TrkB activation in Parvalbumin interneurons orchestrates cortical plasticity

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Summary

Critical period plasticity during early postnatal life is followed by a consolidated state through the maturation of interneuron networks and development of perineuronal nets (PNN) surrounding parvalbumin (PV) interneurons. However, critical period-like plasticity can be induced in the adult brain (iPlasticity). Over a shorter time scale, PV interneurons can alternate between high and low plasticity states (PV-plasticity) to regulate memory encoding and consolidation.

We now show that iPlasticity and PV-plasticity in the adult visual cortex are induced by the activation of TrkB neurotrophin receptors in PV interneurons. Optical activation of TrkB specifically in PV interneurons switches adult cortical networks into a state of elevated plasticity within minutes. The activation changes PV properties characterized by ocular dominance plasticity and reduced PV and PNN expression. Our results show that TrkB activity within PV interneurons is essential for iPlasticity and orchestrates plasticity states within adult cortical networks.

Introduction

Neuronal brain plasticity is a key process to adjust maladapted networks but is restricted to critical periods, time windows in which the brain is particularly sensitive to instructive signals (Hensch, 2005). Recent work has demonstrated that critical periods can be reopened during adult life by interventions, such as environmental enrichment (Sale et al., 2007) and antidepressant treatment (Karpova et al., 2011; Maya-Vetencourt et al., 2008; Mikics et al., 2018). Chronic treatment with the antidepressant fluoxetine, for example, reinstates ocular dominance plasticity in the adult visual cortex when combined with monocular deprivation (Maya-Vetencourt et al., 2008). We have hypothesized that fluoxetine can induce a critical period-like or juvenile-like plasticity (iPlasticity) through modification of inhibitory and excitatory balance or actions on the inhibitory network (Karpova et al., 2011; Maya-Vetencourt et al., 2008; Umemori et al., 2018).

In the visual cortex, the maturation of the GABAergic parvalbumin-expressing (PV) interneuron network promotes the closure of critical periods and restricts ocular dominance plasticity (Huang et al., 1999; Jiang et al., 2010; Pizzorusso et al., 2002) since they control a large repertoire of pyramidal neurons (Hu et al., 2014). During adulthood, external stimuli can switch the configurations of PV interneurons between plastic/immature and consolidated states as defined by low- and high-expressing PV cells, respectively (Donato et al., 2013), here defined as PV-plasticity.

The neurotrophic BDNF/TrkB pathway is a crucial modulator of neuronal plasticity. We have previously shown that fluoxetine can activate TrkB receptors by inducing TrkB autophosphorylation, and subsequent downstream signaling, such as phosphorylation of cAMP-related element binding (CREB) protein (Rantamäki et al., 2007). PV interneurons highly express TrkB receptors (Cellerino et al., 1996) and increased BDNF action promotes the onset and closure of critical periods by enhancing

the maturation of the PV network (Huang et al., 1999). Also, the expression of PV in visual cortex

interneurons depends on neuronal activity and BDNF in early postnatal development (Patz et al.,

2004), indicating a substantial role of the BDNF/TrkB pathway in regulating PV cells.

While TrkB is expressed in essentially all neurons, BDNF is not expressed in interneurons. BDNF as a

secreted ligand can simultaneously act on several cell types, therefore, it is not clear which neurons

mediate the effects of BDNF on plasticity. Here, we show that optically activatable TrkB (optoTrkB)

(Chang et al., 2014; Fenno et al., 2014) specifically expressed in PV interneurons of the visual cortex

rapidly orchestrates cortical network plasticity. OptoTrkB activation reduced the intrinsic excitability

of PV cells through increased phosphorylation of Kv3.1 channels and decreased expression of

glutamate receptor subunits resulting in disinhibition of layer II/III pyramidal neurons and permissive

visual cortex plasticity when combined with monocular deprivation. Moreover, we observed that

TrkB activation in PV interneurons regulates PV and PNN configuration states, resetting the neuronal

network into a plastic, immature-like state. Conversely, deleting TrkB from PV interneurons blocked

these effects when induced pharmacologically using fluoxetine treatment. These findings

demonstrate that TrkB activation in PV interneurons rapidly orchestrates cortical network plasticity

and provides new evidence that TrkB receptors are fundamental regulators of intracortical inhibition

and plasticity modes during adulthood.

Results

TrkB activation in PV interneurons induces iPlasticity

We hypothesized that TrkB activation in PV interneurons might regulate PV-plasticity as well as iPlasticity. Using a standard protocol for monocular deprivation (MD) and *in vivo* imaging of intrinsic optical signals (IOS) we found that chronic fluoxetine treatment induced a shift of ocular dominance in combination with MD in the adult primary visual cortex (V1) of wild-type mice (WT), but no induction was seen in heterozygous mice with PV-specific conditional TrkB knockout (hPV-TrkB CKO) (Fig. 1A and 1B). These results indicate that iPlasticity induced by fluoxetine is dependent on TrkB activity within PV interneurons.

As TrkB receptors are expressed in essentially all neurons, BDNF cannot be used to study cell type-specific functions of TrkB. To specifically activate TrkB in PV interneurons, we used an optically activatable TrkB (optoTrkB) where addition of a plant-derived photolyase homology region (PHR) domain into the C-terminus of full-length TrkB mediates light-induced dimerization of TrkB monomers (Chang et al., 2014) (Fig. 1C) (Figure S1A). Acute light activation of optoTrkB in V1 resulted in increased phosphorylation of TrkB and CREB (Figure S2A-S2E). We infected the V1 of adult PV-cre mice with a lentivirus expressing a double-floxed inverted open reading frame of opto-TrkB (DIO-optoTrkB) to specifically express optoTrkB in PV interneurons (Figure S1B). When V1 was stimulated twice daily by light through a transparent skull (Steinzeig et al., 2017) for 30 seconds (Fig. 1D) during 7 days of MD, we observed a shift in ocular dominance index (ODI) towards the non-deprived ipsilateral eye, while mice infected with optoTrkB but not exposed to light showed no change in their ODI (Fig.1E). The shift persisted for a week in the absence of visual deprivation or light stimulation (Fig. 1E). When we then closed the eye that had been left open during the first MD session and again exposed the cortex to light twice daily for 7 days, we again observed a shift towards

the non-deprived eye (Fig. 1E). Light stimulation alone during 7 days of MD had no effect on visual

cortex plasticity in PV-cre mice without optoTrkB expression (Figure S2F). Thus, the activation of TrkB

in PV interneurons is necessary and sufficient for iPlasticity.

TrkB in PV cell enhances network activity

A shift in ocular dominance takes several days to occur. To test how fast TrkB activation in PV

interneurons regulates plasticity, we studied the induction of long-term potentiation (LTP). LTP

occurrence through theta-burst stimulation (TBS) in V1 is restricted to critical periods (Kirkwood et

al., 1996). TBS stimulation (Kirkwood & Bear, 1994) of acute V1 slices expressing optoTrkB in PV

interneurons did not induce LTP in slices kept in darkness, but robust LTP was induced in slices

exposed for 30 seconds to blue light 30 minutes before the TBS stimulation (Fig.2A). Chronic

fluoxetine treatment also permitted LTP induction after TBS stimulation, as previously reported

(Maya-Vetencourt et al., 2008), but this effect was absent in hPV-TrkB CKO mice (Fig. 2B). These

results demonstrate that TrkB activation in PV interneurons rapidly enhances synaptic plasticity in

V1 and is necessary for fluoxetine-induced effects.

Plasticity in the visual cortex is controlled locally by synchronized neuronal oscillations that are

regulated by the activity of PV interneurons (Galuske et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2012). *In vivo* local field

potential (LFP) recordings of neuronal activity from V1 revealed a progressive increase in the

broadband (4–112 Hz) LFP power in response to a 30-second long optoTrkB activation (Fig. 2C). The

broadband magnitude at 100 minutes after stimulation showed a significant increase when

compared to the pre-stimulation baseline. Furthermore, no increase in the broadband magnitude

was observed in optoTrkB infected control animals stimulated with infrared light (780nm) (Fig. 2D).

We also found increases in the magnitude at the separate frequency bands, particularly in α and γ

range at 100 minutes after optoTrkB activation (Fig. 2E). These results suggest that optoTrkB

activation in PV interneurons promotes synchronized oscillations, which renders the network state

of the visual cortex responsive and permissive for plasticity.

