s-LN_vs via Dop1R2 receptors, and that
138 the down-regulation of these receptors decreases night-sleep. Collectively, these results cast
139 doubt on the currently held view of LN_vs as dedicated wake-promoting neurons, and suggest a
140 more complex regulation of sleep by these important clock neurons.

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142

143 **Material and Methods**

144 ***Fly stocks***

145 Flies were raised on *Drosophila* food (0.8 % agar, 2.2 % sugar-beet syrup, 8.0 % malt
146 extract, 1.8 % yeast, 1.0 % soy flour, 8.0 % corn flour and 0.3 % hydroxybenzoic acid) at 25 °C
147 under a 12 h:12 h light:dark (LD) cycle and transferred to 20 °C at an age of ~3 days.

148 To visualize TH-positive (dopaminergic) and the PDF-positive neurons we used *TH-Gal4*
149 (Friggi-Grelin et al., 2002) to drive *UAS-10xmyrGFP* in dopaminergic neurons and stained with
150 anti-GFP and anti-PDF. For visualizing presynapses of dopaminergic neurons and postsynapses
151 of PDF neurons, we expressed the vesicle marker synaptotagmin::GFP (*UAS-sytl/II::GFP*;
152 Bloomington) under control of *TH-Gal4* in dopaminergic neurons and a GFP labeled
153 postsynaptic protein - the Down syndrome cell-adhesion molecule (*UAS-dscam::GFP*; Wang et
154 al. 2004) - under control of *Pdf-Gal4* in PDF neurons. To visualize the spatial vicinity of
155 dopaminergic and PDF fibers we used Split-GFP imaging (= GFP Reconstitution Across Synaptic
156 Partners (GRASP); Feinberg et al., 2008): *yw;pdf-LexA/LexAop-GFP11;TH-Gal4/UAS-GFP1-10*
157 flies were used to express the GFP11 fragment in the PDF-expressing LN_s and the GFP1-10
158 fragment in dopaminergic neurons, respectively. *yw;pdf-LexA/LexAop-GFP11;TM6B.Tb/UAS-*
159 *GFP1-10* flies were used as controls.

160 In order to down-regulate the different dopamine receptors in all clock neurons or
161 only in the PDF neurons (s-LN_s and l-LN_s), we used *Clk856-Gal4* (Gummadova et al., 2009) or
162 *Pdf-Gal4* (Park et al., 2000), respectively to either express *UAS-Dop1R1_{RNAi}* (no. 31765,
163 Bloomington stock center), *UAS-Dop1R2_{RNAi}* (no. 26018, Bloomington stock center) or *UAS-*
164 *D2R_{RNAi}* (no. 26001, Bloomington stock center) alone, or to simultaneously express *UAS-*
165 *Dop1R1_{RNAi}* and *UAS-Dop1R2_{RNAi}*. The flies with the relevant Gal4 and UAS constructs (crossed
166 with *UAS-dicer2* flies) were taken as controls. In addition, we used an inducible Gal4 version,
167 termed GeneSwitch (GS) (Osterwalder et al., 2001), under the control of the *Pdf* promotor
168 (Depetris-Chauvin et al., 2011) to down-regulate Dop1R1 or Dop1R2 receptors in the PDF

169 neurons only during adulthood of the flies. GS is a fusion between the Gal4 binding, the NF κ B
170 activation and the human progesterone receptor ligand-binding domains, which is expressed
171 in the pattern dictated by the desired promoter but remains transcriptionally silent in the
172 absence of RU486 (RU), an analog of progesterone. RU was mixed to the food of the adult flies
173 in the Trikinetics monitors (see below). In all experiments *UAS-Dicer2* (no. 60012, Vienna
174 *Drosophila* RNAi Center, Wien, Austria) was expressed additionally to enhance the effect. For
175 simplicity we will call the experimental flies Clk856>Dop1Rx_{RNAi}, Pdf>Dop1Rx_{RNAi} or PDF-
176 GS>Dop1Rx_{RNAi}, where the 'x' stands for the relevant dopamine receptor. Their sleep and
177 activity profiles will always be depicted in red, while the relevant control flies are shown in
178 black.

179 For imaging experiments the above described *Clk856-Gal4* or *Pdf-Gal4* line was used to
180 express the ratiometric cAMP sensor *UAS-Epac1-camps* (Nikolaev et al., 2004), *UAS-dicer2* and
181 the RNAi-constructs for different dopamine-receptors (see above).

182

183 ***Immunostaining and microscopy***

184 For immunostaining, whole-mount brains were fixed in 4 % paraformaldehyde (PFA) in
185 phosphate buffered saline (PBS) for 2 hours at RT, followed by 4 washes in PBS containing
186 0.3 % TritonX-100 (PBT). They were blocked in 5 % normal goat serum (NGS) in PBT.
187 Subsequently, the specimens were incubated in the primary antibody solution overnight at
188 4 °C. The primary antibody solution contained GFP antibody (raised in rabbit, Molecular
189 Probes, A11122; dilution 1:1000) and PDF antibody (monoclonal mouse C7 antibody;
190 Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank at the University of Iowa; dilution 1:100). After rinsing
191 in PBT, fluorescence conjugated secondary antibodies (Alexa-Fluor® Dyes, Molecular Probes,
192 Carlsbad, CA) were applied overnight at 4 °C. The stained brains were finally embedded in
193 Vectashield and scanned with a Confocal Microscope (Leica TCS SPE, Wetzlar, Germany).

194

195 ***Ex vivo live-cAMP imaging***

196 Flies were well entrained to a LD 12:12 cycle and imaging always took place during the light
197 phase of the LD cycle (between ZT2 and ZT8). For imaging, flies were anesthetized on ice and
198 brains were dissected in cold hemolymph-like saline (HL3; Stewart et al., 1994) and mounted
199 at the bottom of a plastic petri dish in HL3. Brains were allowed to recover from dissection for
200 at least 10 min prior to imaging. An epifluorescent imaging setup (VisiChrome High Speed
201 Polychromator System, ZEISS Axioskop2 FS plus, Visitron Systems GmbH) with a 40x dipping
202 objective (ZEISS 40x/1,0 DIC VIS-IR) was used for all imaging experiments. Neurons were
203 localized using GFP-optics and were identified according to their position in the brain. Regions
204 of interest were defined on single cell bodies in the Visiview Software (version 2.1.1, Visitron
205 Systems GmbH). Time-lapse frames were acquired with 0.2 Hz for 12 min, exciting the CFP
206 fluorophore of the ratiometric cAMP sensor with light of 405 nm. Emissions of CFP and YFP
207 were detected separately by a CCD-camera (Photometrics, CoolSNAP HQ, Visitron Systems
208 GmbH) with a beam splitter. After measuring baseline CFP and YFP levels for ~100 s,
209 pharmacological treatments were bath applied drop-wise using a pipette. HL3 application
210 served as negative control and 10 μM NKH⁴⁷⁷ (an activator of all adenylate cyclases) as positive
211 control. Dopamine and SKF³⁸³⁹³ (a DopR1 agonist) were diluted in HL3 and were applied in an
212 end concentration of 1 mM and 0.1 mM, respectively. For Tetrodotoxin (TTX)-treatments,
213 brains were incubated in 2 μM TTX in HL3 for 20 min prior to imaging and dopamine was
214 diluted in 2 μM TTX in HL3 for the application. Inverse Fluorescence Resonance Energy
215 Transfer (iFRET) was calculated according to the following equation: $\text{iFRET} = \text{CFP} / (\text{YFP} -$
216 $\text{CFP} * 0.357)$ (Shafer et al., 2008). Thereby, CFP and YFP are background corrected raw
217 fluorescence data and 0.357 was determined as the fraction of CFP spillover into the YFP
218 channel in our imaging setup, which had to be subtracted from YFP fluorescence. Finally, iFRET
219 traces of individual neurons were normalized to base line levels and were averaged for each

220 treatment. For quantification and statistical comparison of response amplitudes of each
221 treatment or genotype, maximum iFRET changes were determined for individual neurons.

222

223 ***Ex vivo patch-clamp electrophysiology***

224 Three to nine days-old female flies were anesthetized with a brief incubation of the vial on ice,
225 brain dissection was performed in external recording solution which consisted of (in mM): 101
226 NaCl, 3 KCl, 1 CaCl₂, 4 MgCl₂, 1.25 NaH₂PO₄, 5 glucose, and 20.7 NaHCO₃, pH 7.2, with an
227 osmolarity of 250 mmol/kg (based on saline solution used by Cao and Nitabach, 2008). After
228 removal of the proboscis, air sacks and head cuticle, the brain was routinely glued ventral side
229 up to a sylgard-coated coverslip using a few microliters of tissue adhesive 3 M Vetbond. The
230 time from anesthesia to the establishment of the recordings was approximately 20 minutes
231 spent as following: l-LN_s were visualized by red fluorescence in *Pdf-RFP* flies (which express a
232 red fluorophore under the Pdf promoter, Ruben et al., 2012) using an Olympus BX51WI upright
233 microscope with 60X water-immersion lens and ThorLabs LEDD1B and TK-LED (TOLKET S.R.L,
234 Argentina) illumination systems. Once the fluorescent cells were identified, cells were
235 visualized under IR-DIC using a DMK23UP1300 Imaging Source camera and IC Capture 2.4
236 software. l-LN_s were distinguished from s-LN_s by their size and anatomical position. To allow
237 the access of the recording electrode, the superficial glia directly adjacent to l-LN_s somas was
238 locally digested with protease XIV solution (10 mg/ml, SIGMA-ALDRICH P5147) dissolved in
239 external recording solution. This was achieved using a large opened tip (approximately 20 μm)
240 glass capillary (pulled from glass of the type FG-GBF150-110-7.5, Sutter Instrument, US) and
241 gentle massage of the superficial glia with mouth suction to render the underling cell bodies
242 accessible for the recording electrode with minimum disruption of the neuronal circuits. After
243 this procedure, protease solution was quickly washed by perfusion of external solution.
244 Recordings were performed using thick-walled borosilicate glass pipettes (FG-GBF150-86-7.5,
245 Sutter Instrument, US) pulled to 7-8 MΩ using a horizontal puller P-97 (Sutter Instrument, US)

246 and fire polished to 9-12 M Ω . Recordings were made using a Multiclamp 700B amplifier
247 controlled by pClamp 10.4 software via an Axon Digidata 1515 analog-to-digital converter
248 (Molecular Devices, US). Recording pipettes were filled with internal solution containing (in
249 mM): 102 potassium gluconate, 17 NaCl, 0.085 CaCl₂, 0.94 EGTA and 8.5 HEPES, pH 7.2 with an
250 osmolarity of 235 mmol/kg (based on the solution employed by Cao and Nitabach 2008).
251 Gigaohm seals were accomplished using minimal suction followed by break-in into whole-cell
252 configuration using gentle suction in voltage-clamp mode with a holding voltage of -60 mV.
253 Gain of the amplifier was set to 1 during recordings and a 10 kHz lowpass filter was applied
254 throughout. Spontaneous firing was recorded in current clamp (I=0) mode. Analysis of traces
255 was carried out using Clampfit 10.4 software. For action potential firing rate calculation the
256 event detection tool of Clampfit 10.4 was used. Perfusion of external saline in the recording
257 chamber was achieved using a peristaltic pump (Ismatec ISM831). After 3 min of recording
258 basal conditions, 10 ml of Dopamine (1 mM) prepared in external saline were perfused, this
259 lasted approximately 3 minutes. Dopamine was then washed out with external saline
260 perfusion during 10 minutes. For basal condition, the number of action potentials on the last
261 minute before Dopamine application was counted. For Dopamine condition, the number of
262 action potentials was counted on the last minute of Dopamine perfusion. For wash out
263 condition, the number of action potentials was counted on the last minute of the recording. In
264 all cases, the firing rate in Hz was calculated by dividing the number of action potentials over
265 60 seconds. The membrane potential was assessed during the same periods for each
266 condition. All recordings were performed during the time-range of ZT6 to ZT9.

