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1	Analysis of neuronal Ca ²⁺ handling properties by combining
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42 **Competing Interests**

- 43 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
- 44

45 Abstract

 Ca^{2+} functions as an important intracellular signal for a wide range of cellular processes. 46 These processes are selectively activated by controlled spatiotemporal dynamics of the free 47 cytosolic Ca^{2+} . Intracellular Ca^{2+} dynamics are regulated by numerous cellular parameters. 48 Here, we established a new way to determine neuronal Ca²⁺ handling properties by combining 49 the 'added buffer' approach (Neher and Augustine, 1992) with perforated patch-clamp 50 recordings (Horn and Marty, 1988). Since the added buffer approach typically employs the 51 standard whole-cell configuration for concentration-controlled Ca²⁺ indicator loading, it only 52 allows for the reliable estimation of the immobile fraction of intracellular Ca^{2+} buffers. 53 54 Furthermore, crucial components of intracellular signaling pathways are being washed out during prolonged whole-cell recordings, leading to cellular deterioration. By combining the 55 added buffer approach with perforated patch-clamp recordings, these issues are circumvented, 56 allowing the precise quantification of the cellular Ca²⁺ handling properties, including 57 immobile as well as mobile Ca^{2+} buffers. 58

60 Introduction

This study combined perforated patch clamp recordings with ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging 61 and the 'added buffer approach' to achieve significant improvements in the quantitative 62 analysis of neuronal Ca^{2+} handling. In neurons, Ca^{2+} serves as a ubiquitous signal in a wide 63 64 range of cellular processes, including the synaptic release of neurotransmitters, membrane excitability, enzyme activation, and activity-dependent gene activation (Augustine et al., 65 2003; Berridge, 1998; Clapham, 2007; Gilabert, 2020). These processes are selectively 66 regulated by controlled spatiotemporal dynamics of the free cytosolic Ca^{2+} (Berridge, 2006; 67 Berridge et al., 2000). Intracellular Ca^{2+} dynamics are regulated by numerous cellular 68 parameters (Ca²⁺ handling parameters) including Ca²⁺ influx through voltage- and ligand-69 gated Ca^{2+} channels, Ca^{2+} release from intracellular stores, the location of the Ca^{2+} source, 70 Ca^{2+} buffering by mobile and immobile buffers, Ca^{2+} extrusion, locally changing diffusion 71 coefficients as well as the geometry of the cell (Helmchen et al., 1996; Kloppenburg et al., 72 2000; Lin et al., 2017; Maravall et al., 2000; Neher and Augustine, 1992; Sabatini et al., 2002; 73 Tank et al., 1995). Impairment of this finely tuned system can cause neuronal dysfunction and 74 even neurodegeneration (Berridge, 2011; Chan et al., 2009). Neuronal Ca2+ handling 75 properties have been, up to now, analyzed by combining electrophysiological recordings and 76 Ca²⁺ imaging into what is referred to as the 'added buffer' approach (Neher and Augustine, 77 78 1992).

The added buffer approach is based on a single-compartment model with the following rationale. During the measurement of intracellular Ca^{2+} dynamics with Ca^{2+} chelator-based indicators, the amplitude and time course of the Ca^{2+} signals (free cytosolic Ca^{2+} concentration) are influenced by the concentration of the Ca^{2+} indicator (e.g., fura-2), since the indicator acts as an exogenous (added) Ca^{2+} buffer and competes with the endogenous buffer(s). Accordingly, increasing indicator concentrations reduce the amplitude and prolong the decay time constants of free intracellular Ca^{2+} fluctuations (Helmchen et al., 1996; Neher and Augustine, 1992; Pippow et al., 2009). If the buffering capacity (Ca²⁺ binding ratio) of the added buffer is known, the decay time constant can be used to estimate the Ca²⁺ signal kinetics in the absence of exogenous buffer. The model of the original added buffer approach (Neher and Augustine, 1992) provides estimates of Ca²⁺ handling parameters such as the free cytosolic Ca²⁺ concentration ([Ca²⁺]_i), the Ca²⁺ extrusion rate (γ), the Ca²⁺ binding ratio (κ_B), and the endogenous decay time constant (τ_{endo}).

The added buffer approach relies on information about the precise exogenous Ca²⁺ 92 buffer concentration in the neuron. Typically, the Ca^{2+} indicator concentration can be 93 94 determined at any time during the experiment from loading curves. The neurons are loaded *via* the patch pipette, whose solution contains a known Ca^{2+} indicator concentration. During 95 96 loading, fluorescence is monitored continuously, and it is assumed that when the fluorescence 97 reaches a plateau, the indicator concentrations in the cell and the pipette are equal. Loading is 98 usually performed in the whole-cell patch clamp configuration since this recording 99 configuration provides low access resistance, ensuring that the solution in the patch pipette 100 can freely interchange with the cytoplasm. Thus, the whole-cell configuration is ideally suited to "control" the composition of the intracellular milieu, including the Ca²⁺ indicator (added 101 Ca^{2+} buffer) concentration (what is in the patch pipette ends up being what is in the neuron). 102 103 However, the free exchange of molecules between cytoplasm and patch pipette disturbs intracellular signaling by washing out components of the cytosolic signaling system, 104 including, for example, mobile cytosolic Ca²⁺ buffers. This not only impairs neuronal function 105 but also causes estimation errors of the Ca²⁺ handling properties (Akaike, 1994; Akaike and 106 107 Harata, 1994; Delvendahl et al., 2015; Lindau and Fernandez, 1986; Matthews et al., 2013).

For pure electrophysiological recordings, this issue can be minimized or even ignored by using the perforated patch clamp configuration originally introduced by Horn and Marty (Horn and Marty, 1988). In this recording configuration, electrical access between the recording pipette and the intracellular space is mediated by perforating agents that form 112 channels or pores in the membrane. The washout of cytosolic components and the disruption 113 of intracellular signaling pathways are then drastically reduced compared to the whole-cell 114 configuration (Korn and Horn, 1989). The original and most commonly used perforating 115 agents have been the antibiotic polyenes nystatin and amphotericin B, and the antibiotic 116 polypeptide gramicidin (Akaike, 1994; Akaike and Harata, 1994; Hess et al., 2013; Horn and 117 Marty, 1988; Klöckener et al., 2011; Könner et al., 2011; Kyrozis and Reichling, 1995). While 118 polyenes and the peptide exhibit differences in their pore-forming mechanisms and ion 119 selectivities (De Kruijff and Demel, 1974; Myers and Haydon, 1972; Russell et al., 1977; 120 Tajima et al., 1996), their pores share key common properties: they are permeable to small 121 molecules with a molecular weight up to ~200 Da, including monovalent ions (Kruijff et al., 1974; Kyrozis and Reichling, 1995; Urry, 1971), but they are neither permeable to divalent 122 ions like Ca^{2+} nor to Ca^{2+} indicators like fura-2 (whose molecular weight is >600 Da). While 123 124 the combination of perforated patch clamp recordings and the added buffer approach would 125 be ideal, it cannot be implemented with the previous standard small pore-forming perforating 126 agents.

127 To alleviate the "small pore size" problem, we tried β -escin as the perforating agent. β -128 escin is a saponin (Sirtori, 2001) and is structurally not related to the previous perforating 129 agents. The action of saponins on biological membranes is concentration-dependent and 130 complex. Most models of its action propose that membrane permeabilization is mediated by 131 cholesterol complexation (formation of saponin-cholesterol complexes), which disturbs the 132 normal membrane structure or, at high concentrations, removes the cholesterol from the 133 membrane (Bangham et al., 1962; Böttger and Melzig, 2013). Since the pore size is generally 134 larger and accordingly less selective compared to the ones of nystatin, amphotericin B and 135 gramicidin, molecules of higher molecular weight (e.g., fluo-3, MW 770 Da) can pass through 136 the cell membrane (Fan and Palade, 1998; Orta et al., 2012). Nevertheless, ß-escin permeabilized membrane still constitutes an effective diffusion barrier to larger molecules like 137

138 Ca^{2+} binding proteins (Fan and Palade, 1998; Sarantopoulos et al., 2004). In previous studies, 139 β -escin has been successfully used to permeabilize smooth muscle cells (Kobayashi et al., 140 1989) and β -escin based perforated patch clamp recordings have been performed on cardiac 141 myocytes (Fan and Palade, 1998) and different neuron types (Inoue et al., 2014; 142 Sarantopoulos et al., 2004).

143 Here, we combined β -escin based perforated patch clamp recordings with the added buffer approach to measure intracellular Ca^{2+} handling properties. A thorough quantitative 144 145 analysis of the data showed that this approach leads to a significantly improved quantification of the Ca²⁺ handling properties of individual neurons from brain slices of adult mice. The core 146 147 experiments were performed on substantia nigra (SN) dopaminergic (DA) neurons from brain 148 slices of adult mice. SN DA neurons are endogenous pacemakers and rely very heavily on intact, precisely orchestrated intracellular pathways, especially cytosolic Ca^{2+} signaling. 149 150 Additionally, we performed a set of immunohistochemical experiments in cerebellar Purkinje cells, a cell type which is known for containing very high concentrations of calbindin D-28k, 151 a mobile Ca^{2+} binding protein (Abe et al., 1992). 152

154 **Results**

155 The goal of this study was to implement the 'added buffer approach', a powerful method to determine neuronal Ca^{2+} handling properties, in combination with perforated patch 156 157 clamp recordings, which allow for electrophysiological recordings without compromising 158 intracellular signaling. Since the typical perforating agents, nystatin, amphotericin B, and gramicidin, do not allow controlled loading of Ca^{2+} indicators, we explored the suitability of 159 160 β-escin for this purpose. This study was performed in brain slices of mice, mainly on DA SN 161 neurons. These neurons are particularly well suited to test this experimental approach since they are endogenous pacemakers (Fig. 1) that strongly rely on intact, precisely controlled Ca²⁺ 162 163 signaling (Bean, 2007; Lacey et al., 1989; Richards et al., 1997).