TrkB activation in PV interneurons reduces cell excitability

To identify the TrkB-dependent intrinsic changes of PV interneurons underlying increased plasticity,

we obtained patch clamp recordings from optoTrkB-positive PV interneurons in the V1 co-expressing

TdTomato (Figure S1C and S1D). OptoTrkB was activated 30-60 minutes before the recordings using

a 30-second light stimulation. The intrinsic excitability of PV cells in optoTrkB stimulated slices was

significantly lower when compared to the non-activated controls (Fig. 3A and 3F) (Table S1A), and

was accompanied by trends towards increased action potential (AP) half-width (Fig. 3B and 3F). We

further found that the frequency of spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic currents (sEPSCs) was

lower in optoTrkB activated PV interneurons than in controls (Fig. 3C and 3F), indicating changes in

excitatory transmission onto PV interneurons. Neither the sEPSC amplitudes nor the frequency or

amplitudes of spontaneous inhibitory postsynaptic currents (sIPSC) were changed (data not shown),

suggesting that optoTrkB activation specifically affects excitatory inputs. Similar changes in intrinsic

excitability (Fig. 4A and 4D) (Table S1B) and AP half-width (Fig. 4B and 4D) were found in PV

interneurons after chronic fluoxetine treatment in WT mice, but not in hPV-TrkB CKO mice, although

the decrease in sEPSC frequency did not reach statistical significance ($p = 0.5397$) (Fig. 4C and 4D).

A decrease in the intrinsic excitability of PV interneurons is likely mediated by changes in potassium

currents; it is known that particularly Kv3 channels, which are highly expressed in cortical PV

interneurons, regulate the fast-spiking properties (Chow et al., 1999; Du et al., 1996). Kv3.1 channels

are directly inhibited by phosphorylation through PKC (Song & Kaczmarek, 2006), a downstream

target of TrkB signaling. It is known that chronic fluoxetine treatment promotes Kv3.1 channel

phosphorylation (Sagi et al., 2019). We therefore tested whether optoTrkB activation could result in

enhanced phosphorylation of Kv3.1 channels by immunohistochemically examining the expression

intensities of phospho-Kv3.1 within PV interneurons. Indeed, optoTrkB activation (twice daily, 7 days)

resulted in increased phospho-Kv3.1 expression in PV interneurons in visual cortical slices (Fig. 3D

and 3E), suggesting that optoTrkB activation can inhibit these channels through phosphorylation,

thereby directly mediating the intrinsic excitability of PV interneurons.

TrkB regulates plasticity-related genes in PV interneurons

To further identify the molecular mechanisms regulated by TrkB activation in PV interneurons, we

performed single nuclei RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) of visual cortical samples from DIO-optoTrkB-

TdTomato-transfected PV-cre mice 60 minutes after a 30-second light stimulation (Figure S3A).

Single cell RNA sequencing was not feasible due to potential light-induced optoTrkB activation during

cell extraction and processing (Figure S3B). Integrated data analysis (see STAR Methods) identified

18 clusters of neurons, including a cluster containing PV interneurons (Fig. 5A; Figure S4 and S5;

Table S3 and S4), which was further divided into four PV interneuron clusters using PCA analysis (Fig.

5B and 5C; Figure S6 and S7; Table S5). *Arc*, a known downstream signal of TrkB (Messaoudi et al.,

2002, 2007; Yin et al., 2002; Ying et al., 2002), was only up-regulated in PV cluster 3 of the light-

stimulated group, along with other immediate early genes, such as, *Jun* and *Egr1* (Fig. 5E), indicating

that this cluster harbours optoTrkB transfected PV cells. In this cluster, genes related to dendrite

morphogenesis, synaptic plasticity, and regulation of excitatory postsynaptic currents were

differentially regulated in the light-exposed group (Fig. 5D) (Table S6). Among them, we found a

decrease in PV expression (Fig. 5E), and this decrease was confirmed by qPCR (Figure S10).

Particularly interesting is the downregulation of *Grin1* and *Grik3* that code for subunits of NMDA and

kainate receptors, respectively, essential components of excitatory synapses (Fig. 5E). Knocking out

Grin1 in PV interneurons enhances network oscillations, particularly theta and gamma frequencies

(Korotkova et al., 2010). The specific function of the *Grik3* subunit is not fully characterized, but

kainate receptors have been shown to regulate both the maturation and excitability of GABAergic

interneurons (Jack et al., 2019; Segerstråle et al., 2010), as well as the generation of synchronized

activity at the level of neuronal networks (Bartos et al., 2007). As both NMDA and kainate receptors

are known to mediate and modulate excitatory synaptic transmission, the downregulation of *Grin1*

and *Grik3* might also contribute to the decrease in the intrinsic excitability and sEPSC frequencies

(Zhang et al., 2013). In addition, we observed a decrease of *Homeobox protein cut-like 2* (*Cux2*) (fold

value, 0.63, Table S6), deletion of which reduces the amplitude and lowers the frequency of mEPSC

(Cubelos et al., 2010). Furthermore, *Leucine Rich Repeat And Ig Domain Containing 2* (*Lingo-2*) that

is broadly expressed in neurons was reduced after optoTrkB activation (fold value, 0.46, Table S6),

and the *Lingo* family members act as negative regulators of TrkB signalling (Meabon et al., 2016) .

Those results suggest a novel mechanism through which TrkB activation in PV interneurons rapidly

regulates the intrinsic properties of these cells resulting in increased excitatory transmission of the

cortical network.

TrkB activation regulates PV-plasticity

Upon closure of critical periods, PV interneurons become enwrapped by perineuronal nets (PNN)

(Jiang et al., 2005) and PNN removal during adulthood reinstates a juvenile-like plasticity and

reduces intracortical inhibition (Lensjø et al., 2017; Pizzorusso et al., 2002). Furthermore, PV

expression itself is plastic and regulated by experience (Donato et al., 2013; Karunakaran et al., 2016),

low PV expression being associated with plastic and high PV with consolidated networks. Activation

of optoTrkB in the V1 PV interneurons for 30 seconds twice daily for 7 days reduced the numbers of

PNN-positive (PNN⁺), PV/PNN-double-positive (PV⁺PNN⁺) cells, and PV⁺PNN⁺ cells within the PV

population (Fig. 6A-6D). PV intensities were particularly reduced in the subgroup of PV interneurons

expressing high levels of PV (Fig. 6 E, F) and the PNN intensity was reduced in the same high-PV

subgroup (Fig. 6G).

Similarly, chronic fluoxetine treatment reduced PNN⁺ abundance within the PV population in WT,

but not in hPV-TrkB CKO mice (Fig. 7A-7C). In addition, PV and PNN intensities were decreased

among the high-PV expressing population after fluoxetine treatment in WT but not in hPV-TrkB CKO

mice (Fig. 7D and 7E). These results demonstrate that TrkB activation in PV interneurons in the adult

V1 induces a plastic network state with low PV and PNN expression.

Discussion

Our data demonstrate that TrkB activation in PV interneurons reduces PV interneuron excitability and regulates expression of PV and PNNs, in a manner that resembles PV plasticity in the hippocampus. We propose a converging mechanism that connects PV plasticity and the induction of critical period-like plasticity and show that TrkB activation in PV interneurons orchestrates the plasticity states of cortical networks to allow better encoding of environmental experiences.

TrkB activation in PV interneurons as mediators of iPlasticity

We previously demonstrated that chronic fluoxetine treatment can reactivate ocular dominance plasticity in the adult visual cortex (Maya-Vetencourt et al., 2008). This effect was accompanied by a reduction in intracortical GABAergic transmission as measured by decreased extracellular basal GABA levels; induction of LTP after TBS stimulation and increased BDNF protein levels, strongly suggesting a regulatory role of intracortical inhibition in adult visual cortex plasticity (Maya-Vetencourt et al., 2008). Although PV interneurons cover only a small percentage of the total neuronal population, their extensive axonal arborization enable strong inhibitory control over pyramidal cells. As BDNF promotes the maturation of those cells during critical periods, we hypothesized that TrkB activation in PV interneurons could also affect plasticity processes during adulthood. Considering that BDNF and fluoxetine activate TrkB receptors expressed in essentially all neurons, we developed a cre-dependent optoTrkB to circumvent this problem and be able to specifically activate TrkB signaling in PV interneurons only. Strikingly, while BDNF-induced TrkB activation during critical periods promotes the maturation of PV interneurons, thereby restricting visual cortex plasticity, TrkB activation in PV interneurons during adulthood reinstates a critical

period-like plasticity machinery through rejuvenating these interneurons. These findings suggest

that the plasticity machinery remains intact in the adult brain but needs the right tools to be

reactivated.

Differential effects of TrkB activation in pyramidal neurons and interneurons?

