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Parvalbumin interneuron dysfunction in a thalamo-prefrontal cortical circuit in Disc1 locus impairment mice (Running title: Parvalbumin interneuron dysfunction in Disc1 LI mice)

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1 ABSTRACT

3 Altered cortical excitation-inhibition (E-I) balance resulting from abnormal parvalbumin 4 interneuron (PV IN) function is a proposed pathophysiological mechanism of schizophrenia (SZ) 5 and other major psychiatric disorders. Preclinical studies have indicated that disrupted-inschizophrenia-1 (DISC1) is a useful molecular lead to address the biology of prefrontal cortex 6 7 dependent cognition and PV IN function. To date, prefrontal cortical inhibitory circuit function 8 has not been investigated in depth in Disc1 locus impairment (LI) mouse models. Therefore, we 9 used a Disc1 LI mouse model to investigate E-I balance in medial prefrontal cortical (mPFC) 10 circuits. We found that inhibition onto layer 3 excitatory pyramidal neurons in the mPFC was significantly reduced in Disc1 LI mice. This reduced inhibition was accompanied by decreased 11 GABA release from local PV, but not somatostatin (SOM) interneurons, and by impaired 12 13 feedforward inhibition in the mediodorsal thalamus (MD) to mPFC circuit. Our mechanistic findings of abnormal PV IN function in a *Disc1* LI model provide insight into biology that may be 14 15 relevant to neuropsychiatric disorders including schizophrenia.

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17 SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT:

A popular theory suggests that dysregulation of fast-spiking parvalbumin interneurons (PV INs) 18 19 and elevated excitation-inhibition (E-I) balance contribute to the pathophysiology of various 20 psychiatric disorders. Previous studies suggest that genetic perturbations of the disrupted-in-21 schizophrenia-1 (Disc1) gene affect prefrontal cortex-dependent cognition and PV IN function, 22 but synaptic and circuit physiology data are lacking. Here, we provide evidence that the 23 presynaptic function of PV INs in the medial prefrontal cortex is altered in Disc1 LI mice and that E-I balance is elevated within a thalamofrontal circuit known to be important for cognition. These 24 25 findings may contribute to our understanding of the biology that gives rise to cognitive 26 symptoms in a range of neuropsychiatric disorders.

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28 INTRODUCTION

29 PV INs provide powerful somatic inhibition to excitatory pyramidal neurons and regulate E-I balance (Isaacson and Scanziani, 2011). Prefrontal PV INs are implicated in working 30 memory (WM) function (Cardin et al., 2009; Fries, 2009; Sohal et al., 2009; Murray et al., 2015; 31 Ferguson and Gao, 2018b) and have emerged from human postmortem studies as a key node 32 33 of interest in the pathophysiology of schizophrenia (Beasley and Reynolds, 1997; Hashimoto et 34 al., 2003; Lewis et al., 2012). Therefore, dysregulation of E-I balance via altered PV IN function 35 is a potential pathophysiological mechanism of particular relevance to cognitive symptoms of 36 neuropsychiatric diseases, including schizophrenia. Cognitive impairment is seen in first-degree 37 relatives of individuals with a range of major mental illnesses (Cannon et al., 2000; Myles-38 Worsley and Park, 2002; Snitz et al., 2006), suggesting that these processes are partly heritable 39 and may be better understood through investigation of promising genetic and molecular leads.

A translocation in the gene disrupted-in-schizophrenia-1 (Disc1) was first reported in a 40 41 Scottish pedigree, as a rare but penetrant genetic risk factor that may account for a wide range 42 of major mental illnesses such as depression and schizophrenia (Millar et al., 2000). This 43 suggests that biological pathway(s) involving the multifunctional hub protein DISC1 contribute to cognitive and behavioral dimensions that are disrupted in neuropsychiatric illnesses (Niwa et al. 44 45 2016). While DISC1 is not a common genetic variant associated with schizophrenia in large population samples (Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics, 2014), it can 46 47 serve as a molecular lead to study the biology underlying important constructs/dimensions that 48 are relevant to major mental illness (Niwa et al., 2016). Work in mouse models has revealed the importance of DISC1 in neurodevelopment (Kamiya et al., 2005; Ishizuka et al., 2007; Mao et 49 al., 2009; Niwa et al., 2010; Ishizuka et al., 2011), synaptic function (Hayashi-Takagi et al., 50 2010; Wang et al., 2011; Maher and LoTurco, 2012; Sauer et al., 2015; Seshadri et al., 2015; 51 Wei et al., 2015), and cognitive processing (Brandon and Sawa, 2011). WM impairments are 52 53 consistently reported across Disc1 mouse models (Koike et al., 2006; Clapcote et al., 2007; Li et 58 Disc1 perturbation, evidence from synaptic and circuitry physiology is lacking. 59 Here, we investigated the synaptic and circuit level function of PV INs within the prefrontal cortex (mPFC) circuits of mice heterozygous for the Disc1 locus impairment (LI) 60 61 allele, in which the majority of Disc1 isoforms are abolished (Seshadri et al., 2015; Shahani et 62 al., 2015). We found that Disc1 LI was associated with elevated E-I balance and abnormal PV 63 IN function in mPFC circuits relevant to cognition. 64 65 MATERIALS AND METHODS 66 Animals 67 Mice were group housed under a 12-h light-dark cycle (9 a.m. to 9 p.m. light), with food and 68 water freely available. Both male and female mice were used. All procedures involving animals 69 were approved by the Institute Animal Care and Use Committees of Cold Spring Harbor

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70 Laboratory and conducted in accordance to the US National Institute of Health guidelines. The

al., 2007; Kvajo et al., 2008; Lipina et al., 2010; Niwa et al., 2010; Brandon and Sawa, 2011;

Lee et al., 2013). Furthermore, a variety of Disc1 mouse models exhibit reduced prefrontal PV

expression (Hikida et al., 2007; Shen et al., 2008; Ibi et al., 2010; Niwa et al., 2010; Ayhan et al.,

2011; Lee et al., 2013). While this data is suggestive that PV INs may be particularly affected by

71 PV-Cre (http://jaxmice.jax.org/strain/008069.html), SOM-Cre

72 (http://jaxmice.jax.org/strain/013044.html), and Ai14 (https://www.jax.org/strain/007914) mice

73 were described previously (Hippenmeyer et al., 2005; Madisen et al., 2010; Taniguchi et al.,

2011). We previously generated the *Disc1* LI mice, which harbor a deletion (6.9 kb)

encompassing the first 3 exons of the *Disc1* gene (Seshadri et al., 2015). The majority of DISC1

r6 isoforms are abolished in mice homozygous for the Disc1 LI allele (Seshadri et al., 2015), and in

the current study we used mice that harbored one Disc1 Ll allele (+/-). All mice have been bred

78 onto C57BL/6 background for at least 5 generations.

