Dopamine in the Dorsal Bed Nucleus of Stria Terminalis signals Pavlovian sign-tracking and reward violations

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Abstract

Midbrain and striatal dopamine signals have been extremely well characterized over the past several decades, yet novel dopamine signals and functions in reward learning and motivation continue to emerge. A similar characterization of real-time sub-second dopamine signals in areas outside of the striatum has been limited. Recent advances in fluorescent sensor technology and fiber photometry permit measurement of dopamine binding correlates, which can divulge basic functions of dopamine signaling in non-striatal dopamine terminal regions, like the dorsal bed nucleus of the stria terminalis (dBNST). Here, we record $GRAB_{DA}$ signals in the dBNST during a Pavlovian lever autoshaping task. We observe greater Pavlovian cue-evoked dBNST $GRAB_{DA}$ signals in sign-tracking (ST) compared to goal-tracking/intermediate (GT/INT) rats and the magnitude of cue-evoked dBNST $GRAB_{DA}$ signals decrease immediately following reinforcer-specific satiety. When we deliver unexpected reward or omit expected reward, we find that dBNST dopamine signals encode bidirectional reward prediction errors in GT/INT rats, but only positive prediction errors in ST rats. Since sign- and goal-tracking approach strategies are associated with distinct drug relapse vulnerabilities, we examined the effects of experimenter-administered fentanyl on dBNST dopamine associative encoding. Systemic fentanyl injections do not disrupt dBNST cue discrimination but generally potentiate dBNST dopamine signals. These results reveal multiple dBNST dopamine correlates of learning and motivation that depend on the Pavlovian approach strategy employed.

Introduction

Survival depends on learning to associate environmental cues with food or other natural rewards. Individual differences in learning and motivational processes support the acquisition, expression and updating of cue-reward associations. Recent evidence suggests that distinct learning strategies are predictive of dysregulated motivation for drug associated cues/conditioned stimuli (CS) (Chang et al., 2022; Martin et al., 2022; Pitchers et al., 2017; Saunders et al., 2013). Midbrain and striatal dopamine signals are broadly implicated in a diverse array of learning and motivational processes, including CS-reward associations underscoring the importance of dopamine (DA) in adaptive behavior that promotes survival (Langdon et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2022; Nasser et al., 2017). Yet considerably less is known about the role of DA signals in areas outside of the striatum during adaptive and maladaptive cue-reward learning. Recent advances in fluorescent sensor technology and fiber photometry permit measurement of DA binding correlates (Labouesse et al., 2020). These new techniques can reveal understudied functions of DA signaling in non-striatal DA terminal regions like the dorsal bed nucleus of the stria terminalis (dBNST), an extended amygdala nucleus, that is critical for dysregulated CS-triggered opioid relapse (Gyawali et al., 2020). Here, we characterize basic dBNST DA correlates by recording fluorescent $GRAB_{DA}$ signals during a Pavlovian task that distinguishes two distinct relapse vulnerability phenotypes.

Recent studies identify unique learning strategies that predict heightened CS-triggered relapse vulnerability (Chang et al., 2022; Martin et al., 2022; Pitchers et al., 2017; Saunders et al., 2013). In particular, a simple Pavlovian Lever Autoshaping task distinguishes two extreme tracking phenotypes: 1) sign-tracking (ST) rats that approach and vigorously engage with the reward predictive lever cue, even though cue interaction is not necessary to obtain food reward and 2) goal-tracking rats that interact with the foodcup during cue presentation where food reward is delivered after lever retraction (Boakes R.A, 1977; Flagel et al., 2007; Hearst &

Jenkins, 1974; Meyer et al., 2012). Sign-tracking rats show heightened CS-triggered drug

relapse vulnerability compared to goal-trackers. A third group called intermediates approach

both the food cup and lever at similar levels, and their relapse vulnerability is like that of goal-

tracking rats (Saunders and Robinson 2010). Fast scan cyclic voltammetry recording of real-

time dopamine indicated that sign-, but not goal-tracking, evokes increases in phasic

fluctuations in DA in the nucleus accumbens (NAc) during CS presentation (Flagel et al., 2011).

NAc DA is necessary for both the expression of sign-tracking and for sign-trackers heightened

CS-triggered drug relapse, but not for goal-tracking or their relapse behavior (Saunders et al.,

2013). Given the critical role of dBNST in CS-triggered relapse, we aimed to determine whether

there are similar individual differences in dBNST DA signaling in sign- and goal-tracking rats

using the Pavlovian Lever Autoshaping task (Buffalari & See, 2011; Gyawali et al., 2020;

Silberman & Winder, 2013).

Midbrain dopamine neuron activity strengthens cue-outcome associations by serving as

a bidirectional prediction error signal where, unexpected reward delivery increases and omitted

reward decreases dopamine neuron firing relative to expected reward (Montague et al., 1996;

Schultz, 2015; Schultz et al., 1997). Over the course of learning, the phasic dopamine activity

transfers from the unconditioned stimulus (US) to the CS (Montague et al., 1996; Schultz, 2015;

Schultz et al., 1997). In the NAc, transfer of dopamine signals from US to the CS occurs more

robustly in ST compared to GT rats (Flagel et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2018; Saddoris et al., 2016)

and NAc DA antagonism reduces sign-tracking but not goal-tracking behaviors (Saunders &

Robinson, 2012). Together, these studies support the Pavlovian lever autoshaping task (and

sign-tracking) as a reliable framework for studying dopamine's role in regions of the brain

critically involved in cue-motivated natural and drug reward seeking behaviors.

The dBNST receives dense dopaminergic input from several midbrain regions including

the ventral tegmental area, ventral periacqueductal gray, and to a much lesser extent, the

substantia nigra (Hasue and Shammah-Lagnado, 2002; Meloni et al., 2006). dBNST dopamine

is associated with a variety of reward-motivated behaviors. dBNST dopamine release is

increased during intra-oral sucrose infusion and in response to cues that predict intracranial

self-stimulation of the medial forebrain bundle (Lin et al., 2020; Park et al., 2012, 2013). Further,

dopamine antagonist injections in the dBNST reduce responding for sucrose in a binge eating

paradigm (Maracle et al., 2019). All major drugs of abuse, including opioids, increase

extracellular dopamine in the BNST and dBNST dopamine antagonism reduces cocaine self-

administration and ethanol seeking (Carboni et al., 2000; Eiler et al., 2003; Epping-Jordan et al.,

1998). Despite these studies implicating dBNST dopamine in motivated behaviors, a

comprehensive characterization of endogenous dBNST dopamine dynamics in cue-induced

behaviors is lacking. To address this, we used a dopamine sensor $GRAB_{DA}$ in combination with

fiber photometry to examine basic properties of the dBNST dopamine signals; their role during

lever autoshaping, reward violations, outcome specific-satiety and during systemic fentanyl

administration (Sun et al., 2018).

Results

BNST $GRAB_{DA}$ signals respond to cues and reward in a Pavlovian learning task

We sought to determine if BNST $GRAB_{DA}$ signals correlate with individual differences in

approach to Pavlovian cues (Experiment timeline in Fig. 1A). First, we trained rats in PLA for

five days (Fig. 1B) to examine the acquisition of lever- and food cup-directed behaviors across

training in sign and goal tracking/intermediate rats. Representative and histological inventory of

$GRAB_{DA}$ expression from these rats is shown in Fig. 1C. We analyzed the behavioral PCA score

using a mixed ANOVA with between subject factors of Tracking (ST, GT/INT) and within subject

factors of Session (Day 1, Day 5; Fig. 1D). ST rats show greater PCA score on Day 5 compared

to GT/INTs (Fig. 1D, PCA score: Session: $F_{(1,14)} = 67.3$, p<0.001, Session x Tracking: $F_{(1,14)} =$

15.04, p=0.002, Tracking: $F_{(1,14)} = 11.59$, p=0.004; post-hoc, Day 5 ST vs. GT/INT presses: $t_{14} =$

4.92, p<0.001). Next, to confirm rats could discriminate the reinforced and non-reinforced lever

cues, we examined the difference between CS+ and CS- presses (Δ presses) and pokes (Δ

pokes) using a mixed ANOVA with between subject factors of Tracking (ST, GT/INT) and within

subject factors of Session (Day 1, Day 5, Fig. 1E). ST rats show better discrimination for lever

directed behavior (Δ presses) on Day 5 compared to GT/INTs (Session: $F_{(1,14)}$ = 35.75, p<0.001,

Session x Tracking: $F_{(1,14)}$ = 11.66, p<0.001, Tracking: $F_{(1,14)}$ = 17.81, p=0.001; post-hoc, Day 5

ST vs. GT/INT presses: t_{14} = 3.93, p=0.002). In contrast, GT/INTs show better discrimination for

food cup directed behavior (Δ pokes) on Day 5 compared to STs during the CS (Fig. 1F:

Session x Tracking: $F_{(1,14)}$ = 4.90, p=0.044, Tracking: $F_{(1,14)}$ = 15.17, p=0.002; post-hoc, Day 5

ST vs. GT/INT pokes: t_{14} = -3.92, p=0.002).