Reactivation of critical period-like plasticity in the adult brain is associated with reduced cortical

inhibition and subsequent disinhibition of cortical networks (Hensch, 2005). BDNF has been shown

to strongly promote neuronal activity, excitability (Figurov et al., 1995; Levine et al., 1995, 1998) and

LTP (Kang & Schuman, 1995) in hippocampal and cortical excitatory neurons. In contrast, we found

that optical activation of TrkB specifically in PV interneurons decreases excitability in PV cells and

promotes field LTP in the visual cortex, indicating an increase in network-wide excitatory

transmission and dynamics. These findings suggest that activation of TrkB produces differential

effects on the cell excitability, increasing and decreasing it in pyramidal neurons and interneurons,

respectively. Importantly, however, from the point of view of cortical networks, these differential

effects on excitability cooperatively drive increased network activity, through enhanced excitability

of pyramidal neurons and reduced activity of inhibitory neurons.

Activation of TrkB mediates intrinsic changes in PV interneurons to enhance excitatory

transmission in the visual cortex

The hallmark of PV interneurons is their high-frequency firing, which is enabled by the high

expression of voltage-gated Kv3 channels (Chow et al., 1999; Hu et al., 2014). Kv3 channels are

characterized by their fast deactivation during membrane repolarization enabling sustained high-

frequency firing.   A decrease in their expression as well as their inhibition through PKC

phosphorylation is known to reduce cell excitability (Rudy et al., 1999; Song & Kaczmarek, 2006).

PKC is a downstream target of TrkB signaling and our data show that TrkB activation in PV

interneurons results in enhanced phosphorylation of Kv3.1 channels, demonstrating control of TrkB

signaling over PV intrinsic excitability. The decreased firing frequency of PV cells in turn enhances

excitatory transmission necessary for visual cortex plasticity. The maturation of PV cells throughout

critical period is concurrent with an increase in the fast-spiking firing frequency and an increase in

Kv3.1 expression (Du et al., 1996; Plotkin et al., 2005). The upregulation of these channels therefore

likely contributes to the maturation of PV interneurons, closure of critical periods and restricted

visual cortex plasticity during adulthood.   Interestingly, the fast-spiking phenotype of PV

interneurons fails to develop in BDNF null mice (Itami et al., 2007). Considering that Kv3.1 channels

are specifically expressed in high-frequency firing neurons, this could account for the differential

effects of TrkB actions in pyramidal cells and PV interneurons.

Activation of optoTrkB regulates PV plasticity

Exciting research suggests that PV interneurons show intrinsic plasticity and can change between

high and low plasticity states when exposed to different environmental conditions (Donato et al.,

2013). For example, environmental enrichment that is known to promote neuronal plasticity,

induces a low PV-expressing network state. In contrast, contextual fear conditioning that is

associated with network consolidation, shifts the PV network into a high-PV expressing state (Donato

et al., 2013). Additionally, PV expression progressively increases throughout development and could

therefore also account for the reduction in brain plasticity during adulthood (Donato et al., 2013;

Umemori et al., 2015). Interestingly, TrkB activation in PV interneurons can regulate PV plasticity

states, and this effect may be mediated through direct regulation of PV mRNA expression as

confirmed by single nuclei sequencing and qPCR. As PV is a Ca^{2+} buffer, a low PV expressing state

could directly regulate PV interneuron firing (Eggermann & Jonas, 2012; Hu et al., 2014)

In the hippocampus, PV cell intensity is generally higher when enwrapped by PNNs and PV cells with

weak staining intensity often lack PNNs (Yamada et al., 2015). The maturation of the PV network is

associated with the formation of PNNs (Pizzorusso et al., 2002) and enzymatic digestion of PNNs can

restore plasticity in adulthood (Lensjø et al., 2017; Pizzorusso et al., 2002) and results in a decrease

in PV intensity and PV mRNA levels, suggesting a correlation between PNN expression and PV

configuration states (Yamada et al., 2015). In fact, a recent study by Devienne et al. demonstrates

that transient electrical silencing of visual cortical PV interneurons induces a regression of PNN

(Devienne et al., 2019), indicating a causal relationship between PV activity and the accumulation of

PNNs.

In conclusion, we show that activation of TrkB receptors in PV interneurons rapidly reduces their

excitability, thereby changing cortical network dynamics to promote iPlasticity. We further show

that iPlasticity induced by fluoxetine requires TrkB activation in PV interneurons. These results

suggest that TrkB activity in PV cells dynamically controls the plasticity states of cortical networks to

regulate network rewiring, learning and consolidation. These mechanisms might be extrapolated to

other brain areas and therefore aids in the understanding of the pathophysiology of neuropsychiatric

disorders and the rational design of clinical interventions.

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Declaration of conflicting interests

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Author contributions

F.W., J.U. and E.C. conceived and designed the project. F.W. performed the experiments. M.V. analyzed the in vivo electrophysiology recordings under the supervision of S.P.. G.D. helped with the Western Blot experiments. M.L. cut the brains on the vibratome and helped with immunohistochemistry. E.J., S.M., and J.U. helped with single nuclei sequencing experiments and

Figures

Fig. 1 TrkB activation in PV interneurons induces iPlasticity

(A) Experimental timeline for the shift in ocular dominance paradigm with hPV-TrkB CKO mice treated chronically with Fluoxetine (Flx).

(B) ODI after chronic Flx treatment in WT and hPV-TrkB CKO mice. Flx permits MD to shift the ODI towards the non-deprived eye in the V1 of WT mice, but fails to do so in hPV-TrkB CKO mice. Two-way ANOVA with Sidak's post-hoc test comparing the ODI of IOS I and II. WT water, $p = 0.7311$; WT Flx $p < 0.0001$; CKO water, $p = 0.9621$; CKO Flx, $p = 0.5048$. $n = 5 - 10$ animals/group.

(C) Structure of optoTrkB conjugated to a light reactive PHR domain, which dimerizes optoTrkB upon blue light exposure.

(D) Experimental timeline of the shift in ocular dominance paradigm with optoTrkB. OptoTrkB was stimulated with blue light twice daily (30 seconds) for 7 days during MD.

(E) MD of the contralateral eye induces a shift in ocular dominance when combined with stimulation of optoTrkB (IOS I-II) ($n = 6$-8 animals/group). Two-way ANOVA with Sidak's post-hoc test comparing the ODI of IOSI and II (control, $p = 0.9094$; light, $p = 0.001$). The shift is preserved if the eyes are not deprived (IOS II-III). Two-way ANOVA with Sidak's post-hoc comparing the ODI of IOS II with III (control, $p = 0.4985$; light, $p = 0.6915$). Stimulation of optoTrkB reverses shift in ocular dominance when combined with MD of the ipsilateral eye (IOS III-IV) ($n = 6$-7 animals/group; one mouse excluded due to corneal infection). Two-way ANOVA with Sidak's post-hoc test comparing ODI of IOS III and IV (control, $p = 0.9094$; light, $p = 0.001$). Flx, fluoxetine; ODI, ocular dominance index; MD, monocular deprivation; V1, primary visual cortex; PHR, photolyase homology region; EXD, extracellular domain; TMD, transmembrane domain; TK, tyrosine kinase domain. Bars represent means ± SEM. ** $p < 0.01$*** $p < 0.001$; **** $p < 0.0001$

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Fig. 2. TrkB in PV cell enhances network activity.
(A) LTP recordings from layer II/III in the V1. Theta-burst stimulation (TBS) results in LTP in slices where
optoTrkB has been activated for 30 seconds 30 minutes prior to LTP induction, but not in control slices.
Two-way ANOVA (p < 0.0001). n = 6-7 recordings/group randomly recorded from 5 animals.
(B) LTP recordings from layer II/III in the V1 in WT and CKO mice after Flx treatment. TBS induces LTP
only in WT mice treated with Flx. Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test comparing treatment
in WT and treatment in CKO mice (WT water vs. WT Flx, p = < 0.0001; CKO water vs. CKO Flx, p =
0.8871). n = 7-12 recordings/group from 3 animals.
(C) The broadband (4–112 Hz) LFP power (blue: optoTrkB activated at 470 nm, black: control
wavelength at 780 nm) averaged over animals (light = 5, control = 4) for each 20 minute recording
session as a function of time after light stimulation. LFP power shows a significant increase over time
(Regression analysis; Control: y = 0.04 [%/min]*x [min] + 100.25, R^2 = 0.7573, p < 0.0001; Light: y =
0.09 [%/min]*x [min] + 101.01, R^2 = 0.8240, p < 0.0001).
(D) Broadband LFP power increase from baseline period (left plot of each half) to 100-minute after
blue light (470nm) stimulation (right plot of each half) was approximately twice as strong after
optoTrkB activation (blue, difference in medians: d = 10.72) than after stimulation with control
wavelength (780nm) (black, difference in medians: d = 4.90). A Welch's t-test confirmed that the LFP
power in the 100-minute condition bins after optoTrkB activation is higher than after control
stimulation (Welch's t-test, t = 21.60, p < 0.0001).
(E) Changes in frequency bands 100 min after light stimulation compared to baseline. Bars represent
means ± SEM, **** p < 0.00001.

