Title: Adolescent Thalamocortical Inhibition Alters Prefrontal Excitation-Inhibition Balance

Abbreviated Title: Adolescent Thalamic Inhibition and Prefrontal Function

David Petersen[1,3], Ricardo Raudales[1,3], Ariadna Kim Silva[1,3], Christoph Kellendonk[1,2,3,#], Sarah

Canetta[1,4,#],

[1]Department of Psychiatry, [2]Department of Molecular Pharmacology & Therapeutics, Vagelos College of

Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New York, NY 10032, USA

[3]Division of Molecular Therapeutics, [4]Division of Developmental Neuroscience, New York State

Psychiatric Institute, New York, NY, 10032

[#]Equal contribution

*Correspondence: ck491@cumc.columbia.edu, ses2119@cumc.columbia.edu

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Abstract

Adolescent inhibition of thalamo-cortical projections from postnatal day P20-50 leads to long lasting

deficits in prefrontal cortex function and cognition in the adult mouse. While this suggests a role of

thalamic activity in prefrontal cortex maturation, it is unclear how inhibition of these projections affects

prefrontal circuit connectivity during adolescence. Here, we used chemogenetic tools to inhibit thalamo-

prefrontal projections in the mouse from P20-35 and measured synaptic inputs to prefrontal pyramidal

neurons by layer (either II/III or V/VI) and projection target twenty-four hours later using slice physiology.

We found a decrease in the frequency of excitatory and inhibitory currents in layer II/III nucleus

accumbens (NAc) and layer V/VI medio-dorsal thalamus projecting neurons while layer V/VI NAc-

projecting neurons showed an increase in the amplitude of excitatory and inhibitory currents. Regarding

cortical projections, the frequency of inhibitory but not excitatory currents was enhanced in contralateral

mPFC-projecting neurons. Notably, despite these complex changes in individual levels of excitation and

inhibition, the overall balance between excitation and inhibition in each cell was only changed in the

contralateral mPFC projections. This finding suggests homeostatic regulation occurs within subcortically

but not intracortical callosally-projecting neurons. Increased inhibition of intra-prefrontal connectivity

may therefore be particularly important for prefrontal cortex circuit maturation. Finally, we observed

cognitive deficits in the adult mouse using this narrowed window of thalamocortical inhibition (P20-P35).

Significance Statement: Connectivity between two brain regions, the thalamus and the prefrontal

cortex, has been found to be reduced in patients with schizophrenia. Neuronal activity in thalamo-

cortical projections is important for the proper development of sensory cortices. How thalamo-

cortical activity regulates prefrontal cortex development is less well understood. Here, we show that

decreasing activity in thalamo-prefrontal projections in mice during early adolescence alters synaptic

connectivity to distinct neuronal projections within the prefrontal cortex that are already evident in

adolescence. While some of these changes can be explained by reduced thalamo-cortical projections,

other adaptations are intrinsic to the prefrontal cortex. These findings implicate adolescence as a

critical period of cortical development and demonstrate this period as a potential target for

therapeutic intervention.

Keywords

Adolescence, Excitation inhibition balance, Thalamocortical projections, Prefrontal cortex maturation

Introduction

The prefrontal cortex (PFC) supports high level cognitive functioning including working memory and other executive functions (Fuster, 2001; Miller et al., 2018). An impairment in the development or maturation of the prefrontal cortex during adolescence has been postulated to contribute to the cognitive deficits observed in patients with schizophrenia (Feinberg, 1982; Paus et al., 2008; Gogtay et al., 2011; Hoops and Flores, 2017; Larsen and Luna, 2018; Sakurai and Gamo, 2019; Chini and Hanganu-Opatz, 2021; Dienel et al., 2022; Yang and Tseng, 2022). Thalamic inputs regulate sensory cortical maturation during sensitive time windows of development (Wiesel and Hubel, 1963; Nabel and Morishita, 2013). We recently established in the mouse that thalamic input activity during adolescence is necessary for adult prefrontal cortex function and behavior (Benoit et al., 2022). More specifically, we found that decreasing activity in the mediodorsal thalamus from postnatal day 20-50 using pharmacogenetic tools led to deficits in the performance of two prefrontal dependent cognitive tasks addressing working memory and attentional set shifting. These deficits were measured in the adult mouse and associated with decreased anatomical thalamocortical projections and decreased functional excitatory post-synaptic currents measured in layer 2/3 prefrontal cortical pyramidal cells. Moreover, mice with thalamic inhibition during adolescence showed decreased correlated activity between neurons in the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) while performing an attentional set shifting task and the ability of the prefrontal cortex to decode task outcomes was impaired (Benoit et al., 2022). Notably, decreasing the activity of thalamo-prefrontal projections for a comparable length period in adulthood did not lead to the same long-lasting effects.

