Contrasting adaptations to synaptic physiology of prefrontal cortex interneuron subtypes in a mouse model of binge drinking

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43 Abstract

Alcohol use disorder (AUD) affects all sexes, however women who develop AUD may be 44 particularly susceptible to cravings and other components of the disease. While many brain 45 regions are involved in AUD etiology, proper function of the prefrontal cortex (PFC) is 46 47 particularly important for top-down craving management and the moderation of drinking behaviors. Essential regulation of PFC output is provided by local inhibitory interneurons, yet the 48 49 effects of chronic drinking on interneuron physiology remain poorly understood, particularly in female individuals. To address this gap, we generated fluorescent reporter transgenic mice to 50 51 label the two major classes of interneuron in deep layer prelimbic PFC, based on expression of 52 parvalbumin (PV-IN) or somatostatin (SST-IN). We then interrogated PV-IN and SST-IN 53 membrane and synaptic physiology in a rodent model of binge drinking. Beginning in late adolescence, mice received 3-4 weeks of intermittent access (IA) ethanol. One day after the last 54 drinking session, adaptations to PV-IN and SST-IN intrinsic physiology were observed in male 55 mice but not in female mice. Furthermore, IA ethanol precipitated diametrically opposing 56 57 changes to PV-IN synaptic physiology based on sex. IA ethanol decreased excitatory synaptic strength onto PV-INs from female mice and potentiated excitatory transmission onto PV-INs 58 59 male mice. In contrast, decreased synaptic strength onto SST-INs was observed following IA ethanol in all groups of mice. Together, these findings illustrate novel sex differences in 60 drinking-related PFC pathophysiology. Discovering means to restore PV-IN and SST-IN 61 62 dysfunction following extended drinking provides opportunities for developing new treatments 63 for all AUD patients.

64

65 Key words

alcohol, prefrontal cortex, synaptic physiology, parvalbumin, somatostatin

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69 **1. Introduction**

70 Alcohol use disorder (AUD) affects all groups of people (Hasin et al., 2007), however the prevalence of alcohol abuse among women is increasing (Grant et al., 2017) and several 71 concerning findings indicate that women are at high risk for detrimental outcomes. Women are 72 73 disproportionately affected by consequences of acute intoxication (Gross and Billingham, 1998) and are particularly sensitive to peripheral diseases and cognitive disturbances stemming from 74 75 chronic alcohol consumption (Nixon et al., 1995; Urbano-Marguez et al., 1995). Furthermore, 76 the prevalence of binge drinking is increasing among women (Grucza et al., 2018) and women 77 who develop AUD progress rapidly through disease milestones (Diehl et al., 2007; Randall et 78 al., 1999), suggesting sex differences regulate the top-down control over drinking. These sex 79 differences are likely mediated, in part, by the medial prefrontal cortex (PFC), a region whose dysfunction is linked with deficits in the ability to control alcohol cravings in AUD patients and 80 81 animal models (Abernathy et al., 2010; George and Koob, 2010). In addition to this overall 82 relationship, binge drinkers and AUD patients display sex differences in PFC structure (Medina et al., 2008; Squeglia et al., 2012), and women with AUD display opposite patterns of PFC 83 activation during working memory tasks relative to men (Caldwell et al., 2005). Together, these 84 85 findings provide compelling rationale for continued mechanistic research to understand sex differences in PFC pathophysiology in AUD-like disease models. 86

Preclinical studies designed to model alcohol-induced changes to PFC function have 87 88 largely utilized the chronic intermittent ethanol (CIE) exposure paradigm, an animal model of 89 dependence. Using CIE and other chronic treatment models, several labs have described 90 dependence-related changes in PFC physiology to be generally characterized by reduced 91 inhibition and enhanced excitatory synaptic activity (Centanni et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2015; Pava and Woodward, 2014; Pleil et al., 2015; Varodayan et al., 2018). In addition, changes in NMDA 92 93 receptor function (Hu et al., 2015; Kroener et al., 2012), intrinsic properties (Hu et al., 2015), and PFC network activity (Kroener et al., 2012; Woodward and Pava, 2009), have all been 94

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95 shown to occur as a consequence of long-term alcohol exposure and withdrawal. While the 96 literature clearly demonstrates that PFC pathophysiology develops during dependence, deficits in PFC function are also associated with maladaptive changes in voluntary drinking (Haun et al., 97 2018; Klenowski et al., 2016; Radke et al., 2017b; Salling et al., 2018; Seif et al., 2013; Siciliano 98 99 et al., 2019). Moreover, mounting evidence suggests that PFC interneurons may be particularly 100 important for regulating volitional alcohol-seeking. For example, genetic disruption of synaptic transmission on forebrain interneurons, but not projection neurons, decreases drinking (Radke 101 102 et al., 2017a), and early abstinence from voluntary ethanol specifically increases Fos expression 103 in PFC interneurons (George et al., 2012). While these exciting findings suggest that PFC 104 inhibitory microcircuits instruct drinking moderation, much remains to be learned about the 105 specific cell types and synapses underlying these processes.

106 A major source of PFC output to the limbic system arises from deep layer pyramidal 107 cells. While pyramidal cells comprise approximately 80% of the neurons in PFC, the remaining 108 interneurons are essential in coordinating the output from the structure (Ferguson and Gao, 109 2018). Deep layer PFC contains two general classes of local inhibitory interneurons that are readily divided by their form, function, and genetics. The synapses of one class appose the cell 110 111 bodies of neighboring pyramidal cells, where they exert powerful feedforward inhibition to synchronize PFC network activity and output (Atallah et al., 2012; Sohal et al., 2009). These 112 interneurons, known as "basket cells" or "chandelier cells", have unique intrinsic properties that 113 114 can be used to functionally demarcate them from regular-spiking pyramidal cells or low-115 threshold spiking interneurons. Using this approach, acute ethanol (Woodward and Pava, 2009) 116 and CIE (Trantham-Davidson et al., 2014; Trantham-Davidson et al., 2017) have been shown to 117 disrupt PFC fast-spiking interneuron function. These fast-spiking interneurons exclusively express the Ca²⁺-binding protein parvalbumin (PV). Transgenic mouse lines have been 118 engineered to express fluorescent markers and manipulate protein expression under the control 119 of the PV promotor (Taniguchi et al., 2011), enabling the means to selectively manipulate the 120

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121 physiology of PV-expressing interneurons (PV-INs). Recent studies have leveraged these tools 122 to reveal that GABA_A receptor subunit ablation from PV-INs increases binge drinking in male mice, but not female mice, supporting the hypothesis that this interneuron subtype regulates sex 123 differences in top-down control (Melon et al., 2018). In addition to PV-INs, the second class of 124 125 deep layer PFC interneurons expresses the neuropeptide somatostatin (SST-INs). Relatively little is known about how ethanol regulates SST-IN function, partly because these neurons are 126 127 more difficult to functionally separate from pyramidal cells without genetic labeling tools. In 128 general, SST-INs project to the superficial dendrites of neighboring pyramidal cells to filter 129 synaptic information as it flows towards the cell body. SST-INs are therefore critical for 130 processing long-range transmission and interactions with subcortical areas (Abbas et al., 2018). In sum, PV-INs and SST-INs serve essential, complimentary functions in mediating feedforward 131 132 and feedback inhibition in the PFC.