Figure 1: Individual differences emerge during Pavlovian Lever Autoshaping (PLA). (A) Experimental timeline. We trained all rats for five daily reinforced PLA sessions to determine their tracking groups followed by a single reward prediction error (RPE) session. We injected the first cohort of rats with i.p fentanyl in PLA and tested the second and the third cohort of rats on 2 counterbalanced PLA pellet satiety sessions. We tested the third cohort of rats on 2 counterbalanced PLA chow satiety and with reboxetine i.p. injection sessions. **(B)** PLA sessions consisted of presentation of 10s of cue (either conditioned stimulus, CS+ or CS- lever, pseudorandom order with an intertrial interval (ITI) varying (variable interval (VI)) between 35 and 45s) followed by lever retraction and delivery of two food pellets in the foodcup. Some rats (Sign Trackers, STs) engage with the cue while others (Goal trackers, GTs) wait for the food pellets in the food cup during cue period. Others display both lever and food cup behaviors (Intermediates, INTs) **(C)** Left: representative expression of GRAB$_{DA}$ construct and fiber placement in dorsal Bed Nucleus of Stria Terminalis (dBNST). White scale bar: 250μm. Right: The extent of GRAB$_{DA}$ expression and fiber placement across five coronal planes with anterior distance from bregma (millimeters) in the dBNST in STs (orange) and GT/INTs (blue). Drawings were adapted from Figures 31, 32, 33, 34 and 35 from Paxinos and Watson (2007). **(D)** Average PCA scores for STs and GT/INTs on Day 1 and Day 5 of PLA. **(E)** Average Δ Presses (CS+) – (CS-) on Day 1 and Day 5. **(F)** Average Δ Pokes (CS+) – (CS-) on Day 1 and Day 5. Data are mean±SEM. *p<0.05

To investigate the endogenous dBNST dopamine activity across PLA training, we used fiber

photometry to monitor the fluorescent activity of the genetically encoded dopamine sensor,

GRAB$_{DA}$ (Sun et al., 2018). We see evidence of associative encoding during PLA (Fig. 2). Both

lever insertion and retraction/reward delivery increased dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals in ST and

GT/INT rats (representative heat map and population average traces on Day 1 and Day 5 for

STs in Fig. 2A and GT/INTs in Fig. 2B). To determine whether ST and GT/INT rats show

differences in cue-evoked dopamine signals across acquisition of PLA, we compared the

strength of CS+ onset (Δ lever extension area under curve (AUC) = (CS+) – (CS-) AUC; 2s after

CS onset) signals between Day 1 and Day 5 using a mixed ANOVA with between subject

factors of Tracking (ST, GT/INT) and within subject factor of Session (Day 1, Day 5). While CS+

onset-evoked GRAB$_{DA}$ signals increased across conditioning for both ST and GT/INT (Fig. 2C,

Session: $F_{(1,14)}$ = 19.69, p=0.001) the magnitude of the CS+ signal increase differed between

tracking groups (Session x Tracking: $F_{(1,14)}$ = 5.99, p=0.028, Tracking: $F_{(1,14)}$ = 10.35, p=0.006).

Post hoc analyses revealed greater cue-evoked dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signal in ST compared to

GT/INT on Day 5, which was not evident on Day 1 (Day 1: t_{14} = 0.17, p=0.87; Day 5: t_{14} = 2.93,

p=0.011). Next, we asked whether GRAB$_{DA}$ signals correlated with the tracking phenotype. We

observed a positive correlation between Day 5 CS onset GRAB$_{DA}$ signals and Day 5 PLA score

(Fig. 2D; R^2 = 0.41, p=0.009) but not Day 1 CS onset $GRAB_{DA}$ signals and Day 1 PLA score

(Figure 2 – figure supplement 1A; R^2 = 0.21, p=0.09).

Next, we examined tracking differences in the sustained $GRAB_{DA}$ signal between STs and

GT/INTs throughout the duration of the CS, during which STs and GT/INTs show differences in

lever and foodcup directed behaviors. We compared Day 1 vs. Day 5 CS+ maintained (Δ cue-

period AUC = (CS+) – (CS-) AUC during the full 10s CS lever insertion period) $GRAB_{DA}$

signaling. CS+ maintained $GRAB_{DA}$ signals increased across conditioning for both ST and

GT/INT (Fig. 2E, Session: $F_{(1,13)}$ = 11.45, p=0.005, Session x Tracking: $F_{(1,13)}$ = 3.07, p=0.1,

Tracking: $F_{(1,13)}$ = 16.5, p=0.001). Like cue onset, we saw a strong positive correlation between

Day 5 $GRAB_{DA}$ signals during CS interaction and Day 5 PLA score (Fig. 2F, R^2 = 0.49, p=0.004)

but not Day 1 $GRAB_{DA}$ signals and Day 1 PLA score (Figure 2 – figure supplement 1B, R^2 =

0.08, p=0.3) suggesting that as rats display ST behavior, there's an increase in sustained

$GRAB_{DA}$ signal.

Prior work shows that NAc dopamine shifts from US to CS after conditioning to a greater degree

in STs compared to GTs (Flagel et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2018; Saddoris et al., 2016). Since we

observed differences in CS evoked BNST $GRAB_{DA}$ signals between STs and GT/INTs, we

wanted to determine if there was similar tracking specificity in the US to CS shift for BNST

$GRAB_{DA}$ signals. We quantified the relative CS/US dynamics across conditioning using a

difference score (Δ cue-reward AUC = (CS+) – (US) AUC for the 2s after CS+ onset and reward

delivery) and compared between Day 1 and Day 5. We used a mixed ANOVA with between

subject factors of Tracking (ST, GT/INT) and within subject factor of Session (Day 1, Day 5).

The relative CS/US dynamics across PLA differed by tracking group (Fig. 2G, Session: $F_{(1,14)}$ =

4.79, p=0.046, Session x Tracking: $F_{(1,14)}$ = 8.9, p=0.01). We found no tracking group

differences in the (CS+) – (US) difference score on Day 1 but by Day 5, the CS/US difference

score was greater in STs compared to GT/INTs (ST vs. GT/INT, Day 1: t_{14} = -1.6, p=0.13; ST vs

GT/INT, Day 5: t_{14} = 2.43, p=0.029). While the correlation between (CS+) – (US) GRAB$_{DA}$ signal

and Day 5 PCA scores was marginal (Fig. 2H, R^2 = 0.22, p=0.06) there was no relationship

between these measures on Day 1 (Figure 2 - figure supplement 1C, R^2 = 0.025, p=0.56).

Overall, these data indicate sign-tracking specific dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals increase to Pavlovian

cue onset and during cue-maintained sign-tracking behaviors, and back propagate from the

reward to cue onset across conditioning.