79 Viral vectors

Adeno-associated virus (AAV) vectors AAV-CAG-ChR2(H134R)-YFP and AAV-eF1a-DIO-ChR2(H134R)-YFP were produced as AAV2/9 serotype by the University of North Carolina Vector Core (Chapel Hill, NC) and have been previously described (Zhang et al., 2007; Delevich et al., 2015). All viral vectors were stored in aliquots at -80°C until use.

84 Stereotaxic surgery

85 Mice aged postnatal day 40 to 56 (P40-P56) were used for all surgeries. Unilateral viral 86 injections were performed using previously described procedures (Li et al., 2013) at the 87 following stereotaxic coordinates: MD, -1.58 mm from Bregma, 0.44 mm lateral from midline, 88 and 3.20 mm vertical from cortical surface; dorsal mPFC: 1.94 mm from Bregma, 0.34 mm 89 lateral from midline, and 0.70 mm vertical from cortical surface. Surgical procedures were 90 standardized to minimize the variability of AAV injections. To ensure minimal leak into 91 surrounding brain areas, injection pipettes remained in the brain for ~5 min post-injection before being slowly withdrawn. The final volume for AAV-CAG-ChR2(H134R)-YFP injected into MD 92 was 0.3–0.35 μl, and for AAV-eF1a-DIO-ChR2(H134R)-YFP injected into dorsal mPFC was 0.5 93 μ l. The titer for the viruses was ~10¹² viral particles/ml. For experiments in which mPFC 94 95 inhibitory interneurons were optogenetically stimulated (Figure 2) mice were injected at P56 and 96 ~2 weeks were allowed for viral expression before recording. For experiments in which MD 97 axons within mPFC were optogenetically stimulated (Figures 3 & 5) mice were injected at P40-98 45 and ~4 weeks were allowed for viral expression before recording. For each of these 99 experiments, littermates were injected and recorded at the same age to control for expression 100 duration between genotypes. 101

102 Electrophysiology

103 Mice were anaesthetized with isoflurane and decapitated, whereupon brains were quickly 104 removed and immersed in ice-cold dissection buffer (110.0 mM choline chloride, 25.0 mM 105 NaHCO₃, 1.25 mM NaH₂ PO₄, 2.5 mM KCl, 0.5 mM CaCl₂, 7.0 mM MgCl₂, 25.0 mM glucose, 106 11.6 mM ascorbic acid and 3.1mM pyruvic acid, gassed with 95% O₂ and 5% CO₂). Coronal slices (300 µm in thickness) containing mPFC were cut in dissection buffer using a HM650 107 Vibrating Microtome (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and were subsequently transferred to a 108 chamber containing artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) (118 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 26.2 mM 109 110 NaHCO₃, 1 mM NaH₂ PO₄, 20 mM glucose, 2 mM MgCl₂ and 2 mM CaCl₂, at 34 °C, pH 7.4, gassed with 95% O₂ and 5% CO₂). After ~30 min recovery time, slices were transferred to room 111 112 temperature and were constantly perfused with ACSF.

113 The internal solution for voltage-clamp experiments contained 140 mM potassium gluconate, 10 mM HEPES, 2 mM MgCl₂, 0.05 mM CaCl₂, 4 mM MgATP, 0.4 mM Na₃GTP, 10 114 mM Na₂-Phosphocreatine, 10 mM BAPTA, and 6 mM QX-314 (pH 7.25, 290 mOsm). 115 116 Electrophysiological data were acquired using pCLAMP 10 software (Molecular Devices). mIPSCs were recorded in the presence of tetrodotoxin (1 µM), APV (100 µM), and CNQX (5 117 118 μ M). mEPSCs were recorded in the presence of tetrodotoxin (1 μ M) and picrotoxin (100 μ M). 119 Data were analyzed using Mini Analysis Program (Synaptosoft). For the mIPSCs and mEPSCs, 120 we analyzed the first 300 and 250 events, respectively, for each neuron. The parameters for 121 detecting mini events were kept consistent across neurons, and data were quantified blindly 122 with regard to the genotypes.

123 To evoke synaptic transmission by activating ChR2, we used a single-wavelength LED 124 system (λ = 470 nm, CoolLED.com) connected to the epifluorescence port of the Olympus BX51 125 microscope. To restrict the size of the light beam for focal stimulation, a built-in shutter along the 126 light path in the BX51 microscope was used. Light pulses of 0.5-1 ms triggered by a TTL 127 (transistor-transistor logic) signal from the Clampex software (Molecular Devices) were used to 128 evoke synaptic transmission. The light intensity at the sample was ~0.8 mW/mm². 129 Electrophysiological data were acquired and analyzed using pCLAMP 10 software (Molecular Devices). IPSCs were recorded at 0 mV holding potential in the presence of 5 µM CNQX and 130

131 100 µM AP-5. Light pulses were delivered once every 10 seconds, and a minimum of 30 trials 132 were collected. In paired-pulse recordings, 2 light pulses separated by 50, 100, or 150 ms were 133 delivered. In cases that the first IPSC did not fully decay to baseline before the onset of the 134 second IPSC, the baseline of the second IPSC was corrected before the peak was measured. 135 To measure the kinetics of the IPSCs, averaged sweeps collected at the 150 ms interval were 136 normalized, and the decay time constant and half-width were measured using automated 137 procedures in the AxoGraph X 1.5.4 software.