These findings established that thalamo-prefrontal activity is required during adolescence to sustain thalamocortical connectivity, prefrontal network function and cognitive behavior in adulthood. However, it was not clear whether these effects on circuit connectivity were apparent immediately after the

adolescent manipulation or if they require maturation into adulthood to manifest. Moreover, it was not

clear whether the effects of decreased adolescent thalamo-prefrontal activity were restricted to the

reduction of excitatory thalamic afferents or whether this manipulation led to more widespread changes

in the intrinsic connectivity of the prefrontal cortex.

To address these questions, we undertook a detailed study of prefrontal cortical connectivity using slice

electrophysiology twenty-four hours following pharmacogenetic inhibition of thalamo-prefrontal

projections from postnatal day P20-35. We chose this reduced window of inhibition because prior work

demonstrated changes in the density of thalamic projections to the mPFC following adolescent thalamic

inhibition were already present at this time (Benoit et al., 2022). We first recorded excitatory and inhibitory

currents from layer II/III neurons as previously done in the adult (Benoit et al., 2022) to establish whether

the observed deficit in excitation arises during adolescence. We then restricted our recordings to specific

mPFC projection neurons identified by their projection target and cortical layer. We found excitatory post

synaptic currents are reduced in layer II/III cells during adolescence, as observed in adult mice. When

analyzing specific projections, we found a reduction in frequency of excitatory and inhibitory currents to

layer V/VI cortico-thalamic cells and layer II/III cortico-accumbens-projecting cells while layer V/VI

cortico-accumbens-projecting neurons displayed increased amplitudes of excitatory and inhibitory

currents. While we observed changes in excitation or inhibition in subcortically-projecting cells, the

excitation/inhibition balance was not affected, suggesting homeostatic mechanisms may offset decreased

excitatory inputs. In contrast, callosal cortico-cortical projection neurons displayed a significant decrease

in E/I balance. Together, these data show a complex adaptation of cortical networks in response to

decreased thalamo-cortical inputs during adolescence and suggest that activity in callosally-projecting

cells in mPFC may be most profoundly affected due to a lack of homeostatic adaptation.

To determine whether this narrowed window (P20-P35) of adolescent thalamocortical inhibition would

impact cognitive flexibility in the adult mouse, we performed an attentional set shifting behavioral task.

Like P20-50 inhibition (Benoit et al., 2022) inhibition from P20-35 was sufficient to induced long lasting

deficits in cognition.

Materials and Methods

Animal Husbandry

All procedures were performed in accordance with guidelines approved by the Institutional Animal

Care and Use Committees at Columbia University and the New York State Psychiatric Institute

(protocol NYSPI 1589). Animals were housed under a 12-h light/12-h dark cycle in a temperature-

controlled environment (22 °C, humidity of 30–70%) with food and water available ad libitum, unless

otherwise noted. C57/ BL6 females and males (Jackson Laboratories, 000664) were used for all

experiments. Littermates were randomly assigned to each experimental group, with random

distribution across males and females. Mice were housed together with dams and littermates.

Offspring were weaned at P28, and group housed with same-sex littermates (no more than five mice

per cage). For thalamic inhibition, mice were given intraperitoneal (i.p.) injections of JHU37160

(J60, a CNO analog) dissolved in 0.9% sterile saline at 0.1 mg/kg twice per day (Bonaventura et al.,

2019). J60 was used as an alternative to the widely used clozapine-N-oxide (CNO) because J60 is

known to have less off-target effects. New evidence has shown CNO might be reverse metabolized

into clozapine, a common antipsychotic medication with high affinity to dopamine D2 and serotonin

2A receptors (Manvich et al., 2018). All mice were given J60 regardless of viral vector, except those

given saline with hM4D expression. Surgeries were conducted at P12-13, and all mice were injected

from P20 to P35. For electrophysiological experiments, 24 hours after the final J60 injection, mice

were anesthetized with isoflurane and decapitated for slice electrophysiology at P35 (+/- 4 days). For

behavioral experiments, mice were tested in an attentional set shifting (ASST) task beginning in

adulthood (>P90). Throughout data collection and analysis, experimenters were blinded to the group

of the animal. We based sample sizes on previous experiments, and no statistical methods were used

to calculate sample sizes.