Fig. 3. TrkB activation in PV interneurons reduces cell excitability.
(A) Whole cell patch clamp recordings of intrinsic excitability of optoTrkB-transfected PV cells. Activation of optoTrkB decreases intrinsic excitability of PV cells at 30-60 minutes after light stimulation. Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test comparing control with light stimulation (control vs. 30-60 min, p = 0.0354). n = 6-8 recordings/group randomly recorded from 14 animals.
(B) Trends towards larger AP half-width 30-60 min after light stimulation. One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post-hoc test (30-60 min, p = 0.1622).
(C) sEPSC frequency in PV interneurons is lower at 10-30 minutes after light stimulation as compared to controls. One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post-hoc test (10-30 min, p = 0.0233; 30-60 min, p = 0.0261). n = 6-8 recordings/group randomly recorded from 14 animals.
(D) Light stimulation of optoTrkB results in increased intensity of phospho-Kv3.1 staining in PV interneurons in layer II/III of the V1. Unpaired t-test. n = 6 animals/group; 7 days twice daily light stimulation.
(E) Representative images of PV, phospho-Kv3.1 and merged immunohistochemistry staining.
(F) Representative traces used to estimate intrinsic excitability (top row, 150 pA), AP half-width (middle row) and sEPSC frequency (lower row). AP, action potential; spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic current, sEPSC; Bars represent means ± SEM. * p < 0.05; *** p < 0.0001; **** p < 0.00001

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Fig. 4. TrkB expression is necessary for fluoxetine-induced reductions in PV cell excitability.
(A) Whole cell patch clamp analysis of WT and hPV-TrkB CKO mice after chronic Flx treatment. The
intrinsic excitability is reduced after Flx treatment in WT mice but not in hPV-TrkB CKO mice. Two-
way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test comparing Flx treatment in WT and CKO mice (WT water vs.
WT Flx, p < 0.0001; CKO water vs. CKO Flx, p = 0.7068). n = 7-12 recordings/group from 3 animals.
(B) Flx treatment increases AP half-width in WT mice but not in hPV-TrkB CKO mice. Two-way ANOVA
with Tukey's post-hoc test comparing Flx treatment in WT and CKO mice (WT water vs. WT Flx, p =
0.03; CKO water vs. CKO Flx, p = 0.6672).
(C) Flx treatment induces a trend towards reduced frequency of sEPSC in WT (p = 0.5397) but not in
hPV-TrkB CKO mice (p = 0.9866). Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test.
(D) Representative traces used to estimate intrinsic excitability (150 pA, top row), AP half-width (2nd
row) and sEPSC (bottom row) in WT mice treated with water (first column), WT mice treated with
Flx (2nd column), CKO mice treated with water (3rd column) and CKO mice treated with Flx (last
column). Bars represent means ± SEM. * p < 0.05; *** p < 0.001; **** p < 0.0001
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Fig. 5. TrkB regulates plasticity-related genes in PV interneurons.
(A) Two-dimensional Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) plots based on 3,000
differentially expressed (DE) genes for 10,706 cells. After PCA analysis followed by clustering, the
cells were grouped into 18 subpopulations including interneurons.
(B) UMAP plots based on 3,000 DE genes for selected 586 cells clustered to PV interneurons. After
PCA analysis, the cluster was further divided into 4 groups (PV_0, 1, 2, 3).
(C) Markers differently expressed in each cluster. PV_3 cluster include both Chandelier (CHC) and
basket (BS) cells.
(D) Gene ontology (GO) analysis on DE genes between non-light-exposed and light-exposed samples
in cluster 3_3.
(E) Selected DE genes of immediate early genes (IEGs) and relevant genes to decreased excitation in
cluster PV_3.
448
449

Fig. 6. TrkB activation regulates PV-plasticity.

(A) Representative immunohistochemical images of PV and PNN expression in layer II/III of the V1.

(B-D) Number of cells expressing PV and/or PNN after optoTrkB activation (n = 6 animals/group).

(B) Chronic light stimulation of optoTrkB significantly reduced numbers of PNN positive cells (Unpaired t-test; p 0.0012),

(C) PV/PNN double-positive cells (Unpaired t-test; p = 0.0021), and

(D) PV cells expressing PNN (Unpaired t-test; p = 0.0156).

(E) Representative images of low, intermediate-low, intermediate-high and high PV-expressing cells, where PV interneurons are categorized according to PV intensity.

(F) Image analysis on PV intensities. Chronic stimulation of optoTrkB significantly reduces the PV staining intensities of high PV expressing cells. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post-hoc test comparing control vs. light stimulated samples (p = 0.0034).

(G) Image analysis on PNN intensities. Activation of optoTrkB decreases PNN intensities in high PV-expressing cells. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's post-hoc test comparing control vs. light stimulated samples (p = 0.0003). Bars represent means ± SEM. * p < 0.05; *** p < 0.0001; **** p < 0.00001

Fig. 7. Fluoxetine-induced PV-plasticity depends on TrkB in PV interneurons.
(A) Representative immunohistochemical images of PV and PNN expression in layer II/III of Flx-treated WT and hPV-TrkB CKO mice. Number (B, C) and intensity (D, E) of cells expressing PV and/or PNN by imaging analysis after Flx treatment.
(B) Flx-treated WT mice show a trend towards lower numbers of PNN (p = 0.07).
(C) Flx-treated WT mice have significantly lower percentages of PV interneurons also expressing PNNs, but this effect is abolished in hPV-TrkB CKO mice. Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test comparing Flx treatment in WT and CKO mice (WT water vs. WT Flx, p = 0.0001; CKO water vs. CKO Flx, p = 0.6462).
(D) Flx treatment decreases PV intensities in high PV expressing cells in WT but this effect is not seen in hPV-TrkB CKO mice. Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test comparing Flx treatment in WT and hPV-TrkB CKO mice (WT water vs. WT Flx, p = 0.0325; CKO water vs. CKO Flx, p = 0.9838)
(E) Flx treatment reduces PNN intensities in intermediate-high and high PV expressing cells only in WT mice but fails to do so in hPV-TrkB CKO mice. Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test comparing Flx treatment in WT and hPV-TrkB CKO mice (WT water vs. WT Flx, intermediate-high, p = 0.0014; high PV, p = 0.0325; CKO water vs. CKO Flx, intermediate-high, p = 0.3217; high PV, p = 0.6112). n = 6-10 animals/group. Bars represent means ± SEM. ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001; **** p < 0.0001

STAR Methods

Lead Contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be

fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Juzoh Umemori (Juzoh.umemori@helsinki.fi).

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

All animal procedures were done according to the guidelines of the National Institutes of Health

Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and were approved by the experimental Animal

Ethical Committee of Southern Finland. Female mice (PV-cre, WT or hPV-TrkB CKO) older than 110

days were group housed with *ad libitum* access to food and water. For the shift in ocular dominance

paradigm, the mice underwent transparent skull surgery and were monocularly deprived for 7 days.

METHOD DETAIL

Mice

Heterozygous mice with TrkB deletion specifically in PV$^+$ interneurons (PV-hTrkB mice; PV$^{pvr/wt}$,

TrkB$^{flx/wt}$) were produced by mating females of heterozygous PV specific Cre line (PV$^{pvr/wt}$) (Pvalb-

IRES-Cre, JAX: 008069, Jackson laboratory) (Hippenmeyer et al., 2005) and male of homozygous

floxed TrkB mice (TrkB$^{flx/flx}$) (Minichiello et al., 1999). Single floxed mice (TrkB$^{flx/wt}$) served as control.

For patch-clamp electrophysiology, females of the homozygous PV Cre line (PV$^{pvr/pvr}$) were crossed

with males harboring a homozygous TdTomato indicator allele (Rosa26$^{TdT/TdT}$) (Ai14, JAX: 007914,

Jackson laboratory)(Madisen et al., 2010) and heterozygous floxed TrkB allele (TrkB$^{flx/wt}$)(Minichiello

et al., 1999) to reproduce compound transgenic mice with TrkB deletion and TdT expression

specifically in PV interneurons (PV$^{pvr/wt}$, TrkB$^{flx/wt}$, Rosa26$^{TdT/wt}$) (hPV-TrkB CKO) and wild-type allele

in TrkB (PV$^{pvr/wt}$, TrkB$^{wt/wt}$, Rosa26$^{TdT/wt}$) (WT). All of the parental strains were back-crossed with

C57BL/6J for more than six generations. To assure the complete closure of the critical periods the

mice were older than 110 days at the start of the experiments. The mice were kept under 12h

light/dark cycle with light on at 6 am and *ad libitum* access to food and water.