To determine IPSC reversal potential (E_{IPSC}), IPSCs were recorded at varying holding potentials (20 mV steps) in the presence of CNQX (5 µM) and APV (100 µM) to block AMPA receptors and NMDA receptors, respectively. IPSC amplitude was measured, and a linear regression was used to calculate the best-fit line, and the x-intercept was used as the E_{IPSC} . Under our recording conditions, the E_{IPSC} was ~ -60 mV. Therefore, in the excitation/inhibition ratio (E/I) experiments, we recorded EPSCs at -60 mV and IPSCs at 0 mV holding potential. The only drug used for the E/I experiments was APV (100 µM). In these experiments we used the same light intensity for evoking both IPSCs and EPSCs. In addition, we used similar stimulation regime for WT and *Disc1* LI mice, such that the peak amplitudes of IPSCs are comparable between genotypes.

For the experiments in which we optogenetically stimulated the MD axons in the mPFC, mice were excluded if the extent of infection in the MD was too large and leaked into surrounding brain regions. Rodent MD lacks interneurons; therefore all ChR2 infected neurons are expected to be relay projection neurons (Kuroda et al., 1998).

The latency and 10-90% rise-time of EPSCs and IPSCs were calculated from either the averaged trace or individual sweeps for each cell using automated procedures in the AxoGraph X 1.5.4 software. ESPC and IPSC onset latency was calculated as the time from stimulation onset to 10% rise time, with EPSC-IPSC delay calculated as the difference. The 10% rise time has been reported to be a more reliable measure of delay to onset, as it minimizes the 157 contribution of EPSC and IPSC rise time differences that are reflected in the time to peak
158 (Mittmann et al., 2005). Some of the control data from WT mice used for comparing with *Disc1*159 LI mice (appearing in Fig. 3, 4) were previously reported in Fig. 1, 2, and 4 of (Delevich et al.,
160 2015).

161 Data analysis and statistics

162 All statistical tests were performed using Origin 9.0 (Origin-Lab, Northampton, MA) or GraphPad Prism 6.0 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, California) software. All data were tested for 163 164 normality using the D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus normality test to guide the selection of 165 parametric or non-parametric statistical tests. Data are presented as mean ± s.e.m. or median ± 166 interguartile range as indicated. For parametric data, a two-tailed t test or two-way ANOVA was 167 used, with a post hoc Sidak's test for multiple comparisons. For non-parametric data, a two-168 tailed Mann-Whitney U test was used. P < 0.05 was considered significant. A summary of the 169 statistical analyses performed can be found in Table 1.

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171 RESULTS

172 Inhibitory synaptic transmission is impaired in adult Disc1 LI mice

As a first estimation of inhibitory drive in the mPFC, we recorded mIPSCs onto L2/3 PNs 173 174 in the dorsal anterior cingulate cortex (dACC) subregion of the mPFC in adult mice (postnatal day (P) 70). We found that compared with wild-type (WT) littermates, Disc1 LI mice had 175 176 significantly reduced mIPSC frequency (WT, 3.75 ± 3.25 Hz, n = 27 cells, N= 6; Disc1 LI, 2.27 ± 2.72 Hz, n = 29 cells, N=5; U = 217.0, ^aP < 0.01, Mann-Whitney U test), but not amplitude (WT, 177 12.5 ± 2.48 pA, n = 29 cells, N= 6; *Disc1* LI, 12.52 ± 1.51 pA, n = 27 cells, N=5; *U* = 351.0, ^b*P* = 178 0.51, Mann-Whitney U test) (Fig. 1A-C). The two groups did not differ in measures of miniature 179 180 excitatory postsynaptic currents (mEPSC) (frequency: WT, 3.47 ± 1.97 Hz, n = 23 cells, N=4; Disc1 LI, 2.79 ± 2.4 Hz, n = 20 cells, N=5; U = 173.0, °P = 0.17, Mann-Whitney U test; 181 amplitude: WT, 8.91 ± 0.18 pA; Disc1 LI, 8.99 ± 0.37 pA, t₍₄₁₎= 0.18, ^dP = 0.86, t-test) (Fig. 1D-182

F). Notably, we found that the frequency (but not amplitude) of mIPSCs recorded from dACC L2/3 PNs in *Disc1* LI mice was lower than their WT littermates at preweanling (~P15) age amplitude (amplitude: WT, n = 44 cells; *Disc1* LI, n = 26 cells; ^{e}P = 0.12, *t* test; frequency: WT, n = 44 cells; *Disc1* LI, n = 26 cells; ^{f}P < 0.05, Mann-Whitney U test) (Fig. 1G-I). These data indicate that the inhibitory synaptic transmission is selectively impaired in the mPFC of *Disc1* LI mice, and that this impairment manifests early in postnatal development.

189 Altered presynaptic function of PV interneurons in Disc1 LI mice

190 A reduction in mIPSC frequency could result from a decrease in synaptic transmission 191 from one or more inhibitory IN populations. To investigate the source of reduced inhibitory drive onto L2/3 PNs in the mPFC of Disc1 LI mice, we sought to examine the IPSCs originating from 192 193 either PV or SOM INs. To this end, we selectively expressed channelrhodopsin (ChR2), the 194 light-gated cation channel (Zhang et al., 2006), in PV or SOM INs by injecting the mPFC of 195 Disc1 LI; PV-Cre or Disc1 LI; SOM-Cre mice, as well as their wild-type (WT) littermates, with an 196 adeno-associated virus (AAV) expressing ChR2 in a Cre-dependent manner (AAV-DIO-197 ChR2(H134R)-YFP). After viral expression had reached sufficient levels, we prepared acute brain slices from these mice and recorded from mPFC L2/3 PNs light-evoked IPSCs (Fig. 2A, 198 199 D). We used paired light pulses (pulse duration 1 ms) with an inter-pulse-interval of 50, 100, or 200 150 ms, and measured the ratio of the peak amplitude of the second IPSC over that of the first 201 (IPSC₂/IPSC₁), also known as paired-pulse ratio (PPR) (Fig. 2B, E). A similar technique has 202 previously been used to interrogate presynaptic GABA release from PV interneurons (Chu et al., 203 2012).