164 The first part of the study shows that β -escin enables long-lasting, high quality 165 perforated, patch clamp recordings with minimal rundown. The quality of these recordings is 166 comparable to amphoteric B perforated recordings. In the second part, we show that β -escin perforated patch clamp recordings allow controlled Ca^{2+} indicator loading and can 167 significantly improve the added buffer approach to analyze the Ca²⁺ handling properties of 168 169 individual neurons. We achieved controlled fura-2 loading with a minimized impact on the 170 integrity of the cells' cytoplasmic components. A thorough quantitative analysis of the data shows that this approach significantly improves the quantification of Ca^{2+} handling properties 171 172 in single neurons of adult animals compared to conventional whole-cell recordings. The versatility of this new approach is complemented by immunohistochemical stainings of 173 174 cerebellar Purkinje cells, which possess very high concentrations of the mobile Ca²⁺-binding protein calbindin D-28k. Here we could show that calbindin D-28k is retained during β-escin 175 176 perforated patch clamp recordings, which is in stark contrast to results obtained during whole-177 cell patch clamp recordings.

178

179 β -escin as perforating agent for perforated patch clamp recordings

180 After $G\Omega$ -seal formation, the perforation of the cell membrane was monitored by 181 continuously measuring the membrane potential and the amplitude of the action potentials. 182 Initially, 'on-cell' action potentials were observed in the cell-attached configuration (Fig. 2A). 183 Diffusion of β-escin into the membrane gradually changed the recording to the perforated-184 patch configuration, decreasing the series resistance and increasing the action potential 185 amplitude (Fig. 2A from left to right). The perforation process was considered fully 186 established when action potential amplitude and series resistance (R_S) had stabilized. Under 187 our experimental conditions, we observed that indicator loading started within ~5 min of seal 188 formation, and perforation was fully established after ~20 min (Fig. 2B).

189

190 *Comparison with other patch clamp configurations*

191 To compare the β-escin mediated recordings with other configurations of patch clamp 192 recordings, we analyzed whether and how important intrinsic neurophysiological parameters such as spontaneous or evoked action potential firing, membrane potential, and resting Ca²⁺ 193 levels ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$) are affected by the different recording configuration (whole-cell recordings, 194 195 and amphoteric n B- and β -escin perforated patch recordings). After establishing recordings 196 with stable access (as judged by the series resistance), spontaneous and evoked action 197 potential firing was monitored for at least 30 min. During whole-cell recordings, we observed 198 a dramatic rundown of these parameters. As expected, they did not change during 199 amphotericin B perforated-patch recordings. B-escin perforated-patch recordings gave results 200 similar to amphotericin B mediated recordings, and only a small decline of the spontaneous 201 firing was observed (Fig. 3A-D).

More specifically, during whole-cell recordings, more than 80% of the cells stopped spontaneous firing within 10 min after break-in (Fig. 3A, C). This loss of activity was accompanied by a ~4 fold increase in the resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ levels after 30 min of recording time

(Fig. 4). This substantial rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was a clear and direct indicator for the deteriorating 205 206 physiological state of the neurons (Kuchibhotla et al., 2008; Mattson, 2007) and showed directly that the Ca²⁺ handling properties change during whole-cell recordings. In contrast, 207 $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ remained stable during β -escin perforated patch recordings over the same time (Fig 4). 208 209 Taken together, β-escin perforated patch clamp recordings significantly outperformed whole-210 cell recordings, and B-escin perforated patch clamp recordings were of similar quality to 211 amphotericin B mediated recordings. Overall, the data are in line with many earlier studies 212 (e.g. (Horn and Marty, 1988; Husch et al., 2011; Lindau and Fernandez, 1986)) which clearly 213 show the impact of whole-cell recordings on the cytosolic integrity and to what extend 214 perforated patch clamp can minimize this impact (rundown), and thus are suitable to analyze 215 'true' intrinsic neurophysiological parameters over long periods of time.

216

217 *Permeability of* β *-escin mediated pores*

218 Next, we tested if the β -escin perforated membranes are permeable to fura-2 and to molecules with a MW in the range of Ca^{2+} buffering proteins, like calbindin D-28k. To clarify 219 220 this question, tetramethylrhodamine-dextran (TRD-40kDa, MW 40 kDa) or fura-2 was added 221 to the pipette solution, and the fluorescence in the cell body was monitored during the 222 recording. During β-escin perforated-patch recordings, the TRD-40kDa remained in the 223 recording pipette, while it diffused into the neuron during whole-cell recordings (Fig 5). 224 Furthermore, immunohistochemical staining showed that the endogenous calbindin-D28k 225 remains in the cell during β -escin perforated patch clamp recordings but is washed out during 226 whole-cell recordings (Supplement Fig. 1). In contrast, the loading curves for fura-2 (Fig. 6A) 227 confirmed that fura-2 could diffuse readily through the β -escin perforated membrane into the cell. These results suggested that β -escin is well suited to implement the added buffer 228 229 approach.

231 *Ca*²⁺ handling properties

232 Given the stable and reliable recording conditions provided by β -escin, we combined β escin perforated patch clamp recordings with ratiometric fura-2 Ca²⁺ imaging to analyze Ca²⁺ 233 handling properties. Using the added buffer approach, we determined the resting Ca^{2+} 234 concentration ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$), the Ca²⁺ binding ratio κ_s and the extrusion rate γ of SN DA neurons, 235 236 which display Ca^{2+} dependent endogenous pacemaking properties (Liu et al., 2014; Neuhoff 237 et al., 2002; Smits et al., 2013). Neurons were held at -70 mV to avoid spontaneous spiking. Clear and reproducible Ca^{2+} influx could be induced by trains of action potentials elicited by 238 current pulses (500 pA, 500 ms) (Fig. 6B). The resulting intracellular Ca²⁺ signals were 239 monitored by ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging (Fig 6C), and the data quality was compared with data 240 241 acquired with conventional whole-cell patch clamp recordings.

242 Fura-2 loading: The intracellular concentration of the exogenous buffer at any time 243 during the experiment was determined from the loading curves of the calcium indicator (Fig. 6A). DA SN neurons were loaded via the patch pipette with solutions containing 100 - 200244 245 µM fura-2. During dye loading, the fluorescence of the cell body was monitored in 30 s intervals using excitation at 360 nm (isosbestic point) to determine the dye concentration. 246 247 After the β-escin perforated-patch configuration was fully established, fluorescence appeared 248 in the cell bodies, and fluorescence intensity increased until it reached a stable plateau. The 249 intracellular fura-2 concentration was estimated for different times during the loading curve, 250 assuming that cells were fully loaded when the fluorescence reached a plateau and the fura-2 251 concentration in the cell and the pipette is equal at this point (for details see Methods).

Ca²⁺ handling properties: If the buffer capacity of the added buffer is known, the time constant of the transient decay ($\tau_{\text{transient}}$) can be used to estimate by extrapolation the Ca²⁺ signal to conditions, with only endogenous buffers present ($-\kappa_{\text{B}} = 1 + \kappa_{\text{S}}$). The model used for this study (Eq. (14), (Neher and Augustine, 1992) assumes that the decay time constants $\tau_{\text{transient}}$ are a linear function of the Ca²⁺ binding ratios (κ_{B} and κ_{S}). κ_{S} was determined from the negative x-axis intercept of a $\tau_{\text{transient}}$ over κ_{S} plot (Fig. 6D). The slope of the straight-line fit is the inverse of the extrusion rate (γ). The point of intersection of the linear fit with the y-axis denotes the endogenous decay time constant τ_{endo} (no exogenous Ca²⁺ buffer in the cell). This is demonstrated in Fig. 6 with an example of a DA SN neuron with following Ca²⁺ handling parameters: τ_{endo} : 0.7 ± 0.3 s, γ : 91.5 ± 10.4, s⁻¹, κ_{s} : 66.4 ± 24.7.

262

263 Comparison of data quality between whole-cell and β -escin perforated patch clamp 264 recordings

The data quality of the Ca^{2+} imaging experiments used to determine the Ca^{2+} handling 265 properties was markedly better for the β-escin perforated-patch configuration compared to 266 whole-cell recordings. Obvious evidence of "low-quality" data were implausible results such 267 as negative Ca^{2+} binding coefficients or Ca^{2+} transients that did not return to baseline as 268 frequently observed by us and previous studies (Fierro and Llano, 1996; Pippow et al., 2009). 269 For data sets that did not show such obvious flaws, an analysis on a finer scale confirmed the 270 271 significantly higher data quality of the β -escin perforated records. For this purpose, 272 parameters, which characterize the quality of data sets of individual neurons, were quantified. This included the goodness of fit for each Ca^{2+} transient (a mono-exponential fit) and the 273 274 linear regression that was used to fit the $\tau_{\text{transient}}$ - κ_{B} relation.

First, we tested the goodness of the mono-exponential fit for each Ca^{2+} transient. Since our analysis method yields a meaningful standard error for the estimated $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (see Methods), a fit obtained with a weighted nonlinear least-square produces standard errors for the estimated parameters (basal $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, $\Delta[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and, most importantly here, $\tau_{transient}$) as well as residuals following a known distribution if the data do indeed follow the model; namely the residual sum of squares (RSS) should be the realization of a draw from a χ^2 distribution with a known number of degrees of freedom, and the residuals should not be correlated. We decided 282 to keep a transient for further analysis if both the p-values of the RSS and the auto-correlation 283 at lag 1 were larger than 0.01 (giving a probability of false-negative of 0.02). Since the decay 284 fits were started once the transient had lost 50% of the peak increase (see Materials and 285 Methods), the number of data points used for each fit is not fixed, meaning that the number of 286 degrees of freedom of the χ^2 distribution associated with each RSS is also changing. A proxy 287 of the RSS that is easy to compare from transient to transient is the RSS per degree of 288 freedom (that should be close to 1 for a good fit) and is illustrated in Fig. 7C. This goodness 289 of fit criterium was fulfilled by 75% (24/32) of the transients measured in the whole-cell 290 configuration compared to 92% (67/73) of the transient measured in the perforated configuration (Fig. 7D; using an exact test, based on the hypergeometric distribution, the 291 292 probability that these two samples arise from the same underlying distribution is found to be 293 smaller than 0.02). We then used the data sets with at least three 'good' transients to perform 294 the linear regression ($\tau_{\text{transient}}$ - κ_{B} relation) and found that 15/15 (100 %) data sets with perforated recordings lead to an acceptable regression but only 2/6 (33 %) of those with 295 296 whole-cell recordings (Fig. 7G). Thus, while experiments in the whole-cell configuration can 297 yield results comparable to β -escin experiments (Fig. 8A [*right panel*]; κ_s : 19.9 ± 25.1, τ_{endo} : 0.4 ± 0.5 s, γ : 55.2 ± 10.4 s⁻¹), it is evident that in many cases the whole-cell results were 298 299 implausible (Fig. 8A, *middle and left panel*). In these cases, the linear regression fit of the data intercepts the x-axis at positive value leading to a negative Ca^{2+} binding ratio κ_s and a 300 negative endogenous decay time constant τ_{endo} , respectively (see (Delvendahl et al., 2015))(κ_s : 301 -72.9 ± 14.3 , τ_{endo} : -17.9 ± 2.7 s, γ : 4.0 ± 0.5 s⁻¹, *middle panel*; κ_s : -3.1 ± 10.3 , τ_{endo} : -0.04 ± 10.3 302 0.2 s, γ : 58.0 ± 4.4 s⁻¹, *left panel*). It is important to note that the implausibility of the results 303 304 from individual cells can be masked if pooled data sets from multiple neurons are analyzed 305 (Fig. 8C and D).