Construction of optoTrkB

Photolyase homology region (PHR) domain of optoTrkB (Chang et al., 2014) was optimized in codon

usage for mice and connected with a flexible tag (Kennedy et al., 2010) to the C-terminus of a full-

length mouse TRKB, as previously described (Umemori et al, submitted). For cre-dependent

expression of optoTrkB, a double floxed inverted open-reading frame (DIO) structure (Fenno et al.,

2014) of optoTrkB (DIO-optoTrkB) was constructed (Figure S1A). We artificially synthesized DNA

including human Synapsin promoter (Kügler et al., 2001), lox2272 (Lee & Saito, 1998), loxP, inverted

optoTrkB sequence [PHR, flexible tag (Kennedy et al., 2010), mouse full-length TrkB

(NM_001025074)], lox2272, loxP, and cloned into pFCK(0.4)GW (a gift from Pavel Osten) (Addgene

plasmid # 27229 ; http://n2t.net/addgene:27229; RRID:Addgene_27229) (Dittgen et al., 2004) using

PacI and EcoRI cloning sites (Figure S1a). Furthermore, for electrophysiological studies, we

constructed DIO-optoTrkB expressing TdTomato (Shaner et al., 2004) (DIO-optoTrkB-IRES-TdT)

(Figure S1C). A fragment of Internal ribosome entry site (IRES) with TdTomato was amplified by PCR

with primers (5'- ggcgcgCCCCCCTCTCCCTCCCCCCC -3' and 5'-

ggcgcgccTTACTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGCCGTACAG -3') using Hot start Q5® polymerase (NEB, USA)

from LeGO-iT (a gift from Boris Fehse) (Addgene plasmid # 27361 ; http://n2t.net/addgene:27361 ;

RRID:Addgene_27361) (Weber et al., 2010), and cloned into pCR ™ Blunt II-TOPO® vector

(ThermoFisher Scientific). Then the sequence was confirmed by sequencing and sub-cloning into

AscI cloing sites of DIO-optoTrkB (Figure S1A) to construct DIO-optoTrkB-IRES-TdT. Cre-dependent

Inversions of DIO-optoTrkB and DIO-optoTrkB-IRES-TdT were confirmed in HEK293 cells co-

transfected with the DIO-vectors and plasmids expressing Cre recombinase followed by PCR (Set1

(Figure S1B), and immunocytology (Figure S1D). The following primers were used to confirm the

inversion of DIO-optoTrkB:

Set1 (5'- AGTCGTGTCGTGCCTGAGA -3' and 5'- GAAATTTATGTGCCGCAGGT -3'); Set2 (5'-

CTGCTGGCAAAGGCTATTTC -3' and 5'- GGGCCACAACTCCTCATAAA -3').

Virus generation

DIO-optoTrkB/DIO-optoTrkB-IRES-TdT, pLP1, pLP2, and pVSVG were co-transfected into HEL293FT

cells by jetPEI® (Polyplus Transfection®) according to the manufacturer's instruction, for producing

lentivirus through a previously reported method (Hioki et al., 2007). Briefly, 3μg of the plasmids was

transfected into HEL293FT cells and cultured on a poly-D-Lysine coated dish containing pre-warmed

Opti-MEM®I medium (2% FBS) for 72 hrs. Then the culture supernatant was collected and

exchanged with a new Opti-MEM®I medium (2% FBS) followed by incubation for 72 hrs. The culture

supernatant was collected again and centrifuged at 4 °C at 2000 g for 10 min. The supernatant was

then concentrated with Amicon® Centrifugal Filter Units Ultra -15 (Millipore®) into less than 10ml.

The concentrated solution was purified using the sucrose gradient method (Tiscornia et al., 2006)

and aliquots were stored at -80 °C until use. From one aliquot the p24 capsid protein concentration

was measured to estimate the infection unit (IU).

Virus injection

PV-cre mice were anaesthetized with 2.5% isoflurane and DIO-optoTrkB (p24 concentration/titer

4,04 x 10^7) was stereotaxically injected into the binocular area of the V1, previously identified

through optical imaging (see below) and using blood vessels as landmarks. DIO-optoTrkB was

stimulated with blue LED light (470nm) through the transparent skull during monocular deprivation

twice a day for 30 seconds at 8-10 am and 4-6 pm. Blue LED light was provided by a BLS Super High

Power Fiber-Coupled LED Light Sources (BLS-FCS-0470-100, Mightex) connected to a BioLED Light

Source Control Modules (BLS-3000-2, Mightex). To avoid light exposure through the skull, the

transparent skull was covered by black nail polish between light stimulation sessions.ht

Surgery

For chronic imaging of intrinsic signals, the animals underwent transparent skull surgery as

described previously (Steinzeig et al., 2017).

Fluoxetine treatment

Fluoxetine (Bosche Scientific, NJ, USA) was administered via drinking water (0.08 mg/ml),

corresponding to a dose of approximately 8-12 mg/kg/day, and kept in light-protected bottles. The

drinking water of both the control and fluoxetine group contained 0.1 % saccharin, was changed

twice a week and the consumption was monitored. Drug treatment started after transparent skull

surgery and continued throughout the whole experiment.

Monocular deprivation and virus stimulation

The animals were anaesthetized with intraperitoneal injection as described above. The eye lashes

were trimmed and the eye lid margins were sutured shut with 3 mattress sutures. To prevent

postoperative infections, an eye ointment containing dexamethasone was applied. The eyes were

checked daily until reopening, re-sutured if needed, and mice with signs of corneal injury were

excluded from the experiments.

Optical imaging of intrinsic signals

We determined the strength of neuronal responses to stimulation of either eye in the binocular

region of the V1 using imaging of intrinsic signals (IOS) (Kalatsky & Stryker, 2003) before (IOS I; IOS

III) and after (IOS II; IOS IV) monocular deprivation. The animals were chamber anaesthetized with

1.8% isoflurane in a 1:2 mixture of O_2/air and then intubated and ventilated with 1.2% isoflurane in

the same mixture.

Intrinsic optical signal responses were recorded from the V1 of the right hemisphere according to a

previously described protocol (Kalatsky & Stryker, 2003), which was modified for the measurement

of OD plasticity (Cang et al., 2005).

Data analysis of optical imaging

Cortical maps were computed based on the acquired frames using Fourier decomposition to extract

the signal from biological noise using an analysis software package for continuous recording of

optical intrinsic signals (VK Imaging, USA) (Kalatsky & Stryker, 2003). The ODI was then calculated

for every pixel within the binocularly responding region based on the formula (C-I)/(C+I), where "C"

refers to the response magnitude of the contralateral eye and "I" to that of the ipsilateral eye. For

each animal, several ODIs were collected and then averaged. Positive ODI values represent

contralateral dominance, negative represent ipsilateral dominance, while ODI values of 0

correspond to equally strong contralateral and ipsilateral eyes.

In vivo electrophysiology

To measure oscillations in the binocular region of the optoTrkB transfected area, PV-cre mice underwent transparent skull surgery and optoTrkB was injected as described above. Under 15% urethane anesthesia (in PBS), a hole for a 16 channel optrode (A1x16-10mm-100-177-OA16LP, NeuroNexus, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) was drilled next to the injection site and a hole for a ground electrode next to lambda. The animals were head-fixed and the optrode was covered with DiI and slowly inserted into the V1 to a depth of about 2200 μm. The data was recorded using a Smartbox (NeuroNexus, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) at a sampling rate of 20 kHz. After collecting a 20 minute baseline, optoTrkB was stimulated for 30 seconds with blue LED light and recorded for 2h, separated into 20-minute blocks. Finally, the animals were transcardially perfused and the brains fixed with 4% PFA. To confirm the position of the electrodes and co-localization with optoTrkB, 250 μm coronal slices were cut on a vibratome.

The digitized data were first offline notch filtered at 50 Hz by the Python RHD2000 interface provided by Intan. Afterwards, the data were band-pass filtered between 4 and 150 Hz, using a 2nd order Butterworth filter with zero-phase shift, and then downsampled to a sampling rate of 1 kHz to extract the local field potential (LFP) component. The LFP for each electrode contact was normalized to zero and the underlying current source density (CSD) was calculated as the second spatial derivative, using previously published methods (Voigt & Kral, 2019).