Surgical Procedures

For viral injections at P13, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and head-fixed in a stereotactic

apparatus (Kopf). Mice were injected bilaterally in the midline thalamus with AAV5-hSyn-DIO-

hM4D-mCherry (Addgene, 44362) or a control virus, AAV5-hSyn-DIO-mCherry (Addgene, 50459),

at a volume of 0.25 µl (0.1µl/min). Mice were also injected bilaterally in the mPFC with retrograde

AAV-hSyn-Cre-WPRE-hGH (Addgene, 105553) at a volume of 0.2 µl (0.1 µl/min). For the tracer

experiments, mice were injected with retrograde AAV-hSyn-EGFP (Addgene, 50465) at a volume of 0.25

µl for the MD, 0.2 µl for the mPFC, and 0.1µl for the NAc. The following were the P13 coordinates: MD

thalamus, −0.85 anterior–posterior (AP), ±0.20 medial–lateral (ML) and −3.25 dorsal–ventral (DV, zero

at brain surface); mPFC, 2.4 AP, ±0.2 ML and −1.9 DV (zero at brain surface); NAc, 1.7 AP, ±1.1 ML and

−5.07 DV. All coordinates were zeroed at bregma unless otherwise noted. Histology images were collected

from each animal for each cohort, with at least 6 slices taken for each animal to determine viral spread

and confirm targeting.

Slice Electrophysiology

Whole-cell voltage clamp recordings were performed in layer II/III mPFC pyramidal cells and layer

V/VI mPFC pyramidal cells. Recordings were obtained with a Multiclamp 700B amplifier

(Molecular Devices) and digitized using a Digidata 1440B acquisition system (Molecular Devices)

with Clampex 10 (Molecular Devices) and analyzed with pClamp 10 (Molecular Devices). Following

decapitation, 300-µm slices containing mPFC were incubated in artificial cerebral spinal fluid

containing 126mM NaCl, 2.5mM KCl, 2.0mM MgCl2, 1.25mM NaH2PO4, 2.0mM CaCl2, 26.2mM

NaHCO3 and 10.0mM d-glucose (pH 7.45, 310 mOsm) bubbled with oxygen at 32 °C for 30min

before being returned to room temperature for at least 1 hour before use. During recording, slices

were perfused in room temperature artificial cerebral spinal fluid at a rate of 5 ml/min. Electrodes

were pulled from 1.5-mm borosilicate glass pipettes on a P-97 puller (Sutter Instruments). Electrode

resistance was typically 1.5–3MΩ when filled with internal solution consisting of 130mM cesium

hydroxide monohydrate, 130mM D-gluconic acid, 10mM HEPES, 2.0mM MgCL2, 0.2mM EGTA,

2.5mM Mg-ATP, 0.3mM Na-GTP, and 5mM Lidocaine N-ethyl bromide (pH 7.3, 277mOsm).

mPFC recordings. Animals were sacrificed for recordings at P35 after the adolescent manipulation.

mPFC pyramidal cells were visually identified based on their shape and prominent apical dendrite at

×40 magnification under infrared and diffusion interference contrast microscopy. Recordings were

taken from either layer II/III of the mPFC (PrL) or layer V/VI. Layer II/III was defined as any cell

lying 150µm-350µm from the pial surface. Layer V/VI was defined as cells within 400µm-600µm

from the pial surface. Spontaneous excitatory post synaptic currents (sEPSCs) were recorded in

voltage clamp at a holding potential of −65mV, and spontaneous inhibitory post-synaptic currents

(sIPSCs) were recorded in voltage clamp at a holding potential of +10mV. The combination of the

intracellular solution and the selected holding potentials allowed us to isolate EPSCs and IPSCs from

one another without the use of blockers, which we verified by demonstrating that sEPSCs were

completed blocked by administration of 50 uM APV ((2R)-amino-5-phosphonovaleric acid) and 20

uM CNQX (6-cyano-7-nitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione), but not 20 uM bicuculine, and vice versa for

sIPSCs.60 seconds of the current recording for each condition were analyzed. Recordings were

filtered with a 2 kHz eight-pole low-pass Bessel filter, and sEPSCs and sIPSCs were detected using

MiniAnalysis (Synaptosoft). Frequency, amplitude, and instantaneous frequency were calculated for

all traces. Frequency was calculated by dividing the total number of events by time (60s). Amplitude

was the distance from baseline to the tip of the event. Instantaneous frequency was the inverse of the

interevent-interval converted to a frequency. All event data were averaged by cell.