306 In summary, the overall quality of the data obtained in β -escin perforated patch clamp 307 experiments is tremendously improved compared to experiments in the whole-cell 308 configuration. This improvement results from two factors. The perforated configuration 309 preserves the general integrity and functionality of the cytoplasmic pathways, including the 310 Ca^{2+} handling machinery. In addition, it optimizes the measurements directly by preventing an 311 uncontrolled change in mobile Ca^{2+} buffer during the recording. Ultimately, this resulted in a 312 far more reliable and better-defined estimation of the Ca^{2+} handling properties of single 313 neurons.

315 **Discussion**

316 Using β -escin as a perforating agent, we showed that it is possible to combine longlasting perforated-patch recordings with controlled Ca²⁺ indicator loading and the 'added 317 buffer approach' to analyze neuronal Ca^{2+} handling properties. We consider this a substantial 318 progress, and of particular importance for the analysis of intracellular Ca²⁺ handling since the 319 320 perforated-patch clamp configuration allows stable recordings with minimized impact on the intracellular signaling system, including mobile components of the Ca²⁺ handling machinery, 321 i.e., mobile Ca^{2+} buffers. β -escin perforated recordings performed similarly well as 322 amphotericin B, gramicidin, or nystatin perforated patch recordings, which are the 'gold 323 324 standards' for stable long-term recordings (Horn and Marty, 1988; Husch et al., 2011; Rae et 325 al., 1991). B-escin perforated patch recordings clearly outperformed conventional whole-cell recordings, which becomes especially apparent by monitoring the Ca²⁺ levels. In contrast to 326 the whole-cell configuration, the resting Ca^{2+} concentration remained stable, indicating 327 328 healthy recording conditions.

329 Typically, the 'added buffer' approach has been used in combination with conventional whole-cell patch clamp recordings, which allows the controlled loading of cells with Ca²⁺ 330 331 indicator dves (e.g., fura-2) via the patch pipette (Delvendahl et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2000a; 332 Lin et al., 2017; Neher and Augustine, 1992). In this context, the whole-cell configuration has the obvious advantage that it allows for easy and reliable loading of the cell with Ca²⁺ 333 334 indicators. However, this advantage is offset by the disadvantage that intracellular 335 components are being washed out, leading to a gradual change of cellular properties over time. This causes not only general damaging effects on the physiology and Ca²⁺ handling 336 337 machinery of the cell, but it also introduces a systematic error to the analysis, since in the whole-cell configuration endogenous mobile Ca^{2+} buffer is leaving the neuron at an unknown 338 339 rate during loading of the 'added' buffer (here fura-2). Although this is not a new finding, since Neher and Augustine had already explicitly mentioned this matter in their original paper 340

341 (Neher and Augustine, 1992), and although many studies have applied the added buffer 342 approach in combination with whole-cell patch clamp recordings, this issue has not been 343 addressed directly. In a strict sense, the added buffer approach in combination with the wholecell configuration can only be used to analyze the immobile fraction of Ca²⁺ buffers and only 344 if the measurements start *after* the mobile Ca^{2+} buffers have diffused out of the cell and do not 345 interfere with the analysis. Accordingly, this approach can be explicitly used to analyze the 346 immobile Ca^{2+} buffers as convincingly shown by Müller et al. (2005) and Matthews et al. 347 348 (2013) in hippocampal neurons.

349 Employing β -escin as perforating agent addressed this issue and allowed to successfully combine perforated patch clamp recordings with controlled Ca²⁺ indicator loading, and thus 350 351 the added buffer approach. While our and other's whole-cell experiments (Delvendahl et al., 2015; Matthews et al., 2013; Müller et al., 2005) showed that molecules with a molecular 352 weight comparable to Ca²⁺ binding proteins started being washed out immediately after 353 354 establishing the whole-cell configuration, our permeability measurements showed that the β-355 escin perforated membranes retained TRD-40kDa in the recording pipette and calbindin D-356 28k in the neuron, indicating that the perforated membrane is impermeable for the relative large endogenous mobile Ca²⁺ buffers. Fura-2, on the other hand, with its low molecular 357 358 weight, could easily permeate through the perforated membrane.

359 For practical purposes, it is important to note that the permeability of the perforated membrane is concentration-dependent. Thus, the β -escin concentration might have to be 360 361 adjusted to different experimental conditions and cell types. Here, with β-escin concentrations of 10–15 µM, the perforated membrane was permeable to fura-2 but not to TRD-40kDa and 362 363 calbindin D-28k. In permeabilized muscle cells, β -escin concentrations of 50 – 100 μ M render 364 cell membranes permeable to molecules ranging from 10 to 150 kDa MW (Iizuka et al., 1997, 1994; Konishi and Watanabe, 1995). In recordings of cardiac myocytes with 50 μM β-escin, 365 the membrane was permeable for fluorescent markers with a MW up to 10 kDa after 20 - 25366

367 min recording time (Fan and Palade, 1998).

Taken together, this study shows that the newly established approach is suitable to improve the quantitative analysis of intracellular Ca^{2+} handling parameters markedly. The combination of perforated patch clamp recordings, which preserve the integrity and functionality of the intracellular milieu, with the 'added buffer approach', is a powerful tool to analyze mobile and immobile components of the intracellular Ca^{2+} handling machinery.

374 Materials and Methods

375 Animals and brain slice preparation

376 All animal procedures were conducted in compliance with protocols that were approved by local government authorities (LANUV NRW, Recklinghausen, Germany). Mice were 377 378 housed at 22 – 24 °C with a 12-hour light/12 hour dark cycle. Animals had access to water and 379 chow *ad libitum*. Experiments were performed on brain slices from 9 - 11 weeks old male 380 C57BL/6 mice. Preparation of brain slices, recordings from DA SN and Purkinje neurons, 381 labeling, and identification of neurons was performed as previously described (Hess et al., 382 2013; Könner et al., 2011; Murru et al., 2019). The mice were lightly anesthetized with 383 isoflurane (B506; AbbVie Deutschland GmbH & Co KG, Ludwigshafen, Germany) and 384 subsequently decapitated. Coronal slices $(250 - 300 \ \mu m)$ containing the SN or sagittal slices containing the cerebellum (300 µm) were cut with a vibration microtome (HM-650 V; 385 Thermo Scientific, Walldorf, Germany) under cold (4°C), carbogenated (95% O₂ and 5% 386 CO₂), glycerol-based modified artificial cerebrospinal fluid (GaCSF; (Ye et al., 2006)). 387 388 GaCSF contained (in mM): 250 Glycerol, 2.5 KCl, 2 MgCl₂, 2 CaCl₂, 1.2 NaH₂PO₄, 10 389 HEPES, 21 NaHCO₃, 5 Glucose, adjusted to pH 7.2 with NaOH. Brain slices were transferred 390 into carbogenated artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF). aCSF contained (in mM): 125 NaCl, 391 2.5 KCl, 2 MgCl₂, 2 CaCl₂, 1.2 NaH₂PO₄, 21 NaHCO₃, 10 HEPES, 5 glucose, adjusted to pH 392 7.2 with NaOH. First, they were kept for 20 min in a 35°C 'recovery bath' and then stored at room temperature (~24°C) for at least 30 min prior to recording. During the recordings, the 393 394 slices were continuously superfused with carbogenated aCSF. To block synaptic currents, aCSF contained 10⁻⁴ M PTX, 5 x 10⁻⁵ M D-AP₅, and 10⁻⁵ M CNQX. All recordings were 395 396 carried out at 24°C.

397

398 Electrophysiological recordings

399 DA SN neurons and the cerebellar Purkinje cells were recorded using whole-cell and 400 perforated patch clamp recordings. Neurons were visualized and imaged with a fixed stage 401 upright microscope (BX51WI, Olympus, Hamburg, Germany) using a 20× water-immersion 402 objective (XLUMPLFL, 0.95 numerical aperture, 2 mm working distance, Olympus) with a 403 4× magnification changer (U-TVAC, Olympus), infrared differential interference contrast 404 optics (Dodt and Zieglgänsberger, 1990) and fluorescence optics. Neurons were pre-identified 405 by the size and location of their somata. This pre-identification was verified in each case by a physiological characterization during the recording and post hoc by immunohistochemistry 406 407 for cell type-specific markers. DA SN neurons were recorded in the ventral tier SN. They 408 have a low frequency, regular firing patterns with broad action potentials, and generate a clear 409 $I_{\rm h}$ -dependent "sag"-potential upon hyperpolarization (Fig. 1) (Lacey et al., 1989; Richards et 410 al., 1997; Ungless et al., 2001). Purkinje cells were identified by their distinct morphology 411 and localization within the cerebellar cortex and by their high-frequency spontaneous firing 412 and very narrow action potentials (~200 µs; Supplement Fig. 1A) (Bean, 2007; McKay and 413 Turner, 2005, 2004)). During the experiments, biocytin (0.1%; B4261; Sigma) diffused 414 through the broken or perforated membrane into the recorded cell. Post recording, the identity 415 of DA SN neurons and cerebellar Purkinje cells was confirmed by their immunoreactivity for 416 the dopamine transporter (Fig. 1) (Ciliax et al., 1995) or the calcium-binding protein calbindin 417 D-28k (Supplement Fig. 1) (Abe et al., 1992; Fournet et al., 1986), respectively. Biocytin-418 streptavidin labeling combined with dopamine transporter or calbindin D-28k 419 immunohistochemistry was performed as previously described (Hess et al., 2013; Murru et 420 al., 2019).