Time-frequency analysis of the CSD data was performed by wavelet filtering using 36 Morlet wavelets with a width parameter m = 6 and with frequencies ranging from 4 to 112 Hz with log-constant scaling. For further analyses, the signal from all electrodes that were identified to reside in areas with optoTrkB expression by the histological analysis was averaged, and the data were binned into non-overlapping 20 seconds bins. Morlet power spectra were estimated by computing the averaged magnitude over all bins of the 20-minute recording period per condition. For statistical

analysis, broadband power in the 20-minute baseline period and the 20-minute period beginning

100 minutes after LED onset was compared using permutation testing. Surrogate data was generated

by 1000 random permutations of condition labels and the effect size was measured using Cohen's

d. All data analyses and statistics were performed in Python (ver. 2.7) using SciPy (ver. 0.19.0), the

NeuroDSP toolbox (ver. 2.0.1-dev)(Cole et al., 2019), and custom written scripts.

Electrophysiology in acute slices

The brains of optoTrkB-infected PV-cre mice were dissected in darkness using red light illumination,

and kept in the dark throughout the whole experiment. The brains, including brains of fluoxetine-

treated WT and hPV-TrkB cKO mice, were dissected and immersed in ice-cold dissection solution

containing (in mM): 124 NaCl, 3 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO4, 1 $MgSO_4$, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 15 D-glucose, 9 $MgSO_4$

and 0.5 $CaCl_2$. The cerebellum and anterior part of the brain were removed and coronal 350µm brain

slices of the V1 were cut on a vibratome (Leica Biosystems). Slices were divided into two groups and

allowed to recover for 30 min at 31-32°C in artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) containing (in mM):

124 NaCl, 3 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 1 $MgSO_4$, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 15 D-glucose, and 2 $CaCl_2$ and bubbled with 5%

CO_2/95% O_2.

OptoTrkB-transfected slices in one of the groups were acutely stimulated for 30 seconds with blue

light after transferring them to the recording chamber, whereas the transfected slices in the other

group were kept in darkness.

Field excitatory postsynaptic currents (fEPSPs) were recorded in an interface chamber (32°C) with

ACSF-filled glass microelectrodes (2-4 MΩ) positioned within layer II/III of the V1 using an Axopatch

200B amplifier (Molecular devices, San Jose, CA, USA). Electric stimulation (100 µsec duration) was

delivered with a bipolar stimulation electrode placed at the border of the white matter (WM) and

layer VI. Baseline synaptic responses were evoked every 20 seconds with a stimulation intensity that

yielded a half-maximum response. After obtaining a 15 minute stable baseline, θ burst stimulation

(TBS) (4 sweeps at 0.1 Hz, each sweep with 10 trains of 4 pulses at 100 Hz at 200 ms intervals) was

delivered and field potentials in response to 0.05 Hz stimulation were recorded for additional 45

minute. WinLTP (0.95b or 0.96, www.winltp.com) was used for data acquisition and analysis.

To measure intrinsic excitability, the brains of PV-cre mice transfected with the DIO-optoTrkB-IRES-

TdT lentivirus were dissected as described above but cut in a protective NMDG ACSF (Ting et al.,

2014) containing (in mM): 92 NMDG, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 30 $NaHCO_3$, 20 HEPES, 25 glucose, 2

thiourea, 5 Na-ascorbate, 3 Na-pyruvate, 0.5 $CaCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$ and 10 $MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$, pH 7.3–7.4 The slices

were allowed to recover at 32°C for 10 min, after which they were transferred to modified ACSF

containing (mM): 92 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 30 $NaHCO_3$, 20 HEPES, 25 glucose, 2 thiourea, 5

Na-ascorbate, 3 Na-pyruvate, 2 $CaCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$ and 2 $MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$, pH 7.3-7.4 for storage. Recordings

were done in submerged chamber perfused with normal ACSF (32°C).

Whole cell patch clamp recordings from the TdT expressing PV cells were obtained under visual

guidance under ambient light with glass microelectrodes (3-5 MΩ) filled with a low Cl^--filling solution

containing (in mM): 135 K-gluconate, 10 HEPES, 2 KCl, 2, $Ca(OH)_2$, 5 EGTA, 4 Mg-ATP, 0.5 Na-GTP

using a Multiclamp 700A amplifier (Axon Instruments, USA). Uncompensated series resistance (Rs)

was monitored by measuring the peak amplitude of the current response to a 5 mV step. Only

experiments where Rs < 30 MΩ, and with < 20 % change in Rs during the experiment, were included

in analysis.

Intrinsic excitability was measured in current clamp mode by injecting currents ranging from -50 to

600 pA for 600 ms in 50 pA steps from the resting membrane potential of -60/-70 mV. The recordings

were analyzed in Clampfit (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA, USA) programs. A minimum of three

action potentials (AP) were averaged based on their AP half-width (10th AP at 200pA injected from

rheobase). sEPSCs were recorded under voltage clamp at -70 mV and analyzed in Clampfit

(Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA, USA). The threshold for detection of inward sEPSC events was

three times the baseline noise level, and all detected events were verified visually.

Sample collection

For collecting tissue samples for qPCR and Western Blot experiments, the brains of optoTrkB infected

PV-cre mice were dissected and immersed in ice-cold dissection solution containing (in mM): 124

NaCl, 3 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 1 $MgSO_4$, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 15 D-glucose, 9 $MgSO_4$ and 0.5 $CaCl_2$. The V1 was

dissected and incubated at 31-32°C in artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) containing (in mM): 124

NaCl, 3 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 1 $MgSO_4$, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 15 D-glucose, and 2 $CaCl_2$ and bubbled with 5%

CO_2/95% O_2. The tissue samples were either immediately collected in NP lysis buffer and

homogenized (control), or stimulated with blue LED light for 30 seconds and collected and

homogenized after 15 minutes, 30 minutes or 60 minutes. All of the procedures were done in dark

conditions. The samples were further used for qPCR and Western Blot analysis.

Western Blot

The samples were centrifuged (16000 g, 15 min at +4°C) and the supernatant was used to measure

the protein concentrations using the Lowry method (Biorad DC protein assay; Lowry et al, 1951). The

samples were separated in a SDS-PAGE (2-4% gradient gel, NuPage™; Invitrogen, CA, USA) and

blotted to a PVDF membrane (300 mA, 1 h, + 41°C). The membranes were washed in Tris Buffer

Solution with 0,001% Tween ®20 (TBST), blocked in TBST with 3% BSA for 1 hour at room

temperature and incubated in primary antibody solutions (in TBST with 3% BSA) directed against:

phosphorylated and non-phosphorylated forms of TrkB (Y816, Y705/6, Y515) and CREB at +4°C for

overnight. After washing in TBST, the membranes were further incubated in secondary antibody

solutions (TBST with 5% Non-Fat Dry Skinned Milk and Horseradish Peroxidase conjugated secondary

antibodies Goat Anti-Rabbit/Mouse, 1:10000) for 2 hours at room temperature. After washing with

TBST and rinsing with PBS, secondary antibodies were visualized by an electrochemiluminescence

kit (ECL plus, Thermo Scientific®, CA, USA) according to the manufactures instruction, and detected

using a FUJIFILM LAS-3000 dark box.

qPCR

RNA was purified from the lysate following the manufacturer's protocol using a combined protocol

of QIAzol® (Qiagen) and NucleoSpin® (Macherey-Nagel). Briefly, the aqua layer was isolated after

Qiazol and chloroform extraction. The RNA was washed in 100% ethanol and the DNA was digested

in the spin columns. The purified RNA was then reverse transcribed to cDNA using Maxima First

Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo-Scientific). The amount of cDNA synthesized from the target

mRNA was quantified by real-time PCR (qPCR). The following primers were used to amplify specific

cDNA regions of the transcripts of interest:

PV (5'-TGTCGATGACAGACGTGCTC-3' and 5'-TTCTTCAACCCCAATCTTGC-3').

Immunohistochemistry

Animals were transcardially perfused with PBS followed by chilled 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in

PBS. Brains were removed under ambient light and left for fixation in 4% PFA overnight at +4 °C. For

cutting, the brains were embedded in 3% agar and cut into 40 μm coronal visual cortical sections

using a vibratome (Leica Biosystems). After washing with PBST (1x PBS and 0.2% TritonX100), the

sections were incubated in 10% donkey serum (Vector Laboratories, UK) and 3% Bovine Serum

Albumin (BSA) (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBST for 30 minutes at room temperature. Next, the sections were incubated with the following antibodies: 1) guinea pig anti-parvalbumin (1:1000; Synaptic Systems, Göttingen, Germany), 2) biotinylated lectin from Wisteria floribunda (WFA; 1:200; Sigma-Aldrich, Helsinki, Finland), and 3) rabbit anti-phospho Kv3.1 (1:100; Phosphosolutions, Colorado, USA) overnight at +4° C. After washing in PBST, the samples were further incubated in: 1) goat anti-guinea pig secondary antibody conjugated with Alexa Fluor647/546 (1:1000; Abcam, Cambridge, UK/Life technologies, Carlsbad, California, USA), 2) streptavidin conjugated with Alexa Fluor488 (1:1000; Thermofisher, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA), or 3) Goat anti-rabbit conjugated with Alexa Fluor 647 (1:1000; Life technologies, Carlsbad, California, USA) for 2 hours at room temperature protected from light. After final washing in PBS, the sections were transferred to 0.1M PB with gelatin, mounted on glass slides and covered with DAKO mounting medium (Sigma Aldrich, Helsinki, Finland).