Attentional Set Shifting Behavioral Task

At P90, mice were gradually restricted to 85% of their body weight. Mice were habituated to the testing

arena on day 1. On days 2–3, they were trained to dig in both bedding media (corn cob and paper pellet,

both unscented) to obtain a food reward. Once mice dug reliably, testing began. For each trial, mice were

placed at the opposite end from two terra cotta bowls containing different odor/medium combinations. For

IA, mice needed to learn that the cinnamon scent, not the paprika scent, predicted a Honey Nut Cheerio

reward, irrespective of the bedding medium. For the first five trials, mice could explore both bowls until

they found the reward, but the trial was only scored as correct if the animal initially chose the correct

bowl. From the sixth trial onward, once the mouse began digging in a bowl, the entrance to the other bowl

was closed off. The criterion was reached when the mouse made eight of ten consecutive correct choices.

If the mouse did not meet the criterion in 30 trials, the animal did not advance to the next stage. If the

mouse did reach the criterion, the extra-dimensional set shifting (EDSS) portion of the task began. In

EDSS, the animal needed to learn that the type of bedding medium (paper pellets, not corn cobs) predicted

the Honey Nut Cheerio reward irrespective of odor. The criterion was reached when the mouse made eight

of ten consecutive correct choices. All behavioral tasks were conducted during the light cycle.

Statistics

Statistical analysis and graph preparations were done using Prism 9 software (GraphPad Software),

JASP (JASP Team (2023), JASP (Version 0.17.3)) or custom scripts in R. Linear mixed effects

models with individual animal used as a random-effects grouping factor were used to analyze slice

physiology. Linear mixed effects models were used over a common ANOVA or t-test to account for

the possible non-independence of measurements from cells from the same animal. Prior to analysis,

all datasets were tested for outliers, and they were removed using the following equation (Q1-1.5 x

IQR or Q3 + 1.5 x IQR), which identifies datapoints +/- 2.698σ from the mean. For the nonspecific

L II/III experiment, 2 outliers were removed from the EPSC hM4D+Saline amplitude group, 1 outlier

was removed from the IPSC hM4D frequency group, and 1 outlier was removed from the IPSC hM4D

instantaneous frequency group. For the cortico-accumbens experiment, 2 outliers were removed from

the IPSC hM4D group. For the cortico-cortical population experiment, 2 outliers were removed from

the IPSC mCherry frequency group. For the E/I balance analysis, 2 outliers were removed from the

hM4D cortico-cortical frequency group. An independent samples t-test was used to analyze behavior.

Results

Adolescent thalamocortical activity regulates excitatory transmission to superficial mPFC.

We first performed patch clamp recordings in brain slices from prelimbic layer II/III neurons, which is the mPFC population of projection neurons that obtain the most prominent input from the MD (Anastasiades and Carter, 2021). To inhibit thalamic activity during adolescence on postnatal day 13 (P13), we injected an adeno-associated virus (AAV) carrying a Cre-dependent version of the inhibitory designer receptor hM4D into the thalamus of C57 mice and a retrograde virus carrying Cre recombinase, rgAAV-CRE, into the mPFC. Retrograde transport will cause Cre recombinase expression in the MD, leading to hM4D expression selectively in medial prefrontal-projecting neurons (Fig. 1a). We then chronically inhibited these cortically-projecting MD cells with the hM4D ligand JHU37160 (J60) (0.1 mg/kg) from postnatal day 20 until the day before they were recorded (P35±4days) (Fig. 1b). To control for the possible non-ligand-dependent effects of the hM4D receptor, we also included a group of mice expressing hM4D that were injected with saline during the same developmental window. Twenty-four hours after the last J60 injection (at P35±4days), we recorded layer II/III neurons and analyzed excitatory and inhibitory post-synaptic currents.

Using linear mixed effects models, we found that inhibition of thalamo-cortical projections from P20-35 decreased the frequency [$F_{(2, 5.93)} = 6.854$, $p = 0.029$] and spatial distribution (instantaneous frequency) [$F_{(1, 7.02)} = 8.129$, $p = 0.025$] of spontaneous excitatory currents (sEPSCs), while there was no change in the amplitude [$F_{(2, 42)} = 1.763$, $p = 0.184$] of sEPSCs when compared to controls (Fig. 1f-i). Measuring spontaneous inhibitory currents (sIPSCs) resulted in a trend of diminished frequency [$F_{(2, 9.78)} = 2.906$, $p = 0.102$] while spatial distribution (instantaneous frequency) [$F_{(2, 10.92)} = 1.973$, $p = 0.185$] and

amplitude [$F_{(2, 8.41)}$ = 0.458, p = 0.458] remained unchanged when compared to controls (Fig. 1f-i).