421

422 Whole-cell patch and perforated patch-clamp recordings

423

Electrodes with tip resistances between 3 and 5 M Ω were fashioned from borosilicate

424 glass (0.86 mm inner diameter; 1.5 mm outer diameter; GB150-8P; Science Products, Hofheim. Germany) with a vertical pipette puller (PP-830; Narishige, London, UK). 425 426 Recordings were performed with an EPC10 patch-clamp amplifier (HEKA, Lambrecht, 427 Germany) controlled by the program PatchMaster (version 2.32; HEKA) running under 428 Windows. Data were sampled at 10 kHz and low-pass filtered at 2 kHz with a four-pole 429 Bessel filter. The calculated liquid junction potential between intracellular and extracellular 430 solution was also compensated (14.6 mV for normal aCSF, calculated with Patcher's Power 431 Tools plug-in from http://www.mpibpc.mpg.de/groups/neher/index.php?page=software for 432 IGOR Pro 6 [Wavemetrics, Lake Oswego, OR, USA]).

433 Whole-cell recordings were performed with pipette solution containing (in mM): 141 Kgluconate, 10 KCl, 10 HEPES, 0.1 EGTA, 2 MgCl₂, 3 K-ATP, 0.3 Na-ATP and adjusted to pH 434 7.2 with KOH. For perforated patch clamp recordings and Ca^{2+} imaging. ATP and GTP were 435 omitted from the pipette solution since ATP might distort the measurement of Ca²⁺ handling 436 437 properties (Matthews et al., 2013) and to prevent uncontrolled permeabilization of the cell membrane during perforated patch clamp recordings (Lindau and Fernandez, 1986). For Ca²⁺ 438 439 imaging, EGTA was replaced by 100 or 200 µM fura-2 (pentapotassium salt, F1200, 440 Molecular Probes, OR, USA).

441 Perforated patch recordings were performed using protocols modified from Fan and 442 Palade (Fan and Palade, 1998) and Sarantopoulos (Sarantopoulos et al., 2004). The patch pipette was tip filled with internal solution and backfilled with β -escin (~30 - 60 µg·ml⁻¹; 443 E1378; Sigma) or amphotericin B (~200 µg·ml⁻¹; A4888, Sigma) containing internal solution 444 445 to achieve perforated patch recordings. β-escin was prepared as a stock solution (25 mM in 446 internal solution) and stored up to 1 week at -20°C protected from light. Shortly before the experiments, the stock solution was diluted in intracellular saline to a final concentration. 447 Amphotericin B was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; final concentration 0.4 - 0.5%; 448 449 D8418, Sigma) as described previously (Hess et al., 2013; Kyrozis and Reichling, 1995; Rae

450 et al., 1991) and added to the modified pipette solution shortly before use. The amphotericin 451 B solution was freshly prepared every day. Ionophore containing solutions were stored on ice 452 and replaced every 4 hours as needed. After obtaining a G Ω seal, the perforation process was 453 monitored by continually measuring the access resistance (R_a). Experiments were started after $R_{\rm a}$ had reached steady-state, and the action potential amplitude was stable (20 – 30 min). A 454 455 rupture of the membrane and the resulting conversion to the whole-cell configuration was 456 indicated by abrupt changes in R_a or action potential amplitude. Such experiments were 457 rejected.

458

459 Imaging set up for fluorometric measurements

460 The imaging setup for fluorometric measurements consisted of an Imago/SensiCam 461 CCD camera with a 640x480 chip (Till Photonics, Gräfelfing, Germany) and a Polychromator 462 IV (Till Photonics) that was coupled via an optical fiber into the upright microscope 463 (microscope details are provided above). The camera and the polychromator were controlled 464 by the software Vision (version 4.0, Till Photonics) running under Windows. The excitation 465 light from the polychromator was reflected onto the cells with a dichroic mirror, and emitted 466 fluorescence was detected through an emission filter. The specific filter and mirror settings for 467 the different experiments are given below. Data were acquired as 80x60 frames using 8x8 on-468 chip binning. Images were recorded in arbitrary units (AU) and stored and analyzed as 12-bit 469 grayscale images. For analyzing the fluorescence dynamics, the mean AU values of regions of interest (ROIs) from the middle of the cell bodies were used. 'Background subtraction' for the 470 471 time series was performed with equivalent time series of neighboring ROIs.

472

473 Rhodamine-Dextran loading.

474 Loading experiments with fluorescent tetramethylrhodamine-dextran (TRD-40kDa,
475 MW 40 kDa, D1842, Life Technologies) were performed in the standard whole-cell or the

476 perforated patch configuration. The neurons were loaded with TRD-40kDa via the patch pipette (0.08%) and excited at 557 nm (bandpass: 562 nm, 562/40 BrightLine HC, Art-no. 477 478 F39-562, AHF Analysentechnik AG, Tübingen, Germany; beamsplitter: 593 nm, HC BS 593, 479 Art-no. F38-593, AHF). Emission was detected through a 593 nm long-pass filter (593/LP BrightLine HC, Art-no. F37-594, AHF). TRD-40kDa -fluorescence is reported as F/F_0 , where 480 481 F is the measured fluorescence, and F_0 is the averaged fluorescence of 5 consecutive images 482 in on-cell mode (before break-in or perforation of the cell membrane). Frames were taken in 483 intervals of 30 s.

484

485 Fluorimetric Ca^{2+} measurements with fura-2

Intracellular Ca²⁺ concentrations were measured with the Ca²⁺ indicator fura-2, a ratiometric dye suitable for absolute Ca²⁺ concentration determination once calibrated (Grynkiewicz et al., 1985; Poenie, 1990). DA SN neurons were loaded with fura-2 (pentapotassium salt, F1200, Molecular Probes) *via* the patch pipette (100 or 200 μ M). Fura-2 was excited at 340 nm, 360 nm, or 380 nm (410 nm dichroic mirror; DCLP410, Chroma, Rockingham, VT, USA). Emitted fluorescence was detected through a 440 nm long-pass filter (LP440).

493

494 Calibration and 'added buffer approach'

The free intracellular Ca^{2+} concentrations were determined as described by (Grynkiewicz et al., 1985), and the added buffer approach to analyze intracellular Ca^{2+} handling properties was performed as previously described (Neher and Augustine, 1992; Paeger et al., 2017; Pippow et al., 2009). For completeness and notation clarification, these methods are described in detail in the *Appendix*. In brief: The added buffer approach was used in combination with whole-cell and perforated patch clamp recordings and optical Ca^{2+} imaging. The added buffer approach is based on a single-compartment model with the rationale that for measurements of intracellular Ca^{2+} concentrations with Ca^{2+} chelator-based indicators, the amplitude and time course of the signals depends on the concentration of the Ca^{2+} indicator (here fura-2). The indicator acts as an exogenous Ca^{2+} buffer and competes with the endogenous Ca^{2+} buffer(s).

The kinetics of cytosolic Ca^{2+} signals strongly rely on the endogenous and exogenous 506 (added) Ca^{2+} buffers of the cell. The amplitude and decay rate of the free intracellular Ca^{2+} 507 change with increasing exogenous buffer concentration: The amplitude of free Ca^{2+} decreases, 508 509 and the time constant $\tau_{transient}$ of the decay increases. If the buffer capacity of the added buffer 510 is known, the time constant of decay ($\tau_{transient}$) can be used to estimate, by extrapolation, the Ca^{2+} signal to conditions, with only endogenous buffers present (- $\kappa_{\rm B} = 1 + \kappa_{\rm S}$). The model 511 used for this study (Eq. 4) assumes that the decay time constants $\tau_{transient}$ are a linear function 512 of the Ca²⁺ binding ratios (κ_B and κ_S). κ_S is determined from the negative x-axis intercept of 513 514 this plot. The slope of the fit is the inverse of the linear extrusion rate (γ). The point of intersection of the linear fit with the y-axis denotes the endogenous decay time constant τ_{endo} 515 (no exogenous Ca^{2+} buffer in the cell). A detailed description of how to estimate the variance 516 517 of these parameters is provided in the *Appendix*.

518

519 Tools for data analysis and statistics

Data analysis was performed with Igor Pro 6 (Wavemetrics), Spike2 (CED, Cambridge, UK), R (R Development Core Team [2009], <u>http://www.R-project.org</u>) and Graphpad Prism (version 8; Graphpad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). All calculations for the determination of EGTA purity, its dissociation constant, and the free Ca^{2+} concentrations in the calibration solutions were performed in R. If not stated otherwise, all calculated values are expressed as means \pm SEM (standard error of the mean). Box plots were constructed as follows: The '+' signs show the mean, the horizontal line the median of the data. Whiskers 527 indicate the minimum and maximum values of the data. For pairwise comparisons of dependent and independent normal distributions, paired and unpaired t-tests were used, 528 respectively. For pairwise comparisons of independent, not normal distributions, Mann-529 Whitney U-tests were used. For multiple comparisons, ANOVA was performed; post hoc 530 531 pairwise comparisons were performed using t-tests as indicated in the figures. For comparison of the resting Ca^{2+} levels ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$) over time under whole-cell and β -escin perforated-patch 532 533 clamp conditions, the regression slope, after linear fitting, was also used. Tests were executed 534 using GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). A significance level of 0.05 was accepted for all tests. Significance levels were: * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p <535 0.001. In all figures, n-values are given in brackets. Exact p-values are reported if p > 0.0001. 536 Scaling, contrast enhancement, and z-projections of images were performed with ImageJ 537 538 v2.0.0. The final figures were prepared with Affinity Designer (Ver. 1.6.1, Serif Ltd).