We found that the PPR of GABAergic transmission between PV INs and L2/3 PNs was significantly increased in the *Disc1* LI mice compared with their WT littermates at the 50 and 100 ms inter-pulse-intervals (WT, n = 13 cells; *Disc1* LI, n = 10 cells; interval: F(2, 42) = 6.77, ^{*g*}*P* < 0.01; genotype: F(1, 21) = 10.77, *P* < 0.01; interaction: F(2, 42) = 3.92, *P* < 0.05; two-way repeated-measures (RM) ANOVA followed by Sidak's tests) (Fig. 2C), suggesting that GABA

209	release from PV INs is impaired. In contrast, the PPR of GABAergic synaptic transmission from
210	SOM INs to L2/3 PNs did not differ between genotypes (WT, n = 15 cells, <i>Disc1</i> LI, n = 12 cells;
211	interval: $F(2, 50) = 24.88$, ^h $P < 0.0001$; genotype: $F(1, 25) = 1.64$, $P = 0.21$; interaction $F(2, 50)$
212	= 0.47, P = 0.63, two-way RM ANOVA) (Fig. 2F). SOM-evoked IPSCs displayed significantly
213	slower decay kinetics than PV-evoked IPSCs (Fig. 2G, H), consistent with previous reports
214	(Koyanagi et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2012). No differences in IPSC kinetics were observed between
215	<i>Disc1</i> LI mice and their WT littermates (cell type: $F(1, 46) = 90.82$, ⁱ $P < 0.0001$; genotype:
216	F(1,46) = 0.678, $P = 0.41$; two-way ANOVA) (Fig. 2G, H). In light of the observed reduction in
217	mIPSC frequency, the increased PPR of PV-mediated IPSCs suggests that there is a
218	presynaptic deficit in GABA release from PV cells to L2/3 PNs in the mPFC of <i>Disc1</i> LI mice.

219 Reduced feedforward inhibition in a thalamus–mPFC circuit in *Disc1* LI mice

220 The mediodorsal nucleus of the thalamus (MD) sends major projections to the mPFC. 221 This MD-mPFC circuit has been implicated in cognitive processes such as working memory 222 (Parnaudeau et al., 2013; Bolkan et al., 2017; Parnaudeau et al., 2017; Ferguson and Gao, 223 2018b) and cognitive flexibility (Parnaudeau et al., 2015; Rikhye et al., 2018) that are impaired in schizophrenia (Lesh et al., 2011; Parnaudeau et al., 2013; Parnaudeau et al., 2015). We and 224 225 others have shown that excitatory inputs from the MD drive mPFC feedforward inhibition (FFI) 226 (Miller et al., 2017; Collins et al., 2018; Meda et al., 2019) that is primarily mediated by mPFC 227 PV INs (Delevich et al., 2015). Given the deficit in GABA release from PV INs to PNs in the 228 mPFC of Disc1 LI mice (Fig. 2), we reasoned that FFI in the MD-mPFC circuit is affected in 229 these mice. To test this hypothesis, we injected the MD of Disc1 LI mice and their WT 230 littermates with AAV-ChR2(H134R)-YFP. After viral expression reached sufficient levels we 231 used these mice to prepare acute brain slices, in which we recorded both excitatory and 232 inhibitory synaptic transmission onto dACC L3 PNs in response to optogenetic stimulation of MD axons (Fig. 3A, B). 233

234 Brief (0.5 ms) light stimulation evoked monosynaptic EPSCs and disynaptic IPSCs in L3 235 PNs in the dorsal mPFC (Fig. 3C) (and see (Delevich et al., 2015)). We found that the 236 contribution of inhibitory synaptic transmission to total synaptic inputs - measured as IPSC^{peak}/(IPSC^{peak}+EPSC^{peak}), or I^{peak}/(I^{peak}+E^{peak}) – was significantly lower in *Disc1* LI mice than 237 in WT mice when comparing the means of the two groups of animals (Disc1 LI, 0.52 ± 0.03, N = 238 11 mice; WT, 0.70 ± 0.02, N = 14 mice; $t_{(23)}$ = 5.73, ^jP < 0.0001, t test) (Fig. 3 D), or the means 239 240 of the two groups of neurons (*Disc1* LI, 0.60 ± 0.03 ; n = 30 cells, WT, 0.70 ± 0.02 , n = 40 cells; $t_{(68)} = 3.17$, ^kP < 0.01, t test) (Fig. 3 E). In addition, the slope of a linear regression describing the 241 242 relationship between IPSCs and EPSCs of individual neurons in the Disc1 LI mice was significantly lower than that in the WT (Fig. 3F). The latencies (Fig. 3G-I) and kinetics of the 243 244 EPSCs (Fig. 3J-K) and IPSCs (Fig. 3L-M) in Disc1 LI mice were similar to those in WT mice. 245 These results together indicate that Disc1 LI is associated with reduced MD-driven FFI in the mPFC. 246

Spontaneous excitatory synaptic transmission onto PV interneurons and their intrinsic properties are unchanged in *Disc1* LI mice