Female rodents exhibit higher levels of voluntary alcohol consumption than male 133 134 counterparts (Becker and Lopez, 2004; Hwa et al., 2011; Jury et al., 2017; McCall et al., 2013). The behavioral findings are striking and consistent across laboratories, but the mechanisms 135 through which PFC dysregulation contributes to this phenomenon remain unclear. Most 136 137 previous studies examining PFC dysfunction were conducted in male rodents and interneurons were solely classified based on membrane properties. In addition, most studies examining PFC 138 interneurons were performed following non-contingent exposure, leaving us with a relatively 139 140 limited understanding of how PFC inhibitory microcircuits adapt following long-term volitional 141 drinking. Based on this, we utilized transgenic fluorescent reporter mice to investigate sex 142 differences in PFC PV-IN and SST-IN physiology in a binge drinking model. After intermittent access (IA) ethanol exposure, we observed intrinsic physiology adaptations in both PV-INs and 143 SST-INs of male mice but not female mice. In PV-INs, IA ethanol generated diametrically 144 145 opposing changes to synaptic physiology across sexes. By contrast, excitatory synaptic strength onto SST-INs was decreased in all groups of mice after IA ethanol. Collectively, these findings 146

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- highlight striking and contrasting adaptations to cortical interneuron synaptic physiology inducedby long-term voluntary drinking.
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150 **2. Material and Methods**

151 **2.1. Mice**

Mice were bred and housed in a controlled environment on a standard 12-hour light cycle (on at 152 6:00 am). Transgenic mice expressing tdTomato fluorescent protein in PFC interneurons were 153 generated by crossing female PV-Cre mice (Jackson Laboratories, Stock No: 017320) or SST-154 155 IRES-Cre mice (Jackson Laboratories, Stock No: 028864) with male Rosa26-loxP-STOP-loxP-CAG-tdTomato "Ai9" mice (Jackson Laboratories, Stock No: 007909). All breeding strains were 156 congenic on a C57BL/6J genetic background. Only female PV-Cre mice were used for breeding 157 to mitigate PV-Cre driven recombination that can occur in sperm. All breeding mice were 158 homozvgous for the respective transgene, generating heterozygous PV-tdTomato and SST-159 160 tdTomato mice suitable for experimentation. Mice were defined as female or male by their

161 external genitalia and the current studies are limited by this definition.

162

163 **2.2 Intermittent access (IA) to ethanol**

Mice provided with IA ethanol drink more per day than continuous access controls (Hwa et al., 164 2011), and the C57BL/6J strain consumes more ethanol than other strains (Belknap et al., 1993; 165 166 Boyce-Rustay et al., 2008; Rodgers and Mc, 1962). For these reasons, we selected the IA 167 schedule in C57BL/6J mice as a robust rodent model of binge drinking. IA ethanol began during 168 late adolescence (6-7 weeks). For alternating 24-hour periods, mice were provided with free 169 access to ethanol in their home cages. Water and food were always provided ad libitum. Mice were individually housed 3-7 days prior to IA ethanol initiation and remained so until sacrifice. 170 171 Ethanol was provided 3-4 hours prior to the dark cycle and removed one day later. For the first week of access, the concentration of ethanol was slowly ramped up (3, 6, 10%) to 20% ethanol, 172

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which was used for the duration of the study. The amount of ethanol and water consumed per
day was measured by weight after each drinking session. As expected, female mice drank more
ethanol than matched male mice (Figure 1A and 1B). We observed no sex differences in
preference for ethanol over water across the IA access procedure (Figure 1C and 1D).

177

178 2.3 Electrophysiology

179 After 3-4 weeks of 20% ethanol intake, we assessed physiological changes to PV-IN and SST-180 IN physiology. Mice were sacrificed 16-20 hours after the last session, a time linked to 181 increased PFC interneuron activity (George et al., 2012). Acute prelimbic PFC slices were prepared for whole-cell patch-clamp physiology as described (Di Menna et al., 2018). In brief, 182 mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and decapitated. Brains were rapidly removed without 183 perfusion and submerged in *N*-methyl-D-glucamine solution. Immediately after preparation, 184 185 coronal slices (300 µM) recovered in warm (30-32 °C) N-methyl-D-glucamine solution for 10 minutes and then in room-temperature (22-24 °C) for 1 hour in artificial cerebrospinal fluid, 186 187 containing (in mM): 119 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 2.5 CaCl₂, 1.3 MgCl₂, 1 NaH₂PO₄, 11 glucose, and 26 NaHCO₃. Membrane properties were assessed in current clamp configuration using a 188 189 potassium-based internal solution (in mM): 125 K-gluconate, 4 NaCl, 10 HEPES, 4 MgATP, 0.3 190 NaGTP, 10 Tris-phosphocreatine. Cells were dialyzed with internal solution for 5 minutes, after which a series of 20, 1-sec current injections were applied. Injections began at -150 pA, were 191 192 incremented at 25 pA, and ended at +300 pA. R_m was calculated as the slope of the potential 193 hyperpolarization divided by the injected current. Sag ratio was evaluated based on the resting 194 membrane potential (V_m) and hyperpolarization in response to -150 pA current injection. Sag 195 ratio was calculated as the difference between the peak hyperpolarization and the steady-state, normalized to the steady-state (Joffe et al., 2019). Medium afterhyperpolarization (mAHP) was 196 197 determined as the magnitude of the decrease in membrane potential during the 0.5-sec period after a current injection resulted in >20 action potentials (generally 200-300 pA for PV-INs and 198

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199	100-200 pA for SST-INs). Cells were then switched to voltage clamp configuration, and
200	spontaneous excitatory synaptic transmission was collected over 2 minutes. Spontaneous
201	excitatory postsynaptic currents (sEPSCs) were detected with templates specific for each
202	interneuron subtype. Finally, in some cells, the paired-pulse ratio (PPR) of evoked EPSCs was
203	assessed using local electrical stimulation (5-50 $\mu\text{A},$ 0.1 ms) of superficial layer 5 at 0.2 Hz. For
204	each intersimulus interval (25-400 ms), 6-7 traces were averaged to determine PPR.
205	
206	2.4 Interneuron classification
207	Neurons were initially selected by tdTomato fluorescence. All PV-tdTomato neurons displayed
208	functional characteristics consistent with fast-spiking interneurons and were included in
209	experiments. While most SST-tdTomato neurons exhibited low-threshold firing consistent with
210	Martinotti cells, approximately one-fourth displayed irregular or fast-spiking-like properties. SST-
211	tdTomato neurons with low R_m (< 150 M Ω), hyperpolarized V_m (< -75 mV), and high rheobase (>
212	100 pA) were immediately discarded, as they represent ectopic tdTomato expression stemming
213	from transient SST expression during development (Hu et al., 2013), or non-Martinotti type SST-
214	INs (Nigro et al., 2018).
215	
216	2.5 Statistics
217	The number of cells or mice is denoted by "n" and/or "N" respectively, in each figure legend.
218	Data are generally presented as mean ± standard error or as box plots displaying median,

219 interquartile range, and range. Analyses were performed in GraphPad Prism. Two-tailed

220 Student's t-test, non-linear least squares best-fit regression, and two-way repeated-measures

ANOVA with Bonferonni post-hoc comparisons were used as appropriate. All statistical findings

are displayed in the figure legends.

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224 3. Results

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3.1 Basal physiology of PFC PV-INs in female mice and male mice

226 To assess whether PFC fast-spiking interneurons display sex differences in intrinsic and synaptic physiology, we generated mice expressing tdTomato in PV-expressing neurons (Figure 227 2A and 2B). Using whole-cell patch-clamp techniques we validated that PV(+) cells represent 228 229 fast-spiking interneurons in layer 5 prelimbic PFC. Indeed, PV(+) cells display the hallmark characteristics of fast-spiking interneurons (Connors and Gutnick, 1990; Kawaguchi, 1993; 230 Markram et al., 2004; McCormick et al., 1985), including high firing frequency and minimal 231 232 spike-firing adaptation and hyperpolarization sag (Figure 2B-2F). PV-IN intrinsic properties were 233 comparable between female and male mice, however PV-INs from male mice exhibited a smaller medium afterhyperpolarization (mAHP) than those from female mice (Figure 2G). 234 Measurements of basal excitatory synaptic strength were also similar across sexes (Figure 2H 235 236 and 21), but the variance of PV-IN sEPSC frequency was greater in female mice (Figure 21). 237 3.2 Basal physiology of PFC SST-INs in female mice and male mice 238 To assess the intrinsic and synaptic physiology of PFC low-threshold spiking interneurons, we 239

240 generated mice expressing tdTomato under control of the SST promotor (Figure 3A and 3B). In

layer 5 PFC, most SST(+) cells represent low-threshold spiking interneurons, however some

242 neurons displayed fast-spiking-like phenotypes and were immediately relinquished. Low-

threshold spiking SST(+) cells display several characteristics of Martinotti cells (Nigro et al.,

244 2018; Tremblay et al., 2016) including high R_m, depolarized V_m, low rheobase, and firing upon

rebound from hyperpolarization (Figure 3B). SST-IN intrinsic properties and measurements of

basal synaptic physiology were all comparable across sexes (Figure 3C-3I).