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Figure 2: Dorsal bed-nucleus of stria terminalis (dBNST) GRAB$_{DA}$ signals during PLA between STs
and GT/INTs. Representative heat maps illustrating GRAB$_{DA}$ signal changes (z-scores) during CS+ and
CS- presentations on Day 1 (top left) and Day 5 (top right) and trial-averaged GRAB$_{DA}$ signal change (z-
scored ∆F/F) during CS+ and CS- presentations on Day 1 (bottom left) and Day 5 (bottom right) in **A)** STs
and **B)** GT/INTs. **C)** Trial averaged quantification ∆ lever extension ((CS+) – (CS-); 2s) GRAB$_{DA}$ area
under (AUC) between STs and GT/INTs. **D)** Correlation between Day 5 PCA scores and Day 5 ∆ lever
extension AUC. **E)** Trial averaged quantification of ∆ cue period ((CS+) – (CS-); 10s) in AUC during cue
period (10s) between STs and GT/INTs. **F)** Correlation between Day 5 PCA scores and Day 5 ∆ cue

period AUC. **G)** Trial averaged quantification of Δ cue-reward (CS+) – (US), 2s) in AUC between STs and
GT/INTs. **H)** Correlation between Day 5 PCA scores and Day 5 change in Δ cue-reward AUC. Data are
mean±SEM. *p<0.05.

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225 **Figure supplement 1: No correlation between Day 1 PCA scores and Day 1 BNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals.**
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227 **Figure supplement 2: Norepinephrine reuptake blocker, Reboxetine doesn't alter PLA behavior or**
228 **GRAB$_{DA}$ signals.**
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230 **Figure supplement 3: Representative and population graph of signals from rats that had correct**
231 **fiber placement and viral expression but under 2z peak.**

233 **Figure 2 – Figure supplement 1: No correlation between Day 1 PCA scores and Day 1 BNST**
234 **GRAB$_{DA}$ signals.** Correlation between **A)** Day 1 PCA scores and Day 1 Δ lever extension AUC. **B)** Day 1
235 PCA scores and Day 1 Δ cue period AUC and **C)** Day 1 PCA scores and Day 1 Δ cue-reward AUC.

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dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals during PLA are specific to dopamine

Even though the GRAB$_{DA}$ construct we used is 15-fold more sensitive to dopamine than

norepinephrine **(NE)**; BNST **NE** plays an important role in motivated behaviors and dBNST

receives **dense** noradrenergic input **with relatively slow NE clearance measured *in vivo*** (Egli

et al., 2005; Flavin & Winder, 2013; **Park et al., 2009**; Sun et al., 2020). To validate that the

signals we recorded during PLA were dopaminergic and not noradrenergic, we injected a **NE**

reuptake inhibitor Reboxetine (1mg/kg) 30 minutes prior to PLA. **NE** levels in the brain remain

elevated at this dose for up to 3 hours peaking at ~20 minutes after injection (Page & Lucki,

2002). We found that Reboxetine injection did not alter behavior (Figure 2 – figure supplement

2B) or increase BNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signal to lever extension or reward consumption (Figure 2 –

figure supplement 2A,C,E), Epoch: $F_{(1,12)}$ = 3.82, p=0.074, Epoch x Treatment: $F_{(1,12)}$ = 0.20,

p=0.66, Treatment: $F_{(1,12)}$ = 0.21, p=0.66) compared to saline injection. Further, there was no

difference in cue-interaction period between reboxetine and saline injected conditions (Figure 2

– figure supplement 2D; t_6 = 1.14, p=0.3). These data confirm that the signals we recorded

during PLA are not sensitive to noradrenergic reuptake inhibition and are most likely due to

fluctuations in DA signaling in the BNST.

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Figure 2 – Figure supplement 2: Norepinephrine reuptake blocker, Reboxetine doesn't alter PLA
behavior or GRAB$_{DA}$ signals. A) Trial-averaged GRAB$_{DA}$ signal change (z-scored ΔF/F) and **B)** Average
Δ Presses (CS+) – (CS-) and average Δ pokes (CS+) – (CS-) (inset) when rats were injected with vehicle
or Reboxetine during PLA. Trial average quantification of change (CS+) – (CS-) in area under GRAB$_{DA}$ z-
scored curve (AUC) during **C)** lever extension (2s), **D)** cue period (10s) and **E)** reward consumption
between vehicle and reboxetine conditions. Data are mean±SEM. Veh = Vehicle, Reb = Reboxetine.
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Figure 2 – Figure supplement 3: Representative and population graph of signals from rats that had correct fiber placement and viral expression but under 2z peak. A) Representative heat maps illustrating GRAB$_{DA}$ signal changes (z-scores) during CS+ and CS- presentations on Day 1 (top left) and Day 5 (top right) and trial-averaged GRAB$_{DA}$ signal change (z-scored ΔF/F) for N = 4 rats during CS+ and CS- presentations on Day 1 (bottom left) and Day 5 (bottom right).

BNST dopamine encodes reward prediction error

After five Pavlovian autoshaping sessions, we conducted a Reward Prediction Error (RPE) session in which we randomly intermixed expected food reward trials and unexpected food reward delivery with omission trials. Expected reward (Expected) trials are identical to those delivered during training, with a 10s CS+ lever insertion followed by retraction and food reward delivery. Unexpected reward (Positive) trials consist of randomly delivered food reward that is not signaled by a cue. Unexpected omission (Negative) trials consist of 10 s CS+ lever insertion and retraction, but no food reward is delivered. During these sessions we monitored BNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals to examine whether dopamine signals track errors in reward prediction (representative heat map for each trial type in Fig. 3A-C; Schultz et al., 1997).

First, to determine whether BNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals encode bidirectional reward prediction error **(RPE)**, we compare signals on expected, positive and negative trials. Notably, because lever

retraction occurs simultaneously with reward delivery, and sign- and goal-trackers may be in

different locations at this time, we examine the signals during the six seconds **(three 2-s bins)**

after reward delivery or omission, which captures the period corresponding to violations in

reward expectations (Fig. 3D). We performed a repeated measures ANOVA **on z scores**

during the RPE session including Trial Type (Expected, Positive, Negative) and Bin (three 2 s

bins **(0-2 s, 2-4 s, 4-6 s**) as factors. We observed a difference **in dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signaling**

between the three trial types in the bins following reward delivery/omission (Fig. 3D, Bin: $F_{(2,72)}$ =

13.65, p<0.001, Bin x Trial Type: $F_{(4,72)}$ = 13.99, p<0.001, Trial Type: $F_{(2,36)}$ = 3.49, p=0.041).

Post-hocs confirm that in the second 2-second bin **(ie. 2-4 s)** after reward delivery/omission,

BNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals differed from one another for all three trial types, Expected vs. Positive

(population traces in Fig. 3E; p=0.013), Expected vs. Negative (population traces in Fig. 3F;

p=0.043) and Positive vs. Negative (p=0.0004). **Across all rats, we observe that dBNST**

GRAB$_{DA}$ signals reflect bidirectional reward prediction errors.

Then to determine whether there are tracking differences in dBNST RPE signals, we separately

analyzed **the z scores during RPE sessions in the two tracking groups. Again, we**

examine how GRAB$_{DA}$ signaling differs for the three trial types (expected, positive,

negative) during the three 2-second bins after reward delivery (population traces for STs

and GT/INTs Fig. 3G-H). **In GT/INT rats we observed main effects of Trial ($F_{(2,12)}$ = 8.2,**

p=0.006) and Bin ($F_{(2,12)}$ = 4.9, p=0.027) and a Trial x Bin interaction ($F_{(4,24)}$ = 25.7, p<0.001).

GT/INT rats showed evidence for both positive RPE (Trial (Expected, Positive) x Bin

interaction $F_{(2,12)}$ = 14.5, p=0.001) and negative RPE Trial (Expected, Negative) x Bin

interaction $F_{(2,12)}$ = 9.9, p=0.003; Fig. 3G inset). In GT/INT rats, we next examined the time

course and found dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signaling on both positive and negative trials differs

from expected trials during the second 2-second bin (ie 2-4 s) after lever retraction/pellet

delivery/omission (positive vs. expected p=0.04, negative vs. expected p=0.021). This suggests GT/INT rats show evidence for dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ bidirectional RPE signaling.