249 The decrease in FFI in the MD-mPFC pathway in *Disc1* LI mice could result from the impairment in GABA release from PV INs in the mPFC (Fig. 2), or reduced recruitment of mPFC 250 251 PV INs by MD. Thalamically-driven feedforward inhibition relies on the ability of PV INs to reach 252 threshold in response to thalamic inputs, a process dependent on both synaptic and intrinsic 253 properties of PV INs. DISC1 is expressed in MGE-derived inhibitory interneurons including PV 254 INs (Schurov et al., 2004; Meyer and Morris, 2008; Steinecke et al., 2012; Seshadri et al., 2015) 255 raising the possibility that Disc1 LI could alter excitatory synaptic transmission onto PV INs 256 and/or their intrinsic properties. We crossed the Disc1 LI mouse line onto the PV-Cre::tdTomato 257 lines, thereby allowing us to assess the synaptic and intrinsic properties of visually identified PV INs in the context of Disc1 LI. We found that mEPSC amplitude and frequency onto mPFC PV 258 259 INs was consistent between genotypes (amplitude: WT, 12.39 ± 0.40 pA; Disc1 LI, 13.48 ± 0.45

pA, n= 20, 23 cells/genotype, N=4, 4 mice/genotype; $t_{(41)}$ = 1.78, ¹P= 0.08; frequency: WT, 6.99 ± 260 0.74 Hz; Disc1 LI, 6.55 ± 0.69 Hz, t₍₄₁₎= 0.53, "P=0.60) (Fig. 4A-B). Next, we examined the 261 intrinsic properties of PV INs in WT and Disc1 LI mice and found no significant differences 262 263 between genotypes (Fig. 4C-H), including minimum current injection required to elicit spiking (WT, 142.3 ± 12.67 pA; Disc1 LI, 119.2 ± 14.3 pA, t₍₂₄₎= 1.21, "P= 0.24) (Fig. 4G) or maximum 264 265 firing rate (WT, 88.92 ± 3.9 Hz; *Disc1* LI, 88.92 ± 6.78 Hz, *t*₍₂₄₎ = 0, °*P* > 0.99) (Fig. 4H). These 266 results suggest that neither intrinsic excitability of prefrontal PV INs nor spontaneous 267 glutamatergic transmission onto them is grossly perturbed in Disc1 LI mice.

268 Enhanced input but reduced output of PV interneurons in Disc1 LI mice

269 We next examined recruitment of mPFC PV INs specifically within the MD-mPFC circuit 270 to determine whether reduced excitatory drive could account for the observed reduction in FFI in 271 Disc1 LI mice. We recorded evoked EPSCs from PV IN and PN pairs in the mPFC in response 272 to optogenetic stimulation of MD axons (Fig. 5A). We found that in WT mice, amplitudes of 273 thalamocortical EPSCs were similar between PV INs and neighboring PNs (PV, -109.3 ± 109.7 pA, PN, -129.1 ± 103.2 pA, n = 15 pairs, W = 0, PP = 1.0, Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank 274 275 test) (Fig. 5B, C). By contrast, in *Disc1* LI mice, thalamocortical EPSCs onto PV INs were much larger than those onto neighboring PNs (PV, -153.4 ± 211.9 pA; PN, -73.74 ± 104.6 pA; n = 14 276 pairs, W = -83, ^qP < 0.01 Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test) (Fig 5B, C). These data 277 278 suggest that MD excitatory drive onto PV INs is enhanced relative to L2/3 PNs in the mPFC of 279 Disc1 LI mice. Therefore, reduced excitatory synaptic strength onto PV INs doesn't account for 280 the decrease in FFI in the MD–mPFC circuit in Disc1 LI mice compared to WT (Fig. 3).

Next, we probed presynaptic GABA release from PV cells within the MD–mFPC circuit, by optogenetically stimulating the MD axons (see the recording configuration in Fig. 3A & B) and measuring the PPR of MD-driven FFI onto mPFC PNs (Fig. 5D). Notably, we found that PPR of was significantly higher in *Disc1* LI mice than in WT mice (WT: 0.0 ± 0.1 , n = 24 cells, N= 10; *Disc1* LI: 0.24 ± 0.34 , n = 17 cells, N=6; U = 62, ^rP = 0.0001, two-tailed Mann Whitney U test) 286 (Fig. 5D, E), mirroring the increase in PPR we observed when directly activating PV INs (Fig. 287 2C). In order to reduce variability in measuring the PPR, we set the light-stimulation such that 288 there was no difference between genotypes in the average amplitude of the first evoked IPSCs (WT, 439.3 ± 41.31 pA, n = 24 cells, N=10; *Disc1* LI, 367.1 ± 46.26 pA, n = 17 cells, N=6; t₍₃₉₎ = 289 1.152, ^sP = 0.256, unpaired t test) (Fig. 5F). Finally, we examined the relationship between PPR 290 291 of MD-driven FFI and E-I ratio of MD-driven synaptic currents onto PNs. We found that there was a significant inverse correlation between FFI PPR and I^{peak}/(I^{peak}+E^{peak}) within PNs from 292 Disc1 LI mice but not WT mice (Fig. 5G). Together, our data suggest that in Disc1 LI mice, 293 294 GABA release from prefrontal PV INs is reduced, leading to decreased FFI in the MD-mPFC 295 circuit.

296 Discussion

297 Perturbation of the multifunctional scaffolding protein DISC1 is linked to a range of 298 behavioral phenotypes that are associated with major psychiatric disorders (Brandon and Sawa, 299 2011). These findings highlight DISC1 as a promising molecular lead to investigate the 300 molecular pathways and neural circuits that underlie major mental illnesses (Niwa et al., 2016). 301 Here, we used the *Disc1* LI mouse model to investigate the function of mPFC circuits that may 302 be particularly relevant to the cognitive symptoms of psychiatric disorders. We found that Disc1 303 LI exhibited elevated E-I ratio, measured as a reduction of spontaneous inhibitory transmission 304 onto L2/3 PNs in mPFC and decreased FFI onto L2/3 PNs in the MD-mPFC circuit. Several 305 lines of evidence suggest that this effect can be accounted for by a reduction in GABA release 306 from PV INs in the mPFC 1) mIPSC frequency was significantly reduced onto L2/3 PNs in Disc1 307 LI mice, consistent with a reduction in presynaptic release probability; 2) the PPR of IPSCs directly evoked by optogenetic stimulation of PV INs but not SOM INs was significantly 308 309 increased in Disc1 LI mice compared to WT; and 3) the PPR of MD-evoked FFI - which is almost exclusively driven by PV INs under the experimental conditions used (Delevich et al., 310 311 2015) – was increased in Disc1 LI mice and correlated with E-I ratio. Together, our findings

312 suggest that the PV→PN synapses are the primary site of impairment in the MD–mPFC circuit 313 in *Disc1* LI mice.