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3.3 Adaptations to PV-IN and SST-IN membrane physiology in male, but not female, mice
 following IA ethanol

Across most rodent strains, females voluntarily consume more ethanol than males. This

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251 phenotype has been observed across many laboratories (Becker and Lopez, 2004; Hwa et al., 252 2011; Jury et al., 2017; McCall et al., 2013; Priddy et al., 2017), but the etiology underlying the sex difference remains incompletely understood. To model high levels of volitional alcohol 253 drinking, we implemented an intermittent access (IA) schedule, where mice were provided with 254 255 alternating days of ethanol availability in their home cages. Female mice drank more than males 256 (Figure 1), and we then assessed intrinsic properties of PFC PV-INs and SST-INs at one-day abstinence from IA ethanol. We observed minimal effects of IA ethanol treatment on passive 257 258 membrane properties or hyperpolarization sag in either interneuron subtype in either sex (Figure 259 S1). Furthermore, we observed little effect of IA ethanol exposure on PV-IN active membrane 260 properties in female mice (Figure 4A and 4B). In contrast, PV-INs from IA ethanol male mice exhibited distinct adaptations surrounding action potential initiation. Across multiple current 261 injections, we observed increased current-evoked firing in PV-INs from male mice (Figure 4C). 262 263 Following trains of action potentials, many neuron types display mAHP, a brief (~100-ms to 2-264 sec) hyperpolarization. mAHP is generally mediated by voltage- and/or calcium-gated potassium channels and serves a feedback mechanism to limit continuous neural activity. PV-265 INs from male IA ethanol mice displayed greater mAHP than matched controls (Figure 4C). 266 267 Together, these data indicate that PV-INs from male mice are hyperexcitable following IA ethanol and susceptible to enhanced feedback to limit their ongoing activity. We next examined 268 membrane physiology of SST-INs. Like the PV-INs, SST-INs from female IA ethanol mice 269 270 displayed similar current-evoked firing and mAHP to controls (Figure 4E and 4F). Unlike PV-INs, 271 SST-IN spike-firing was no different between control and IA ethanol male mice (Figure 4G), but 272 SST-INs from male IA ethanol mice did display enhanced mAHP (Figure 4H). Importantly, 273 however, the large mAHP in male IA ethanol SST-INs might stem from a non-specific increase in R_m (Figure S1K) and therefore may not reflect a specific change to calcium-activated 274 275 potassium channels. Overall, these intrinsic physiology adaptations suggest that IA ethanol alters the processes through which interneurons respond to synaptic input and alter PFC 276

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277 microcircuit function. We therefore aimed to better understand how binge drinking might modify 278 excitatory input onto PFC PV-INs and SST-INs and investigated synaptic properties from 279 controls and IA ethanol-exposed mice. 280

281 3.4 Opposing changes to synaptic strength onto PFC PV-INs after IA ethanol in female

and male mice 282

283 PFC interneurons generally display low levels of basal activity in vivo. Instead, long-range excitatory afferents dynamically recruit PV-IN and SST-IN activity to shape local networks of 284 285 PFC pyramidal cells through feedforward and feedback inhibition. Thus, assessing how IA ethanol alters the synaptic strength of excitatory synapses onto PFC interneurons is essential to 286 287 place the observed membrane physiology changes within a holistic context. We first analyzed the amplitude and frequency of sEPSCs to assess guantal size and content of glutamate 288 289 synapses onto PV-INs (Figure 5A). In female mice, we observed a decrease in both sEPSC amplitude (Figure 5B) and frequency (Figure 5C) between IA ethanol treatment and controls. 290 These data suggest PV-INs in female mice display reduced AMPA receptor function and fewer 291 detectable synapses after IA ethanol exposure. We next used electrical stimulation to evaluate 292 293 the paired-pulse ratio (PPR), which is modulated by changes in neurotransmitter release probability. We observed no difference in PPR (Figure 5D), suggesting changes in presynaptic 294 glutamate release do not play a major role in the adaptations following IA ethanol. In PV-INs of 295 296 female mice, the overall changes are most consistent with attenuated postsynaptic AMPA 297 receptor function and fewer detectable synapses. Opposing results were obtained in PV-INs 298 from male mice. IA ethanol increased both sEPSC amplitude (Figure 5E and 5F) and frequency 299 (Figure 5E and 5G) without affecting PPR (Figure 5H), suggesting enhanced function of postsynaptic AMPA receptors and an increase in the number of detectable excitatory synapses 300 after IA ethanol exposure. While we observed likely postsynaptic changes in both groups, these 301 striking findings indicate that the excitatory synapses onto PFC PV-INs undergo diametrically 302

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opposed changes in female and male mice. These synaptic adaptations are expected to
 attenuate and facilitate PV-IN recruitment by excitatory drive in female and male mice with a
 history of IA ethanol respectively.

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307 3.5 Diminished synaptic strength onto PFC SST-INs after IA ethanol

As with PV-INs, we evaluated changes to excitatory synaptic transmission onto SST-INs in 308 309 control mice and those exposed to IA ethanol. In female mice, one-day abstinence from IA 310 ethanol was associated with decreased excitatory synaptic strength (Figure 6A), as evidenced 311 by reductions in both sEPSC amplitude (Figure 6B) and frequency (Figure 6C). The PPR of 312 evoked EPSCs was not different between the control and IA ethanol groups, suggesting these changes in excitatory transmission occurred through postsynaptic reduction in AMPA receptor 313 function and the number of detectable synapses. We observed similar changes in male mice 314 315 (Figure 6E). IA ethanol produced an attenuation of sEPSC amplitude (Figure 6F) and frequency 316 (Figure 6G) in SST-INs of male mice. Surprisingly, we observed decreased PPR across multiple 317 interstimulus intervals in these cells from the IA ethanol group (Figure 6H). At face value, these data suggest increased presynaptic glutamate release probability and are not consistent with 318 319 the concomitant reduction in sEPSC frequency. We offer two potential explanations for this discrepancy: (1) distinct sets of synapses may have been sampled during spontaneous and 320 evoked EPSC recordings, as has been observed at excitatory synapses onto other cell types in 321 322 the central nervous system (Ramirez and Kavalali, 2011); and (2) SST-IN PPR may be 323 regulated by a postsynaptic feature, such as the activity-dependent polyamine sensitivity of 324 AMPA receptors previously observed in cortical interneurons (Rozov and Burnashev, 1999). 325 Nonetheless, the collective dataset suggests that IA ethanol exposure attenuates excitatory transmission overall onto SST-INs in all groups of mice. 326

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329 4. Discussion

330 The PFC is essential for top-down moderation of drinking (Abernathy et al., 2010; George and Koob, 2010). The preclinical literature has primarily focused on how ethanol alters 331 the function of PFC pyramidal cells, the principal neurons that convey information from the PFC 332 333 to subcortical structures. Nonetheless, PFC output is dynamically regulated by local interneurons, so we sought to investigate physiological adaptations occurring on those discrete 334 335 cell types following ethanol exposure. We functionally interrogated two genetically defined subtypes of PFC interneurons in a binge drinking model. IA ethanol induced disparate sex-336 337 dependent adaptations to PV-INs – fewer detectable synapses in female mice and enhanced 338 postsynaptic AMPA receptor function in male mice. In contrast, IA ethanol dampened excitatory synaptic strength onto SST-INs in all groups of mice. Together, these data indicate that altered 339 excitatory synaptic drive onto PV-INs and SST-INs may contribute to PFC dysfunction in AUD. 340 The changes we observed to PV-IN and SST-IN intrinsic and synaptic physiology may or 341 342 may not be related. While we observed a significant increase in mAHP following IA ethanol in interneurons from male mice, a potential increase may have been occluded in PV-INs from 343 female mice due to their relatively large basal mAHP. Following sustained depolarization, the 344 345 mAHP limits neural activity and calcium mobilization within a postsynaptic cell. Therefore, the coincidental ethanol-induced increases in PV-IN mAHP and synaptic strength in male mice are 346 consistent with a homeostatic response, i.e. increased mAHP might provide a feedback 347 348 mechanism to mitigate excessive activation of PV-INs following synaptic stimulation. In PV-INs 349 from female mice and SST-INs, by contrast, an IA ethanol-induced increase in mAHP might 350 have facilitated spike timing-dependent long-term depression (Lu et al., 2007), thereby initiating 351 an ethanol-induced reduction synaptic strength. In addition – or as an alternative – to these potential causal relationships, the coincidental changes to mAHP and synaptic strength might 352 353 be manifested by the further separation of PV-INs into responsive and non-responsive subpopulations. PV-INs can be divided into "basket cells" and "chandelier cells" based on the 354

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subcellular targeting of their axons. Chandelier cells exhibit minimal mAHP relative to basket
cells (Povysheva et al., 2013), thus one intriguing hypothesis is that IA ethanol specifically
enhances mAHP (and also modulates synaptic strength) in this PV-IN subtype. Similarly,
cortical SST-INs can be further stratified into subclasses based on intrinsic properties,
connectivity, and protein expression (Tremblay et al., 2016), and some of these factors may
confer susceptibility to alcohol-related pathophysiology.