In a parallel analysis in ST rats considering all trial types (Expected, Positive, Negative) we also observed main effect of Bin (F$_{(2,10)}$ = 10.4, p=0.004) and Trial x Bin interaction (F$_{(4,20)}$ = 5.4, p=0.004). ST rats showed evidence for positive RPE (Trial (expected, positive) x Bin interaction F$_{(2,10)}$ = 6.8, p=0.014) but not negative RPE (Trial (expected, negative) x Bin interaction F$_{(2,10)}$ = 2.8, p=0.153, Fig. 3H inset). Post-hoc analyses in ST rats on the time-course failed to identify which bin GRABDA signals distinguished by trial type, however a planned analysis on the relevant second 2-s bin (ie. 2-4 s after lever retraction/pellet delivery/omission) indicates a main effect (F$_{(2,10)}$ = 5.3, p=0.027) is marginally driven by Expected vs. Positive trial types (F$_{(1,5)}$=5.0, p=0.075 and not Expected vs. Negative trial types (F$_{(1,5)}$= 2.0, p=0.216). This analysis suggests ST rats fail to show evidence for dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ bidirectional RPE signaling.

We collected behavioral data during RPE sessions and examined pre-trial food cup checking rate (response/10s prior to CS onset/reward delivery) on the trial after a reward violation, during which prior studies establish invigoration of conditioned responses and orienting (Holland and Gallagher 1993, Holland and Gallagher 1993, Calu, Roesch et al. 2010, Roesch, Calu et al. 2010). Rats increase their pre-trial foodcup checking on trials after a reward violation (Fig. 3I). We performed repeated measures ANOVA including factors of Trial Type (Expected, Positive, Negative) and Tracking (ST,GT/INT). While ST rats increase their pre-trial food cup checking after both positive (p=0.042) and negative (p=0.016) trials, GT/INTs only increase their pre-trial food cup checking following negative (p=0.013) trials (Fig. 3I, Trial Type: F$_{(2,22)}$ = 10.9, p=0.001, Trial Type x Tracking: F$_{(2,22)}$ = 4.39, p=0.025, Tracking: F$_{(1,11)}$ = 1.77, p=0.21). These data indicate that STs and GT/INTs use different reward seeking behavioral strategies following violation of reward expectation.

Figure 3: Individual differences in reward prediction error (RPE). A-C) Representative heat maps during Expected, Positive (unexpected reward) and Negative (unexpected omission) reward trials. **D)** Average binned z-scores (2s bins) during Expected, Positive and Negative trials 6s post reward delivery (bins 1-3). Trial-averaged GRAB$_{DA}$ signal change (z-scored ΔF/F) during **E)** Expected vs. Positive trials and **F)** Expected vs Negative trials **in all rats**. Trial-averaged GRAB$_{DA}$ signal change (z-scored ΔF/F) during all three trials and **average binned z-scores (2s bins) during Expected, Positive and Negative trials 6s post reward delivery (bins 1-3)** (inset) in **G)** GT/INTs and **H)** STs. **I)** Average foodcup checking response rate (responses/10s) during 10s pre-trial period on trial after expected, positive, and negative trials in GT/INTs vs STs. Data are mean±SEM, *p<0.05.

Reinforcer-specific but not general satiety attenuates cue-triggered GRAB$_{DA}$ signal

In the current and following sections, we **report the number of ST an GT/INT rats for each experimental phase but** do not report tracking differences due to **decreased** statistical power

to detect group differences. **Prior studies indicate that the midbrain and striatal**

dopamine system tracks motivational state through satiety-dependent changes in the

magnitude of dopamine responses (Cone et al., 2014; Hsu et al., 2018; Wilson et al., 1995)**.**

Here we determined whether motivational state **also decreases task-related BNST** $GRAB_{DA}$

signals during **lever autoshaping**. After rats completed 25 trials of PLA along with the $GRAB_{DA}$

recordings, we sated **rats (N = 11, ST = 4, GT/INT = 7)** on the training pellets presented in

ceramic ramekin in the homecage or presented a sham condition in which an empty ramekin

was placed in the homecage for 30 minutes. Immediately after, we recorded $GRAB_{DA}$ signals

during the remaining 25 trials of PLA sessions. First, we compared Δ presses and Δ pokes

((CS+) – (CS-)) between hungry and sated or hungry and sham conditions using two-way

ANOVA with factors of State (Hungry, Sate) and Condition (Real, Sham). The number of

presses differed based on the satiety condition compared to hungry condition (State x

Condition: $F_{(1,20)}$ = 9.65, p=0.006). Post hoc analysis revealed that rats sated on training pellets

decreased lever presses predictive of food pellet reward (Fig. 4A left, hungry vs sated presses:

t_{10} = 3.02, p=0.013; hungry vs sham presses: t_{10} = -1.51, p=0.16). In contrast, the number of

pokes generally but not differentially increased during sated and sham condition compared to

hungry condition (Fig. 4A right, State: $F_{(1,20)}$ = 6.73, p=0.017, State x Condition: $F_{(1,20)}$ = 3.72,

p=0.068). Similarly, we examined cue-evoked $GRAB_{DA}$ signal ((CS+) – (CS-); 2s after cue

onset) between hungry and sated or hungry and sham conditions using ANOVA with factors of

State (Hungry, Sate) and Condition (Real, Sham). The differential change in lever presses was

associated with difference in cue-evoked $GRAB_{DA}$ signal during sated and sham condition

compared to hungry condition (State x Condition: $F_{(1,20)}$ = 6.68, p=0.018). Post hoc analysis

revealed that rats sated on pellets show a decrease in cue evoked $GRAB_{DA}$ signals but not in

sham conditions (Fig. 4E left, hungry vs sated: t_{10} = 2.71, p=0.022; hungry vs sham: t_{10} = -0.95,

p=0.35). While we observed a decrease in cue-triggered dopamine signals in sated conditions,

there was no change in reward consumption related dopamine signals in both sated and sham

conditions (Fig. 4E right, F's < 0.52, p's > 0.05). These results further bolster our finding that

BNST GRAB$_{DA}$ **signals encode** cue-outcome **associations, which similar to striatal**

dopamine signaling, is **blunted when the animal has** reduced motivational **drive** (Cone et al.,

2014; Wilson et al., 1995).

Next, we examined whether the reduction in cue evoked GRAB$_{DA}$ signal is specific to the

training pellet or whether it is sensitive to a general satiety state by sating rats on homecage

chow **(N = 7, ST = 3, GT/INT = 4)**. We conducted a similar analysis in pellet satiety experiment.

When we sated rats on chow, the number of presses differed based on the satiety condition

compared to hungry condition (State x Condition: $F_{(1,12)}$ = 5.86, p=0.032), however, there was no

change in cue-evoked GRAB$_{DA}$ signals (Fig. 4B,D,F, F's < 1.8, p's > 0.05). Similarly, the number

of pokes also differed based on the satiety condition compared to hungry condition (State x

Condition: $F_{(1,12)}$ = 9.61, p=0.009). Post hoc analysis revealed that rats decreased their poking

when sham compared to hungry (t_6 = 2.87, p=0.03). This is presumably due to a concurrent

non-significant increase in lever presses (sham sate presses: t_6 = -1.92, p=0.1). But this

decrease in foodcup pokes was not accompanied with a change in reward consumption evoked

GRAB$_{DA}$ signal (F's < 1.3, p's > 0.05). These results suggest that when rats are sated on the

outcome associated with the Pavlovian cue, there is an attenuation in GRAB$_{DA}$ signals while a

general satiety doesn't attenuate cue responding or GRAB$_{DA}$ signals.

Figure 4: dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals attenuate after reinforcer-specific but not general satiety. **A)** Average Δ Presses (CS+) – (CS-) (left) and average Δ pokes (CS+) – (CS-) (right) when rats were either sated on training food pellets in ramekin or sham-sated (ramekin only). **B)** Average Δ Presses (CS+) – (CS-) (left) and average Δ pokes (CS+) – (CS-) (right) when rats were either sated or sham-sated on homecage chow. **C)** Trial-averaged GRAB$_{DA}$ signal change (z-scored ΔF/F) during CS+ and CS-presentations when rats were hungry versus sated (top) and when rats were hungry versus sham-sated (bottom) on food pellets and **D)** on homecage chow. **E)** Trial average quantification of change (CS+) – (CS-) in area under GRAB$_{DA}$ z-scored curve (AUC) during lever extension (2s) (left) and reward consumption (right) between food pellet sated and sham and **F)** between homecage chow sated and sham conditions. Data are mean±SEM, *p<0.05. H = Hungry, S = Sated, Sh = Sham conditions.