539

540 APPENDIX

541 *Measurement of free intracellular Ca*²⁺ *concentration*

542 The free intracellular Ca^{2+} concentrations were determined as in (Grynkiewicz et al., 543 1985):

$$[\mathrm{Ca}^{2+}]_{i} = K_{\mathrm{d,Fura}} \frac{F_{380,\mathrm{min}}}{F_{380,\mathrm{max}}} \frac{(R - R_{\mathrm{min}})}{(R_{\mathrm{max}} - R)} \quad (1)$$

[Ca²⁺]_i is the free intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration for the background-subtracted fluorescence ratio *R* from 340 nm and 380 nm excitation. R_{min} and R_{max} are the ratios at a Ca²⁺ concentration at virtually 0 M (i.e., ideally, no fura-2 molecules are bound to Ca²⁺) and at saturating Ca²⁺ concentrations (i.e., ideally, all fura-2 molecules are saturated with Ca²⁺), respectively. $K_{d,Fura}$ is the dissociation constant of fura-2. $F_{380,min\square}/\square F_{380,max}$ is the ratio between the emitted fluorescence of Ca²⁺ free dye and the emitted fluorescence of Ca²⁺ saturated dye at 380 nm excitation, reflecting the dynamic range of the indicator. 551 The term $K_{d,Fura}$ ($F_{380,min}/F_{380,max}$) in Eq. (1) is dependent on the dye concentration and is 552 substituted with the effective dissociation constant $K_{d,Fura,eff}$, which is independent of the dye 553 concentration and specific for each experimental setup (Neher, 1989):

$$K_{\rm d,Fura,eff} = [Ca^{2+}]_{\rm i} \frac{(R_{\rm max} - R)}{(R - R_{\rm min})}$$
 (2)

We used *in vitro* calibration (in solution). For calibration $K_{d,Fura,eff}$ was determined by measuring fura-2 fluorescence ratios for R_{max} , R_{min} , and $R = R_{def}$. R_{def} is the ratio for a defined [Ca²⁺]_i, which was set to 0.35 μ M (see below for the preparation of the solutions). $K_{d,Fura,eff}$ was then calculated from Eq. (2). To account for environmental differences between the cytoplasmic milieu and *in vitro* conditions, we used a correction factor (*P*) for R_{max} and R_{min} , as suggested by (Grynkiewicz et al., 1985), see also (Pippow et al., 2009):

$$K_{\rm d, Fura, eff} = [Ca^{2+}]_{\rm i} \frac{(R_{\rm max}P - R)}{(R - R_{\rm min}P)}$$
 (3)

560 *P* was determined as described by (Poenie, 1990; Zhou and Neher, 1993). First, the 561 fluorescence (peak) deflection at 340 nm was divided by that at 380 nm excitation from 562 voltage-induced intracellular calcium transients ($R_{d,cell}$). Second, the ratio ($R_{d,vitro}$) from pairs 563 of calibration solutions was determined by dividing ($F_{340,max} - F_{340,min}$)/($F_{380,min} - F_{380,max}$). 564 The correction factor *P* is the fraction of $R_{d,cell}/R_{d,vitro}$.

565 The fluorescence ratio *R* of an intracellular transient can then be converted to $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ 566 using:

$$[Ca^{2+}]_{i} = K_{d, Fura, eff} \frac{(R - R_{min} P)}{(R_{max} P - R)} \quad (4)$$

567 To determine the endogenous Ca^{2+} binding ratio, the dissociation constant ($K_{d,Fura}$) has to be 568 known. To formulate a relationship between $K_{d,Fura}$ and $K_{d,Fura,eff}$ that is independent of the dye 569 concentration, an isocoefficient α was introduced by (Zhou and Neher, 1993):

$$K_{\rm d,Fura} = K_{\rm d,Fura,eff} \frac{(R_{\rm min} + \alpha)}{(R_{\rm max} + \alpha)}$$
(5)

570 α is the isocoefficient, for which the sum

$$F_{\rm i}(t) = F_{340}(t) + \alpha F_{380}(t) \tag{6}$$

571 is independent of Ca^{2+} concentration. F_{340} and F_{380} are the background-subtracted 572 fluorescence signals measured during a brief Ca^{2+} transient. Once the isocoefficient has been 573 determined, $K_{d,Fura}$ can be calculated from Eq. (5).

Calibration solutions: The free Ca^{2+} concentrations of the calibration solutions were 574 adjusted by using appropriate proportions of Ca^{2+} and the Ca^{2+} chelator EGTA. The ability of 575 EGTA to bind calcium is highly dependent on the environmental conditions such as ionic 576 577 strength, temperature, pH, and the concentrations of other metals that compete for binding (Harrison and Bers, 1989, 1987). In theory, the necessary amount of Ca^{2+} and EGTA to set the 578 free Ca^{2+} concentration for the experimental conditions can be computed (Patton et al., 2004). 579 However, small variations in the parameters such as pH, temperature, impurities of chemicals, 580 pipetting, or weighing errors can lead to considerable errors in the estimate of the free Ca^{2+} in 581 EGTA-buffered Ca²⁺ solutions with computer programs (McGuigan et al., 2007). To account 582 for such variations, we determined the free Ca^{2+} concentrations in our calibration solutions by 583 using a Ca^{2+} selective electrode following the guide from McGuigan (McGuigan et al., 1991) 584 585 and Pippow (Pippow et al., 2009) as described in the supplemental. Calibration solutions were prepared as follows (in mM): Rmax: 140 KCl, 2.5 KOH, 15 NaCl, 1 MgCl₂, 5 HEPES, 10 586 CaCl₂ and 0.05 fura-2; R_{min}: 129.5 KCl, 13 KOH, 15 NaCl, 1 MgCl₂, 5 HEPES, 8 EGTA and 587 0.05 fura-2; R_{def}: 129.5 KCl, 13 KOH, 10.3 NaCl, 4.7 NaOH, 1 MgCl₂, 5 HEPES, 4 EGTA, 588 2.7 CaCl₂ and 0.05 fura-2, yielding a free Ca²⁺ concentration of 0.35 μ M. All solutions were 589 590 adjusted to pH 7.2 with HCl.

591 The concentrations of free Ca^{2+} were determined from the ratioed imaging signals 592 applying the approach from Grynkiewicz et al. (Grynkiewicz et al., 1985) (Eq. (2)). The calibration was performed *in vitro* (in solution). For calibration, a drop of each calibration solution (200 µl, R_{min} : no Ca²⁺, R_{def} : 0.35 µM Ca²⁺, R_{max} : 10 mM Ca²⁺) was placed on a sylgard coated recording chamber. Ratio images (from 340 nm and 380 nm excitation) were acquired for each solution. The acquired values were: correction factor (Poenie, 1990) P =0.78 ± 0.03, resulting in: $R_{max} = 1.267 \pm 0.055$ (n = 9); $R_{min} = 0.116 \pm 0.004$ (n = 9); $R_{def} =$ 0.277 ± 0.004 (n = 7); $K_{d,Fura,eff} = 1.048 \pm 0.052$ µM and isocoefficient $\alpha = 0.192 \pm 0.003$. According to Eq. (5) the K_d for fura-2 was $K_{d,Fura} = 0.222 \pm 0.082$ µM.

600

601 Single compartment model of calcium buffering: the 'added buffer approach'

For measurements of intracellular Ca^{2+} concentrations with Ca^{2+} chelator-based 602 indicators, the amplitude and time course of the signals are dependent on the concentration of 603 the Ca^{2+} indicator (in this case, fura-2) that acts as an exogenous (added) Ca^{2+} buffer and 604 competes with the endogenous buffers (Helmchen et al., 1997; Helmchen and Tank, 2015; 605 Neher and Augustine, 1992; Tank et al., 1995). With the 'added buffer approach' (Neher and 606 Augustine, 1992), the capacity of the endogenous Ca^{2+} buffer in a cell is determined by 607 measuring the decay of the Ca²⁺ signal at different concentrations of 'added buffer' and by 608 609 extrapolating to conditions in which only the endogenous buffer is present. Strictly speaking, 610 the added buffer approach in combination with the whole-cell configuration can only be used to analyze the immobile fraction of Ca^{2+} buffers and only when the measurements start after 611 the mobile Ca^{2+} buffers have diffused out of the cell and do not interfere with the analysis. In 612 contrast, β -escin perforated recordings can be used to measure the total endogenous Ca²⁺ 613 614 buffer capacity. The added buffer approach is based on a single-compartment model assuming that a big patch-pipette with a known (clamped) concentration of a Ca^{2+} indicator (fura-2) is 615 connected to a spherical cell. The model assumes that the cell contains an endogenous Ca²⁺ 616 buffer (S), of which the total concentration, dissociation constant $K_{d,S}$, and its on (k^+) and off 617 618 (k) rates are unknown. When the cell membrane is perforated by β -escin, fura-2 (in its bound

and unbound forms) starts to diffuse into the cell, which is considered small enough to be always in a 'well mixed' state (i.e., there are no gradients of chemical species within the cell body). In this model three cellular parameters determine the cytosolic Ca^{2+} dynamics: (1) Ca^{2+} sources, (2) Ca^{2+} binding ratio and (3) Ca^{2+} extrusion.

623 Ca^{2+} sources: In the model, two forms of Ca^{2+} sources are defined: (1) the Ca^{2+} influx 624 from the pipette ($j_{in,pipette}$) and (2) the Ca^{2+} entering the cell *via* voltage-activated channels 625 from a brief Ca^{2+} pulse, which can be described by a delta function ($j_{in,stim}$) (Helmchen and 626 Tank, 2015; Neher and Augustine, 1992):

$$j_{\rm in, \, pipette} = ([BCa_{\rm p}] - [BCa]) \frac{D_{\rm B}\rho}{R_{\rm p}}$$
(7)

$$j_{\rm in,stim} = n_{\rm Ca}\delta(t - t_{\rm stim}) = \frac{Q_{\rm Ca}}{2F}\delta(t - t_{\rm stim}) \quad (8)$$

[BCa] is the concentration of the exogenous buffer (fura-2) in its Ca²⁺ bound form (the subscript p is for quantities within the pipette), $D_{\rm B}$ is the diffusion coefficient of the exogenous buffer, ρ is the specific resistance of the pipette filling solution, $R_{\rm P}$ is the pipette resistance, $n_{\rm Ca}$ is the Ca²⁺ influx induced by the stimulus, $\delta(t-t_{\rm stim})$ is the delta function with $t_{\rm stim}$ as the time of stimulus, $Q_{\rm Ca}$ is the Ca²⁺ charge influx, and F is the Faraday's constant.