361 Female mice drink more ethanol than male counterparts. While that could conceivably contribute to differences in our observed physiological changes, we find it unlikely that relatively 362 363 modest variation in ethanol exposure initiates fundamentally distinct changes in physiology. 364 With that in mind, the current findings reveal that PFC PV-INs undergo entirely distinct adaptations based on sex, particularly with regards to synaptic physiology. These results beg 365 the question, do ethanol-induced adaptations to PV-INs contribute to sex differences in drinking 366 367 behaviors? Substantial further research is needed to address this question. For one, it remains 368 unclear how PFC PV-IN activity in vivo modulates drinking and other appetitive behaviors. Experiments designed to monitor and manipulate PV-IN activity during a variety of components 369 of ethanol-seeking tasks will be important to fully understand how molecular changes to PV-IN 370 371 physiology confer AUD-like adaptations. One overly simple and wildly speculative prediction is that feedforward drive onto PV-INs inhibits cortical circuits involved in drinking behaviors, such 372 as the PFC projections to the nucleus accumbens (Seif et al., 2013) or periaqueductal gray 373 374 (Siciliano et al., 2019). Were that the case, decreased excitatory transmission onto PV-INs 375 could facilitate drinking in female mice and enhanced drive onto PV-INs in male mice might 376 confer some resilience. Similarly, attenuated drive onto SST-INs might promote drinking in all 377 groups of mice, but the discrepant changes to PPR and sEPSC frequency in male SST-INs highlight the need to investigate specific sources of glutamate onto PFC interneurons. In 378 379 addition to providing top-down control over drinking, the PFC regulates a variety of cognitive processes with relevance for AUD. In particular, working memory and cognitive flexibility are 380

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regulated by PFC PV-INs (Murray et al., 2015) and SST-INs (Abbas et al., 2018). Based on this,
we predict that interneuron dysfunction likely contributes to impairments in PFC-dependent
cognitive processes observed in animal models of AUD (George et al., 2012; Salling et al.,
2018; Trantham-Davidson et al., 2014; Vargas et al., 2014). Further research, however, is
needed to test this hypothesis and to examine potential sex differences in AUD-related cognitive
disruptions.

The preclinical literature modeling PFC dysfunction has generally utilized male subjects 387 and focused on adaptations to pyramidal cells. Studies describing PFC interneuron dysfunction 388 389 have been more limited and exclusively examined the physiological ramifications of ethanol 390 dependence or chronic intoxication. Trantham-Davidson et al. (Trantham-Davidson et al., 2014) 391 assessed intrinsic properties of functionally identified fast-spiking interneurons (putative PV-INs) 392 in male rats exposed to CIE. CIE generated differences in dopamine modulation of fast-spiking 393 interneuron current-evoked firing, but baseline excitability parameters, including input-output 394 firing curves and mAHP, were not reported. Another recent paper by Hughes et al. (Hughes et al., 2019) described several changes to the intrinsic properties of PFC interneurons in a rat 395 model of chronic intoxication. Following ethanol exposure, Hughes et al. observed decreased 396 397 fast-spiking interneuron excitability in all rats, while we detected increased PV-IN spiking in male mice only. Further, Hughes et al. observed ethanol-induced sex differences in current-evoked 398 firing in putative Martinotti cells, while we noted minimal effects on SST-IN intrinsic physiology in 399 400 either female mice or male mice. Several major technical differences are likely to explain these 401 discrepancies. Hughes et al. delivered an intoxicating dose of ethanol (~250 mg/dL) to rats on 402 successive days, whereas mice in the current studies voluntarily drank on alternating nights to 403 reach moderate blood ethanol concentrations (~80 mg/dL reported in previous studies (Hwa et al., 2011; Salling et al., 2018)). In addition to methodological differences in slice preparation and 404 405 interneuron classification, differences between the two studies might stem from means of ethanol delivery, overall intake, pattern of intake, and species. Each of these parameters merits 406

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further examination. We believe the diversity of preclinical AUD models is a beneficial feature of the research community; continued research across several models well help elucidate the core features of disease etiology. To our knowledge, the present study represents the first characterization of PFC interneuron synaptic physiology following voluntary drinking, although these findings are also limited by a single timepoint. Future studies should be designed to address the development and recovery of PFC interneuron pathophysiology and related behavioral adaptations across multiple disease models.

Based on the current findings, one would expect for inhibitory transmission onto PFC 414 415 pyramidal cells to be altered following chronic drinking and in models of alcohol dependence. In 416 ostensible contrast to that hypothesis, previous research did not reveal differences in inhibitory transmission onto deep layer prelimbic PFC pyramidal cells during acute withdrawal from CIE 417 (Pleil et al., 2015; Trantham-Davidson et al., 2014). During those experiments, however, 418 419 GABAergic inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) on pyramidal cells were collected with non-420 specific electrical stimulation or in a spontaneous manner. The present findings suggest that output from each interneuron subpopulation is likely altered following ethanol exposure, but 421 coincidental adaptations might have obfuscated changes in non-specific IPSCs in previous 422 423 work. Our findings suggest this possibility is particularly likely for male subjects, as we observed contrasting changes to synaptic strength onto PV-INs and SST-INs in male mice. Consistent 424 with this hypothesis, Trantham-Davidson et al (Trantham-Davidson et al., 2014). discovered that 425 426 CIE disrupted the ability of D4 dopamine receptors to modulate IPSCs recorded from pyramidal 427 cells. D4 receptors regulate PV-IN function in the PFC (Zhong and Yan, 2016) and 428 hippocampus (Andersson et al., 2012) without affecting other types of interneurons, suggesting 429 that PV-INs mediated the CIE-induced changes to D4 signaling observed by Trantham-430 Davidson et al (2014). Future investigations targeting PFC inhibitory synapses with interneuron 431 type-specific manipulations, in both female and male rodents, should improve our understanding of how alcohol exposure dysregulates PFC function and assist efforts to discover novel targets 432

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433 for the treatment of AUD.

434 Restoring normal synaptic physiology on PFC PV-INs and SST-INs following IA ethanol may provide avenues to mitigating behavioral disruptions relevant to AUD. A better 435 understanding of the mechanisms regulating synaptic plasticity on cortical interneurons would 436 437 be essential towards these endeavors. Calcium-permeable AMPA receptors and NMDA receptors represent two candidate molecules that might modulate synaptic strength onto PV-INs 438 439 and SST-INs during or after IA ethanol. Future studies should therefore examine drinking-440 related changes in AMPA and NMDA receptor expression, stoichiometry, and signaling on 441 cortical interneurons. In addition to ionotropic glutamate receptors, changes in fast glutamate 442 transmission are often mediated by metabotropic glutamate (mGlu) receptors. Several previous findings suggest mGlu receptors may be involved in the PFC interneuron synaptic 443 pathophysiology we observed after IA ethanol. Transcript and protein for mGlu receptor 444 subtypes 1 (mGlu₁) and 5 (mGlu₅) are enriched in interneurons, and mGlu₁ and mGlu₅ have 445 446 been implicated in forms of long-term potentiation specific to interneurons (Le Duigou and Kullmann, 2011; Perez et al., 2001). Furthermore, mGlu₅, but not mGlu₁, gates long-term 447 potentiation onto fast-spiking interneurons in the visual cortex (Sarihi et al., 2008), but these 448 449 plasticity mechanisms have not, to our knowledge, been investigated in the PFC or other associative cortices. In addition to these plasticity mechanisms, pronounced sex differences in 450 mGlu₁ and mGlu₅ signaling have been observed in the limbic system: estradiol regulates 451 452 hippocampal inhibitory transmission through mGlu₁ (Huang and Woolley, 2012), and sex 453 hormones modulate mGlu₅-dependent synaptic plasticity in the nucleus accumbens (Gross et 454 al., 2018; Peterson et al., 2015). Altogether, the breadth of preclinical literature raises the 455 possibility that changes in PFC glutamate transmission during IA ethanol might recruit mGlu₁/mGlu₅ signaling to modulate synaptic strength on PV-INs and SST-INs in a sex-456 dependent manner. Consistent with that hypothesis, mice harboring mGlu5 ablation from PV-457 expressing neurons display altered sensitivity to rewarding drugs and a sex-dependent increase 458