Furthermore, when comparing the mCherry and Saline groups in a post-hoc contrast, no significant

differences were observed, signaling the lack of non-ligand dependent effects of the hM4D receptor (EPSC

frequency [$z_{(\infty)}$ = 0.501, $p_{bonferroni}$ = 1.000]; EPSC median instantaneous frequency [$z_{(\infty)}$ = 1.097,

$p_{bonferroni}$ = 0.818]; and no overall effect in EPSC amplitude, IPSC frequency, IPSC instantaneous

frequency, or IPSC amplitude. These results indicate that adolescent thalamocortical activity causes

significant alterations to excitatory transmission in the superficial regions of the mPFC, consistent with

what we previously found in adult mice. (Benoit et al., 2022).

Adolescent thalamocortical activity regulates excitatory and inhibitory transmission to

superficial layer II/III cortico-accumbens projections.

We then determined whether the observed effects of adolescent thalamocortical inhibition includes the

layer II/III cortico-accumbens cell populations. To this end, we injected the rgGFP virus into the nucleus

accumbens (NAc) (Fig. 2a-b) and recorded from the superficial layers (II/III) of the mPFC. We found that

in superficial NAc-projecting neurons, excitatory and inhibitory transmission were both dampened

following adolescent thalamo-cortical inhibition. For excitatory currents, the frequency [$F_{(1, 47)}$ = 9.354,

p = 0.004] was significantly decreased but not the spatial distribution (instantaneous frequency) [$F_{(1,}$

$_{6.77)}$ = 1.926, p = 0.208] or the amplitude [$F_{(1, 6.19)}$ = 3.313, p = 0.117] (Fig. 2e-f). For inhibitory

transmission in superficial layers, sIPSC frequency was reduced [$F_{(1, 4.89)}$ = 9.451, p = 0.028] but not the

spatial distribution (instantaneous frequency) [$F_{(1, 7.79)}$ = 0.955, p = 0.358] or the amplitude [$F_{(1, 7.03)}$

= 3.402, p = 0.107] (Fig. 2g-h). These data show that excitatory and inhibitory inputs are decreased onto

layer II/III accumbens-projecting neurons.

Adolescent thalamocortical activity regulates excitatory and inhibitory transmission to cortico-thalamic projections.

We then determined the effects of chronic thalamocortical inhibition on a different subcortical projection, cortical cells from deep layers V/VI projecting to the MD thalamus. A rgGFP virus was injected into the MD and whole cell patch clamp recordings were taken in thalamic-projecting cortical cells (Fig. 3a-b). Like for non-specific layer II/III and cortico-accumbens neurons, we observed significant decreases in excitatory synaptic transmission (Fig. 3e-h). Significant decreases were observed in both the frequency $[F(1, 6.73) = 12.960, p = 0.009]$ and spatial distribution (instantaneous frequency) $[F(1, 6.10) = 13.045, p = 0.011]$ of sEPSCs but the amplitude $[F(1, 5.36) = 0.689, p = 0.442]$ of sEPSCs remained unchanged (Fig. 3e-f). In addition, the frequency $[F(1, 6.39) = 7.829, p = 0.029]$ and spatial distribution (instantaneous frequency) $[F(1, 5.96) = 6.501, p = 0.044]$ but not the amplitude $[F(1, 4.77) = 0.991, p = 0.367]$ of sIPSCs was reduced after P20-35 thalamic inhibition (Fig. 3g-h). These data show that, like for superficial layer II/III accumbens projections, adolescent thalamo-prefrontal inhibition also decreases excitatory and inhibitory synaptic inputs to deep layer cortico-thalamic neurons.

Adolescent thalamocortical activity regulates the amplitude of excitatory and inhibitory currents in deep layer (V/VI) accumbens-projecting cortical cells.