314 It has been hypothesized that the cognitive deficits in psychiatric diseases may be the consequence of imbalanced excitation and inhibition (E-I) in key neural circuits (Kehrer et al., 315 2008; Lisman, 2012; Marin, 2012; Krystal et al., 2017; Ferguson and Gao, 2018a). Consistent 316 317 with this hypothesis, several studies have shown that experimentally imposing elevated E-I 318 within the mPFC impairs cognitive processing in rodents (Yizhar et al., 2011; Cho et al., 2015; 319 Murray et al., 2015; Ferguson and Gao, 2018b). In addition to evidence of altered PV IN 320 mediated inhibition, we observed that excitatory synaptic transmission onto PV cells driven by 321 MD inputs was enhanced in Disc1 LI mice, which could compensate for presynaptic deficits in 322 PV IN function. Indeed, a recent study that examined multiple autism genetic mouse models 323 found that increased E-I ratio did not drive network hyperexcitability but in fact led to 324 homeostatic stabilization of excitability (Antoine et al., 2019). Therefore, potential network 325 effects arising from altered E-I conductance ratios should not be over interpreted, and it remains 326 unclear how the changes we observed in the Disc1 LI mice affect network activity in vivo and 327 resulting behavior.

328 In humans, Disc1 polymorphisms are associated with measures of cognitive 329 performance and frontal lobe structure among some ethnic groups (Burdick et al., 2005; Cannon 330 et al., 2005; Hennah et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2006; Palo et al., 2007; Carless et al., 2011; 331 Nicodemus et al., 2014). Multiple mouse models of DISC1 perturbation exhibit cognitive 332 impairments (Koike et al., 2006; Clapcote et al., 2007; Li et al., 2007; Kvajo et al., 2008; Lipina 333 et al., 2010; Niwa et al., 2010; Brandon and Sawa, 2011; Lee et al., 2013), strengthening the 334 mechanistic link between DISC1 and cognition. Here we provide evidence of cell type-specific 335 alterations within mPFC circuits implicated in multiples aspects of cognition. While we did not examine cognition in the Disc1 LI mice, Disc1 LI (-/-) mice are reported to exhibit blunted startle 336 337 response and prepulse inhibition (PPI) (Jaaro-Peled et al., 2018), a behavior that is regulated by

the mPFC (Swerdlow et al., 2001; Schwabe and Koch, 2004; Jaaro-Peled et al., 2018). Future
experiments interrogating mPFC-dependent cognition in *Disc1 LI* mice will be critical for relating
the circuit-level changes we observed in E-I balance and PV IN function to behavior.

While our study is the first to specifically detect a presynaptic deficit in PV INs in a 341 342 DISC1 genetic deficiency model, previous studies using different transgenic models have 343 reported that DISC1 influences inhibitory IN function or development: spontaneous IPSC 344 frequency is reduced in the frontal cortex of male mice expressing a truncated mouse DISC1 345 (Holley et al., 2013); PV IN function is impaired in the mPFC of mice overexpressing a truncated 346 form of DISC1 (Sauer et al., 2015); PV expression is reduced in the PFC of several Disc1 347 mouse models (Hikida et al., 2007; Shen et al., 2008; Niwa et al., 2010; Ayhan et al., 2011; Lee 348 et al., 2013); and tangential migration of MGE-derived neurons is impaired by Disc1 mutation or 349 RNA interference (Steinecke et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2013). These findings provide converging 350 evidence that DISC1 perturbation alters prefrontal cortical inhibition. Our current findings more 351 specifically implicate the presynapse of PV INs as a site of impairment in mice harboring a 352 Disc1 LI allele, which is the most extensively perturbed form of the gene reported to date 353 (Shahani et al., 2015).

354 Several important caveats should be considered when interpreting our electrophysiology 355 results. First, a reduction in mIPSC frequency is also consistent with a reduced number of 356 inhibitory synapses. However, a recent study investigating Disc1 LI mice reported no change in 357 the number of PV INs themselves within the mPFC (Seshadri et al., 2015). In addition, we 358 focused on PV and SOM IN function, which together comprise ~70% of cortical INs (Rudy et al., 359 2011). It is therefore possible that the remaining 30% of IN cell-types, e.g. 5HT3a receptorexpressing neurons, also contribute to the reduced mIPSC frequency observed in Disc1 LI 360 361 mice. Next, IPSCs directly evoked by optogenetic stimulation significantly overlapped at short 362 interstimulus intervals; therefore changes in the input resistance due to open channels likely 363 influenced the size of the second signal and hence the PPR measurement. More detailed

364 analysis such as multiple probability-compound binomial analysis or direct analysis of failure 365 rate is necessary to conclude that GABA release probability from PV INs is reduced in Disc1 LI mice. We observed that PV IN evoked IPSC PPR was significantly increased at the 50 and 100 366 367 ms interstimulus intervals but not at the 150 ms interval. The time dependence of this effect may suggest a postsynaptic mechanism, such as GABA mediated regulation of PPR (Kirischuk et al., 368 369 2002). Alternatively, GABAB presynaptic regulation may play a role in influencing PPR. 370 Interestingly, a reduction in GABA_B receptor expression in PNs has been observed in 371 postmortem brain tissue of individuals with schizophrenia (Mizukami et al., 2002). These 372 caveats considered, we provide multiple lines of evidence that are consistent with elevated E-I 373 balance and abnormal PV IN function in mPFC circuits in Disc1 LI mice.