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459 ir	n habitual behavior (Barnes et al., 2015). Finally, si	mall molecule r	modulators o	of mGlu₁ and
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- 460 mGlu₅ are efficacious in multiple preclinical AUD models (Joffe et al., 2018), providing further
- 461 impetus for investigating how these signaling pathways may underlie disease etiology.
- 462

463 **5. Conclusion**

- 464 Interneurons arise from distinct progenitors and express distinct transcriptional program,
- 465 presenting opportunities to leverage biological idiosyncrasies for the targeted treatment of
- disease. Efficacious AUD treatments might one day be developed from cortical interneuron
- 467 dysfunction initially observed in a preclinical disease model. The striking adaptations to synaptic
- 468 physiology described here provide one potential starting place.
- 469

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477 Author Contributions

- 478 Conceptualization, M.E.J; Investigation, M.E.J.; Supervision, D.G.W. and P.J.C.; Writing -
- 479 Original Draft, M.E.J.; Writing Review & Editing all authors; Funding Acquisition, M.E.J. and

480 P.J.C.

481

482 **Declaration of interests**

- 483 P.J.C. receives research support from Lundbeck Pharmaceuticals and Boehringer Ingelheim
- 484 P.J.C. is an inventor on multiple patents for allosteric modulators of metabotropic glutamate
- 485 receptors. M.E.J. and D.G.W. declare no potential conflicts of interest.

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684 Figure Legends

685 Figure 1. Sex differences in voluntary ethanol consumption under an intermittent access schedule. (A) Mice underwent 4 weeks of voluntary drinking during which ethanol was provided 686 every other day on an intermittent access (IA) schedule. The ethanol concentration was ramped 687 688 during the first week and set at 20% for the duration of the study. Female mice (light circles) displayed increased ethanol intake relative to male mice (dark squares) over the duration of the 689 study (Least squares best-fit, one-phase association: 95% confidence intervals of plateaus {27.1 690 to 33.6 g/kg; $r^2 = 0.46$ } vs {21.5 to 25.4 g/kg; $r^2 = 0.53$ }). N = 9 mice per group. (B) Female mice 691 692 drank more during the last week of the IA ethanol paradigm (30.2 ± 2.5 vs 22.6 ± 1.7 g/kg, *: p < 0.05, t-test). N = 9. (C-D) No sex difference in preference for ethanol over concurrently available 693 water across the IA ethanol paradigm or during the last week of drinking. N = 9. 694

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Figure 2. Parvalbumin (PV)-(+) neurons display functional characteristics of fast-spiking 696 697 interneurons. (A) Representative 4X image displaying tdTomato fluorescence in deep layers of the mouse prefrontal cortex. Boxed area indicates prelimbic subregion. Inset, 40X magnification 698 699 image showing individual PV-expressing interneurons. M, medial; D, dorsal. (B) Whole-cell 700 patch-clamp recordings were made from identified neurons in the PFC. Representative currentclamp recordings from an unlabeled pyramidal cell (left, black) and a tdTomato-labeled PV-IN 701 702 (right, red). The pyramidal cell displays a hyperpolarization-activated sag and accommodating 703 spike firing, physiological features that are minimal or absent in PV-INs. Scale bars indicate 20 mV and 250 ms. (C) Resting membrane potential (V_m) in PV-INs from female mice (circles) and 704 male mice (squares). n/N = 17-20/8-9 cells/mice per group. (D) No difference in membrane 705 resistance (R_m) between PV-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 17-20/8-9. (E) No difference 706 707 in current-evoked spiking between PV-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 16-18/8-9. (F) No 708 difference in hyperpolarization sag ratio between PV-INs from female and male mice. n/N =

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709	18/9, 20/8. (G) PV-INs from female mice display greater medium afterhyperpolarization (mAHP)
710	than PV-INs from male mice (2.71 \pm 0.30 vs 1.72 \pm 0.22 mV, **: p < 0.01, t-test). n/N = 18-20/8-
711	9. (H) No difference in spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic current (sEPSC) amplitude between
712	PV-INs from female and male mice. $n/N = 16/7-9$. (I) No difference in the mean of sEPSC
713	frequency between PV-INs from female and male mice. A difference in the variance of sEPSC
714	frequency was observed between female and male mice ($F_{16,15}$ = 3.526, \$: p < 0.01, F test to
715	compare variances). n/N = 16-17/7-9.

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Figure 3. Somatostatin (SST)-(+) neurons display functional characteristics of Martinotti 717 718 cells. (A) A representative 4X image displaying tdTomato fluorescence in deep players of the 719 mouse prefrontal cortex (PFC). Boxed area indicates prelimbic subregion of the mouse PFC. 720 Inset, 40X magnification image showing individual SST-expressing interneurons. M, medial; D, 721 dorsal. (B) Whole-cell patch-clamp recordings were made from identified neurons in the PFC. Representative current-clamp recordings from an unlabeled pyramidal cell (left, black) and a 722 tdTomato-labeled SST-IN (right, blue). The pyramidal cell displays modest input resistance (R_m) 723 and does not fire during 25 pA current injection current. In contrast, most SST-INs display high 724 membrane resistance (R_m) and fire action potentials in response to minimal current injection and 725 726 hyperpolarization rebound. Scale bars indicate 20 mV and 250 ms. (C) Resting membrane potential (V_m) in SST-INs from female mice (circles) and male mice (squares). n/N = 12/3 727 728 cells/mice per group. (D) No difference in R_m between SST-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 12/3, 14/3. (E) No difference in current-evoked spiking between SST-INs from female and 729 730 male mice. n/N = 12/3. (F) No difference in hyperpolarization sag ratio between SST-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 12-13/3. (G) No difference in medium afterhyperpolarization 731 (mAHP) in SST-INs from female mice and male mice. n/N = 11-13/3. (H) No difference in 732 733 spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic current (sEPSC) amplitude between SST-INs from female

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and male mice. n/N = 11-14/3. (I) No difference in the mean of sEPSC frequency between SST-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 11-14/3.

736

737 Figure 4. Intermittent ethanol increases medium afterhyperpolarization (mAHP) in

738 parvalbumin (PV-IN) and somatostatin (SST-IN) interneurons in male mice. (A) Modest 739 increase in spiking during large current injections in PV-INs from IA ethanol treated female mice relative to controls. (Two-way RM ANOVA main effect of input: F_{12.432} = 88.44, p < 0.0001; main 740 effect of IA ethanol: $F_{1.36}$ = 0.7002, n.s.; input x IA ethanol interaction: $F_{12.432}$ = 2.213, p < 0.02). 741 n/N = 17-19/5 cells/mice per group. (B) No difference in mAHP in IA ethanol PV-INs relative to 742 743 controls in female mice n/N = 17-19/5. (C) Increased spiking in response to current injections in PV-INs from IA ethanol treated male mice relative to controls. (Two-way RM ANOVA main effect 744 of input: $F_{12,348}$ = 68.39, p < 0.0001; main effect of IA ethanol: $F_{1,29}$ = 6.138, p < 0.02; input x IA 745 ethanol interaction: F_{12.348} = 2.796, p < 0.002; *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, Bonferonni post-tests). 746 n/N = 16-17/4. (D) Enhanced mAHP in IA ethanol-treated PV-INs relative to controls in male 747 748 mice (3.08 ± 0.21 vs 1.82 ± 0.24 mV, ***: p < 0.001, t-test). n/N = 16-17/5. (E-F) In female mice, no differences were observed in SST-IN current-evoked firing or mAHP between control (filled 749 750 circles) and IA ethanol (open circles) treatment groups n/N = 14-15/4-5. (G) No difference in 751 current-evoked spiking in SST-INs from IA ethanol treated male mice relative to controls. n/N = 752 15-16/4. (H) Increased mAHP in IA ethanol SST-INs relative to controls in male mice $(3.08 \pm$ 753 0.21 vs 1.82 ± 0.24 mV, ***: p < 0.001, t-test). n/N = 15/4.