267

268 ***Recording of sleep and activity***

269 Locomotor activity of male 3-7 days old flies was recorded as described previously (Hermann-
270 Luibl et al., 2014) using *Drosophila* Activity Monitors by TriKinetics. The fly tubes were fixed by
271 a Plexiglas frame in such a way that the infrared beam crossed each fly tube at a distance of

272 ~3 mm from the food. The food consisted of 4 % sugar in agar. For the gene-switch
273 experiments, RU486 (mifepristone, Sigma) was dissolved in 80 % ethanol and mixed with the
274 food to a final concentration of 200 mg/ml. In the controls the same amount of ethanol
275 (vehicle) was added to the food. Flies were monitored for 9 days in 12 h:12 h light-dark cycles
276 12:12 (LD 12:12) with a light intensity of 100 lux at 20 °C and then released into constant
277 darkness (DD). Recording days 3-7 in LD were used for sleep and activity analysis.

278 Sleep analysis was performed with a custom-made Excel Macro (provided by T. Yoshii;
279 Gmeiner et al., 2013; Hermann-Luibl et al., 2014). Sleep was defined as the occurrence of 5
280 consecutive recording minutes without interruption of the infrared-beam within the TriKinetics
281 monitor. For average daily sleep profiles, sleep was calculated in 1-hour-bins and averaged
282 over the 5 selected days for each single fly and genotype. Furthermore, the total amount of
283 sleep was averaged over the 5 days, as well as the amount of sleep during the light phase and
284 the dark phase and the average sleep bout duration. Every experiment was repeated at least
285 twice and at a minimum 30 flies of each genotype were used for the analysis.

286 The same 5 days of recordings used for sleep evaluation were also analyzed for fly
287 activity. Daily average activity profiles were calculated for each fly as described in Schlichting
288 and Helfrich-Förster (2015). From these, the total activity (number of infrared-beam crosses)
289 of every fly during the entire day, the dark-phase and the light-phase were calculated and
290 plotted for each genotype. An activity index (the average of beam crosses per active minute)
291 was also calculated but not shown, since it correlated with the total activity. The free-running
292 period of each fly was determined from the recordings in DD to judge whether down-
293 regulating the dopamine receptors changed the speed of the circadian clock.

294

295 **Statistics**

296 Statistical analyses of sleep and activity data were performed using the R environment (v3.5.3).
297 Data were tested for normal distribution with a Shapiro-Wilk normality test ($p > 0.05$). The three

298 data groups “whole day”, “day” and “night” were tested separately. If any group wasn’t
299 normally distributed the whole dataset was handled as not normally distributed. In this case
300 the Mann–Whitney *U* test was used. A T-test was used for normally distributed data in case of
301 variance homogeneity (Levene’s test, $p>0.05$). Period length was tested for statistically
302 significant influences of dopamine receptor RNAi and RU treatment by a two-way ANOVA
303 followed by a post-hoc test with Bonferroni correction. Statistical tests on live imaging data
304 were also done with the R environment. We compared the Epac1-camps inverse FRET ratio
305 between vehicle and test compounds and used the Wilcoxon signed rank test with Bonferroni
306 correction for multiple comparisons of maximum changes. Exceptions are stated in the figure
307 legends. Electrophysiological data (membrane potential and firing rate) was analyzed with
308 Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test, the alpha parameter was 0.05 and the post hoc test used
309 the Fisher's least significant difference criterion. Bonferroni correction was applied as the
310 adjustment method.

311 **Results**

312 **Dopaminergic neurons are presynaptic to the ventrolateral clock neurons (l-LN_{v,s} and s-LN_{v,s})** 313 **that arborize in the accessory medulla**

314 Both, the s-LN_{v,s} and l-LN_{v,s} express the neuropeptide PDF and send dendrites into the
315 accessory medulla (AME) - the insect clock center (Helfrich-Förster, 1995; Helfrich-Förster et
316 al., 2007). These neurons are thought to be wake-promoting: their activity coincides with the
317 morning peak of wakefulness (Liang et al., 2019), and their optogenetic excitation, along with
318 other lateral neuron types, reduces sleep (Guo et al., 2018). The s-LN_{v,s} project into the
319 dorsolateral brain and are there connected to other clock neurons and several neurons
320 downstream of the clock that control activity and sleep (reviewed in King and Sehgal, 2020).
321 The l-LN_{v,s} are conspicuous clock neurons with wide arborizations in the ipsilateral and
322 contralateral optic lobe and connections between the brain hemispheres (Helfrich-Förster et
323 al., 2007). In the AME, their neurites overlap with those of dopaminergic neurons (Hamasaka
324 and Nässel, 2006; Shang et al., 2011). Microarray studies show that they express genes
325 encoding the excitatory dopamine receptors Dop1R1, Dop1R2, and DopEcR) and the inhibitory
326 dopamine D2R, in addition to the excitatory octopamine receptors OAMB and OA2 (Kula-
327 Eversole et al., 2010; Shang et al., 2011). The AME of *Drosophila* can be subdivided into two
328 parts: a central part and a ventral elongation (Fig. 1). Whereas the central part is innervated by
329 several clock neurons including the PDF-positive small ventrolateral neurons (s-LN_{v,s}), the
330 ventral elongation only receives fibers from the l-LN_{v,s} (Helfrich-Förster et al., 2007; Schubert et
331 al., 2018). Previous studies already suggested that the PDF-fibers in the ventral elongation of
332 the AME are predominantly postsynaptic (of dendritic nature) (Helfrich-Förster et al., 2007)
333 and in close vicinity to dopaminergic fibers (Shang et al., 2011; Fig. 1a), but whether the
334 dopaminergic fibers were of presynaptic nature was unclear. By expressing the vesicle marker
335 *Synaptotagmin (Sytl/II)::GFP* in the *TH-Gal4*-positive (dopaminergic) neurons and the
336 postsynaptic marker *Dscam::GFP* in the *Pdf-Gal4*-positive neurons we show here that this is

337 indeed the case (Fig. 1). Prominent Syt1/II::GFP staining was present in *TH-Gal4*-positive fibers
338 that are aligned along the ventral elongation (Fig. 1c) and Dscam::GFP was strongly localized in
339 the PDF fibers of the entire ventral elongation of the AME (Fig. 1d). Using GRASP imaging, we
340 confirmed previous results that PDF- and *TH-Gal4*-positive fibers have contact in the central
341 part of the AME and its ventral elongation (Shang et al., 2011): reconstituted GFP signals were
342 present in both parts of the AME (Fig. 1b), whereas no reconstituted GFP signals were
343 detected in control flies. In summary, we show here that the dopaminergic neurons are
344 presynaptic to the l-LN_vs and s-LN_vs.

345

346 **Dopamine signals to different clock neurons**

347 It was shown previously that dopamine application to isolated brains elevates cAMP levels in
348 the l-LN_vs (Shang et al., 2011). We confirmed this result and extended it to the other clock
349 neurons that have arborizations in the central part of the AME, i.e. the s-LN_vs, the dorsolateral
350 neurons (LN_ds) and the anterior dorsal neurons 1 (DN_{1a}s) (Helfrich-Förster et al., 2007;
351 Schubert et al., 2018). The l-LN_vs showed the strongest responses to dopamine, which were
352 even higher after blocking synaptic transmission by TTX, suggesting that inhibitory signals from
353 other interneurons usually reduce the cAMP response to dopamine (Fig. 2a). Significant
354 responses to dopamine that persisted under TTX were also present in the LN_ds (Fig. 2b) and
355 the DN₁s (Fig. 2c). The s-LN_vs also exhibited significantly increased cAMP levels after dopamine
356 application; but these cells are hard to image, because they are very small and often located
357 underneath the l-LN_vs, so that their responses cannot be unequivocally separated from those
358 of the l-LN_vs. Therefore, we could only image a few of them without application of TTX (Fig. 3).

359 Next, we tested whether these cAMP responses were mediated by Dop1R1 or Dop1R2
360 receptors. Knockdown of Dop1R1 by RNAi in all clock neurons, reduced cAMP responses in the
361 l-LN_vs (Fig. 4a, d), the DN₁s (Fig. 4c, f) and the LN_ds (Fig. 4b, e), whereas the down-regulation of
362 Dop1R2 appeared to reduce cAMP levels in all neuron clusters slightly but not significantly (Fig.

363 4a-c). Notably, the cAMP signals in the LN_ds were quite variable when Dop1R1 or Dop1R2 were
364 down-regulated; some neurons still responded to dopamine, while others did not (Fig. 4e). The
365 same applies for the DN₁s knockdown of Dop1R1; half of the cells responded, the other half
366 did not (Fig. 4f). However, with knockdown of Dop1R2, only two of the measured 22 DN₁ cells
367 did not respond to dopamine (Fig. 4f). Altogether, this suggests that some LN_ds and DN₁s
368 express Dop1R1 and others Dop1R2. Consistent with this hypothesis the simultaneous down-
369 regulation of Dop1R1 and Dop1R2 abolished the responses to dopamine in all evaluated
370 neurons (Fig. 4). Down-regulation of the inhibitory dopamine receptor D2R, slightly increased
371 the responses to dopamine in the I-LN_vs (Fig. 4a, d) and the LN_ds (Fig. 4b, e); but in contrast to
372 a previous study (Shang et al., 2011) this increase was not significant. To make sure that the
373 neurons were able to increase their cAMP levels in our setup, we measured cAMP levels in
374 responses to NKH⁴⁷⁷, an adenylyl cyclase activator, and found that they all responded (Fig. 5).

375 In summary, our results show that the responses to dopamine are predominantly
376 mediated by Dop1R1 receptors in the I-LN_vs and DN₁s and by Dop1R1 and Dop1R2 receptors in
377 the LN_ds. As described above, we could not identify the relevant Dop1R1 receptors of the s-
378 LN_vs, because these cells were hidden by the I-LN_vs or just located too close to them, which
379 prevented a successful imaging in all the preparations with down-regulated Dop1R receptors.

380

381 **Effects of Dop1R1 and Dop1R2 down-regulation in the clock neurons on sleep**

382 To study the consequences of reduced dopamine signaling in the LN_v clock neurons on sleep,
383 we first down-regulated the activating Dop1R1 and Dop1R2 receptors in all clock neurons
384 (using *Clk856-Gal4*). We did not see any significant changes in sleep pattern (Fig. 6a), total
385 sleep, or sleep during day and night, nor on sleep bout duration (Fig. 6b) with down-regulation
386 of each of the receptors alone or down-regulation of both receptors simultaneously. However,
387 the activity level during the day was significantly reduced by down-regulation of each of the
388 two dopamine receptors alone or in combination (Fig. 6c, d). Furthermore, in the case of

389 Dop1R2 down-regulation, activity during the night was significantly increased (Fig. 6d). The
390 free-running period in constant darkness did not change when dopamine receptors were
391 knocked down, only the power of the rhythm was decreased slightly by knockdown of both
392 dopamine receptors simultaneously (Table 1).