374 The coordinated activity between the MD and the PFC is important for working memory, 375 attention, and flexible goal-oriented behavior (Mitchell and Chakraborty, 2013; Parnaudeau et 376 al., 2013; Parnaudeau et al., 2015; Schmitt et al., 2017; Alcaraz et al., 2018), faculties that are 377 impaired in a variety of psychiatric disorders. Meanwhile, studies have found that MD-mPFC 378 synaptic strength is modulated by social interaction, perhaps relevant to negative symptoms of 379 schizophrenia and depression (Northoff and Sibille, 2014; Franklin et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 380 2017). In relation to DISC1, one study found that a common missense variant of Disc1 was 381 associated with altered thalamofrontal functional connectivity (Liu et al., 2015). Notably, patients 382 with schizophrenia and bipolar disorder exhibit reduced MD-PFC functional connectivity relative 383 to healthy controls (Welsh et al., 2010; Woodward et al., 2012; Anticevic et al., 2014). An 384 emerging hypothesis posits that local disinhibition of PFC may destabilize the flow of information 385 through the thalamofrontal loop and contribute to cognitive and negative symptoms in 386 schizophrenia and related disorders (Anticevic et al., 2012; Murray and Anticevic, 2017). 387 Structural alterations within thalamofrontal circuits have also been linked to cognitive deficits 388 associated with aging (Hughes et al., 2012) and epilepsy (Pulsipher et al., 2009). However, until 389 recently there was a paucity of data describing how the MD and frontal cortex interact at the

390 neural circuit level. Recent studies have demonstrated that the MD thalamus recruits 391 feedforward inhibition in the rodent mPFC (Delevich et al., 2015; Miller et al., 2017; Collins et 392 al., 2018; Meda et al., 2019) that is primarily mediated by PV INs (Delevich et al., 2015). 393 Interestingly, chemogenetic excitation of mPFC PV INs has been shown to rescue cognitive 394 deficits induced by chemogenetic inhibition of MD (Ferguson and Gao, 2018b).

395 Our findings extend data suggesting that MD, via its projections to PV INs, is a key 396 regulator of E-I balance that underpins prefrontal cortex circuit function. We demonstrate that 397 reduced DISC1 expression, a key molecular candidate to study biology relevant to behavioral 398 constructs related to several psychiatric disorders, leads to elevated E-I balance in the MD-399 mPFC thalamofrontal circuit. Given that few treatment options exist to address the cognitive 400 symptoms of psychiatric disorders, efforts towards understanding the cellular and molecular 401 mechanisms underlying abnormal thalamofrontal functional connectivity may yield therapies that 402 will improve patient outcomes.

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693 Figures legends:

694 Figure 1. Reduced inhibitory synaptic transmission onto L2/3 pyramidal neurons in the 695 mPFC of adult and juvenile Disc1 LI mice. (A) Recording configuration and sample mIPSC traces recorded from L2/3 PNs in the mPFC of WT (upper) and Disc1 LI (lower) mice at ~P70. 696 (B) mIPSC amplitude (WT, n = 27 cells; Disc1 LI, n = 29 cells). (C) mIPSC frequency (WT, n = 697 698 27 cells; Disc1 LI, n = 29 cells; **P < 0.01, Mann-Whitney U test). (D) Recording configuration 699 and sample mEPSC traces recorded from L2/3 PNs in the mPFC of WT (upper) and Disc1 LI (lower) mice at ~P70. (E) mEPSC amplitude (WT, n = 23 cells; *Disc1* LI, n = 20 cells). (F) 700 701 mEPSC frequency (WT, n = 23 cells; Disc1 LI, n = 20 cells). (G) Recording configuration and sample mIPSC traces recorded from L2/3 PNs in the mPFC of WT (upper) and Disc1 LI (lower) 702 703 mice at ~P15. (H) mIPSC amplitude (WT, n = 44 cells; Disc1 LI, n = 26 cells; P = 0.12, t test) 704 and (I) frequency (WT, n = 44 cells; Disc1 LI, n = 26 cells; *P < 0.05, Mann-Whitney U test). All 705 scale bars represent 20 pA, 500 ms. Bar graphs indicate median ± interquartile range (B, C, F, 706 I) or mean ± s.e.m. (E, H), as appropriate.

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708 Figure 2. Impaired presynaptic function of PV but not SOM INs in the mPFC of Disc1 LI mice. (A) A schematic of the experimental configuration. (B) Sample traces of PV IN-mediated 709 710 IPSCs recorded from WT (left panel) or Disc1 LI (right panel) mice. Paired light pulses (1 ms 711 duration; blue bars) were delivered at an interval of 50 ms (top), 100 ms (middle) or 150 ms 712 (bottom). (C) Quantification of PPR for each genotype (WT, n = 13 cells; Disc1 LI, n = 10 cells). *P < 0.05, ***P < 0.001, two-way repeated measures ANOVA followed by Sidak's test. (D) A 713 714 schematic of the experimental configuration. (E) Sample traces of SOM IN-mediated IPSCs recorded from WT (left panel) or Disc1 LI (right panel) mice. Paired light pulses (1 ms duration; 715 716 blue bars) were delivered at an interval of 50 ms (top), 100 ms (middle) or 150 ms (bottom). (F) Quantification of PPR for each genotype (WT, n = 15 cells, Disc1 LI, n = 12 cells). (G) Sample 717 718 IPSC traces evoked by optogenetic stimulation of PV or SOM INs. Colored lines indicate

exponential fits to the decays of the IPSCs. (H) Quantification of IPSC decay tau. ****P < 0.0001, *t* test. Data in C, F, and H are presented as mean ± s.e.m.