Systemic fentanyl administration boosts GRAB$_{DA}$ signals to reward related cues

Opioids potentiate NAc activity and NAc DA responses to natural rewards and natural reward-associated cues (Bassareo et al., 2013; Castro and Berridge 2014; Mahler et al., 2007; Pecina and Berridge 2005). Here, we sought to determine whether opioids also potentiate task-related BNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals during natural reward seeking during lever autoshaping. We recorded GRAB$_{DA}$ signals **in a subset of rats (N = 4, ST = 2, GT/INT = 2)** during PLA after i.p injection of **synthetic μ-opioid agonist, fentanyl,** 5µg/kg (population average traces for saline and ip fentanyl injection in Figure 5A). We observed main effects of Treatment (vehicle, fentanyl) and CS (CS+,CS-), but the interaction was not significant, indicating that cue discrimination is maintained with systemic fentanyl injections, which generally potentiate DA signaling in the dBNST (Figure 5B , CS: $F_{(1,6)}$ = 24.42, p=0.003, Treatment: $F_{(1,6)}$ = 7.16, p=0.037, CS x Treatment: $F_{(1,6)}$ = 2.8, p=0.15).

Figure 5: Systemic administration of fentanyl results in potentiation of dBNST dopamine. A) Trial-averaged GRAB$_{DA}$ signal change (z-scored ΔF/F) when rats were injected with vehicle (left) or fentanyl (right) during PLA **C)** Trial average quantification of area under GRAB$_{DA}$ z-scored curve (AUC) during CS+ and CS- lever extension (2s) between vehicle and fentanyl conditions. Data are mean±SEM, *p<0.05.

Sex as a biological variable:

We use both male and female rats and have analyzed our photometry data from Pavlovian autoshaping, RPE, satiety and fentanyl test sessions using Sex instead of Tracking as a factor. We observed no main effects of Sex or interaction between Sex and any other factor.

Discussion

Using fluorescent dopamine sensor, GRAB$_{DA}$, we characterized phasic dBNST dopamine signals during a range of appetitive Pavlovian and instrumental conditions including lever autoshaping, reward violations, specific satiety, and cue-induced fentanyl-seeking. We found that dBNST dopamine signals are enhanced in STs compared to GT/INTs during cue presentation and shift from reward to cue across conditioning in STs but not in GT/INTs. Further, dBNST dopamine signals encode bidirectional reward prediction error and are greater in GT/INTs compared to STs following reward violations. Additionally, dBNST dopamine signals decrease to cue when rats are sated on food pellets associated with the cue but not when sated on homecage chow. Systemic fentanyl injections do not disrupt dBNST cue discrimination but generally potentiates dBNST dopamine signals.

Pharmacological studies establish that dopamine signaling in the dBNST maintains responding for sucrose and ethanol rewards and regulates the reinforcing properties of cocaine (Eiler et al., 2003; Epping-Jordan et al., 1998). Microdialysis and voltammetry studies show that natural and drug rewards, including opioids, increase DA in the BNST (Carboni et al. 2000; Park et al., 2012, 2013). Although dBNST dopamine is important for a variety of appetitive motivated behaviors, little is known about cue-evoked dopamine signaling and its role in cue-triggered motivation. A recent study showed BNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals associated with both cues and

rewards (Lin et al., 2020). Our data extend these findings by showing individual differences in

CS- and US-evoked BNST dopamine signaling during Pavlovian conditioning. We also

demonstrate that CS-evoked BNST DA signals are state dependent and outcome-specific.

Consistent with prior studies, we observed individual differences in sign- and goal-

tracking behaviors elicited by the CS (Boakes R.A, 1977; Hearst & Jenkins, 1974; Nasser et al.,

2015; Robinson et al., 2014). Accompanied with this behavioral variation, we observed tracking

differences in GRAB$_{DA}$ signals to CS onset and differences in dopamine signal transfer from US

to CS, both of which were stronger in sign-tracking compared to goal-tracking and intermediate

rats. We observed a relationship between CS maintained GRAB$_{DA}$ signal and PCA scores,

indicating sign-tracking approach and interaction with the lever cue is associated with

heightened dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signaling. These findings for the dBNST dopamine signal are

consistent with prior tracking differences in nucleus accumbens (NAc) dopamine signals during

Pavlovian lever autoshaping (Flagel et al., 2011). We also find that only in ST rats did GRAB$_{DA}$

signals adhere to Sutton & Barto (2018) reinforcement learning algorithm, which states that after

learning, reward-evoked signals are temporally transferred back to antecedent cues predicting

reward delivery (Nasser et al., 2017; Sutton & Barto, 2018). Consistent with this, we observed

an increase in sustained GRAB$_{DA}$ signal during the entire 10s CS interaction period on Day 5 of

PLA training compared to Day 1. Sustained BNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals during cue interaction period

could reflect a number of processes, including 1) ongoing lever interaction, 2) the incentive

value gain of the CS, 3) the strength of CS-US association, and/or 4) the back propagating US

to CS signal. Our results suggest that dopamine signaling differences between STs and GTs is

not just limited to NAc and could be present across a distributed network receiving

dopaminergic projections.

To adapt to environmental changes and learn about future rewards, dopaminergic

neurons calculate reward prediction errors (RPE) (Nasser et al., 2017; Schultz et al., 1997;

Watabe-Uchida et al., 2017). Here, we examined if BNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals encode RPE and

whether there are individual differences in dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals and behavioral strategies

following violations of reward expectations. We found that dBNST GRAB$_{DA}$ signals follow the

classical bidirectional prediction error signal such that the signals increased following

unexpected reward delivery and decreased following unexpected reward omission. Consistent

with attention for learning theories and empirical studies, we observed that rats increase their

food cup checking behavior on a trial after a positive or negative reward violation (Calu et al.,

2010; Pearce & Hall, 1980; Roesch et al., 2010). Sign-tracking rats increase foodcup checking

on trials after both unexpected reward delivery and omission, whereas GT/INTs increase

foodcup checking only after reward omission. Behaviorally this suggests GT/INT rats may be

more sensitive to negative reward violations than positive, which is consistent with their

sensitivity to outcome devaluation and their insensitivity to conditioned reinforcement (Keefer et

al., 2020; Keefer et al., 2022; Kochli et al., 2020; Morrison et al., 2015; Nasser et al., 2015;

Robinson and Flagel 2009; Smedley and Smith 2018). Such excitatory behavioral responses

(more checking for both increases and decreases in reward) before the trial are evidence for an

incremental attentional processes, which reflect enhanced attention to environmental predictors

for the purpose of increasing the rate of learning for either excitatory or inhibitory associations

(Calu et al., 2010; Holland and Gallagher 1993; Pearce & Hall, 1980; Roesch et al., 2007;

Roesch et al., 2010). Notably, reward prediction errors are critical for such enhanced attentional

processes, and the theoretical instantiation of incremental attention for learning about positive

and negative reward violations takes the absolute value of RPE signals into account (Pearce

and Hall 1980). Prior work establishes the involvement of other amygdala nuclei, namely the

basolateral and central nuclei of the amygdala for encoding unidirectional prediction error

signals that track enhanced attention after reward violations (Calu et al., 2010; Roesch et al.,

2010). Midbrain dopamine signaling is required for such attentional encoding in the basolateral

amygdala (Esber et al., 2012). Here we identify bidirectional dopamine encoding of positive and

negative reward violations in an extended amygdala nuclei, the dBNST. GT/INTs showed

evidence for bidirectional RPE in the dBNST DA signal, which may be important for enhancing

attention signals in downstream areas.