393 Since among all clock neurons the s-LN_s and l-LN_s have been the ones with the most
394 prominent role in sleep and arousal regulation, we decided to repeat Dop1R1 and Dop1R2
395 receptor down-regulation more specifically using the *Pdf-Gal4* driver. The l- and s-LN_s
396 collectively produce the first daily peak of wakefulness (Renn et al., 1999; Grima et al., 2004;
397 Stoleru et al., 2004; Rieger et al., 2006; Potdar and Sheeba, 2018; Liang et al., 2019) and the l-
398 LN_s mediate light driven arousal (Parisky et al., 2008; Shang et al., 2008; Sheeba et al., 2008a;
399 Lebestky et al., 2009). We repeated Dop1R1 and Dop1R2 receptor down-regulation in these
400 neurons using the *Pdf-Gal4* driver. Once again, the general sleep pattern was not affected by
401 the down-regulation (Fig. 7a), but total sleep and mean sleep bout duration were significantly
402 reduced after all manipulations (down-regulation of Dop1R1 or Dop1R2 and simultaneous
403 down-regulation of both receptors) (Fig. 7b). Closer inspection revealed that Dop1R1 down-
404 regulation reduced sleep significantly during the day, whereas Dop1R2 down-regulation
405 reduced sleep significantly both during the day and night, as did the down-regulation of both
406 receptors simultaneously. The effects of dopamine receptor down-regulation on activity levels
407 were mixed. We did not observe any effects on daytime activity, but nighttime activity was
408 slightly but significantly increased by Dop1R2 receptor knockdown and knockdown of both
409 receptors (Fig. 7c, d). We did not observe any effects on the period or the power of the free-
410 running rhythms in DD (Table 1). In summary, these results suggest that reduction in dopamine
411 signaling in the LN_s has no effect on the speed of the clock. However, dopamine signaling
412 unexpectedly appears to increase sleep via Dop1R1 receptors during the day and via Dop1R2
413 receptors during the day and the night. These results should be treated with caution because

414 they were achieved by constitutive knockdown of dopamine receptors, which may cause
415 developmental effects.

416 To assess possible developmental effects of Dop1R1 or Dop2R1 knockdown on the PDF
417 neurons, we repeated our LN_v knockdown experiments using GeneSwitch (GS) (Depetris-
418 Chauvin et al., 2011). Feeding flies the progesterone derivative RU (dissolved in ethanol) only
419 during adulthood restricted the expression of RNAi constructs to the adult stage. We used two
420 types of controls. (1) *Pdf-GS>uas-Dop1Rx* fed with ethanol alone served as controls for *Pdf-*
421 *GS>uas-Dop1Rx* flies fed with RU (Fig. 9). (2) *Pdf-GS* and *uas-Dop1Rx* flies, in which the
422 dopamine receptors were not down-regulated and which were fed either with ethanol alone
423 or with RU, served as controls for the effect of RU (Fig. 8). In the latter, we did not find any
424 systematic difference in activity and sleep between the RU and ethanol-fed flies (Fig. 8). Only
425 in *Pdf-GS* controls did we find that nocturnal activity was significantly decreased during the last
426 few hours of the night after feeding RU. In the experimental animals (with dopamine knock-
427 down), the differences between controls and permanent Dop1R2-knockdown during the day
428 disappeared when this receptor knocked-down conditionally, suggesting that these were
429 caused by developmental effects. Nevertheless, the significant reduction in daytime sleep after
430 Dop1R1 knockdown and the reduction of night sleep after Dop1R2 knockdown persisted (Fig.
431 9a, b). Furthermore, the conditional down-regulation of dopamine receptors increased activity
432 during the day and the night (Fig. 9c, d). Since the effects of conditional dopamine receptor
433 down-regulation were in the same direction as the constitutive receptor down-regulation and
434 in the opposite direction of RU feeding (Fig. 8) in *Pdf-GS* controls, we conclude that these are
435 specific and indeed caused by down-regulation of the dopamine receptors in the PDF neurons.

436 We observed a highly significant period-lengthening effect of RU application in *Pdf-GS*
437 controls and all the crosses with the *Pdf-GS* strain (Table 1), which has been reported in the
438 past (Depetris-Chauvin et al., 2011; Frenkel et al., 2017). Therefore, we conclude that

439 conditional dopamine receptor down-regulation itself does not affect the free-running period,
440 which is in line with the results obtained via permanent dopamine receptor knockdown.

441

442 **Dopamine depolarizes the I-LN_vs via Dop1R1, but does not increase their firing rate**

443 When observed electrophysiologically using whole-cell patch clamp, the I-LN_vs fire
444 spontaneous action potentials in bursting or tonic modes (e.g. Cao and Nitabach, 2008; Sheeba
445 et al., 2008b; Depetris-Chauvin et al., 2011; Fogle et al., 2011; Muraro and Ceriani, 2015). As
446 reported previously, when whole-cell patch clamp recordings are performed in the morning
447 and established rapidly after brain dissection (Muraro and Ceriani, 2015), all I-LN_vs fire action
448 potentials in the bursting mode (Fig. 10). To further explore the role of dopamine on the
449 physiology of I-LN_vs, we bath-applied dopamine across control I-LN_vs (Fig. 10a), and in I-LN_vs in
450 which Dop1R1 (Fig. 10b) or Dop1R2 (Fig. 10c) had been down-regulated using RNAi constructs
451 driven by the *Pdf-Gal4*. Control and Dop1R2_{RNAi} I-LN_vs displayed robust depolarizations upon 1
452 mM dopamine application (Fig. 10a, c, and d). In contrast, we observed significantly reduced
453 dopamine induced depolarization when Dop1R1 expression was down-regulated (Fig. 10b and
454 d). This result is consistent with cAMP imaging experiments (Fig. 4) and supports the
455 hypothesis that dopamine responses in I-LN_vs are mainly mediated by the Dop1R1 receptor.
456 Although we observed a small trend toward a decrease in firing rate upon dopamine
457 application, this was not statistically significant (Fig. 11). These results suggest that, in I-LN_vs,
458 dopamine plays a modulatory role as it depolarizes the membrane without significantly
459 changing the firing rate. Thus, dopamine might make the I-LN_vs more sensitive to excitatory
460 inputs.

461 **Discussion**

462 **All tested clock neurons respond to dopamine**

463 Here we show that dopamine acts broadly on the neurons of the *Drosophila* clock network
464 that have neurites in the AME, a neuropil that is invaded by presynaptic terminals of
465 dopaminergic neurons. All of these clock neurons responded to dopamine with increases in
466 cAMP. The responses of the l-LN_vs and DN₁s were almost completely blocked by down-
467 regulation of Dop1R1 receptors but not significantly by down-regulation of Dop1R2 receptors,
468 whereas the responses of some LN_ds were blocked by down-regulation of Dop1R1 and others
469 by down-regulation of Dop1R2 receptors. Dopamine responses of all LN_d cells were eliminated
470 by simultaneous down-regulation of both receptors. This indicates that the LN_ds employ
471 different activating dopamine receptors.

472 Since the electrophysiological and cAMP responses of the l-LN_vs were not blocked by
473 down-regulating Dop1R2 receptors we conclude that these neurons employ only Dop1R1
474 receptors. Unfortunately, we could not assess the nature of the Dop1R receptors in the s-LN_vs,
475 but we hypothesize that these employ Dop1R2 receptors for the following reason: the down-
476 regulation of Dop1R2 receptors in the s-LN_vs and l-LN_vs significantly reduces the flies' night-
477 time sleep. Since the l-LN_vs appear not to utilize Dop1R2 receptors this effect is most likely
478 mediated by the s-LN_vs.

479

480 **Dopamine signaling on the s-LN_vs appears to promote sleep**

481 Multiple lines of evidence are consistent with a wake promoting role for the s-LN_vs (e.g. Liang
482 et al., 2019). We were therefore surprised to find that the knockdown of the excitatory
483 dopamine receptor Dop1R2 produce decreases in nighttime sleep. We note here that the s-
484 LN_vs have been shown to promote sleep during the entire day via PDF-signaling to the
485 AllatostatinA (AstA) positive 'PLP' neurons (Chen et al., 2016), which were recently shown to
486 be identical with the Lateral Posterior clock neurons (LPNs) (Ni et al., 2019). Optogenetic

487 excitation of the LPNs promotes sleep (Guo et al. 2018) and glutamatergic and AstA neurites
488 provide excitatory inputs on to the sleep promoting dorsal fan-shaped body (Donlea et al.,
489 2011; Liu et al., 2012; 2016; Ueno et al., 2012; Pimentel et al., 2016; Ni et al., 2019). Thus, our
490 results, along with previous work, suggest that: 1) the role of the s-LN_vs in the control of sleep
491 is more complex than previously acknowledged, 2) dopamine likely increases cAMP levels in
492 the s-LN_vs via Dop1R2, 3) the s-LN_vs excite the sleep promoting LPNs, which subsequently
493 activate the dorsal fan-shaped body neurons leading to sleep. Thus, down-regulation of
494 Dop1R2 receptors in the s-LN_vs would therefore be predicted to reduce sleep, which fits to our
495 observations and is consistent with the literature. However, we also must acknowledge the
496 possibility that the s-LN_vs might promote both sleep and wakefulness at different times.
497 Recent work on the DN1_p class of clock neurons showed that the temporal codes of firing in
498 these cells shape sleep (Tabuchi et al. 2018), suggesting that some clock neurons can switch
499 between sleep and wake promoting modes through changes in their patterns of firing. The
500 same may prove true of the s-LN_vs.

501

502 **Dopamine signaling on the l-LN_vs is not wake-promoting**

503 The l-LN_vs were reported to be strongly wake-promoting (Sheeba et al., 2008a; Chung et al.,
504 2009; Shang et al., 2011), but it was not clear if dopamine-signaling was responsible this effect.
505 Here, we could not detect wake-promoting effects of dopamine signaling on the PDF neurons.
506 In contrast, down-regulation of the excitatory Dop1R1 and Dop1R2 receptors in these neurons
507 (along with the s-LN_vs) slightly increased wakefulness. Night-sleep decreased after knockdown
508 of Dop1R2 receptors, while day-sleep decreased after knockdown of Dop1R1 receptors. Our
509 physiological observations make it clear that and Dop1R1 receptors are expressed by the l-
510 LN_vs. This evidently speaks against a wake-promoting role of dopamine signaling to l-LN_vs.