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Figure 5. Intermittent access to ethanol generates diametrically opposing changes to
 excitatory synaptic strength onto parvalbumin-expressing interneurons (PV-INs) based
 on sex. (A) Left, Representative spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic current (sEPSC) traces
 from PV-INs from control (black) and IA ethanol (red) female mice. Scale bars indicate 10 pA,

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759	100 ms. Right, Averaged sEPSC from representative experiment. Scale bars indicate 5 pA, 2
760	ms. (B) Decreased sEPSC amplitude in PV-INs from control and IA ethanol female mice. (14.5
761	± 0.7 vs 17.9 ± 1.5 pA, *: p < 0.05, t-test) n/N = 17/5 cells/mice per group (C) PV-INs from
762	female mice given IA ethanol exhibited decreased sEPSC frequency relative to controls (15.2 \pm
763	1.3 vs 21.2 ± 1.6 Hz, **: p < 0.01, t-test). n/N = 17-19/5. (D) No group difference in paired-pulse
764	ratio (PPR) between control and IA ethanol female mice across several interstimulus intervals
765	(ISIs). n/N = 7-9/3. (E) Left, Representative sEPSC traces from PV-INs from control (black) and
766	IA ethanol (red) male mice. Scale bars indicate 10 pA, 100 ms. Right, Averaged sEPSC from
767	representative experiment. Scale bars indicate 5 pA, 2 ms. (F) Greater sEPSC amplitude in PV-
768	INs from IA ethanol group relative to control male mice ($20.7 \pm 1.4 \text{ vs} 15.9 \pm 1.0 \text{ pA}$, **: p < 0.01,
769	t-test). n/N = 16/5. (G) PV-INs from male mice given IA ethanol displayed increased sEPSC
770	frequency relative to controls (25.1 \pm 2.8 vs 16.5 \pm 1.3 Hz, **: p < 0.01, t-test). n/N = 16-17/5.
771	(H) No group difference in PPR between control and IA ethanol male mice. $n/N = 7-9/3$.
772	

Figure 6. Intermittent access to ethanol decreases excitatory synaptic strength onto 773 774 somatostatin interneurons (SST-INs). (A) Left, Representative spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic current (sEPSC) traces from SST-INs from control (black) and IA ethanol (blue) 775 female mice. Scale bars indicate 10 pA, 100 ms. Right, Averaged sEPSC from representative 776 experiment. Scale bars indicate 5 pA, 2 ms. (B) Decreased sEPSC amplitude was observed in 777 SST-INs from IA ethanol female mice relative to controls. controls $(11.7 \pm 0.5 \text{ vs} 13.8 \pm 0.8 \text{ pA},$ 778 779 *: p < 0.05, t-test). n/N = 12-14/4 cells/mice per group. (C) SST-INs from female mice given IA ethanol exhibited decreased sEPSC frequency relative to controls (5.7 ± 0.9 vs 9.9 ± 1.8 Hz, *: 780 p < 0.05, t-test). n/N = 12-14/4 cells/mice. (D) SST-IN paired-pulse ratio (PPR) did not differ 781 782 between control and IA ethanol female mice across multiple interstimulus intervals (ISIs). n/N = 783 9-11/3-4. (E) Left, Representative sEPSC traces from SST-INs from control (black) and IA ethanol (blue) male mice. Scale bars indicate 10 pA, 100 ms. Right, Averaged sEPSC from 784

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785	representative experiment. Scale bars indicate 5 pA, 2 ms. (F) Decreased sEPSC amplitude in
786	SST-INs from IA ethanol group relative to control male mice (10.6 \pm 0.6 vs 12.9 \pm 0.9 pA, *: p <
787	0.05, t-test). n/N = 14-15/5. (G) SST-INs from male mice given IA ethanol displayed decreased
788	sEPSC frequency relative to controls (4.1 \pm 0.6 vs 6.9 \pm 1.1 Hz, *: p < 0.05, t-test). n/N = 16-
789	17/5. (H) Decreased PPR in IA ethanol male mice (Two-way RM ANOVA main effect of ISI: $F_{4,84}$
790	= 24.85, p < 0.0001; main effect of IA ethanol: $F_{1,21}$ = 6.897, p < 0.02; input x IA ethanol
791	interaction: $F_{12,84}$ = 4.6, p < 0.003; *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, Bonferonni post-tests) n/N = 11-12/4-
792	5.
793	
794	Figure S1. Minimal adaptations to several interneuron membrane properties following
795	intermittent access to ethanol. (A-C) In female mice, no differences were observed in
796	parvalbumin interneuron (PV-IN) resting membrane potential (V_m), membrane resistance (R_m),
797	or sag ratio between control (filled circles) and IA ethanol (open circles) treatments. n/N = 17-
798	20/5 cells/mice per group. (D-F) In male mice, no differences in PV-IN V_m , R_m , or sag ratio were
799	detected between control (filled squares) and IA ethanol (open squares) treatments. n/N = 15-
800	17/4. (G-I) In female mice, no differences were observed in somatostatin interneuron (SST-IN)
801	V_m , R_m , or sag ratio between control and IA ethanol treatments. n/N = 13-20/4-5. (J) In male
802	mice, SST-IN V_m did not differ between control and IA ethanol treatments. n/N = 15-17/4. (K) IA
803	ethanol was associated with increased $\rm R_{m}$ in SST-INs from male mice (389.1 \pm 33.3 vs 295.6 \pm
804	25.7 M Ω , *: p < 0.05, t-test). n/N = 14-16/4. (L) No difference in SST-IN sag ratio between
805	control and IA ethanol male mice. $n/N = 14-16/4$.

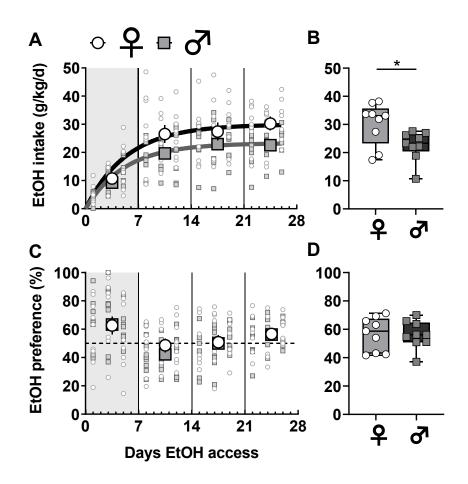


Figure 1. Sex differences in voluntary ethanol consumption under an intermittent access schedule. (A) Mice underwent 4 weeks of voluntary drinking during which ethanol was provided every other day on an intermittent access (IA) schedule. The ethanol concentration was ramped during the first week and set at 20% for the duration of the study. Female mice (light circles) displayed increased ethanol intake relative to male mice (dark squares) over the duration of the study (Least squares best-fit, one-phase association: 95% confidence intervals of plateaus {27.1 to 33.6 g/kg; $r^2 = 0.46$ } vs {21.5 to 25.4 g/kg; $r^2 = 0.53$ }). N = 9 mice per group. **(B)** Female mice drank more during the last week of the IA ethanol paradigm (30.2 ± 2.5 vs 22.6 ± 1.7 g/kg, *: p < 0.05, t-test). **(C-D)** No sex difference in preference for ethanol over concurrently available water across the IA ethanol paradigm or during the last week of drinking.