 Ca^{2+} binding ratio: In the cell, Ca^{2+} is bound to the Ca^{2+} buffers fura-2 and to the endogenous buffers, which are both assumed to be always in equilibrium with free Ca^{2+} and not saturated. The ability of the experimentally introduced exogenous buffer to bind Ca^{2+} is described by its Ca^{2+} binding ratio that is defined as the ratio of the change in buffer-bound Ca^{2+} over the change in free Ca^{2+} :

$$\kappa_{\rm B} = \frac{d[{\rm BCa}]}{d[{\rm Ca}^{2^+}]_{\rm i}} = \frac{[{\rm B}_{\rm T}]K_{\rm d,B}}{([{\rm Ca}^{2^+}]_{\rm i} + K_{\rm d,B})^2} \quad (9)$$

637 [B_T] is the total concentration of the exogenous buffer *B* and $K_{d,B}$ is its dissociation constant 638 for Ca²⁺. An analogous expression exists for the Ca²⁺ binding ratio of the endogenous buffer *S* 639 ($\kappa_{\rm S}$). 640 Ca^{2+} Extrusion: the model assumes a linear extrusion mechanism for Ca^{2+} (Neher and 641 Augustine, 1992):

642

$$j_{\text{out}} = \gamma \Delta [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i = \gamma ([\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i - [\text{Ca}^{2+}]_{i,\infty}) \quad (10)$$

[Ca²⁺]_{i,∞} is the steady-state intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration [Ca²⁺]_i, to which a transient decays. According to Neher and Augustine (Neher and Augustine, 1992), γ 'reflects the combined action of pumps, exchange carriers, and membrane conductances and has the dimension 1 s⁻¹. In the following, we refer to it as γ . In more recent publications γ is defined as the extrusion rate for Ca²⁺ measured in s⁻¹ (Helmchen et al., 1997, 1996; Lee et al., 2000a, 2000b; Lips and Keller, 1998; Palecek et al., 1999; Sabatini et al., 2002; Vanselow and Keller, 2000). Accordingly, we use (Jackson and Redman, 2003):

$$\gamma = \frac{\tilde{\gamma}}{V} \tag{11}$$

650 where V is the volume of the cell.

by a provide the provide the dynamics of the Ca^{2+} decay after a brief Ca^{2+} influx:

$$\frac{d[\operatorname{Ca}^{2+}]_{i}}{dt} + \frac{d[\operatorname{BCa}]}{dt} + \frac{d[\operatorname{SCa}]}{dt} = \frac{j_{\mathrm{in,pipette}} + j_{\mathrm{in,stim}} - j_{\mathrm{out}}}{V} \quad (12)$$

Substituting the time dependent terms for the buffers *B* and *S* with their Ca²⁺ binding ratios $\kappa_{\rm B}$ and $\kappa_{\rm S}$, respectively, [BCa] with its equilibrium value [BCa] = $[{\rm Ca}^{2+}]_i [{\rm B}_{\rm T}]/(K_{\rm d}+[{\rm Ca}^{2+}]_i)$ and $\tau_{\rm loading} = (VR_{\rm P})/(D_{\rm B}\hat{n})$ we get (Neher and Augustine, 1992):

$$\frac{d[\operatorname{Ca}^{2+}]_{i}}{dt} = \frac{\tau_{\operatorname{loading}}^{-1} \cdot ([\operatorname{BCa}_{p}] - \frac{[\operatorname{Ca}^{2+}]_{i}[\operatorname{B_{T}}]}{K_{d} + [\operatorname{Ca}^{2+}]_{i}}) + \frac{\tilde{\gamma}}{V} ([\operatorname{Ca}^{2+}]_{i,\infty} - [\operatorname{Ca}^{2+}]_{i}) + \frac{n_{Ca}\delta(t-t_{0})}{V}}{(1 + \kappa_{B} + \kappa_{S})}$$
(13)

Neher and Augustine (Neher and Augustine, 1992) linearized Eq. (13) to simplify the solution for this equation for the case in which the baseline for $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is constant, the concentration of the exogenous buffer $[B_T]$ is constant and does not influence the baseline Ca^{2+} , and when the amplitudes of the Ca^{2+} transients are small (Neher and Augustine, 1992). Where 'small' is defined as less than 0.5 $K_{d,Fura}$. When the Ca^{2+} pulse is short compared to the decay time constant, the delta function equals zero. Under these conditions, the decay of a voltageinduced Ca^{2+} transient can be described as:

$$\tau_{\text{transient}} = \frac{1 + \kappa_{\text{B}} + \kappa_{\text{S}}}{\gamma - \frac{(1 + \kappa_{\text{S}})}{\tau_{\text{loading}}}} for: [\mathbf{B}_{\text{T}}] = const \qquad (14)$$

$$small \,\Delta[\mathbf{Ca}^{2+}]_{i}$$

 $τ_{transient}$ is proportional to $κ_B$, and a linear fit to the data has its negative x-axis intercept at 1 + $κ_S$, yielding the endogenous Ca²⁺ binding ratio of the cell. The slope of this fit is the inverse of the Ca²⁺ extrusion rate γ (Eq. (11)). The y-axis intercept yields the time constant $τ_{endo}$ for the decay of the Ca²⁺ transient as it would appear in the cell without exogenous buffer.

667

668 Analysis of calcium buffering

669Dye loading was monitored at 360 nm excitation, the isosbestic point of fura-2. Frames670were taken at 30 s intervals (3 ms exposure time). We estimated the intracellular fura-2671concentration for different times during the loading curve, assuming that cells were fully672loaded when the fluorescence reached a plateau and the fura-2 concentration in the cell and in673the pipette is equal (100 or 200 μM) (Lee et al., 2000b).

During fura-2 loading, voltage-activated Ca^{2+} influx was induced by short spike trains, which were elicited by current pulses (500pA, 500ms) from a holding potential of about -70 mV. To monitor the induced Ca^{2+} transients ratiometrically, pairs of images at 340 nm (12 ms exposure time) and 380 nm (4 ms exposure time) excitation were acquired at 10 Hz for ~20 s. Typically 3 – 4 Ca^{2+} transients were induced during loading at different intracellular fura-2 concentrations.

681 Ratiometric Data Analysis

682 Getting the standard error of the ratiometric estimator

Given measurements at two excitation wavelengths (340 and 380 nm), \widehat{ADU}_{340} and \widehat{ADU}_{380} (these are pooled photon counts over the *P* pixels of the ROI) and concomitant measurements $\widehat{ADU}_{B,340}$ and $\widehat{ADU}_{B,380}$ (pooled photon counts over the *P*_B pixels of the "background region"), what we refer to as the "classical" ratiometric estimator at time t_i , is (Joucla et al., 2010) (Eq. 8):

$$\widehat{Ca}(t_i) = K_{eff} \frac{\widehat{r}(t_i) - R_{min}}{R_{max} - \widehat{r}(t_i)},$$
(1)

688 where K_{eff} , R_{min} and R_{max} are calibrated parameters (assumed exactly known for now) and 689 where (Joucla et al., 2010) (Eq. 6):

$$\hat{r}(t_i) = \frac{\left(T_{e,340}\right)^{-1} \left(\widehat{ADU}_{340}/P - \widehat{ADU}_{B,340}/P_B\right)}{\left(T_{e,380}\right)^{-1} \left(\widehat{ADU}_{380}/P - \widehat{ADU}_{B,380}/P_B\right)},$$
(2)

690 where $T_{e,\lambda}$ is the flash duration at wavelength λ . Our model for the fluorescence intensity at 691 each wavelength is (Joucla et al., 2010) (Eq. 2a and 2b):

$$F_{340} = \left\{ \frac{[Fura]_{total}\phi}{K_{Fura} + [Ca^{2+}]} \left(R_{min}K_{eff} + R_{max}[Ca^{2+}] \right) + s_{B,340} \right\} T_{e,340} P,$$
(3)

692 and

$$F_{380} = \left\{ \frac{[Fura]_{total}\phi}{K_{Fura} + [Ca^{2+}]} \left(K_{eff} + [Ca^{2+}] \right) + s_{B,380} \right\} T_{e,380} P,$$
(4)

693 where $s_{B,\lambda}$ is the auto-fluorescence at wavelength λ –assumed homogeneous among the *P* 694 pixels of the ROI–, K_{Fura} is a calibrated parameter, $[Fura]_{total}\phi$, is the total (bound plus 695 free) concentration of fura-2 in the cell multiplied by a dimensionless experiment specific 696 parameter, ϕ , lumping together the quantum efficiency, the neurite thickness, etc. 697 Under our assumptions (Joucla et al., 2010) (Eq. 5) we have (we don't use a " ^ " here since
698 we are dealing with a *random variable*, not a *realization* of it):

$$ADU_{\lambda}(t_i) = GF_{\lambda}(t_i) + \epsilon G_{\sqrt{F_{\lambda}(t_i) + \sigma_{read-out}^2}},$$
(5)

699 where G is the camera gain, $\sigma_{read-out}^2$ is its read-out variance, $F_{\lambda}(t_i)$ is given by Eq. 3 and 4 700 and where $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ (ϵ is a Gaussian random variable with mean 0 and variance 1). In 701 words: $ADU_{\lambda}(t_i)$ has a Gaussian distribution with mean $GF_{\lambda}(t_i)$ and variance $G^2(F_{\lambda}(t_i) +$ 702 $\sigma_{read-out}^2)$.