511 The present study supports the findings of Ueno et al. (2012) who found that the
512 ablation of the l-LN_vs did not eliminate the strong arousal effects of dopamine, thereby

513 suggesting that dopamine does not drive the wake-promoting role of the I-LN_vs. In fact, our
514 results suggest a moderate sleep-promoting effect of dopamine signaling on the I-LN_vs, despite
515 of the fact that dopamine depolarizes the I-LN_vs, potentially making them more excitable.
516 Glutamate, GABA, and histamine inhibit the I-LN_vs (Cao and Nitabach, 2008; Schlichting et al.,
517 2016). While GABAergic inputs to I-LN_vs have a clear role in the promotion of sleep (Agosto et
518 al., 2008; Parisky et al., 2008; Chung et al., 2009; Gmeiner et al., 2013), such a role has not yet
519 been demonstrated for histamine or glutamate. Other putative silencing neuromodulators of
520 the I-LN_vs are glycine (Frenkel et al., 2017) and serotonin (Yuan et al., 2005, 2006), but how
521 these different signals interact to regulate the I-LN_vs' command over wakefulness is still an
522 open question.

523 Our study does not call into question the wake-promoting role of the I-LN_vs. The
524 ablation of the I-LN_vs increases sleep, which demonstrates that their wake-promoting influence
525 exceeds their sleep-promoting one (Chung et al., 2009). Furthermore, the I-LN_vs are electrically
526 the most active during the day when the flies are awake (Sheeba et al., 2008b; Shang et al.,
527 2011) and the electrical hyperexcitation of the I-LN_vs increases activity at night and disrupts
528 nocturnal sleep (Sheeba et al., 2008a). Thus, the I-LN_vs are firing during the day, thereby
529 promoting daytime wakefulness, and their firing is decreased at night when flies maintain their
530 deepest sleep. The wake promoting neuromodulators octopamine and acetylcholine act on I-
531 LN_vs (Kula-Eversole et al., 2010; Muraro and Ceriani, 2015). But the result described above,
532 lead to the surprising conclusion that dopamine does not act wake-promoting neuromodulator
533 of the I-LN_vs.

534 In any case, the sleep-promoting role of dopamine via the I-LN_vs is moderate when
535 compared to the sleep-promoting effects of the fan-shaped body neurons that lack
536 dopaminergic input (Liu et al., 2012; Ueno et al., 2012). Thus, dopamine signaling via the fan-
537 shaped body has a stronger impact on sleep than dopamine signaling via the I-LN_vs or the s-
538 LN_vs. The precise role played by dopaminergic inputs to I-LN_vs and their modulatory effect on

539 the integration of the multiple excitatory and inhibitory afferences received by these
540 important arousal neurons awaits further research.

541

542 **Dopamine has different effects on the fan-shaped body neurons and the PDF neurons**

543 Dop1R1 and Dop1R2 receptors have already been implicated in the control of sleep in previous
544 studies. Lebestky et al. (2009) showed that the rescue of Dop1R1 receptors in the l-LN_vs of
545 Dop1R1 mutants can partially rescue the flies' normal sleep pattern, which fits our observation
546 that the l-LN_vs utilize Dop1R1 receptors. Liu et al. (2012) and Ueno et al. (2012) showed that
547 dopaminergic neurons signal via Dop1R1 receptors on neurons in the fan-shaped body
548 whereas Pimentel et al. (2016) demonstrated a role of Dop1R2 receptors in the fan-shaped
549 body. Here we suggest that dopamine signals via Dop1R2 receptors on the s-LN_vs. Although
550 the PDF neurons and the fan-shaped body neurons respond to dopamine via the same
551 activating receptors and in both cases via an increase in cAMP levels, the electrical responses
552 of the neurons to dopamine appear to be different.

553 In the fan-shaped body neurons, the increase of cAMP leads to an upregulation of the
554 voltage-independent leak current K⁺ channel "Sandman" and its translocation to the plasma
555 membrane (Pimentel et al., 2016). Consequently, the fan-shaped body neurons switch to long-
556 lasting hyperpolarization (OFF state), which keeps the fruit flies awake. The Rho-GTPase-
557 activating protein Crossveinless-c locks the fan-shaped body neurons in the OFF state (Donlea
558 et al., 2014) until unknown mechanisms flip the neurons back to the ON state. Thus, Dop1R1/2
559 receptors silence neurons in the fan-shaped body via the increase of cAMP levels (Liu et al.,
560 2012; Ueno et al., 2012; Pimentel et al., 2016).

561 Our results indicate a very different effect of Dop1R1 receptor signaling in the l-LN_vs.
562 The neurons depolarized in response to dopamine and this effect was blocked after knock-
563 down of Dop1R1 receptors. Thus, dopamine excites the l-LN_vs as predicted, but does not
564 increase their firing rate. The main effect of dopamine perfusion in our *ex-vivo* preparation was

565 a robust and reversible depolarization of the membrane, which should make I-LN_vs more
566 sensitive to excitatory inputs. Thus, the effect of dopamine on the I-LN_vs may be context-
567 dependent. Lebestky et al. (2009) aroused the flies by repetitive air puffs and found that
568 dopamine reduced the flies' hyperactivity in response to this excitation, while it increased
569 spontaneous nocturnal activity. Both effects were mediated via Dop1R1 receptors. Although
570 Lebestky et al. (2009) traced the dopamine effects on startle-induced hyperactivity to the
571 central complex, we cannot exclude that similar mechanisms work in the I-LN_vs. Therefore, it
572 will be most interesting to study the effects of Dop1R1 receptor knock-down in the I-LN_vs on
573 sleep and activity of flies in the context of stimulus-induced arousal, to test not only the role of
574 dopaminergic inputs to I-LN_vs in the context of basal sleep-wake activity, but also in the
575 context of environmentally stimulated arousal or in the presence of challenges to the sleep
576 homeostat, such as in the generation of a sleep rebound phenomenon after a night of sleep
577 deprivation.

578 In summary, dopamine appears to have different modulatory effects on the fan-
579 shaped body neurons and the PDF neurons - inhibiting the former and exciting the latter. In
580 both cases, dopamine signaling increases sleep, though in different ways and to different
581 degrees. Dopamine signaling to the fan-shaped body is strongly sleep promoting, while
582 dopamine signaling to the PDF neurons is weakly sleep promoting and, in case of the I-LN_vs,
583 perhaps dependent on the arousal state of the flies.

584

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798 **Table 1.** Rhythmic parameters of the free-running rhythms under constant darkness (DD)

	rhythmic	period (\pm SD)	relative power (\pm SD)
<i>UAS-dicer2;clk856-Gal4;UAS-Dop1R1_{RNAi}</i>	94 %	23.82 \pm 0.41	3950.63 \pm 1145.38
<i>UAS-dicer2;clk856-Gal4;UAS-Dop1R2_{RNAi}</i>	100 %	23.93 \pm 0.40	4637.78 \pm 1399.28
<i>UAS-dicer2;clk856-Gal4;UAS-Dop1R1R2_{RNAi}</i>	84 %	23.83 \pm 0.44	2687.00 \pm 772.08*
<i>UAS-dicer2;clk856-Gal4</i>	97 %	24.03 \pm 0.46	3709.97 \pm 1146.97
<i>UAS-dicer2;Pdf-Gal4;UAS-Dop1R1_{RNAi}</i>	97 %	23.93 \pm 0.33	6496.61 \pm 1652.04
<i>UAS-dicer2;Pdf-Gal4;UAS-Dop1R2_{RNAi}</i>	97 %	24.09 \pm 0.41	5315.03 \pm 2031.54
<i>UAS-dicer2;Pdf-Gal4;UAS-Dop1R1R2_{RNAi}</i>	97 %	24.00 \pm 0.31	3752.74 \pm 1485.88
<i>UAS-dicer2;Pdf-Gal4</i>	100 %	24.31 \pm 0.34	6966.94 \pm 1699.23
<i>UAS-dicer2;;UAS-Dop1R1_{RNAi}</i>	100 %	23.70 \pm 0.42	4812.78 \pm 1702.03
<i>UAS-dicer2;;UAS-Dop1R2_{RNAi}</i>	100 %	23.75 \pm 0.26	4198.81 \pm 1351.07
<i>UAS-dicer2;;UAS-Dop1R1R2_{RNAi}</i>	100 %	23.66 \pm 0.34	4135.06 \pm 1298.63
<i>UAS-dicer2;Pdf-GS;UAS-Dop1R1_{RNAi} + Eth</i>	100 %	23.74 \pm 0.35	2833.94 \pm 720.94
<i>UAS-dicer2;Pdf-GS;UAS-Dop1R1_{RNAi} + RU</i>	100 %	24.18 \pm 0.54**	2668.28 \pm 365.25
<i>UAS-dicer2;Pdf-GS;UAS-Dop1R2_{RNAi} + Eth</i>	94 %	23.84 \pm 0.34	3886.97 \pm 978.24
<i>UAS-dicer2;Pdf-GS;UAS-Dop1R2_{RNAi} + RU</i>	97 %	24.87 \pm 0.52**	2865.97 \pm 461.19
<i>UAS-dicer2;Pdf-GS + Eth</i>	100 %	23.76 \pm 0.24	4120.34 \pm 715.72
<i>UAS-dicer2;Pdf-GS + RU</i>	100 %	24.46 \pm 0.42**	4332.97 \pm 894.48
<i>UAS-dicer2;;UAS-Dop1R1_{RNAi} + Eth</i>	100 %	23.84 \pm 0.34	3686.97 \pm 978.24
<i>UAS-dicer2;;UAS-Dop1R1_{RNAi} + RU</i>	100 %	23.89 \pm 0.25	3608.44 \pm 830.90
<i>UAS-dicer2;;UAS-Dop1R2_{RNAi} + Eth</i>	100 %	23.81 \pm 0.30	3433.91 \pm 859.93
<i>UAS-dicer2;;UAS-Dop1R2_{RNAi} + RU</i>	100 %	23.81 \pm 0.36	3526.28 \pm 582.67

799 * significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in power between flies with down-regulated dopamine
800 receptors in all clock neurons in comparison to the relevant controls

801 ** highly significant differences ($p < 0.01$) after RU application in the *Pdf*-GeneSwitch (GS)
802 experiments