Image acquisition and analysis

Quantitative analysis of immunostainings was performed blind. Images were taken from the V1 according to the mouse brain atlas.

Laser scanning confocal microscopy was used to detect PV positive (PV[+]), PNN positive (PNN[+]), double positive (PV[+]PNN[+]) and pKv3.1-positive cells. Images were obtained using a confocal microscope LSM 700 (Carl Zeiss) equipped with a 10× objective lens (10x Plan-Apochromat 10x/0.45, Carl Zeiss) and imaging Software ZEN 2012 lite (Zeiss, Vantaa, Finland). From each section, a z-stack containing at least 10 consecutive images was obtained. A minimum number of 3 sections per animal were imaged using the same microscope and the same camera settings for all samples. Image processing was done using ImageJ software version 1 (National Institutes of Health). All images in each z-stack were analyzed and the number of cells was averaged per z-stack.

To determine the PV cell populations, frequency distribution analyses were performed on PV

intensities taken from non-stimulated optoTrkB samples or control WT samples to serve as reference

group. The PV cell populations were defined as low PV (0-8000 a.u.), intermediate-low PV (int-low

PV, 8000-16000 a.u.), intermediate-high PV (int-high, 16000-24000 a.u.) and high PV (24000-36000

a.u.) expressing cells and these criteria were applied to the light stimulated samples.

Nuclei preparation

Single nuclei RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) was conducted by following previously reported methods

with some modifications (Bakken et al., 2018; Krishnaswami et al., 2016) (Figure S3A). Considering

that optoTrkB is sensitive to light stimulation, we used snRNA-seq instead of single cell RNA

sequencing (scRNA-seq) after FACS selected by TdTomato fluorescence, to avoid laser-induced

optoTrkB activation during FACS. There is a good correlation of gene expression and gene detection

sensitivity in each cell between SnRNA-seq and scRNA-seq (Bakken et al., 2018), and snRNA-seq has

several advantages, such as reduced dissociation bias and dissociation-induced transcriptional stress

responses (Wu et al., 2019). Tissue samples were obtained bilaterally from the visual cortex of adult

female PV-cre mice infected with DIO-optoTrkB-TdT. After deep anesthesia with pentobarbital, the

mice were perfused with ice-cold NMDG ACSF (Ting et al., 2014) consisted of 0.5 mM $CaCl_2$, 25mM

D-Glucose, 98 mM HCl, 20 mM HEPES, 10 mM $MgSO_4$, 1.25 mM NaH2PO4, 3 mM Myo-inositol, 12

mM N-acetylcysteine, 96 mM N-methyl-D-glucamine, 2.5 mM KCl, 25 mM $NaHCO_3$, 5 mM sodium L-

Ascorbate, 3 mM sodium pyruvate, 0.01 mM Taurine, and 2 mM Thiourea, bubbled with a carbogen

gas (95% O_2 and 5% CO_2), and the brains were isolated and sliced on a vibratome (MICROM, HM

650V, Thermo Fisher Scientific) in NMDG ACSF (Ting et al., 2014). Then, the slices were exposed to

blue LED light (30 seconds), and incubated in a modified HEPES ACSF including 92 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM

KCl, 1.25 mM NaH_2PO_4, 30 mM $NaHCO_3$, 20 mM HEPES, 25 mM glucose, 2 mM thiourea, 5 mM Na-

ascorbate, 3 mM Na-pyruvate, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, 2 mM $MgSO_4$, 3 mM Myo-inositol, and 0.01 mM Taurine for one hour. The visual cortex was bilaterally isolated from the slices under a microscope using red light illumination, and tissues were transferred to pre-cooled Dounce homogenizers filled with cold homogenization buffer (250 mM sucrose, 25 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl2, 10 mM Tris buffer, pH 8.0, 1 µM DTT, 1× protease inhibitor (cOmplete, Sigma-aldrich), 0.4 U/µl RNase Inhibitor (Promega), 0.2 U/µl Superasin (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich), 10 µg/ml Cyclohexamide (Sigma-Aldrich), 10 µg/ml Actinomycin D (Sigma-Aldrich), 10 ng/ml Hoechst 33342 (Thermo Fisher Scientific)). The tissues were homogenized with five strokes of the loose pestle, followed by 10 strokes of the tight pestle. Finally, nuclei of the tissues were obtained by filtration through a BD Falcon tube with a cell strainer cap (BD). All procedures were performed with RNase free in the dark condition.

Immunostaining and sorting of nuclei

The nuclei were centrifuged (1,000 x g, 8 min, 4 °C) and resuspended in staining buffer (PBS, pH 7.4, with 0.5% RNase-free BSA (Promega) and 0.2 U/µl of RNasin Plus RNase inhibitor (Promega)). Samples were incubated in blocking/washing buffer (PBS with 0.5% BSA). The nuclei were incubated with mouse monoclonal anti-NeuN antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, MAB377, 1:5000) or purified mouse IgG1k (BD Pharmigen, 554121, 1:5000) as a negative control for staining and sorting for 30 min with rotation at 4 °C. Then the samples were washed in staining buffer by inverting the tubes several times, and were centrifuged for 5 min at 400g at 4 °C. The pellet nuclei were re-suspended in 500 µl of staining buffer containing goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 488 secondary antibody (Fisher Scientific) with a final dilution of 1:5000, and were incubated with rotation for 30 min at 4 °C followed by washing with blocking/washing buffer.

FACS of nuclei

Hoechst 33342 and NeuN positive nuclei stained with Alexa488 were sorted and collected by BD

Influx cell sorter (BD Biosciences) (Figure S3B). After checking the quality, collected nuclei were

loaded on Chromium Controller (10x Genomics).

Single nuclei RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq)

Preparation of cDNA Library was done using Chromium Single Cell 3' Gene Expression v3 library

preparation kit (10x Genomics), and sequenced with NovaSeq 6000 (Illumina) with read lengths:

28bp (Read 1), 8bp (i7 Index), 0 bp (i5 Index) and 89bp (Read 2). Data was pre-processed using

CellRanger 3.0. The reads are mapped to reference genome that included introns, and we obtained

3,789 and 6,923 cells with approximately 10k median reads per cell (Figure S4).

Data analysis for snRNA-seq

Data analysis was carried out using Chipster version 3.16 (Kallio et al., 2011), which utilizes Seurat

v3 (Butler et al., 2018). Cells with more than 7,000 and less than 100 reads were filtered out, and

reads for the remaining cells were scaled logarithmically. Based on results for plotting variance

against expression, 3000 most highly varied genes in 10,706 cells were used for clustering and

sample integration. By Seurat's integrated analysis (Butler et al., 2018), 20 canonical components

were used for finding anchors and 20 principal components to integrate the samples together.

Clusters were obtained using UMAP(Mcinnes et al., 2018) with 20 principal components and

resolution 0.5 (Figure S5A, and S5B). This resulted in 18 clusters and we identified the clusters of

pyramidal and interneurons, using *Gad1* and *Slc6a1*, and further *Parvalbumin* (*Pvalb*)- , *Paired box*

protein (*Pax6*)-, *Vasoactive intestinal peptide* (*VIP*)-, and *Somatostatin* (*Sst*) previously reported

markers (Tasic et al., 2018)(Fig. 5A) (Figure S5C). Then a subset of data containing only parvalbumin-

positive interneurons was selected and clustered again by UMAP with the same parameters resulting

in four different clusters (Fig. 5B) (Figure S6A and S6B). Markers and differentially expressed genes

between non- and light- exposed samples were detected in each cluster (Figure S6D) (Table S3-6).

Pathway and gene ontology analysis was carried out with DAVID (Huang et al., 2009).

Statistical analysis

All statistical graphs were generated using Graphpad Prism v.6.07. Unpaired t-Test, Two-way and

one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's or Bonferroni post hoc tests were also performed using

Graphpad Prism v.6.07. The confidence level was set to 0.05 (P value) and all results were presented

as means ± s.e.m. All the individual data points are shown in the histograms. The data distribution

was assumed to be normal but this was not formally tested. The sample size was determined based

on our previous experience.