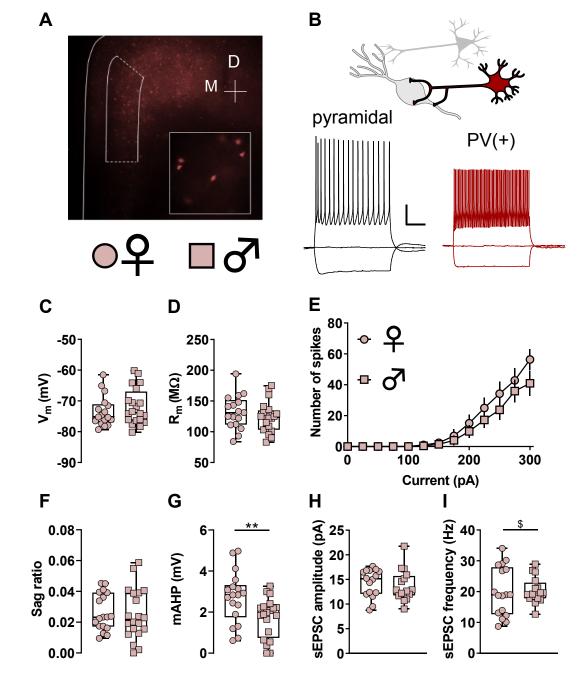


Figure 2. Parvalbumin (PV)-(+) neurons display functional characteristics of fast-spiking interneurons. (A) Representative 4X image displaying TdTomato fluorescence in deep layers of the mouse prefrontal cortex. Boxed area indicates prelimbic subregion. Inset, 40X magnification image showing individual PV-expressing interneurons. M, medial; D, dorsal. (B) Whole-cell patch-clamp recordings were made from identified neurons in the PFC. Representative current-clamp recordings from an unlabeled pyramidal cell (left, black) and a TdTomato-labeled PV-IN (right, red). The pyramidal cell displays a hyperpolarization-activated sag and accommodating spike firing, physiological features that are minimal or absent in PV-INs. Scale bars indicate 20 mV and 250 ms. (C) Resting membrane potential (V_m) in PV-INs from female mice (circles) and male mice (squares). n/N = 17/9, 20/8 cells / mice. (D) No difference in membrane resistance (R_m) between PV-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 17/9, 20/8. (E) No difference in current-evoked spiking between PV-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 16/9, 18/8. (F) No difference in hyperpolarization sag ratio between PV-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 18/9, 20/8. (G) PV-INs from female mice display greater medium afterhyperpolarization (mAHP) than PV-INs from male mice (2.71 ± 0.30 vs 1.72 ± 0.22 mV, **: p < 0.01, t-test). n/N = 18/9, 20/8. (H) No difference in spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic current (sEPSC) amplitude between PV-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 16/9, 16/7. (I) No difference in the mean of sEPSC frequency between PV-INs from female and male mice. A difference in the variance of sEPSC frequency was observed between female and male mice (F_{16.15} = 3.526, \$: p < 0.01, F test to compare variances). n/N = 17/9, 16/7.

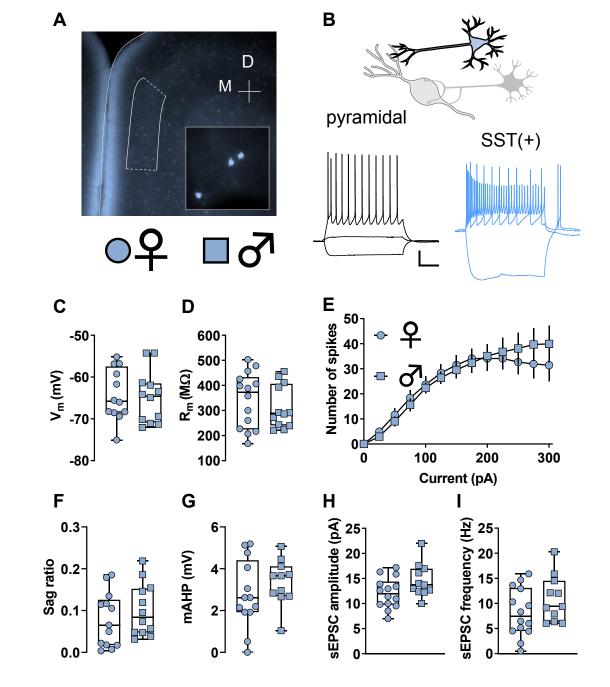


Figure 3. Somatostatin (SST)-(+) neurons display functional characteristics of Martinotti cells. (A) A representative 4X image displaying TdTomato fluorescence in deep players of the mouse prefrontal cortex (PFC). Boxed area indicates prelimbic subregion of the mouse PFC. Inset, 40X magnification image showing individual SST-expressing interneurons. M, medial; D, dorsal. **(B)** Whole-cell patch-clamp recordings were made from identified neurons in the PFC. Representative current-clamp recordings from an unlabeled pyramidal cell (left, black) and a TdTomato-labeled SST-IN (right, blue). The pyramidal cell displays modest input resistance (R_m) and does not fire during 25 pA current injection current. In contrast, most SST-INs display high membrane resistance (R_m) and fire action potentials in response to minimal current injection and hyperpolarization rebound. Scale bars indicate 20 mV and 250 ms. **(C)** Resting membrane potential (V_m) in SST-INs from female mice (circles) and male mice (squares). n/N = 12/3 cells/mice per group. **(D)** No difference in R_m between SST-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 12/3, 14/3. **(E)** No difference in current-evoked spiking between SST-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 12/3, 14/3. **(E)** No difference in current exoted spiking between SST-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 12/3, 14/3. **(I)** No difference in the mean of sEPSC) amplitude between SST-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 14/3, 11/3. **(I)** No difference in the mean of sEPSC frequency between SST-INs from female and male mice. n/N = 14/3, 11/3.

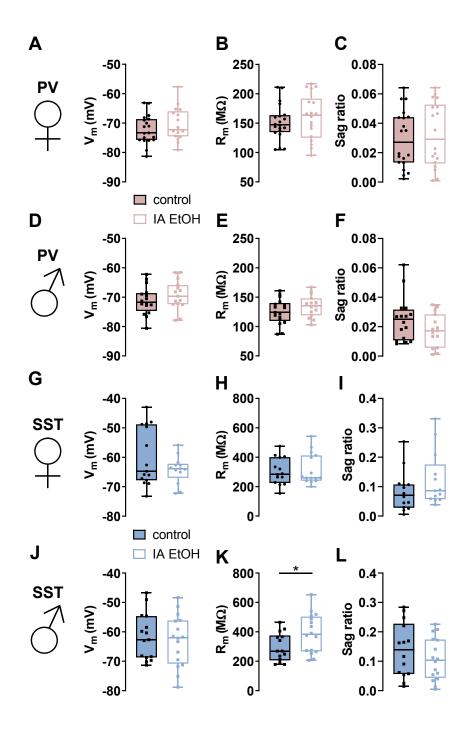


Figure S1. Minimal adaptations to several interneuron membrane properties following intermittent access to ethanol. (A-C) In female mice, no differences were observed in parvalbumin interneuron (PV-IN) resting membrane potential (V_m), membrane resistance (R_m), or sag ratio between control (filled circles) and IA ethanol (open circles) treatments. n/N = 17-20/5 cells/mice per group. (D-F) In male mice, no differences in PV-IN V_m, R_m, or sag ratio were detected between control (filled squares) and IA ethanol (open squares) treatments. n/N = 15-17/4. (G-I) In female mice, no differences were observed in somatostatin interneuron (SST-IN) V_m, R_m, or sag ratio between control and IA ethanol treatments. n/N = 13-20/4-5. (J) In male mice, SST-IN V_m did not differ between control and IA ethanol treatments. n/N = 15-17/4. (K) IA ethanol was associated with increased R_m in SST-INs from male mice (389.1 ± 33.3 vs 295.6 ± 25.7 MΩ, *: p < 0.05, t-test). n/N = 14-16/4. (L) No difference in SST-IN sag ratio between control and IA ethanol male mice. n/N = 14-16/4.