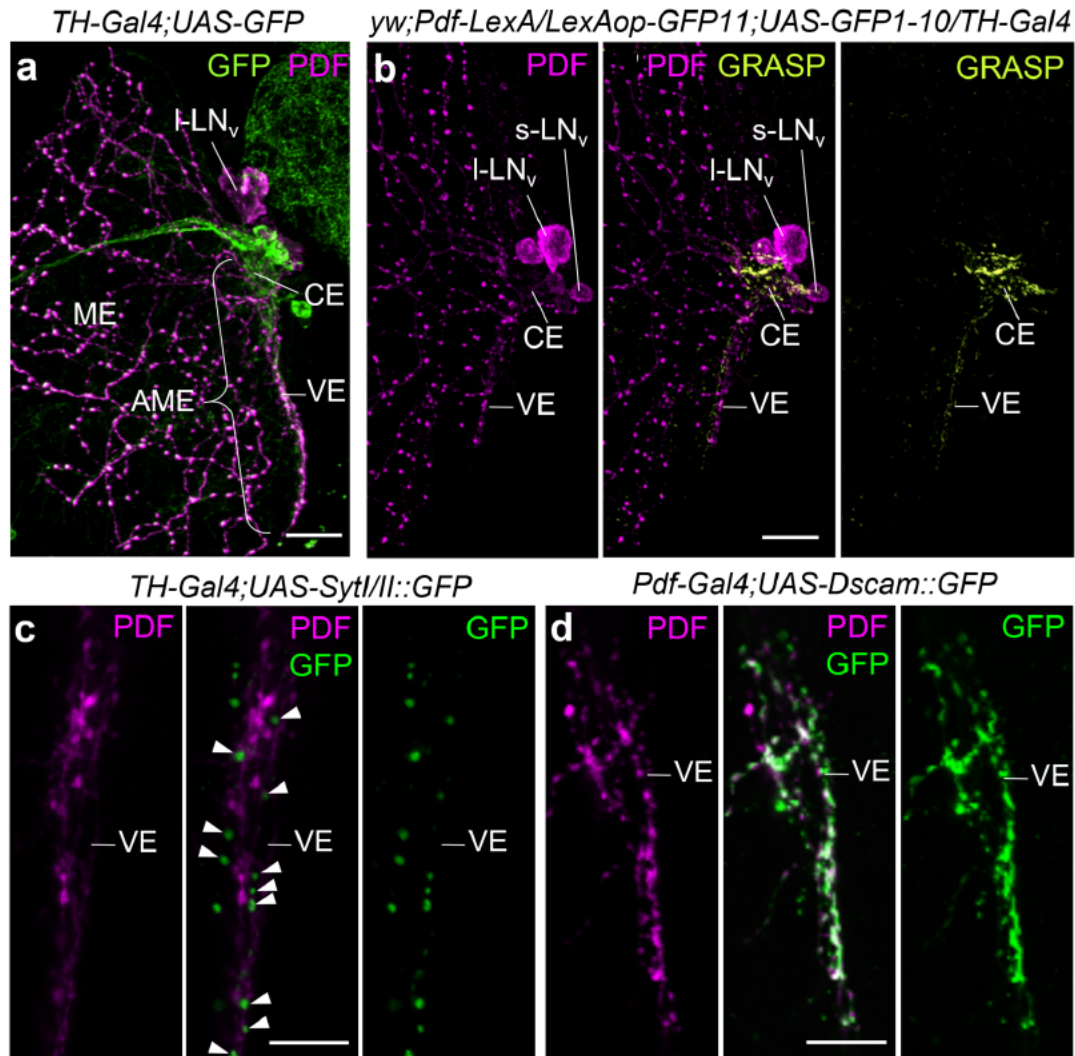


Figure 1. Staining of whole-mount brains showing the spatial vicinity of dopaminergic neurites (visualized with *TH-Gal4*) and neurites from the PDF-positive LN_s in the accessory medulla of one hemisphere. All pictures are overlays of 2 μm thick confocal stacks. **(a)** Medulla (ME) and accessory medulla (AME) labeled with anti-PDF (magenta) and anti-GFP (*TH-Gal4;UAS-10xmyrGFP*, green) (overlay of 10 confocal stacks). *TH-Gal4* and PDF overlap in the central part (CE) and ventral elongation (VE) of the AME. I-LN_vs, PDF-positive large ventrolateral neurons; s-LN_vs, PDF-positive small ventrolateral neurons. **(b)** GFP Reconstitution Across Synaptic Partners (GRASP) between *Pdf-Gal4* neurons and *TH-Gal4* neurons. GRASP signals are found in the CE and VE of the AME (overlay of 6 confocal sections). **(c)** Expression of the presynaptic marker Synaptotagmin::GFP (*Syt1/II::GFP*) in the *TH-Gal4* neurons (GFP; green) and co-staining against PDF (magenta) (overlay of 3 confocal stacks). GFP-positive vesicles (arrowheads) are present along the PDF-positive fibers in the VE. **(d)** Expression of the postsynaptic marker *Dscam::GFP* (green) in the *Pdf-Gal4*-positive I-LN_vs and co-staining with anti-PDF (magenta) (overlay of 3 confocal stacks). The PDF-positive fibers in the VE of the AME are predominantly dendritic. Scale bars = 20 μm in **a** and **b**, and 10 μm in **c** and **d**.

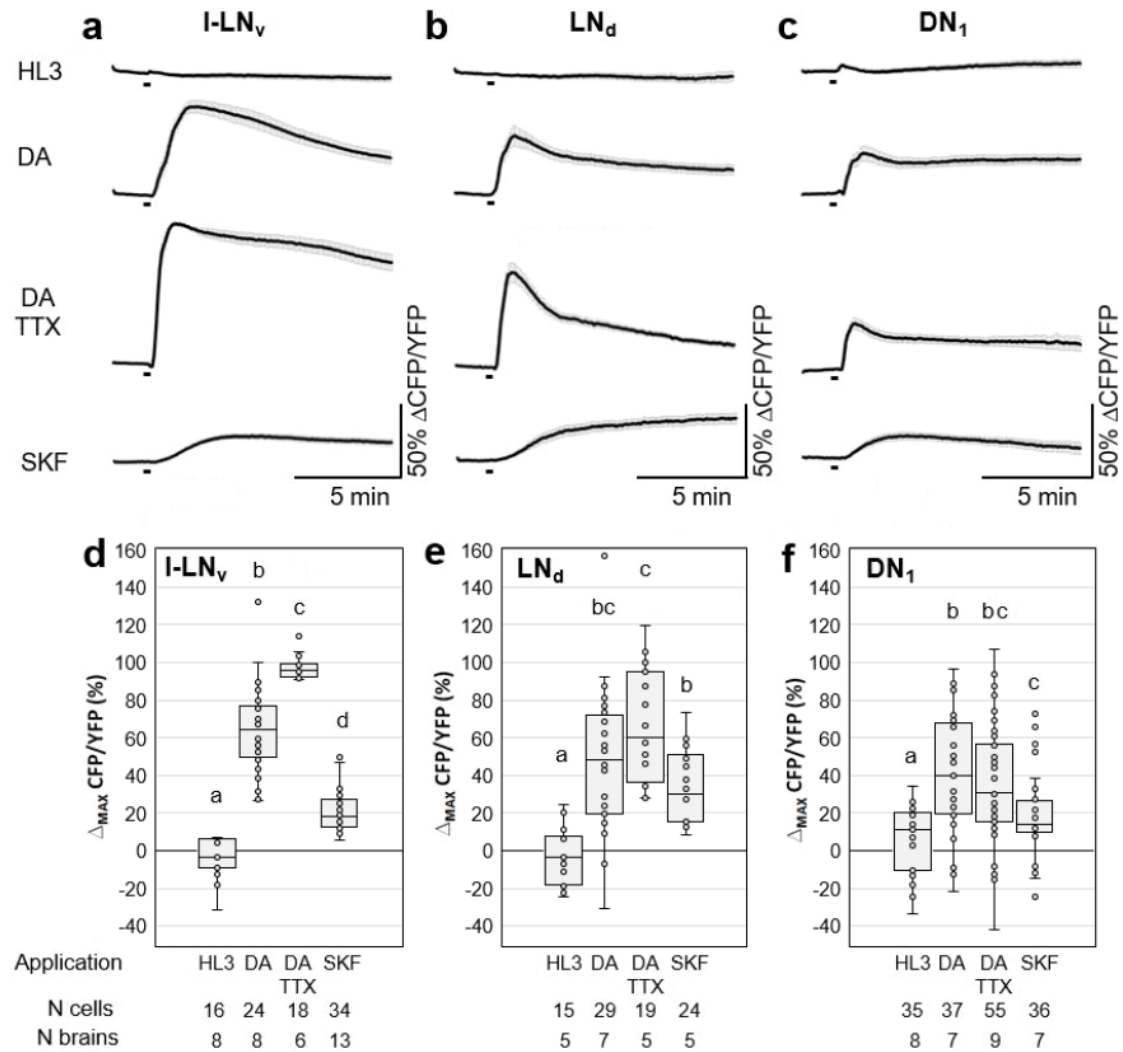


Figure 2. *Ex vivo* live-cAMP imaging on *Drosophila* clock neurons. (a-c) Mean inverse FRET traces of I-LN_v, LN_d and DN₁ clock neurons of *clk856> Epac1* flies. Error bars (grey) represent SEM and short black bars indicate application of the different solutions: HL3 = buffer (negative control), DA (= 1 mM dopamine), DA+TTX (= 1 mM DA + 2 μM Tetrodotoxin) and SKF³⁸³⁹³ (= 0.1 mM Dop1R1-agonist), respectively. (d-f) Quantification of maximum inverse FRET changes for each single neuron (dots in Box Plots) of each treatment. Black horizontal lines in the Box Plots represent the median, different letters indicate significant differences. Cells of all three neuronal clusters respond with robust and significant increases in cAMP levels upon application of DA and DA+TTX compared to negative controls, indicating a direct neuronal connection between dopaminergic neurons and clock neurons. Application of the Dop1R1-agonist SKF also significantly increased cAMP levels in all three clusters of clock neurons (f).

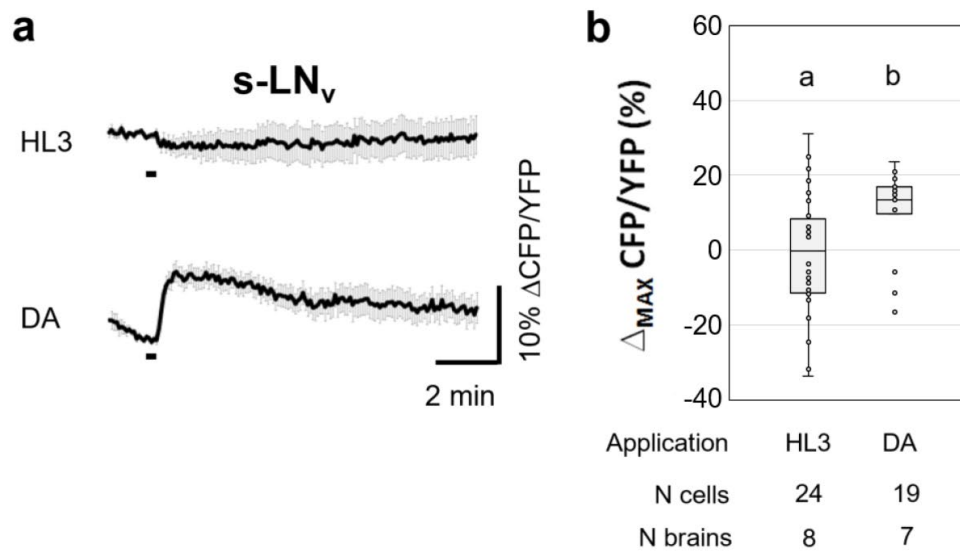


Figure 3. Ex vivo live-cAMP imaging on *Drosophila* s-LN_v neurons. **(a)** Mean inverse FRET traces of s-LN_v clock neurons of *clk856>Epac* flies. Error bars (grey) represent SEM and short black bars indicate application of negative control (HL3) or 1 mM dopamine (DA). **(b)** Quantification of maximum inverse FRET changes for each single neuron (dots in Box Plots) of each treatment. Black horizontal lines in the Box Plots represent the median, different letters indicate significant differences. s-LN_vs significantly responded to DA with an increase in cAMP. In this case the Mann–Whitney U test was used for pairwise comparison of maximum changes.