Accumbens-projecting prefrontal neurons are located in both superficial and deep cortical layers (Anastasiades and Carter, 2021). We therefore also recorded accumbens-projecting cells in layer V/VI. We found significant increases to excitatory and inhibitory current amplitude, and no changes in frequency or spatial distribution, in deep layer accumbens-projecting cells (Fig 4e-h). When measuring excitatory currents in deep layers, amplitude was significantly increased $[F(1, 29) = 8.976, p = 0.006]$ however, frequency $[F(1, 5.49) = 7.841 \times 10^{-5}, p = 0.993]$ and spatial distribution (instantaneous frequency) $[F(1,$

6.24) = 0.196, p =0.673] remained unchanged (Fig 4e-f). Similar to excitatory transmission, for inhibitory

currents in deeper layers, amplitude was significantly increased [$F(1, 4.25) = 14.809$, p =0.013] however,

frequency [$F(1, 6.82) = 0.417$, p =0.539] and spatial distribution (instantaneous frequency) [$F(1, 6.53) =$

0.910, p =0.374] remained unchanged (Fig. 4 g-h). Thus, unlike layer II/III accumbens projection neurons,

excitatory and inhibitory drive onto layer V/VI accumbens neurons is not decreased but it is enhanced

although at the level of amplitude and not frequency.

Adolescent thalamocortical activity regulates cross-hemispheric inhibition.

To determine how adolescent thalamocortical inhibition impacts cortico-cortical circuitry, a rgGFP virus

was injected into the dextral prelimbic mPFC and whole cell patch clamp recordings were taken in

callosally-projecting cortical cells in the sinistral hemisphere (Fig. 5a-b). No significant differences were

observed in the frequency [$F(1, 7.41) = 0.012$, $p = 0.917$], spatial distribution (instantaneous frequency)

[$F(1, 7.30) = 0.399$, $p = 0.547$] or amplitude) [$F(1, 6.37) = 2.865$, $p = 0.134$] of excitatory events in

cortical-projecting cortical cells (Fig. 5e-f). Unlike excitatory transmission, inhibitory transmission

significantly increased in the distribution of events (instantaneous frequency) [$F(1, 5.95) = 8.023$, $p =$

0.030] and trended in frequency [$F(1, 7.32) = 4.185$, $p = 0.078$] but not amplitude [$F(1, 62) = 0.112$, p

= 0.912] after adolescent thalamocortical inhibition (Fig. 5g-h). These findings were unexpected since

callosally-projecting prelimbic neurons are enriched in layer II/III (Anastasiades et al., 2018) and the non-

selective analysis of layer II/III neurons displayed a decrease in the frequency of excitatory currents and

no increase in inhibition.

Excitation-Inhibition balance is only altered in callosally-projecting mPFC neurons.

Excitation and inhibition are well calibrated in cortical neurons (Okun and Lampl, 2008) and in agreement

with this we found a strong correlation in the frequency of excitatory and inhibitory currents for non-

specific layer II/III cortical cells [R^2=0.524, P<0.001], cortico-accumbens cells [R^2=0.811, P<0.001],

cortico-thalamic [R^2=0.850, P<0.001], and cortico-cortical cells [R^2=0.550, P<0.001]. In many cell

populations, we observed changes in both excitation and inhibition, suggesting homeostatic mechanisms

may compensate for reduced excitatory drive from the thalamus. We therefore calculated the excitation

inhibition-balance in the different analyzed population of neurons. No changes in the excitation-inhibition

balance were measured in layer II/III and V/VI cortico-accumbens-projecting neurons, and cortico-

thalamic neurons (Fig. 6b-e). In contrast, when analyzing the ratio of excitatory to inhibitory currents in

contralaterally-projecting mPFC neurons, the frequency [$F(1, 11.37) = 5.697, p = 0.035$] and spatial

distribution (instantaneous frequency) [$F(1, 9.34) = 5.744, p = 0.039$] of excitatory to inhibitory currents

was significantly weighted towards inhibition (Fig. 6f).

P20-P35 thalamocortical inhibition produces cognitive deficits in adult mice.

We then determined whether thalamocortical inhibition from P20-P35 has similar long-lasting effects on

cognition compared to P20-50 inhibition. J60 was administered from P20-P35 to mice expressing hM4D

or a control fluorophore (GFP) in thalamus-prelimbic cortex-projecting neurons. Behavioral testing was

conducted 55 days later, at P90 (Fig. 7a). After thalamocortical inhibition, at P90, mice performed the

attentional set-shifting task (ASST). For initial acquisition, mice were trained to associate a cinnamon

scent with a reward irrespective of bedding medium. After meeting criterion, an extra-dimensional set

shift (EDSS) occurred, and mice had to associate the paper bedding with a reward irrespective of scent