To determine the variance of $ADU_{\lambda}(t_i)$ we need to know $F_{\lambda}(t_i)$ and for that, we need to know $[Ca^{2+}](t_i)$ precisely what we want to estimate. But $EADU_{\lambda}(t_i)$, the expected value of $ADU_{\lambda}(t_i)$, is $GF_{\lambda}(t_i)$ so we can use the observed value $\widehat{ADU}_{\lambda}(t_i)$ of $ADU_{\lambda}(t_i)$ as an estimate for $GF_{\lambda}(t_i)$ –in Eq. 5 we plug-in $\widehat{ADU}_{\lambda}(t_i)$ for $GF_{\lambda}(t_i)$ – leading to:

$$\hat{\sigma}_{ADU_{\lambda(t_i)}}^2 = G\widehat{ADU}_{\lambda}(t_i) + G^2 \sigma_{read-out}^2 \approx \sigma_{ADU_{\lambda}(t_i)}^2, \tag{6}$$

707 In practice, when we are dealing with several pixels making a ROI, we must multiply the read-out variance by the number of pixels used. With the resulting $\hat{\sigma}_{ADU_{\lambda(t_i)}}^2$ we can work 708 with, to get $\hat{\sigma}_{r(t_i)}^2$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{\widehat{Ca}(t_i)}^2$. We could use the propagation of uncertainty (or error 709 710 propagation) together with Eq. 2 and 1 for that, but we can also use a Monte Carlo approach: 711 we draw a thousand quadruple of vectors $\left(ADU_{340}^{[j]}(t_i), ADU_{380}^{[j]}(t_i), ADU_{B,340}^{[j]}(t_i), ADU_{B,380}^{[j]}(t_i)\right) (j = 1, \dots, 1000)$ 712 from four

713 independent Gaussian distributions of the general form:

$$ADU_{\lambda}^{[j]}(t_i) = ADU_{\lambda}(t_i) + \epsilon_j \hat{\sigma}_{ADU_{\lambda}(t_i)}, \tag{7}$$

plug-in these quadruples into Eq. 2 giving us 1000 $r^{[j]}(t_i)$ before plugging in the latter into Eq. 1 leading to 1000 $\widehat{Ca}^{[j]}(t_i)$. The empirical variance of these simulated observations will be used as $\widehat{\sigma}^2_{\widehat{Ca}(t_i)}$.

717 The method proposed here is slightly less rigorous than the "direct approach" of (Joucla et al., 718 2010), but it is far more flexible since it does not require an independent estimation or 719 measurement of $[Fura]_{total}$. In the present study we also chose to consider the calibrated 720 parameters K_{eff} , R_{min} and R_{max} as known. Note that the values for these parameters are only estimates (necessarily imprecise since the calibration procedure is subject to errors). However, 721 722 since the same batch of fura-2 was used for all experiments, they should all have the same 723 (systematic) error. We are not trying to get the exact standard error of the calcium dynamics 724 parameters but to show the difference between two protocols ("classical whole-cell" versus 725 beta-escin perforated whole-cell). Ignoring the uncertainty on the calibrated parameters makes 726 our estimates less variable and helps to make the difference if it exists, clearer. For a true 727 calcium buffering capacity study, the errors on the calibrated parameters should be accounted for, and it would be straightforward to do it with our approach, simply by drawing also K_{eff} , 728 R_{min} and R_{max} values from Gaussian distributions centered on their respective estimates with 729 730 a SD given by the standard errors.

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732 **Objective or "cost" function**

733 We know now how to get both sequences of $[Ca^{2+}]$ estimates (Eq. 1) and standard errors 734 from sequences of *ADU* measurements. We also consider a calcium dynamics model (Eq. 8-735 10):

$$\frac{dCa(t)}{dt}\left(1+\kappa_F(Ca(t))+\kappa_E(Ca(t))\right)+\frac{j(Ca(t))}{v}=0,$$
(8)

736 where Ca(t) stands for $[Ca^{2+}]_{free}$ at time t, v is the volume of the neurite—within which

737 diffusion effects can be neglected — and

$$j(Ca(t)) \equiv \gamma(Ca(t) - Ca_{steady}), \qquad (9)$$

is the model of calcium extrusion — Ca_{steady} is the steady-state [1] $[Ca^{2+}]_{free}$ — and:

$$\kappa_F(Ca(t)) \equiv \frac{F_{total}K_F}{(K_F + Ca(t))^2}$$
 and $\kappa_E(Ca(t)) \equiv \frac{E_{total}K_E}{(K_E + Ca(t))^2}$

where *F* stands for the fluorophore and *E* for the *endogenous* buffer.

If the values of
$$\theta \equiv \left(Ca_{steady}, \frac{\gamma}{\nu}, E_{total}, K_E, F_{total}, K_F, Ca(t=0)\right)$$
 are known, we can
substitute these values in Eq. 8, solve it (numerically) and *predict* the time course of calcium
at any positive time. Let us write $Ca(t; \theta)$ as this solution of Eq. 8. In addition to this model,
we have used the results of the previous section, on a set of *N* time points t_i , a collection of
 $(\widehat{Ca}(t_i), \widehat{\sigma}_{\widehat{Ca}(t_i)})$. We can then define a first *objective* or *cost* function:

$$\Omega(\theta) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\frac{\widehat{Ca}(t_i) - Ca(t_i; \theta)}{\widehat{\sigma}_{\widehat{Ca}(t_i)}} \right)^2.$$
(10)

The next task is to find the value of $\hat{\theta}$ that makes Ω as small as possible; this a classical nonlinear weighted least squares problem (see (Nielsen and Madsen, 2010)). The advantage of this setting is that if we can find $\hat{\theta}$ (that is, if the minimum exists and is unique), we also get:

1. Confidence intervals for each element of θ through their standard error (in fact, more than that, since we get the full covariance matrix).

750 2. The distribution from which $\Omega(\hat{\theta})$ should have been drawn if the model, $Ca(t; \hat{\theta})$, is 751 indeed correct: a χ^2 distribution with $N - \#\theta$ degrees of freedom, where $\#\theta$ stands for 752 the number of elements of θ that are set from the fitted data. Point 2 gives us an objective basis to accept or reject a fit, an essential ingredient for the
procedure presented here.

755 Before going further, we should consider that θ in the form just defined contains 7 elements among which, 2 are supposed to be known, K_F and F_{total} . That leaves 5 values to extract from 756 the transient. This is not straightforward since the latter seems, at least at first glance, close to 757 a mono-exponential: $Ca(t; Ca_{steady}, \Delta, \tau) = Ca_{steady} + \Delta \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right)$ (from which only 3) 758 759 parameters can be obtained). Therefore, we follow (Neher and Augustine, 1992) and consider 760 an approximation of Eq. 8 where Ca(t) can be written as $Ca_{steady} + \delta Ca(t)$ and where 761 $\delta Ca(t)$ is small enough for a first order expansion of Ca(t) in the vicinity of Ca_{steady} to be *valid.* If we do this first order expansion, neglecting the communication between the pipette 762 763 and the cytosol during the transient we get (setting $\rho = 0$) in (Neher and Augustine, 1992) 764 (Eq. 15):

$$\frac{\delta Ca(t)}{dt} = -\frac{\frac{\gamma}{\nu}}{1 + \kappa_F (Ca_{steady}) + \kappa_E (Ca_{steady})} \delta Ca(t).$$
(11)

765 Leading to:

$$Ca(t; Ca_{steady}, \Delta, \tau) = Ca_{steady} + \Delta exp - \frac{t}{\tau},$$
 (12)

766 where the time constant τ is defined by:

$$\tau(\kappa_F) \equiv \frac{1 + \kappa_F + \kappa_E}{\frac{\gamma}{v}},\tag{13}$$

the dependence of the κ on Ca_{steady} has been made implicit. We see that if we can obtain several transients with different values of $[Fura]_{total}$ leading to several values of κ_F , we can exploit the linear dependence of τ on both κ to estimate κ_E by extrapolation. This is the essence of the added buffer approach. The implementation of the latter requires: 1. Get several (known) values of $[Fura]_{total}$ and therefore κ_F in the recorded neuron.

772 2. Trigger a calcium entry at each of these κ_F values and fit *the tail of the transient* with a 773 mono-exponential (Eq. 12)–fitting the tail ensures that the linear approximation of Eq. 8 774 by Eq. 11 is valid–.

775 3. Plot τ versus κ_F and fit a straight line to these points. The slope gives $\frac{v}{\gamma}$ and the x-axis 776 intercept gives κ_E .

The fit in point 2 is done with weighted non-linear least squares using $Ca(t; Ca_{steady}, \Delta, \tau)$ (Eq. 12) instead of $Ca(t; \theta)$ in the cost function definition (Eq. 10). Each fit gives $\hat{\tau}(\kappa_F)$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\tau}(\kappa_F)}$ together with a goodness of fit criterion. The $(\hat{\tau}(\kappa_F), \hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\tau}(\kappa_F)})$ are used in point 3 for a weighted *linear* least squares fit that also leads to confidence intervals on the estimated parameters and to a goodness of fit criterion.

782 The codes doing the "heavy" part of the analysis were written in C. Some higher-level scripts 783 were written in Python 3. The codes, their documentation, the data, and the way the codes 784 were applied to the data can be found on GitHub (https://github.com/christophe-pouzat/hess-785 et-al-beta-escin-2019) as well as on zenodo (https://zenodo.org/record/3238248). The 786 weighted linear and non-linear least squares routines, as well as the random number 787 generators, are the ones of the Gnu Scientific Library (GSL). The Lenvenberg-Marquardt 788 implementation of the GSL was used for the non-linear least squares. Optimization was ended 789 based on convergence criteria looking at the relative change of each estimated parameter 790 value and at the gradient norm (see the GSL documentation); as a safeguard, a maximum 791 number of iterations was set, but all the optimizations did actually stop because the 792 convergence criteria were met.