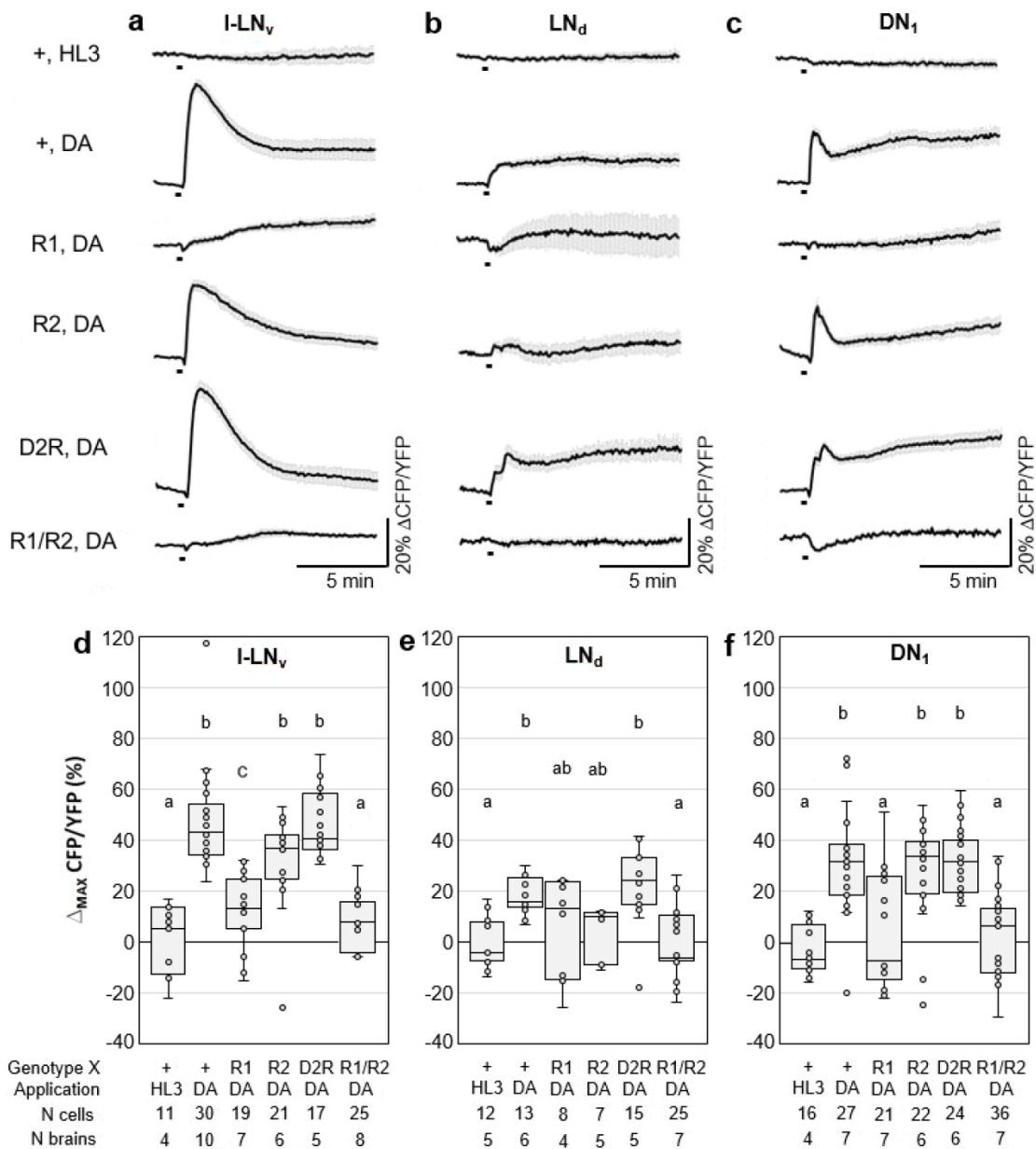


Figure 4. *Ex vivo* live-cAMP imaging on *Drosophila* clock neurons expressing RNAi-constructs against different Dopamine receptors. (a-c) Mean inverse FRET traces of I-LN_v, LN_d and DN₁ clock neurons of *clk856>dicer2, Epac1, X_{RNAi}* flies. The X stands for 'wildtype' (+) or the relevant dopamine receptor RNAi lines: R1 = *Dop1R1_{RNAi}*, R2 = *Dop1R2_{RNAi}*, D2R = *D2R_{RNAi}* and R1/R2 = *Dop1R1_{RNAi}/Dop1R2_{RNAi}*. Error bars (grey) represent SEM and short black bars indicate application of negative control (HL3) or 1 mM dopamine (DA). (d-f) Quantification of maximum inverse FRET changes for each single neuron (dots in Box Plots) of each treatment. Black horizontal lines in the Box Plots represent the median, different letters indicate significant differences. DN₁ neurons responded significantly to application of DA, except when *Dop1R1* or *Dop1R1/R2* were knocked down. I-LN_v neurons lacked the responses to dopamine when both dopamine receptors (*Dop1R1/R2*) were knocked down. Responses of the LN_d were not different from negative controls when either *Dop1R1* or *Dop1R2* or both (*Dop1R1/R2*) were knocked down.

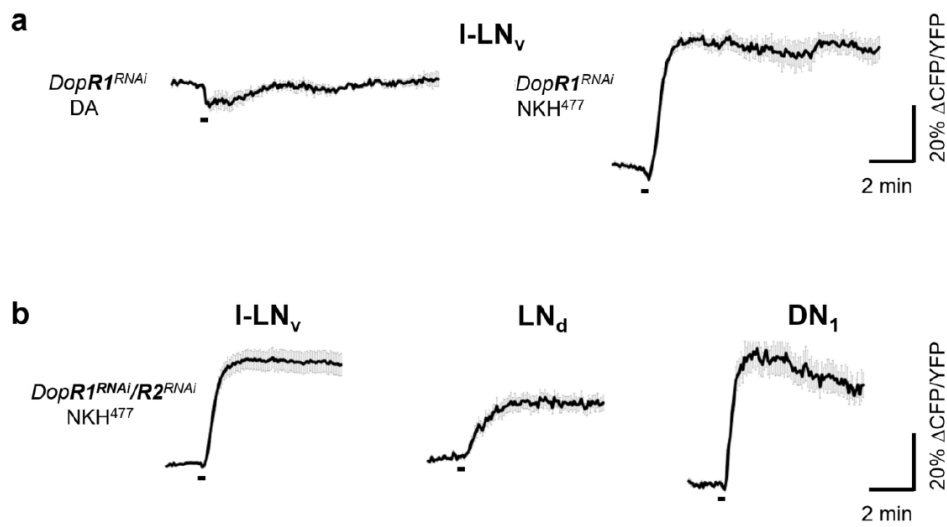


Figure 5. *Ex vivo* live-cAMP imaging on *Drosophila* clock neurons expressing RNAi-constructs against different dopamine receptors (*clk856>dicer2,Epac1;Dop1RX_{RNAi}* flies). (a) Mean inverse FRET traces of I-LN_v clock neurons with down-regulated Dop1R1 (*Dop1R1_{RNAi}*). The same set of neurons (5 neurons from 2 brains) was first subject to 1 mM dopamine (DA) application showing no response and afterwards to application of 10 μM of the adenylate-cyclase activator NKH⁴⁷⁷, which evoked an increase in cAMP. (b) Mean inverse FRET traces of the same I-LN_v, LN_d and DN₁ clock neurons shown in Fig. 4a, b, c (bottom) expressing *DopR1_{RNAi}/DopR2_{RNAi}* after application of NKH⁴⁷⁷. Error bars (grey) represent SEM and short black bars indicate application of negative control (HL3) or 1 mM dopamine (DA).

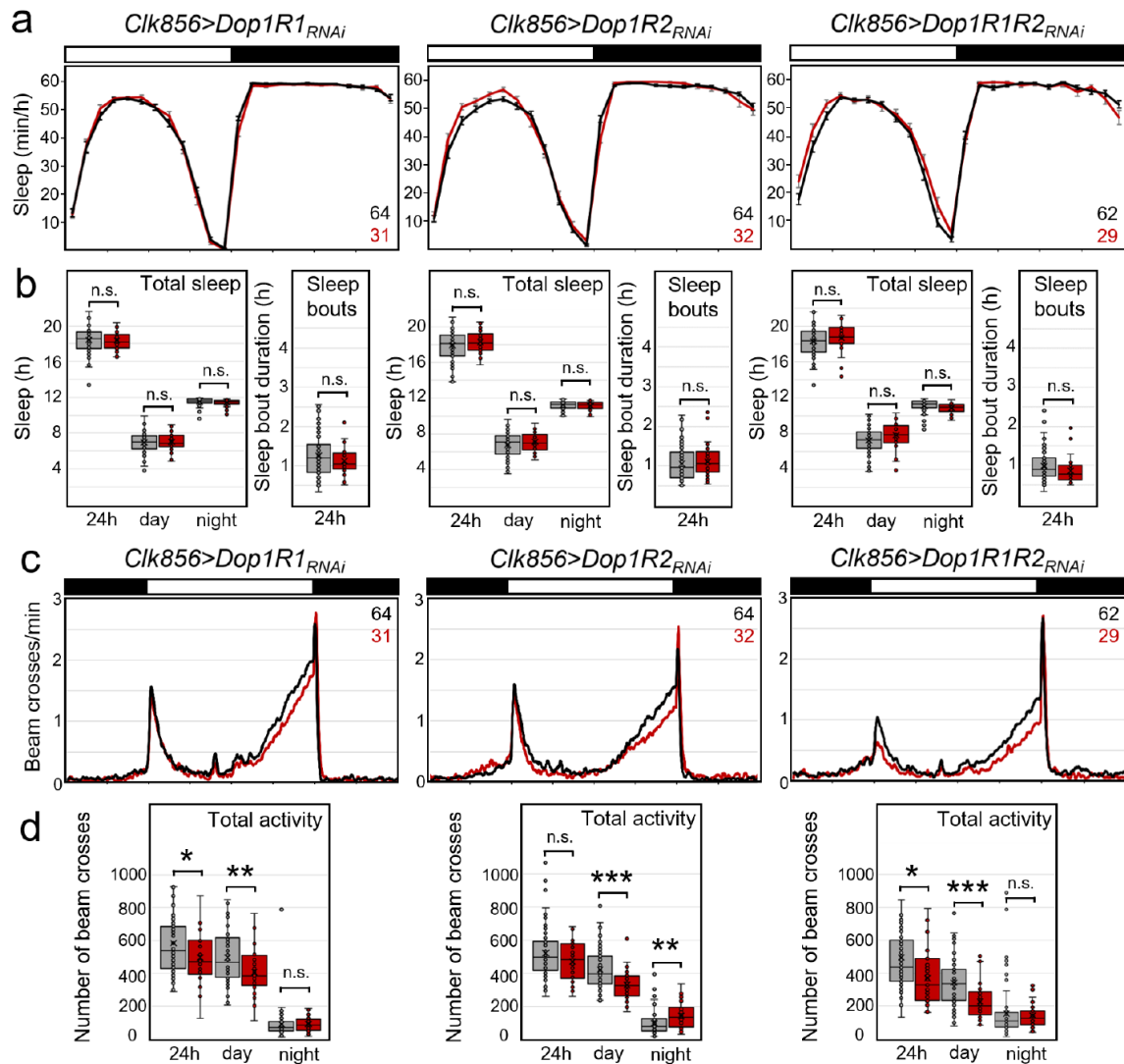


Figure 6. Sleep and activity in clock neuron specific dopamine-receptor knockdown flies. Dop1R1, Dop1R2 or both were knocked down using *clk856-Gal4*. **(a)** Average daily sleep profiles of experimental flies (red, *clk856>Dop1R_{RNAi}*) and respective *Gal4* and *UAS* controls (pooled in black; controls were not significantly different from each other and were pooled in a single). **(b)** Box Plots of sleep parameters (total sleep in hours during the entire 24 h period, during the day and the night; same color code as in a). The median, upper and lower quartiles as well as upper and lower extremes plus the single data points are plotted. No significant differences were observed between experimental flies and controls in any of the three cases. **(c)** Average activity profiles of the same flies that are depicted in a. The flies with down-regulated dopamine receptors were always less active during day as compared to the controls. **(d)** Box Plots of total activity during the entire 24 h period, during the day and the night. Significant differences are indicated by asterisks (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$). The numbers of tested flies are indicated in (a) and (c).