DATA AND SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY

snRNA-seq data is available in the Gene Expression Omnibus, GEO: GSE142797 (after accepting the

manuscript). All data are available upon request to the Lead Contact.

Supplemental Information

Figure S1. Confirmation of inversion of DIO-optoTrkB by cre-recombinase

(A) The plasmid producing lentivirus DIO-optoTrkB.

(B) Confirmation of inversion of DIO-optoTrkB by cre-recombinase. HEK293 cells were co-transfected with pLenti-DIO-optoTrkB and pLenti-CAG-GFP-IRES-CRE or pAAV-EF1a-Cre, which express cre-recombinase. PCR analysis revealed that DIO-optoTrkB was inverted after co-transfection with cre but not when expressed alone.

(C) The plasmid producing DIO-optoTrkB-IRES-TdTomato.

(D) Confirmation of inversion of DIO-optoTrkB-IRES-TdTomato by cre-recombinase. HEK293 cells were transfected with either or both pLenti-CAG-GFP-IRES-CRE and pLenti-optoTrkB-IRES-TdTomato. Only co-transfected cells expressed TdTomato demonstrating that the expression is cre-dependent. hSyn, human Synapsin promoter; oPHR, optimised Photolyase homology region; fTrkB, full-length TrkB.

Figure S2. OptoTroB activation mediates plasticity in the visual cortex.
(A-E) Western Blot analysis of V1 of PV-cre mice infected with DIO-optoTrkB without light stimulation
(Control) and 15 minutes, 30 minutes and 60 minutes after light stimulation. Acute stimulation of
optoTrkB with light results in increased phosphorylation of tyrosine sites:
(A) Y816
(B) Y515
(C) Y706
(D) phosphorylation of CREB
(E) Representative Western Blots of Y816, Y515, Y706 and CREB.
(F) PV-cre mice without optoTrkB expression stimulated with blue light twice daily during 7 days of
MD show no shift in ocular dominance. Bars represent means ± SEM.
(G) PV mRNA levels are decreased 60 min after light stimulation measured by qPCR. qPCR
measurements of control, 15 minutes, 30 minutes and 60 minutes after light stimulation. OptoTrkB
reduces the expression of PV 60 minutes after stimulation. One-way ANOVA ($F_{(3, 11)}$ = 5.112; p =
0.0186) with Bonferroni's post-hoc test comparing control vs. 15 min, 30 min and 60 min (control
vs. 15 min, p = > 0.9999; control vs. 30 min, p = 0.1456; control vs. 60 min, p = 0.0125). n = 3-4
animals/group. Bars represent means ± SEM. * p < 0.05

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Figure S3. snRNA-seq after activation of optoTrkB
(A) Scheme of snRNA-seq. The primary visual cortices were bilaterally isolated from PV mice
transfected by DIO-optoTrkB-TdT. Nuclei were extracted from the tissue, and Hoechst+ and NeuN+
cells were sorted by FACS. A cDNA library was constructed with Poly (A)-RNA in droplets. The
fragmented cDNA, were then sequenced on a Next generation sequencer (NGS).
(B) Sorting nuclei of neurons by FACS. Cells were stained with Hoechst 33342, NeuN antibody, and
mouse IgG antibody (negative control) followed by labelling with anti-mouse IgG conjugated with
Alexa488, and then sorted by BD Influx cell sorter (BD Biosciences). Hoechst 33342 positive nuclei
were efficiently sorted in all samples. While small portion of nuclei (0.15%) labelled with IgG bound
to Alexa488 were sorted in negative control, large portion of nuclei (~72%) stained with NeuN bound
to Alexa488 were efficiently sorted and collected.

Figure S4. Number of genes, reads, and mitochondrial genes in nuclei.
The plots represent genes and transcripts per cell, where the horizontal axis is cell id and vertical axis is the number of genes or transcripts, respectively. Each dot is a unique cell and orange areas represent cell density at vertical axis. In the right panels, the horizontal axis is cell id and the vertical axis is the percentage of transcripts originating from mitochondrial DNA. Each cell should be represented with a dot and the black line in 0.000 % shows absence of mitochondrial genes. Since we used only nuclei, mitochondrial genes are absent. Based on genes and transcripts per cell, we decided to remove cells that had fewer than 100 or greater than 7000 reads.

Figure S5. Clustering single nuclei
(A) For 20 first principal components, heatmaps are drawn with cells as columns and the 15 most
important genes as rows. The heatmaps show major variation captured in 20 first principal
components.
(B) Elbow plot is generated by calculating how much of the variation is explained by the first 20
principal components. Horizontal axis represents ordinal number of principal component and
vertical axis the standard deviation of explained percentage in variation. Most of the variation in the
data is included in 20 first principal components, which were used for later analysis.
(C)In the violin plot, the vertical axis indicates the expression level of a gene in a cluster (number
below), and the horizontal axis indicates cell density at a given expression level. Pyramidal neurons
were identified by using the markers Nrn1, Sv2b and Satb2 and while interneurons were done by
Gad1 and Slc6a1. The cluster 5, 11, and 13 contained parvalbumin-, somatostatin-, and VIP-positive
interneurons, respectively.

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Figure S6. Clustering PV interneuron
(A) Genes in representative PCAs explain four clusters in PV neurons. Heatmaps of unique genes in
each clusters show that the PV cluster can be further divided into four clusters (0-3)
(B) Number and ratio of PV cells used for clustering and DE analysis.
(C) Distribution of expression of genes in cluster specific genes (*Pvalb, Il1rapl2, Synpr, Nkain3*),
representative markers for chandelier cells (*Hs3st4, Errfi1*), and basket cells (*Reln, Tac1*) as reported
previously(Tasic et al., 2018). (D) Distribution of cells expressing each marker in the four clusters of
PV interneurons. These results demonstrate that each cluster has unique expression of marker genes,
and the cluster 3 includes both chandelier and basket cells.

A

Input resistance	Control	10-30 min	30-60 min
Mean	237.5	233.8	272.6
Std. Deviation	63.99	58.7	77.3
Std. Error of Mean	26.12	22.19	31.56

B

Input resistance	WT water	WT Flx	hPV-TrkB CKO water	hPV-TrkB CKO Flx
Mean	171.2	251.2	189.4	204.3
Std. Deviation	46.84	69.45	55.23	71.69
Std. Error of Mean	15.61	24.55	20.87	20.69

951 **Supplemental Table 1. Input resistance is after optoTrkB activation and fluoxetine treatment in**
952 **WT and hPV-TrkB CKO mice.**
953 (A) Input resistance is unchanged after optoTrkB activation.
954 (B) No effect of fluoxetine treatment on input resistance in WT and hPV-TrkB CKO mice.
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Number of cells in each cluster

Cluster	Neuronal type[a]	Non-activated		Activated	
		N[b]	%[c]	N[b]	%[c]
0	Pyramidal	696	18.4	1200	17.3
1	Pyramidal	349	9.2	874	12.6
2	Pyramidal	368	9.7	827	11.9
3	Pyramidal	390	10.3	746	10.8
4	Pyramidal	222	5.9	408	5.9
5	Internuron	173	4.6	413	6.0
6	Pyramidal	218	5.8	360	5.2
7	Pyramidal	172	4.5	334	4.8
8	Pyramidal	261	6.9	235	3.4
9	Pyramidal	192	5.1	293	4.2
10	Pyramidal	189	5.0	266	3.8
11	Internuron	146	3.9	237	3.4
12	Internuron	82	2.2	169	2.4
13	Internuron	82	2.2	164	2.4
14	Pyramidal	87	2.3	143	2.1
15	Pyramidal	68	1.8	130	1.9
16	Pyramidal	76	2.0	102	1.5
17	Internuron	14	0.4	20	0.3

959 **Supplemental Table 2. Number of nuclei in each cluster.**

960　　(a) All clusters were identified by expression of makers previously reported (Tasic et al., 2018).

961　　(b) Number of cells in each cluster were provided by Chipster/Seurat version 3.

962　　(c) Percentage was calculated by dividing the number of nuclei in each cluster with that of total

963　　　nuclei in non-activated or activated sample

Supplemental Table 3. Markers in all clusters.

Supplemental Table 4. DE genes after optoTrkB activation in all clusters

DE genes were identified by Chipster/Seurat version 3. Gene ontology (GO) in each gene was

annotated by DAVID program

Supplemental Table 5. Marker genes in clusters of Parvalbumin interneurons

Supplemental Table 6. DE genes after optoTrkB activation in clusters of Parvalbumin interneurons.

DE genes were identified by Chipster/Seurat version 3. GO in each gene was annotated by DAVID

program

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