BNST receives heavy dopaminergic afferents from the A10 Ventral Tegmental Area

(VTA) and A10dc ventral periaqueductal grey/dorsal raphe (vPAG/DR) dopaminergic cell

groups, and to a lesser extent from the substantia nigra pars compacta and the retrorubral

nucleus (Daniel & Rainnie, 2016; Hasue & Shammah-Lagnado, 2002; Melchior et al., 2021;

Meloni et al., 2006; Vranjkovic et al., 2017). While VTA and SNc dopamine neurons classically

encode bidirectional reward prediction error signals, vPAG dopamine and its projections

unidirectionally encode rewarding and aversive outcomes, suggesting salient event detection

(Berg et al., 2014; García-García et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2020; Nasser et al., 2017; Schultz,

1997; Walker et al., 2020; Watabe-Uchida et al., 2017). Different aspects of the dBNST DA

signaling we observed leads us to postulate both dopamine projections may be contributing. For

the bidirectional RPE we observed in dBNST, we predict that VTA dopaminergic projections are

the source of dopamine during reward violations. In contrast, for the greater CS signaling in ST

compared to GT/INT rats may reflect salient features of the CS that support the attracting and

reinforcing properties of cues in sign-tracking rats, which may also be supported by

vPAG/DR→BNST dopamine. **Future studies are needed to identify the extent to which VTA**

and PAG/DR dopaminergic inputs contribute to the BNST DA signals observed here.

Dissecting the role of each dopaminergic input in driving cue and reward related

signaling and behavior will inform whether these circuits work synergistically or in

competition to influence appetitive behaviors (Lin et al., 2020; Park et al., 2012, 2013).

Anatomical studies indicate that a substantial proportion of putative dopaminergic

projections to BNST originate in the vPAG/DR (Hasue and Shammah-Lagnado, 2002;

Meloni et al., 2006). Prior work has established glutamate and dopamine co-release from

the vPAG/DR projection to BNST, positioning this input to directly influence BNST synaptic plasticity and associated behaviors (Li et al., 2016). Regardless, the dopamine dynamics reported here for BNST resemble those previously reported for nucleus accumbens in related behaviors (Clark et al., 2013; Flagel et al., 2011; Hart et al., 2014; Saddoris et al., 2015, 2016), suggesting a potential role for VTA DA in shaping BNST DA signaling. Notably, NAc DA also shows greater CS-evoked, and a greater shift from US to CS- evoked DA in ST compared to GT (Flagel et al., 2011). To our knowledge, tracking-related differences in bidirectional RPE signaling in the NAc have not been systematically tested, however the bidirectional error encoding we observe across all rats is consistent with prior NAc voltammetry study (Hart et al., 2014). Here we report that GT/INT, but not ST, show evidence for bidirectional RPE DA signaling in the BNST. Whether this is also the case for NAc DA signaling remains an open question. Consistent with our findings, short inter-trial-intervals (ITI, similar to what we employ here) during autoshaping promote both classic NAc DA RPE signaling and goal-tracking, whereas longer ITIs promote NAc DA CS-salience signaling and sign-tracking (Lee et al., 2018). Pharmacology studies show D1 receptors and NAc DA signaling drive CS-salience in sign-trackers (Chow et al., 2016; Saunders and Robinson 2012). The potentiating effects of hunger and systemic fentanyl injections on BNST DA signals observed here are in line with effects observed for NAc DA (Bassareo et al., 2013; Castro and Berridge 2014; Cone et al., 2014; Mahler et al., 2007; Pecina and Berridge 2005; Wilson et al., 1995). Notably, the NAc primarily receives input from the VTA, whereas the BNST receives DA inputs from VTA and vPAG/DR. The tracking specific differences in BNST dopamine signaling during simple appetitive approach and reward violations observed here suggest either 1) distinct contributions of VTA and vPAG/DR to dopamine signaling observed in BNST and/or 2) individual differences in the engagement of DA systems that bias towards CS-salience or RPE processes (Chow et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2018). Consideration of tracking-

specific dopamine signaling differences in future studies that employ projection-specific
manipulations will aid in interpreting each projection's contribution to BNST dopamine
signaling and behavior.

A methodological limitation of the current approach is that variations in
expression of fluorescent sensor and/or fiber placement along a gradient of DA input to
BNST could potentially influence the magnitude of GRAB$_{DA}$ measurements. Our fiber
placements were largely consistent (~73% at level of bregma) and overlapped with the
densest area of viral expression of the fluorescent sensor. At this level of BNST where
we measured the majority of GRAB$_{DA}$ signals, there is heavy vPAG/DR DA input and to a
lesser extent VTA input (Hasue and Shammah-Lagnado 2002)**. Other anatomical and/or**
functional studies that target BNST up to 0.2 mm anterior or posterior to bregma also
observe substantial putative dopaminergic input from vPAG/DR (Meloni et al. 2006; Yu et
al. 2021)**. Regardless, some rats presented in Figure 2 - Figure supplement 3 were**
excluded that had sufficient viral expression and fiber placement, but that did not show
evidence of dopamine binding in the dBNST during these Pavlovian tasks. While we are
limited from drawing conclusions from negative data, such individual differences in
extended amygdala dopamine signaling may be important for interpreting differences in
appetitive behaviors.

The BNST is a sexually dimorphic brain region (Hisasue et al., 2010; Shah et al., 2004;
Tsuneoka et al., 2017), highlighting the necessity of studying both sexes to fully understand the
contribution of BNST DA to motivated behavior. **Dopaminergic projections from**
vPAG/DR→BNST play sex-specific roles, with pathway activation associated with distinct
pain and locomotor behavioral changes for males and females, respectively (Yu et al.,
2021). We used both male and female rats in the present study and analyzed our **BNST DA**
photometry data from Pavlovian autoshaping, RPE, satiety test sessions using Sex instead of

Tracking as a factor. While we observed no sex effects here, prior studies establish BNST-

mediated sex differences in **pain and locomotor behaviors as well as in** opioid withdrawal

(Luster et al., 2020; Yu et al. 2021a; Yu et al., 2021b). While there is limited evidence for sex

differences in incubation of fentanyl seeking (a form of relapse), we find this effect to be

dependent on dBNST CRFR1 receptor signaling (Gyawali et al., 2020; Reiner et al., 2019,

2020). Drug-induced synaptic plasticity in the dBNST requires both dopamine and CRF and

molecular and electrophysiology studies suggest that DA increases CRF release in the dBNST

(Day et al., 2002; Kash et al., 2008). Given the known role for sex differences in CRF-induced

relapse and opioid withdrawal, it is critical to include both sexes when studying BNST DA and

CRF systems (Buffalari et al., 2012; Luster et al., 2020).

To our surprise, we found evidence for outcome-specific state dependent BNST GRAB$_{DA}$

signaling. Consistent with our prior studies, we found that rats decreased their lever responding

only when they were sated on food pellets specifically associated with the lever cue, but not

when sated on homecage chow (Keefer et al., 2020; Kochli et al., 2020). Similarly, we observed

decreased cue-evoked BNST GRAB$_{DA}$ when rats were sated on food pellets but not when they

were sated on chow. All rats ate all their pellets during these reinforced sessions, and we did

not see any change in GRAB$_{DA}$ signals during reward consumption when sated on either food

pellets or chow. Prior studies report a similar decrease in cue-evoked dopamine signals in the

basolateral amygdala and dopaminergic neuron activity in the DRN during satiety (Cho et al.,

2021; Lutas et al., 2019). Based on these studies that manipulated state using hunger or satiety,

we expected dopamine signals to generally decrease to cues both when sated on chow or

training pellets, but we found BNST dopamine signals only decreased when sated on the

training pellet associated with the cue. However, other studies find evidence for sensory specific

signaling in dopamine function and signaling (Sharpe et al., 2017; Takahashi et al., 2017). This

suggests BNST DA signals may carry sensory specific information that is critical for higher order

learning processes (Burke et al., 2007, 2008; Keefer et al., 2021; Lichtenberg et al., 2017;

Lichtenberg et al., 2021; Malvaez et al., 2015; Malvaez et al., 2019; Sias et al., 2021; Sharpe et

al., 2017; Takahashi et al., 2017).