Following Neher and Augustine (1992), our analysis of the calcium transients relies on the
linearization (<u>https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linearization</u>) of an assumed calcium dynamics

795 (Eq. 9 to 15, (Neher and Augustine, 1992)). The key hypothesis that is made in all 796 linearizations is that the dynamical system under investigation (here the calcium 797 concentration) is submitted to a small perturbation from its resting state. What constitutes a 798 "small enough" perturbation for the linearization to be valid in practice depends, in the 799 specific case considered here, on parameters we do not know (total endogenous buffer 800 concentration, endogenous buffer dissociation constant, etc.), but we can be sure that the 801 closer we get to baseline, that is the later we look during the transient, the more likely the 802 "small enough" requirement is to be met. If the linearization is valid, the transient (more 803 precisely the portion of the transient that is fitted) must exhibit a mono-exponential decay, 804 something we can rigorously test. In order to get a procedure usable on every transient and 805 considering the fact that the peak response of the first transient can be large - 6 times the 806 baseline value, not really a "small" perturbation - we decided, before seeing the data, to start 807 all the fits from the time at which the transient had lost 50% of its peak value. This is 808 obviously arbitrary but it does not affect our results as the reader can check by downloading 809 our data and our code before rerunning the whole analysis using a different location from 810 which to start the fit. Accordingly, the number of data points used for each fit varies a bit 811 from transient to transient. This choice of fitting from the "half-peak time" was made before 812 seeing the data. It is important to realize that once such a choice has been made, we are 813 constrained, the fit is done automatically, and the residual sum of squares (RSS) is compatible or not with the theoretical χ^2 distribution. 814

Since we used a triple wavelength (340, 380 *and* 360) protocol for each point of the transient, we have access to an independent estimate of $[Fura]_{total}$. We saw, as in (Joucla et al., 2010) (Fig. 5), that the latter is not constant during the transients. When doing the τ versus κ_F linear regression we therefore computed systematically three regressions using the minimum, the mean and the maximum observed values of $[Fura]_{total}$ during the transient. We always report the results of regression leading to the smallest RSS (best fit). As the reader can check from our GitHub repository, none of our conclusions depend on this. We emphasize again that since our method generates standard errors for $\hat{\tau}$, the linear regressions are accepted or rejected on an objective basis (the RSS is compatible or not with the relevant theoretical χ^2 distribution).



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Figure 1. Basic identifying electrophysiological and morphological properties of dopaminergic substantia nigra neurons. The neurons were recorded in current clamp (left) and labeled with biocytin-streptavidin (magenta) via the patch pipette (right). The upper trace shows the regular pacemaker activity and long spike duration. On the lower trace, a hyperpolarizing current injection to -120 mV induced a clear 'sag potential', which is mediated by $I_{\rm h}$ and typical for this neuron type. Immunohistochemistry revealed dopamine transporter immunoreactivity (green), which a marker for dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra (*right, inset*). Scale bars: 20 µm, inset: 10 µm.





Figure 2. Perforated patch recordings of dopaminergic substantia nigra neurons using β -escin as a perforating agent. (A) Perforation process. Current clamp recording during the β -escin mediated membrane perforation showing the transition from 'on-cell' to the 'perforatedpatch' configuration. The time (in min) after the seal was established, is given above each trace. (B) "Duration" of the perforation process: the time required for the baseline of the membrane potential (V_{mem}) and the action potentials amplitude (AP_{Amp}) to stabilize.





861 862

863 **Figure 3.** β -escin mediated perforated patch clamp recordings allow stable recordings. (A,B) 864 spontaneous activity (A) and depolarization-induced spike trains (B) recorded from DA SN neurons in the whole-cell and perforated patch clamp (β -escin- or amphotericin mediated) 865 configuration at different times after reaching "stable" recording conditions. (C,D) Stability 866 867 of electrophysiological parameters in the different recording configurations. (C) Spontaneous 868 activity. Friedman-test with post-hoc Dunn's multiple comparison test. (D) The number of 869 action potentials per current pulse (holding potential -70 mV; current pulse, 500 pA for 500 870 ms). Note that the large hyperpolarization following the current injection disappeared during 871 the whole-cell recording. Repeated measures one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple 872 comparison test. **: p≤0.01, ***: p≤0.001, ****: p≤0.0001.

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Figure 4. Intracellular Ca²⁺ concentrations remain stable during β-escin mediated perforated patch clamp recordings. Relative changes in intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration during the time course of β-escin perforated (pale red, red) and whole-cell patch clamp recordings (grey, black). Linear fits of all experiments (pale red and grey) are shown, with individual data points represented as squares. The bold red and black line are the linear fits of all β-escin perforated and whole-cell recordings. Whole-cell n=8; β-escin n=13. p<0.0001; F-test.

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Figure 5



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Figure 5. Large molecules diffuse very slowly through the perforated membrane during patch clamp recordings with β -escin. Time course of tetramethylrhodamine-dextran (40 kDa) fluorescence in DA SN neurons for whole-cell (\circ) and β -escin perforated patch recordings (•). n-values are given in the figure. Values are mean ± SEM.

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Figure 6. Outline of the Ca^{2+} handling properties analysis. Ca^{2+} handling was analyzed using 902 a combination of patch clamp recordings, ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging, and the 'added buffer 903 904 approach'. (A-D) demonstrate the principal steps of the analysis for a single DA SN neuron. 905 The neuron was recorded and fura-2-loaded in the β-escin perforated patch clamp 906 configuration. (A) Fura-2 loading curve. Neurons were loaded via the patch pipette with the ratiometric Ca^{2+} indicator fura-2, which also serves as the added Ca^{2+} buffer. Fura-2 907 fluorescence was acquired at 360 nm excitation (isosbestic point of fura-2) every 30 s and 908 converted into fura-2 concentrations. (B) Spike trains that induce the voltage-activated Ca^{2+} 909 910 influx shown in (C) at different times during loading, as indicated in (A). (C) Monoexponential fits of the individual Ca^{2+} transients following the four stimulations. The 911 graphs demonstrate the effect of the increasing added Ca²⁺ buffer (fura-2) concentration on 912 the amplitude, and decay kinetics of voltage evoked transients of free Ca^{2+} : the amplitude 913 914 decrease while the decay time increases. Notice the error bars on the individual data points. 915 These error bars allow us to properly normalize the residuals (the difference between 916 observed and fitted values divided by the standard deviation) shown below. If the mono-917 exponential model is correct and if its parameters have been properly estimated, these 918 residuals should be (approximately) drawn for a Gaussian distribution with mean 0 and SD 1. (D) The decay time constants were plotted against the Ca²⁺ binding ratios of fura-2 (κ_B). κ_B 919 was calculated from the intracellular fura-2 concentration, the K_d of fura-2, and the resting 920 concentration of free intracellular Ca^{2+} . The solid red line is the linear fit to the data. An 921 estimate of κ_s was obtained as the negative x-axis intercept. The Ca²⁺ extrusion rate is 922 923 estimated from the slope of the fit and the endogenous decay time constant from the intercept with the y-axis. The resulting Ca²⁺ handling parameters of this example are: τ_{endo} : 0.7 ± 0.3 s, 924 γ : 91.5 ± 10.4, s⁻¹, κ _s: 66.4 ± 24.7. 925



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Figure 7. The goodness of fit comparison between Ca^{2+} transients recorded in the whole-cell 929 930 and β -escin perforated patch clamp configuration. In both configurations, SN neurons were loaded with fura-2 via the recording pipette, as illustrated in figure 6. (A, B) Induced Ca²⁺ 931 transients with increasing added Ca^{2+} buffer (fura-2) concentrations (from left to right). The 932 933 monoexponential fit is shown in red with the residuals below. (C) Comparison of Residual Sum of Squares (RSS) per Degrees Of Freedom (DOF) between all recorded Ca²⁺ transients 934 935 under both recording configurations; if everything goes well, a value close to 1 should be obtained. (D) Percentage of 'good transients' vs 'bad transients' (E) RSS per DOF of the 936 'good transients' shown in (D). (F) Comparisons of the residuals of the baseline fits at the 937 938 beginning of the recording and more than 10 minutes after the beginning of the recording for 939 both recording configurations. (G) Percentage of data sets with at least three 'good transients' 940 that provided acceptable regressions.

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Figure 8. β -escin perforated patch clamp recordings provide systematically plausible Ca²⁺ 944 945 handling properties. (A,B) $\tau_{transient}$ - κ_B relations of 'added buffer' experiments using the 946 whole-cell (A) and β -escin perforated patch clamp configuration (B). (A) Data sets of three neurons obtained using the whole-cell configuration, demonstrating that this approach can 947 948 provide plausible (right panel) and implausible (middle and left panel) results. (B) Three data 949 sets that were obtained using the β -escin perforated configuration. Note the consistently 950 'better fits' and the higher plausibility of the x-axis intercept compared to (A). (C,D) $\tau_{transient}$ -951 $\kappa_{\rm B}$ relations of 6 SN neurons recorded in the whole-cell configuration (C) and 15 SN neurons 952 recorded in the β -escin perforated patch clamp configuration (D). To demonstrate that the 953 implausibility of individual data sets can be masked if pooled data sets of multiple neurons are 954 analyzed, fitting was performed for the pooled data and for each neuron individually. For the 955 pooled data, the best linear fits with 95% confidence bands are shown (solid and dashed red lines). 956

Supplement Figure 1



Supplement Figure 1. The Ca^{2+} binding protein calbindin D-28k is retained in cerebellar Purkinje neurons perforated during β-escin patch recording. (A) Basic electrophysiological morphological and characteristics of a Purkinje neuron. The neurons were recorded in current clamp and labeled with biocytinstreptavidin (magenta) via the patch pipette. The recording demonstrates the high spontaneous action potential frequency and the short action potential duration, which both are typical for this neuron type. Immunohistochemical labeling demonstrates strong immunoreactivity for calbindin D-28k, which is typical for Purkinje cells (inset). (B) The Ca^{2+} binding protein calbindin D-28k is washed during whole-cell out

980 recording (left column), while it is retained in neurons during β-escin perforated patch 981 recording. (right column). The images show two biocytin-steptavidin labeled Purkinje cells 982 (top panels) and their calbindin D-28k immunoreactivity (middle panels). The overlay of both 983 labels is shown in the bottom panels. Both neurons were recorded for 30 min. Scale bars: 20 984 µm, insets: 10 µm.

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