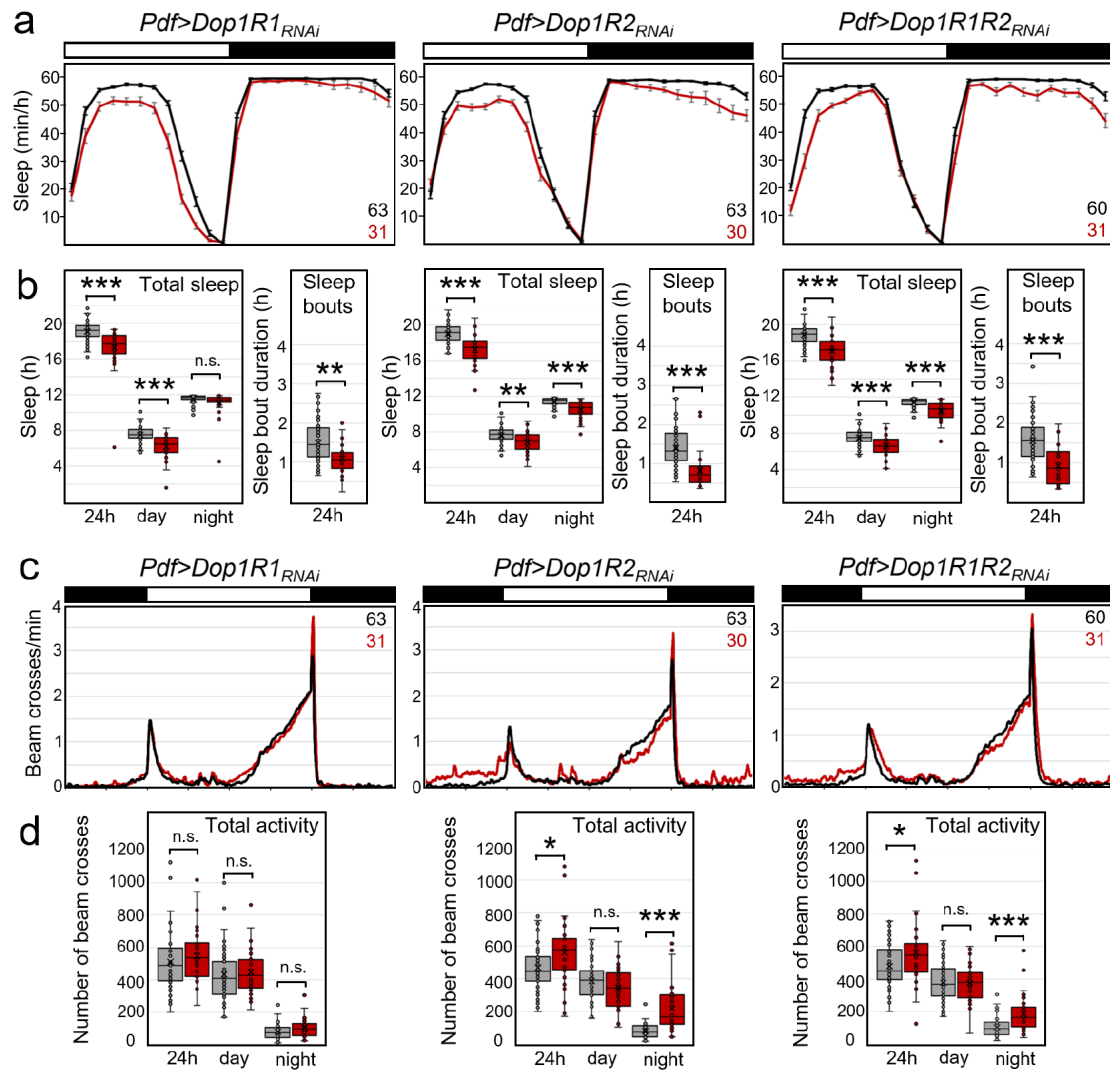


Figure 7. Sleep and activity in PDF-neuron specific dopamine-receptor knockdown flies. Dop1R1, Dop1R2 or both were knocked down using *Pdf-Gal4*. **(a)** Average daily sleep profiles of experimental flies (red, *Pdf>Dop1R_{RNAi}*) and respective *Gal4* and *UAS* controls (pooled in black; both controls showed significantly more sleep than the flies with dopamine receptor knockdown; therefore they were pooled). **(b)** Box Plots of sleep parameters as shown in Fig. 6. Flies showed significantly less total sleep and shorter sleep bouts, when either Dop1R1 or Dop1R2 or both were knocked down in the PDF-neurons. Knockdown of Dop1R1 decreased daytime sleep, whereas knockdown of Dop1R2 and simultaneous knockdown of both receptors decreased day- and night-time sleep. **(c)** Average activity profiles of the same flies that are depicted in **a**. The flies with down-regulated Dop1R2 receptor were more active than the controls. **(d)** Box Plots of total activity during the entire 24 h period, during the day and the night. Significant differences are indicated by asterisks (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$). The numbers of tested flies are indicated in **(a)** and **(c)**.

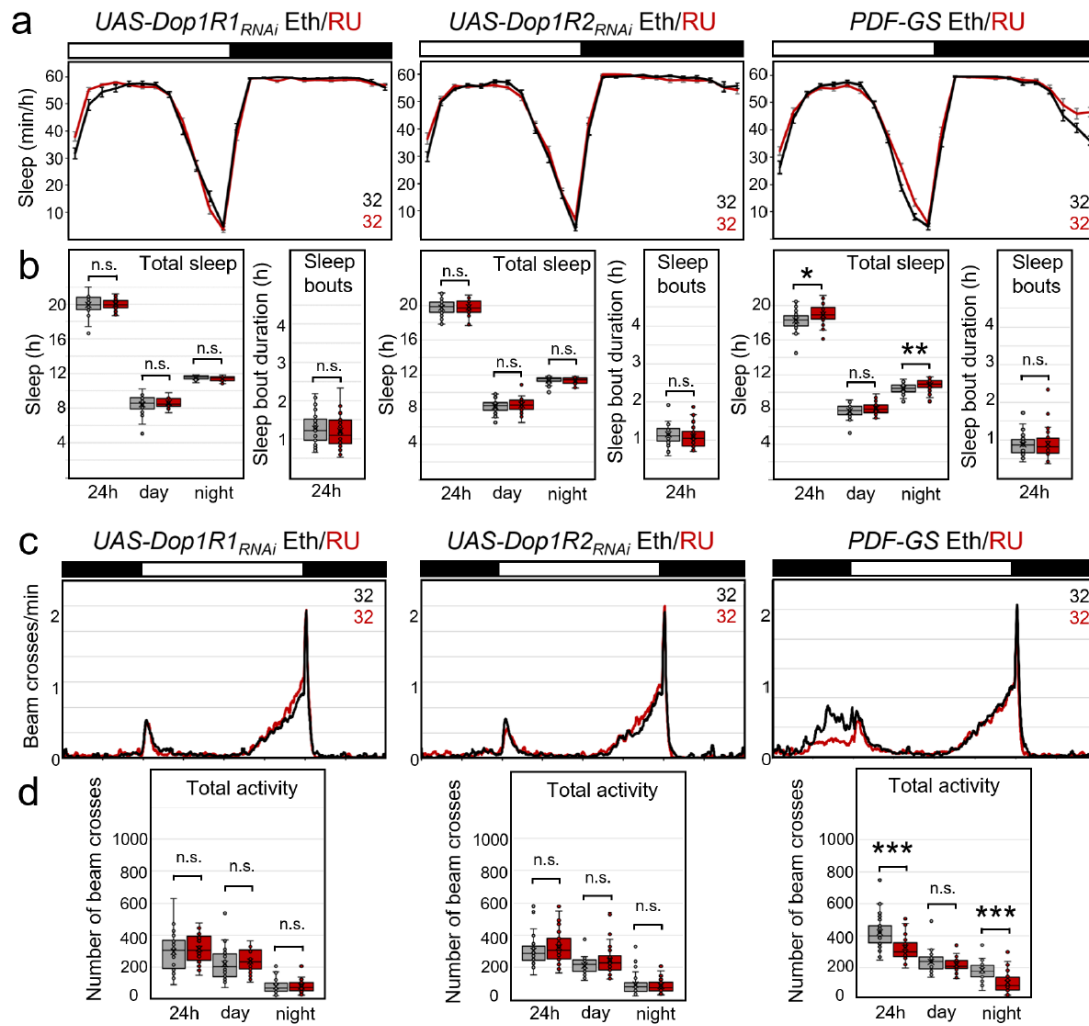


Figure 8. Sleep and activity in control flies fed with RU dissolved in ethanol or only with ethanol. **(a)** Average daily sleep profiles of flies fed with RU in ethanol (red) and flies fed only with ethanol (black). **(b)** Box Plots of sleep parameters. **(c)** Average activity profiles of the same flies that are depicted in **a**. **(d)** Box Plots of total activity during the entire 24 h period, during the day and the night. Significant differences are indicated by asterisks (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$). Feeding of RU affected sleep and activity marginally. Only *Pdf-Gal4* flies fed with RU slept significantly more and were less active in the night than flies fed only with ethanol. The numbers of tested flies are indicated in **(a)** and **(c)**.