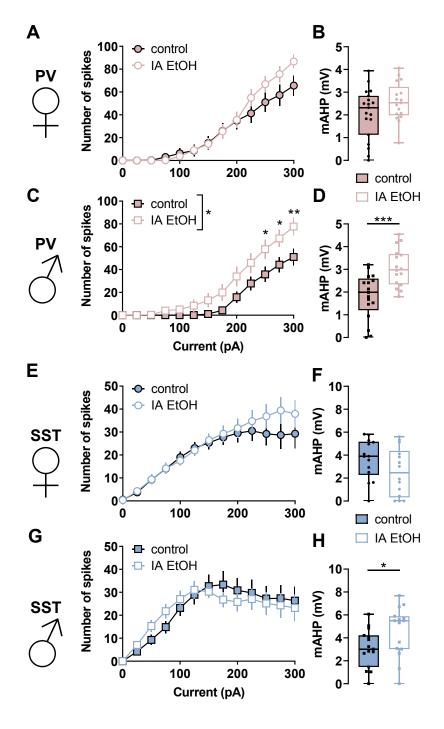


Figure 4. Intermittent ethanol increases medium afterhyperpolarization (mAHP) in parvalbumin (PV-IN) and somatostatin (SST-IN) interneurons in male mice. (A) Modest increase in spiking during large current injections in PV-INs from IA ethanol treated female mice relative to controls. (Two-way RM ANOVA main effect of input: $F_{12,432}$ = 88.44, p < 0.0001; main effect of IA ethanol: $F_{1,36}$ = 0.7002, n.s.; input x IA ethanol interaction: $F_{12,432}$ = 2.213, p < 0.02). n/N = 17-19/5 cells/mice per group. (B) No difference in mAHP in IA ethanol PV-INs relative to controls in female mice n/N = 17-19/5. (C) Increased spiking in response to current injections in PV-INs from IA ethanol treated male mice relative to controls. (Two-way RM ANOVA main effect of input: $F_{12,348}$ = 68.39, p < 0.0001; main effect of IA ethanol: $F_{1,29}$ = 6.138, p < 0.02; input x IA ethanol interaction: $F_{1,2,348}$ = 6.138, p < 0.02; input x IA ethanol interaction: $F_{1,2,348}$ = 2.796, p < 0.002; *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, Bonferonni post-tests). n/N = 16-17/4. (D) Enhanced mAHP in IA ethanol-treated PV-INs relative to controls in male mice (3.08 ± 0.21 vs 1.82 ± 0.24 mV, ***: p < 0.001, t-test). n/N = 16-17/5. (E-F) In female mice, no differences were observed in SST-IN current-evoked firing or mAHP between control (filled circles) and IA ethanol (open circles) treatment groups n/N = 13-20/4. (G) No difference in current-evoked spiking in SST-INs from IA ethanol treated male mice relative to controls. n/N = 16-17/4. (H) Increased mAHP in IA ethanol treated male mice relative to controls. n/N = 16-17/4. (H) Increased mAHP in IA ethanol reated male mice relative to controls. n/N = 16-17/4. (H) Increased mAHP in IA ethanol treated male mice relative to controls. n/N = 16-17/4. (H) Increased mAHP in IA ethanol sST-INs relative to controls in male mice (3.08 ± 0.21 vs 1.82 ± 0.24 mV, ***: p < 0.001, t-test). n/N = 16-17/4.

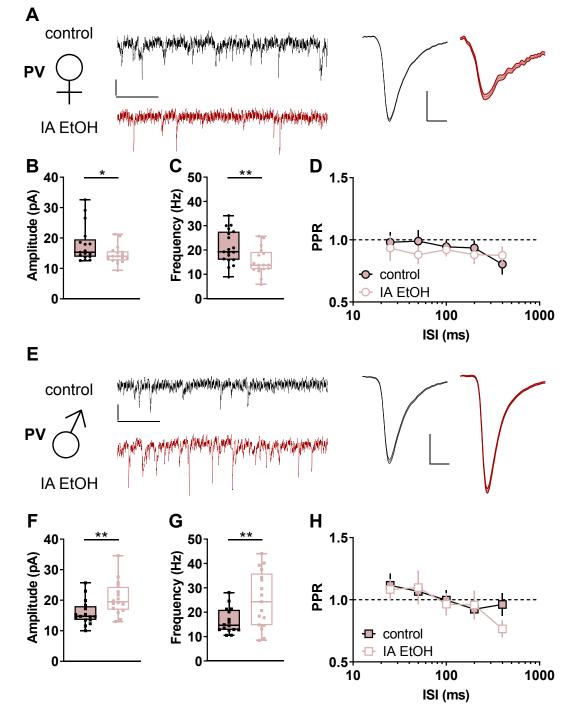


Figure 5. Intermittent access to ethanol generates diametrically opposing changes to excitatory synaptic strength onto parvalbumin-expressing interneurons (PV-INs) based on sex. (A) Left, Representative spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic current (sEPSC) traces from PV-INs from control (black) and IA ethanol (red) female mice. Scale bars indicate 10 pA, 100 ms. Right, Averaged sEPSC from representative experiment. Scale bars indicate 5 pA, 2 ms. (B) Decreased sEPSC amplitude in PV-INs from control and IA ethanol female mice. (14.5 ± 0.7 vs 17.9 ± 1.5 pA, *: p < 0.05, t-test) n/N = 17/5 cells/mice per group (C) PV-INs from female mice given IA ethanol exhibited decreased sEPSC frequency relative to controls (15.2 ± 1.3 vs 21.2 ± 1.6 Hz, **: p < 0.01, t-test). n/N = 17-19/5. (D) No group difference in paired-pulse ratio (PPR) between control and IA ethanol female mice across several interstimulus intervals (ISIs). n/N = 7-9/3. (E) Left, Representative sEPSC traces from PV-INs from control (black) and IA ethanol (red) male mice. Scale bars indicate 10 pA, 100 ms. Right, Averaged sEPSC from representative experiment. Scale bars indicate 5 pA, 2 ms. (F) Greater sEPSC amplitude in PV-INs from la ethanol group relative to control male mice (20.7 ± 1.4 vs 15.9 ± 1.0 pA, **: p < 0.01, t-test). n/N = 16/5. (G) PV-INs from male mice given IA ethanol displayed increased sEPSC frequency relative to controls (25.1 ± 2.8 vs 16.5 ± 1.3 Hz, **: p < 0.01, t-test). n/N = 16-17/5. (H) No group difference in PPR between control and IA ethanol male mice. n/N = 7-9/3.

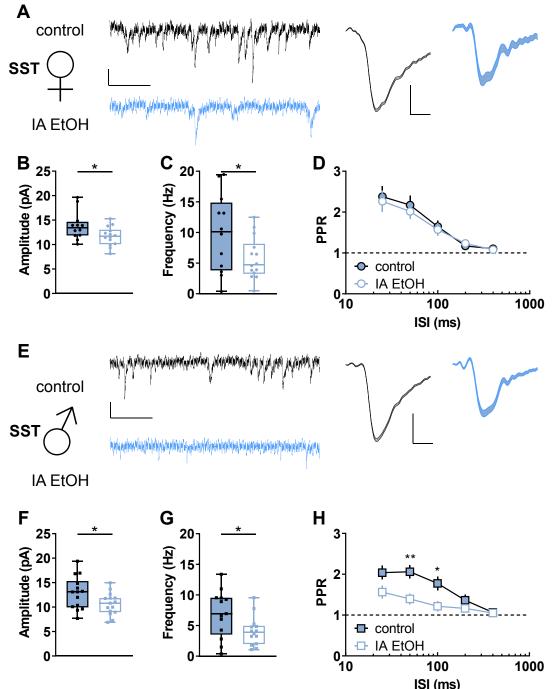


Figure 6. Intermittent access to ethanol decreases excitatory synaptic strength onto somatostatin interneurons (SST-INs). (A) Left, Representative spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic current (sEPSC) traces from SST-INs from control (black) and IA ethanol (blue) female mice. Scale bars indicate 10 pA, 100 ms. Right, Averaged sEPSC from representative experiment. Scale bars indicate 5 pA, 2 ms. (B) Decreased sEPSC amplitude was observed in SST-INs from IA ethanol female mice relative to controls. controls ($11.7 \pm 0.5 \text{ vs} 13.8 \pm 0.8 \text{ pA}$, *: p < 0.05, t-test). n/N = 12-14/4 cells/mice per group. **(C)** SST-INs from female mice given IA ethanol exhibited decreased sEPSC frequency relative to controls ($5.7 \pm 0.9 \text{ vs} 9.9 \pm 1.8 \text{ Hz}$, *: p < 0.05, t-test). n/N = 12-19/4-5 cells/mice. **(D)** SST-IN paired-pulse ratio (PPR) did not differ between control and IA ethanol female mice across multiple interstimulus intervals (ISIs). n/N = 9-11/3-4. **(E)** Left, Representative sEPSC traces from SST-INs from control (black) and IA ethanol (blue) male mice. Scale bars indicate 10 pA, 100 ms. Right, Averaged sEPSC from representative experiment. Scale bars indicate 5 pA, 2 ms. **(F)** Decreased sEPSC amplitude in SST-INs from IA ethanol group relative to control male mice ($10.6 \pm 0.6 \text{ vs} 12.9 \pm 0.9 \text{ pA}$, *: p < 0.05, t-test). n/N = 16-17/5. **(H)** Decreased sEPSC frequency relative to controls ($4.1 \pm 0.6 \text{ vs} 6.9 \pm 1.1 \text{ Hz}$, *: p < 0.05, t-test). n/N = 16-17/5. **(H)** Decreased PPR in IA ethanol male mice (Two-way RM ANOVA main effect of ISI: $F_{4,84} = 24.85$, p < 0.0001; main effect of IA ethanol: $F_{1,24} = 6.897$, p < 0.02; input x IA ethanol interaction: $F_{12,84} = 4.6$, p < 0.003; *: p < 0.05, **: p < 0.01, Bonferonni post-tests) n/N = 11-12/4-5.