Studies show elevated BNST dopamine, dopamine induced plasticity, and dopamine

mediated seeking behavior during and after drug administration (Carboni et al., 2000; Eiler et

al., 2003; Epping-Jordan et al., 1998; Kash et al., 2008; Krawczyk et al., 2013; Krawczyk et al.,

2011a; Krawczyk et al., 2011b; Melchior et al., 2021; Stamatakis et al., 2014). We extend these

findings by reporting that systemic fentanyl injections do not disrupt dBNST cue discrimination

and generally potentiate dBNST dopamine signals. The present study supports the need for

future work aimed at fully characterizing drug-induced changes to dBNST DA cue and reward

encoding during natural and opioid reward seeking.

Dopamine projections to the BNST are concentrated in the dBNST and synapse

specifically onto the CRFergic neurons (Meloni et al., 2006; Phelix et al., 1994). Molecular and

electrophysiology studies suggest that dopamine increases local CRF release in the dBNST and

drug-induced synaptic plasticity in the dBNST requires both dopamine and CRF (Day et al.,

2002; Kash et al., 2008; Silberman et al., 2013). These anatomical and *ex vivo* physiology

studies suggest dopamine and CRF are critically interacting to drive reward and stress-related

behaviors. Indeed, our prior work indicates that CRF receptor activation in the dBNST is

necessary for CS-triggered opioid relapse (Gyawali et al., 2020). Further, dBNST dopamine

receptor activation decreases blood corticosterone levels in mice suggesting that an increased

dopamine response in the dBNST could serve as an anxiolytic signal, which could promote

continued drug seeking (Daniel & Rainnie, 2016; Kash et al., 2008; Melchior et al., 2021; Meloni

et al., 2006).

The present findings add substantially to the role of dBNST dopamine in motivated

behaviors, providing a comprehensive characterization of endogenous dBNST dopamine

dynamics in cue-induced behaviors under several natural and drug reward conditions. The

fluorescent dopamine sensor GRAB$_{DA}$ is a useful tool for studying real-time BNST DA dynamics

in the context of motivated behaviors (Lin et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2020).

Materials and Methods

Key Resources Table

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
Transfected construct (*H. Sapiens*)	AAV9.hsyn.DA4.4.eyfp	WZ Biosciences	h-D03	Titer>1.0X10E13GC/mL
Chemical compound, drug	Fentanyl	Cayman Chemicals	Cat: 22659	
Chemical compound, drug	Reboxetine Mesylate	MedChemExpress	Cat: HY-14560C	
Chemical compound, drug	TCS	Access Technologies	Cat: TCS-04	
Chemical compound, drug	Paraformaldehyde	Sigma	Cat: P6148	
Software, algorithm	MED-PC IV	Med Associates	RRID: SCR_012156	Version: IV
Software, algorithm	Excel	Microsoft	RRID: SCR_016137	
Software, algorithm	SPSS	IBM	RRID: SCR_019096	Version: 26
Software, algorithm	Matlab	Mathworks	RRID: SCR_001622	Version: 2020a
Software, algorithm	Graphpad Prism	Graphpad Software	RRID: SCR_002798	Version: 9

Software, algorithm	Synapse Software	Tucker-Davis Technologies	RRID: SCR_006495	
Other	LED Driver	ThorLabs	Cat: DC4100	LED Driver capable of driving high-power four-wavelength LED sources simultaneously with a current range between 0 and 1000 mA
Other	Fluorescence Minicube	Doric	Cat: ilFMC4-G2_IE(400-410)_E(460-490)_F(500-550)_S	Fluorescence Mini Cube with 4 ports: one port for the functional fluorescence excitation light, one for the isosbestic excitation, one for the fluorescence detection, and one for the sample
Other	Fiber optic patchcord	Doric	D202-4094-3	MFP_400/430/LWMJ-0.48_3m_FCM-MF2.5
Other	Fiber optical cannula	ThorLabs	Cat: CFMC54L10	Ceramic ferrule Ø400 µm core, 0.50 NA fiber that is flat cleaved to a length 10 mm
Other	Metabond powder	Parkell	Cat: S396	See *Virus and fiber optic implantation surgery* for more details
Other	Metabond quick base	Parkell	Cat: S398	See *Virus and fiber optic implantation surgery* for more details
Other	Metabond catalyst	Parkell	Cat: S371	See *Virus and fiber optic implantation surgery* for more details
Other	Dental Cement	DenMat	Cat: 034524101	See *Virus and fiber optic implantation surgery* for more details
Other	Dental Cement Catalyst	DenMat	Cat: 4506	See *Virus and fiber optic implantation surgery* for more details

Other	Sucrose pellets	Test Diet	5TUL; Cat: 1811155	Purified ingredient rodent tablet, protein: 20.6%, fat: 12.7%, carbohydrate: 66.7%

Subjects: We used 8 weeks old male and female Sprague Dawley rats (Charles River, N = 42)

weighing >250g before surgery. After surgery, we individually housed the rats and maintained

them under a reversed 12:12 h light/dark cycle (lights off at 9 AM). We estimated the sample

size based on prior studies (Bacharach et al., 2018; Kochli et al., 2020) and pilot experiments.

Each primary experiment was replicated in at least one additional cohort. Investigators were

blinded to the tracking phenotype until the end of the experiments. We performed all

experiments in accordance with the "Guide for the care and use of laboratory animals" (8th

edition, 2011, US National Research Council) and the University of Maryland Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee approved all experimental procedures. We excluded rats

because of lack of viral expression **(N = 4)**, incorrect fiber optic placements **(N = 6)**, **and**

headcap loss (N = 4). Additionally, we excluded rats (N = 8) that showed food cup entry

artifacts before we optimized our photometry setup. The artifacts resulted in loss of

signal due to the patch cord hitting the wall of the foodcup. Finally, rats (N = 4) presented

in Figure 2 - Figure supplement 3 were excluded that had sufficient viral expression and

fiber placement but did not show robust photometry signals in the dBNST during CS+

presentation by day five of PLA training (see *Photometry Analysis* subsection for more

details).

Virus and fiber optic implantation surgery: We anesthetized 9-week-old rats with isoflurane

(4.5% induction, 2-3% maintenance) and placed them in a stereotaxic frame. We maintained

stable body temperature with a heating pad and administered pre-operative analgesic carprofen

(5 mg/kg, s.c) and lidocaine (10mg/mL at the site of incision). We made a scalp incision and

drilled a hole above left dBNST AP = 0.0 or -0.1 from bregma, ML = +3.5, DV = - 6.75 or -6.8 at

16° from midline for viral injection and DV = -6.6 or -6.7 relative to skull for fiber implantation. In

addition, we also drilled 3 holes anterior and posterior to attach anchor screws. We lowered 5µL

Hamilton syringe unilaterally into the dBNST and injected AAV9.hsyn.DA4.4.eyfp (1.14×10^{14}

GC/mL; WZ Biosciences) via a micropump at a volume of 0.7 - 1µL over 10 minutes. We

implanted the fiber optic (ThorLabs CFMC54L10, 400 µm, 0.50 NA, 10 mm) 0.1 mm or 0.15 mm

above the virus injection site. We anchored the fiber optic to the skull using dental cement

(Metabond and Denmat) and jeweler screws. We handled the rats at least three times a week

after surgery before starting behavioral and photometry sessions.

Apparatus: We conducted behavioral experiments in operant chambers housed in sound

attenuating cabinets (Med Associates). Each chamber had one white house light that was

illuminated during the entire session. On the opposite wall, two retractable levers (CS+ and CS-,

right or left location counterbalanced) were located on either side of the foodcup. The foodcup

was attached to a programmed pellet dispenser that delivered 45mg training pellets (Testdiet,

5TUL, protein 20.6%, fat 12.7%, carbohydrate 66.7%).

Pavlovian Lever Autoshaping (PLA): We conducted all training sessions during the dark phase.