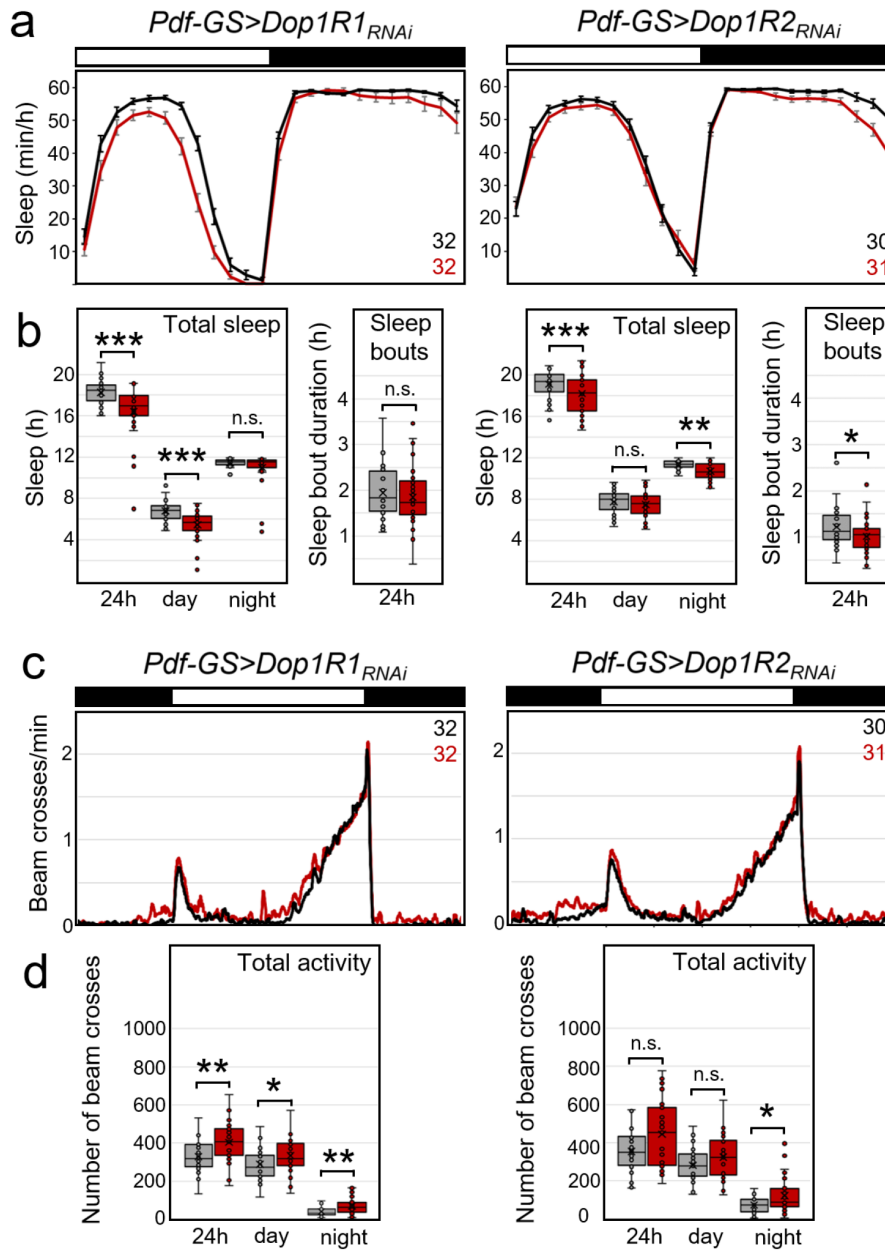


Figure 9. Sleep and activity in flies with conditional dopamine-receptor knockdown in the PDF-neurons (with *Pdf-GS*). **(a)** Average daily sleep profiles of experimental flies (red, *Pdf-GS>Dop1R_{RNAi}* fed with RU in ethanol) and control flies (black, *Pdf-GS>Dop1R_{RNAi}* fed with ethanol). **(b)** Box Plots of sleep parameters. Flies showed significantly less total sleep when either Dop1R1 or Dop1R2 or both were knocked down in the PDF-neurons. Knockdown of Dop1R1 decreased daytime sleep, whereas knockdown of Dop1R2 decreased nighttime sleep. Sleep bouts were only significantly affected after knockdown of the Dop1R2 receptor. **(c)** Average activity profiles of the same flies that are depicted in **a**. The flies with down-regulated dopamine receptors were generally more active than the controls. **(d)** Box Plots of total activity during the entire 24 h period, during the day and the night. Significant differences are indicated by asterisks (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$). The numbers of tested flies are indicated in **(a)** and **(c)**.

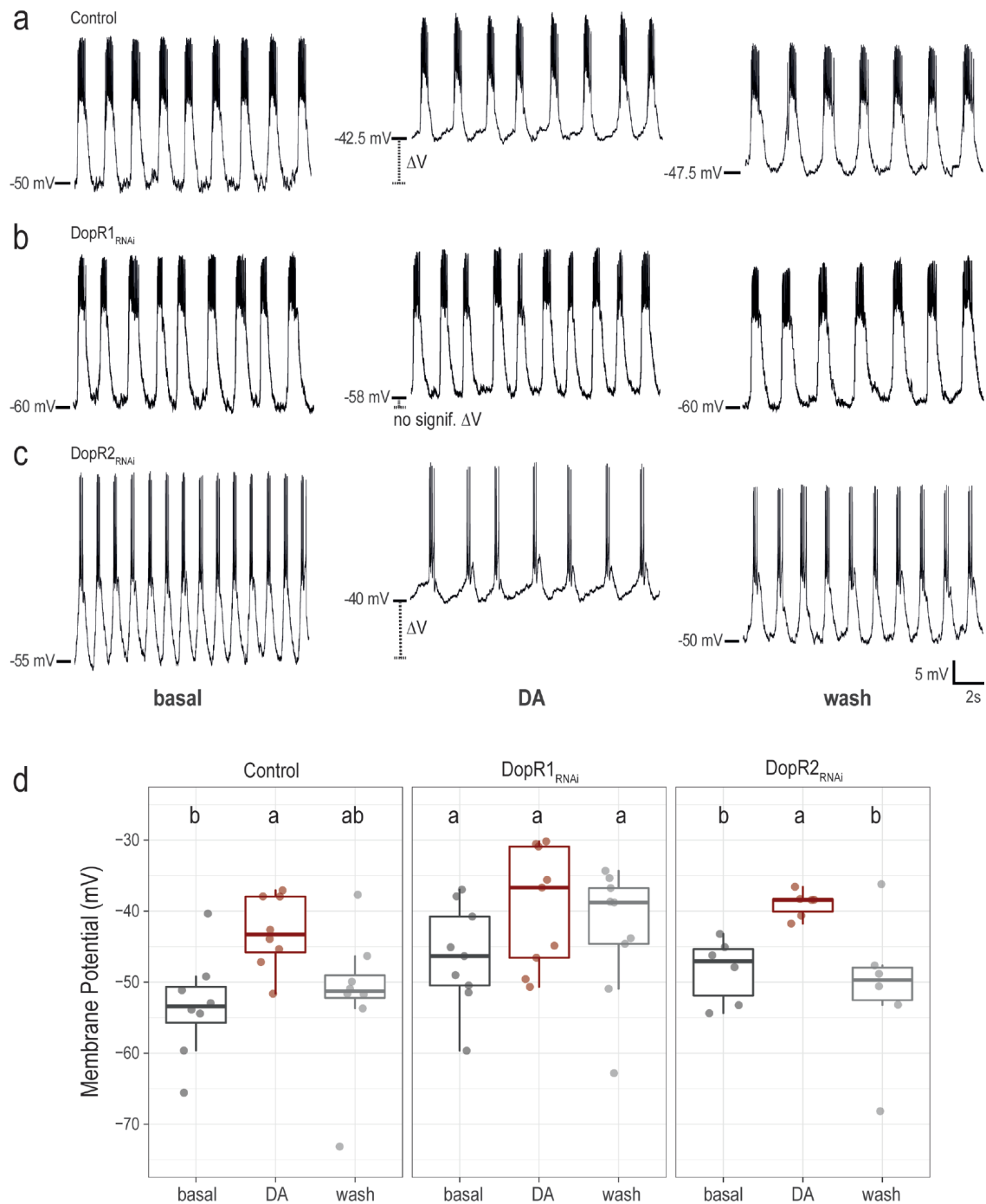


Figure 10. Dop1R1 receptor mediates I-LN_v responses to dopamine. **(a), (b), (c).** Representative traces of whole-cell patch clamp recordings during basal conditions (perfusion of external saline, left panels), DA (perfusion of 1 mM dopamine, middle panels) and wash out (perfusion of external saline, right panels). **(a)** Control group, *Pdf-Gal4,UAS-dicer;pdf Red>+*. **(b)**, *Dop1R1_{RNAi}* group, *Pdf-Gal4,UAS-dicer2;pdf Red>UAS-Dop1R1_{RNAi}*. **(c)**, *Pdf-Gal4,UAS-dicer2;pdf Red>UAS-Dop1R2_{RNAi}*. **(d)** Boxplots showing the value of membrane potential in mV for the same genotypes in each condition (basal, DA, wash). Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test with Bonferroni correction was applied for statistical analysis. The alpha parameter was 0.05. Different letters indicate significant differences. Control, n=8. DopR1_{RNAi}, n=9. DopR2_{RNAi}, n=6.

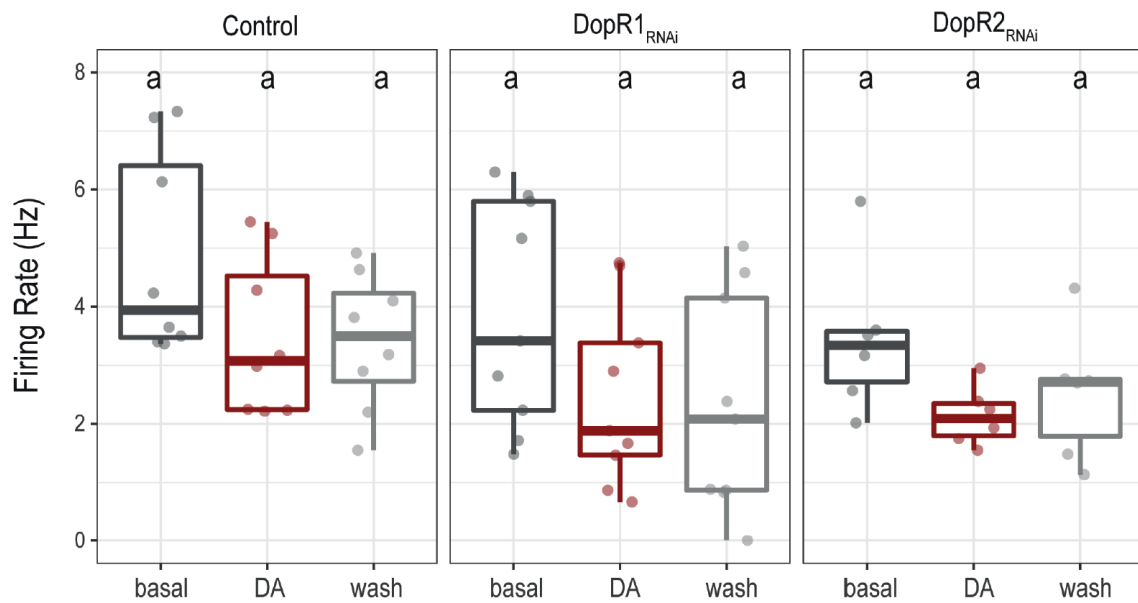


Figure 11. Boxplots showing the value of firing rate (number of action potentials per second) obtained in whole-cell patch clamp configuration under three different conditions (basal, Dopamine, wash) for Pdf-Gal4,UAS-dicer;pdf Red>+ (Control, left panel), DopR1RNAi group, Pdf-Gal4,UAS-dicer;pdf Red>UAS-Dop1R1RNAi (DopR1RNAi, middle panel), Pdf-Gal4,UAS-dicer;pdf Red>UAS-Dop1R2RNAi (Dop1R2RNAi, right panel). Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test with Bonferroni correction was applied for statistical analysis. The alpha parameter was 0.05. No statistically significant differences were found (same letter indicate no significant differences). Control, n=8. Dop1R1RNAi , n=9. Dop1R2RNAi, n=6.