(Fig. 7d). Adolescent thalamo-prefrontal inhibition did not affect the initial acquisition of the task

[t=0.9647, df=22, p=0.3452] but delayed acquisition of the extra-dimensional set shift compared to

controls [t=2.442, df=22, *p=0.0354] (Figure 7e). Adolescent-inhibited hM4D animals committed more

perseverative errors than control animals [t=2.461, df=22, *p=0.0222] (Figure 7f). Perseverative errors

are when the mouse continues with the same response strategy following a set shift. However, adolescent-

inhibited hM4D animals also committed more random errors than control animals and the deficit was not

due to a specific error type [t=2.786, df=22, *p=0.0108] (Figure 7f). These data indicate that a restricted

critical window (P20-P35) is sufficient to manifest deficits observed with a longer period of inhibition

(P20-P50) (Benoit et al., 2022).

<u>Discussion</u>

To determine thalamocortical activity's importance for prefrontal circuit maturation we inhibited thalamo-

mPFC projections from P20-35 and recorded from prelimbic neurons twenty-four hours later. We made

several observations. First, our findings reveal that excitatory transmission to layer-II/III is already

decreased during adolescence, suggesting the adult excitation loss (Benoit et al., 2022) does not require

maturation to adulthood but arises during adolescence. Second, we measured decreased excitatory and

inhibitory transmission to layer-II/III NAc- and layer-V/VI thalamic-projecting neurons. These inhibitory

changes suggest adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition leads to alterations in prefrontal connectivity

beyond the loss of excitatory thalamic input, previously observed at the anatomical level at P35 (Benoit

et al., 2022). Third, we observed a surprising increase in excitatory and inhibitory transmission to layer-

V/VI NAc-projecting neurons in amplitude but not frequency, suggesting a post-synaptic adaptation.

While the specificity of this effect is unclear, NAc-projecting cells in deep layers have distinct molecular

characteristics from superficial layers, which may differentially impact their response to adolescent-

thalamocortical-inhibition (Bhattacherjee et al., 2019). Fourth, we measured enhanced inhibition in

cortico-cortical connectivity, providing further evidence for a complex adaptation in response to

adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition. Intriguingly, while excitatory and inhibitory (E/I) drive was

altered onto subcortical projection neurons, a change in the E/I balance was only measured in cross-

hemispheric mPFC projections and not in the three subcortical projections analyzed. As functional

stability in neural circuits can be sustained by homeostatic re-balancing of E/I inputs, the largest functional

effect of adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition on prefrontal circuitry may be a decrease in the activity

of callosally-projecting mPFC pyramidal cells. While difficult to predict neuronal activity in-vivo from

slice physiology, enhanced inhibition, and less activation of callosal-projecting neurons during

adolescence might have long-lasting consequences for mPFC function. Finally, we established that this

narrowed window of inhibition (P20-P35) is sufficient to produce cognitive deficits in the adult mouse.

Decreased excitatory and inhibitory transmission in mPFC arises during adolescence.

Previous work demonstrated that adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition (P20-P50) resulted in

cognitive and physiological deficits in the adult mouse, including a loss of excitatory transmission

in non-projection-specific layer-II/III pyramidal cells. Here, we observe deficits are established

during adolescence, prior to being sustained into adulthood. This excitatory dampening onto layer-

II/III neurons could result from the loss of MD innervation to pyramidal cells and/or a loss of local

excitation. The bimodal distribution of the effects in layer-II/III led us to hypothesize that adolescent

thalamocortical-inhibition may be differentially affecting subpopulations of neurons in the

subregion.

Excitatory and inhibitory currents were both decreased in NAc-projecting pyramidal cells following

adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition. These data show that adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition

may have widespread effects on diverse cell populations, including mPFC-NAc projections that are

essential for reward driven motivated behaviors (Kalivas et al., 2005; Mannella et al., 2013;

McGlinchey et al., 2016).

The decrease in inhibitory transmission could be due to a reduction in thalamic projections onto

interneurons (Yang et al., 2021). The MD directly innervates layer-II/III parvalbumin (PV+) and other

interneurons, providing a source of feedforward inhibition to cortical projection neurons (Delevich et al.,

2015; Canetta et al., 2020). Changes in interneuron-driven inhibition in NAc-projecting cells measured in

slice could reflect either reduced excitatory drive onto PV+ cells, or adaptations within PV+ interneurons

following thalamic inhibition. To determine whether adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition also alters

excitatory and inhibitory connections in deeper layers of the mPFC, we next recorded from cortico-

thalamic neurons in layer-V/VI.