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Figure 3. Reduced feedforward inhibition in the MD-mPFC circuit in Disc1 LI mice. (A & 722 723 B) Schematics of the experimental configuration. The right panel of (A) is an image of a brain 724 section from a mouse used in electrophysiological recording, showing the MD infected with 725 AAV-CAG-ChR2-YFP. (C) Representative traces of EPSC (recorded at -60 mV) and IPSC (recorded at 0 mV) from L3 PNs. (D) To estimate the relative recruitment of disynaptic FFI 726 versus monosynaptic excitation, we divided peak IPSC (Ipeak) by the sum of peak IPSC and 727 peak EPSC (I^{peak} + E^{peak}). WT, N = 14 mice, *Disc1* LI, N = 11 mice; ***P < 0.001, t test. (E) 728 729 Same as in (D), except that the cumulative probability distributions of the values for individual neurons are shown. WT, n = 40 cells, Disc1 LI, n = 30 cells; **P < 0.01, Kolmogorov-Smirnov 730 731 test. (F) Scatter plot showing the peak amplitudes of IPSC and EPSC for individual neurons. 732 Each circle represents one neuron (WT, n = 30 cells; Disc1 LI, n = 40 cells). Dashed lines are 733 linear regression lines for neurons in WT mice and *Disc1* LI mice. The slopes of the regression lines significantly differed at the 0.95 confidence level (*P < 0.05). (G) Sample traces of IPSC 734 735 (recorded at 0 mV) and EPSC (recorded at -60 mV) recorded from L2/3 PNs in response to light-stimulation (blue bars) of MD axons. The latency to onset was measured from the time the 736 737 light stimulus was triggered to the 10% EPSC (blue arrow) or IPSC (red arrow) rise time. Note 738 that IPSC rise time was calculated from the peak of the inward current recorded at 0 mV. (H) 739 Cumulative probability distributions for EPSC latency to onset (left) and IPSC latency to onset (right) (EPSC, WT, n = 40 cells, *Disc1* LI, n = 30 cells, P = 0.40; IPSC, WT, n = 40 cells, *Disc1* 740 LI, n = 30 cells, P = 0.56; Kolmogorov-Smirnov test). (I) Quantification of IPSC-EPSC lag, 741 calculated as the difference in the latency to onset between the IPSC and the EPSC of each 742 neuron (see also (G) (WT, n = 40 cells, Disc1 LI, n = 30 cells; P > 0.05, t test). (J) Quantification 743 744 of the 10-90% EPSC rise time and decay tau (K) (WT, n = 40 cells, Disc1 LI, n = 30 cells; P >

745 0.05, Mann-Whitney U test). (L) Quantification of the 10-90% IPSC rise time and decay tau (M) 746 (WT, n = 40 cells, *Disc1* LI, n = 28 cells; P > 0.05, t test). Data are presented as median ± 747 interquartile range (J,K) or mean ± s.e.m. (D, L, M).

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Figure 4. mEPSCs and intrinsic properties of PV INs are not altered in Disc1 LI mice. (A) 749 750 Recording configuration and sample mEPSC traces recorded from PV INs in WT (upper) and 751 Disc1 LI mice (lower). (B) Mean mEPSC amplitude (left) and median frequency (right) (n= 20, 23 cells/genotype; N= 4 mice/genotype). (C) Sample traces from whole cell current clamp 752 753 recording of L2/3 PV IN in WT (left) and Disc1 LI mouse in response to current injections. (D) 754 Input-output curve showing average firing rate of PV INs in response to current injection in WT 755 vs. Disc1 LI. (E) Resting membrane potential (F) Input resistance (G) Current threshold required 756 to elicit spiking (H) Maximum firing rate. Data in D, E, H shown as mean ± s.e.m. Data in F, G 757 shown as median ± interquartile range.

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759 Figure 5. Impaired presynaptic function of PV INs underlies the deficit of FFI in Disc1 LI 760 mice. (A) Left: a schematic of the experimental configuration. Right: a schematic of the recording configuration in the mPFC acute slices. A Tdtomato⁺ PV IN (red) and an adjacent PN 761 (gray) in L3 of the mPFC were recorded simultaneously or sequentially. EPSCs onto these 762 763 neurons were evoked by optogenetic stimulation (0.5 ms light pulses; blue bars) of MD axons. 764 (B) Sample EPSC traces recorded from PV IN and PN pairs are superimposed and color-coded. (C) Quantification of the EPSC peak amplitude. n.s., not significant (P = 1.0); **P < 0.01; 765 766 Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed ranks test. (D) Sample traces of FFI currents recorded from L3 PNs in response to optogenetic stimulation of MD axons. (E) Quantification of PPR of the MD-767 driven FFI onto L3 PNs. ***P < 0.001, Mann-Whitney U test. (F) The mean amplitude of the first 768 769 IPSC was consistent between genotypes. Data in E presented as median ± interquartile range data in F presented as mean ± s.e.m. (G) FFI PPR plotted against (Ipeak)/(Ipeak + Epeak) (as seen 770

	771	in Fig. 3D) within cells shows that f
	772	correlated with $(I^{\text{peak}})/(I^{\text{peak}} + E^{\text{peak}})$, s
	773	higher E/I ratio ** <i>P</i> <0.01.
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1	in Fig. 3D) within cells shows that for <i>Disc1</i> LI mice but not WT mice, FFI PPR inversely
2	correlated with (I ^{peak})/(I ^{peak} + E ^{peak}), suggesting that synapses with high FFI PPR also exhibit
3	higher E/I ratio **P <0.01.
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Data structure	Statistical test, post hoc	Significance threshold
^a Non-normal distribution	Two-tailed Mann Whitney U test	P<0.05
^b Non-normal distribution	Two-tailed Mann Whitney U test	P<0.05
^c Non-normal distribution	Two-tailed Mann Whitney U test	P<0.05
^d Normal distribution	Two-tailed unpaired t test	P<0.05
^e Normal distribution	Two-tailed unpaired t test	P<0.05
^f Non-normal distribution	Two-tailed Mann Whitney U test	P<0.05
^g Normal distribution	Two-way repeated measures ANOVA with post hoc Sidak's test	P<0.05
^h Normal distribution	Two-way repeated measures ANOVA with post hoc Sidak's test	P<0.05
ⁱ Normal distribution	Two-way ANOVA	P<0.05
^j Normal distribution	Two-tailed unpaired t test	P<0.05
^k Normal distribution	Two-tailed unpaired t test	P<0.05
^I Normal distribution	Two-tailed unpaired t test	P<0.05
^m Normal distribution	Two-tailed unpaired t test	P<0.05
ⁿ Normal distribution	Two-tailed unpaired t test	P<0.05
°Normal distribution	Two-tailed unpaired t test	P<0.05
^P Non-normal distribution	Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed ranks test	P<0.05
^q Non-normal distribution	Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed ranks test	P<0.05
^r Non-normal distribution	Two-tailed Mann Whitney U test	P<0.05
^s Non-normal distribution	Two-tailed Mann Whitney U test	P<0.05

Table 1 - Statistical tests and significance threshold used for each comparison.