Schematic of our behavioral design can be found in Figure 1A. Five weeks after viral injection

surgery, we maintained rats at 90% of *ad libitum* body weight and during all behavioral sessions

unless noted otherwise. Prior to the PLA training, we exposed rats to 25 magazine training trials

divided into three sessions to acclimatize rats to the operant box and fiber optic cables. The

three sessions consisted of 7,8, and 10 trials respectively in which two food pellets (US) were

delivered, 0.5s apart using a variable interval (VI) 60s (50-70s) schedule. After magazine

training sessions, we trained rats in five 46-minute PLA sessions. Each session consisted of 25

reinforced (CS+) and 25 non-reinforced (CS-) lever presentation trials on a mean VI 45s (35-

55s) schedule (Fig. 1B). Each CS+ trial consisted of the insertion and retraction of a lever for

10s followed by delivery of two food pellets, 0.5s apart. CS- trials consisted of

insertion/retraction of another lever, but no US delivery. We recorded food-cup and lever

approach during the ten seconds CS interaction and calculated a Pavlovian Conditioned

Approach (PCA) score (Meyer et al., 2012). We use PCA score as a comprehensive measure of

individual differences in PLA that account for contact, latency, and probability differences. We

used each rat's Days 4 and 5 average PCA score to determine whether they are sign-trackers

(avg PCA score ≥ 0.5, ST) or goal-trackers/intermediates (avg PCA score < 0.5, GT/INT).

Reward Prediction Error (RPE) Probe sessions: After five PLA sessions, we gave rats (N = 13)

one session in which we violated rats' reward expectations to probe for reward prediction error

signaling. During this session, only CS+ lever was presented, and rats received 48 trials divided

into three different trial types presented in pseudorandom order. In the 'expected reward'

condition, we gave 24 reinforced CS+ → US trials (50% of total trials). In the 'unexpected

reward' condition, we delivered two food pellets (US) randomly during the intertrial interval

period without the predictive CS+ (12 trials, 25% of total trials). Finally, in the 'unexpected

reward omission' condition, we delivered the CS+, but omitted the US (12 trials, 25% of total

trials) (Patriarchi et al., 2018).

Satiety test: After the RPE session, we trained a subset of rats (N = 11) in PLA for two more

days when rats were either sated on food pellets or hungry. On the first day, we gave half the

rats 30g of the training food pellets in a ramekin for 30 minutes (pellet sated condition) in their

home cage after rats had completed 25 out of 50 trials. For the other half of the rats, we gave

empty ramekins in their home cage (control condition). After 30 minutes, we placed the rats

back into the operant chamber where they completed the remaining 25 trials in PLA. The next

day, we gave training pellets to rats that received empty ramekins on the first day and vice

versa. We ran the chow satiety test in a subset of rats (N = 7) using the same experimental

design as pellet satiety test but replaced the food pellets in the ramekins with homecage chow

instead.

Fentanyl i.p injections: We injected 5μg/kg i.p fentanyl (Cayman Chemical) or vehicle in rats (N

= 4) 5 minutes before PLA sessions. We selected this dose based on pilot experiments. In two

counterbalanced PLA sessions, we gave the rats either i.p injection of fentanyl or saline.

Fiber Photometry: We used LEDs (ThorLabs) to deliver 465 nm (wavelength to excite GRAB$_{DA}$)

and 405 nm (isosbestic control) and measure dopamine activity. The isosbestic signal is used

as a control for fiber bleaching and motion artifacts as it is subtracted from the 465 nm signal

during analysis. We sinusoidally modulated the intensity of the 465 nm and 405 nm light at 210

and 337Hz respectively and connected the LEDs to a four-port fluorescence mini cube (Doric

Lenses). The combined LED output passed through a fiber optic cable (1 m long; 400 μm core;

0.48 NA; Doric Lenses) which was connected to the implanted fiber optics with sleeves. We

maintained the light intensity at the tip of the fiber optic cable at 10-15 μW across behavioral

sessions. We collected the GRAB$_{DA}$ and isosbestic control channel emission using the same

fiber optic cable and focused the emission light onto a photoreceiver (Newport). We low pass

filtered and digitized the emission light at 3Hz and 5 KHz respectively by a digital processor

controlled by Synapse software suite (RZ5P, Tucker Davis Technologies (TDT)). We time-

stamped the behavioral events including lever insertion/retraction, lever press, food cup entry

etc. by sending them as TTL (transistor-transistor logic) pulses to Synapse software.

Histology: After all behavioral testing, we deeply anesthetized rats with isoflurane and

transcardially perfused them with 200 mL of 0.1 M PBS followed by 400 mL of 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) in distilled H$_2$O. We quickly removed the brains and post-fixed them in

4% PFA for at least two hours before we transferred them to 30% sucrose in PBS for 48 hours

at 4°C. We subsequently froze the brains using dry ice and stored them in −20°C until

sectioning. We collected 50 μm coronal sections containing BNST on a cryostat (Leica

Microsystems) and preserved them in a cryopreservant. We mounted the sections on slides and

coverslipped them with Vectashield mounting medium with DAPI (Vector Laboratories). We

verified fiber optic placements and viral expression in the dBNST using anatomical boundaries

defined by Paxinos and Watson (Paxinos & Watson, 2006) under a confocal microscope. A

representative example and summary of GRAB$_{DA}$ expression and fiber placements are shown in

Fig. 1C.

Photometry Analysis: We analyzed the signals using custom-written MATLAB (Mathworks)

scripts. We calculated ΔF/F (z score) by smoothing signals from the isosbestic control channel

(Lerner et al., 2015; Root et al., 2020). We regressed the isosbestic signal onto the GRAB$_{DA}$-

dependent signal to create a fitted isosbestic signal by using the linear model generated during

the regression. We then calculated z scores by subtracting the fitted isosbestic signal from

GRAB$_{DA}$-dependent signal and dividing by the fitted isosbestic signal. This resulted in GRAB$_{DA}$

signal devoid of artifacts created by photobleaching, fiber bending, or movements. We collected

z scores in the behavioral window of interest defined as 5s before cue onset to 10s after pellet

delivery. We quantified area under the curve (AUC) in the 2s following cue onset and pellet

delivery and independently calculated these parameters for CS+ and CS- trials. In all dopamine

signal analyses, unless otherwise noted, we subtract CS- signal from the CS+ signal. We

defined significant transients in our behavioral window if the peak amplitude **during the trials (0**

to +20 s relative to cue onset) was 2 z-score (p=0.05) above baseline (5s prior to cue onset)

during the entire behavioral window on Day 1 or Day 5 of PLA. **Furthermore, to ensure**

these signals were time-locked to cues and not spurious, we calculated 95% confidence

intervals using bootstrapped resampling (1000 resamples) of all trials' photometry data

for each rat across CS+ trials of Day 5 of PLA. Most rats displayed a consistent, robust

increase in signal reaching significantly above baseline within 70 milliseconds of CS+

onset, that stayed above baseline for a minimum of 40 milliseconds, consecutively. 4 rats

did not meet either of these criteria (greater than 2 z-score peak signal or 40 ms of

consecutive time with significantly elevated signal at CS+) and were excluded. Their data

is in Figure 2 - Figure supplement 3. All included rats met both criteria. We also removed

trials where the patch cord disconnected from further signal processing.

Statistical Analysis: We analyzed the data using SPSS, Graphpad Prism, and Matlab. We used

mixed design repeated measures ANOVAs to analyze PLA behavioral and GRAB$_{DA}$ signal data.

Whenever ANOVAs revealed significant interactions between groups, we ran t-tests with

Bonferroni corrections for multiple comparisons to guard against Type I error. We define

dependent measures, within/between-subject factors, and report significant effects and

interactions in the corresponding results section.

Data availability

The data used in this manuscript are available on Zenodo (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.7017848).

Code availability

Modified TDT-supplied MATLAB code (https://www.tdt.com/docs/sdk/offline-data-

analysis/offline-data-matlab/fiber-photometry-epoch-averaging-example/) is available on Github

(https://github.com/ugyawali/photometry).

Ethics Statement
The animal study was reviewed and approved by University of Maryland, School of Medicine
Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.
770

771 **Conflict of Interest**
772 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
773 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.
774
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779

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