We found that adolescent thalamocortical-inhibition resulted in a decrease in the frequency of

excitatory and inhibitory currents in thalamus-projecting cells in layer-V/VI of the mPFC, like the

effects seen in superficial NAc-projecting cells. The MD primarily projects to layer-II/III; however,

slice physiology has demonstrated monosynaptic, direct-reciprocal connection to the deeper layers

(V/VI) of the cortex (Collins et al., 2018). The origins for the excitatory and inhibitory decrease may

therefore be like the ones measured in layer-II/III.

Deeper accumbens-projecting cells show post-synaptic adaptations to MD inhibition.

Surprisingly, we found that following adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition, the amplitude of

excitatory and inhibitory currents increased in layer-V/VI accumbens-projecting neurons, while the

frequency and spatial distribution remained the same. Changes in amplitude are thought to reflect

post-synaptic alterations, this amplitude increase may therefore be a post-synaptic adaptation. It is

unclear; however, for what the increased amplitude would be compensating. Although the thalamus

makes direct connections onto deep layer pyramidal cells (Collins et al., 2018), it is unknown whether

the MD directly innervates deep NAc-projecting cells.

Adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition increases inhibitory inputs to callosally-projecting

neurons.

The frequency of excitatory inputs to callosally-projecting mPFC neurons did not change following

adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition; however, inhibitory inputs were increased. The absence of

excitatory transmission changes in this population is surprising, given they receive strong MD inputs

(Anastasiades et al., 2018). Why excitatory inputs to this population are spared remains unknown,

but it suggests that excitatory inputs from other brain regions may offset the reduction in excitatory

inputs from the thalamus. The increase in inhibitory transmission is also surprising given that

inhibition was decreased in NAc-projecting cells found in the same cortical layer. Moreover, while

changes in E/I, driven by adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition largely scaled in all other

populations, cortico-cortical-projecting cells showed a significant reduction in their sE/IPSC ratio.

Overall, E/I ratio stability following adolescent thalamocortical-inhibition displays homeostatic

regulation in subcortically projecting neurons as inhibition may be an adaptive consequence to the

decrease in excitatory thalamic inputs. However, in cortically projecting neurons, adolescent

thalamocortical-inhibition resulted in an inhibitory increase with no effect on excitation, and a

significant reduction in E/I balance in these cells. Thus, callosally-projecting neurons may not

undergo homeostatic adaptation compared to subcortically-projecting cells. Work in the

somatosensory cortex shows subcortically-projecting neurons in layer-V display faster synaptic

depression and homeostatic rebound compared to cortically-projecting layer-V cells (Greenhill et al.,

2015). If conserved in layer-II/III of the mPFC, this could be a rationale for delayed homeostatic

adaptation in cortically-projecting cortical cells. Therefore, we predict cortically-projecting neurons

might experience the greatest change following adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition, with the net

effect of being less active in vivo. This change may in turn contribute to a loss of cross-hemispheric

cortical communication, hypothesized to be important for cognitive processes (Hasegawa et al.,

1998; Holler-Wallscheid et al., 2017). These effects may depress cortical output to other neural

circuits, having widespread effects on prefrontal network function.

Alternatively, the increase in callosal inhibition following adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition may

have resulted from interneuron-mediated disinhibition via somatostatin (SST+), vasoactive intestinal

polypeptide (VIP+), and PV+ interneurons. Both VIP+ and SST+ interneurons receive MD input and

inhibit other interneurons including PV+ interneurons (Ahrlund-Richter et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2019;

Canetta et al., 2020). Therefore, the overall increase in inhibition could be due to complex disinhibition

between VIP+, SOM+, PV+ and pyramidal cell types. It is unclear why it should be specific only to

callosal, intracortical connectivity but some interneurons target callosal projecting pyramidal cells (Pi et

al., 2013; Cho et al., 2023).

Possible mechanisms of mPFC plasticity induced by adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition.

Recent studies also point to intra-cortical mechanisms mediating maturation of cortical circuitry. Anterior

cingulate (ACC) neurons show greater excitatory synaptic inputs during adolescence than adulthood and

inhibition of ACC to visual cortex projection neurons during adolescence disrupts the maintenance of local

connectivity within the ACC (Nabel et al., 2020). By analogy, if adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition

decreases activity of mPFC-thalamic or accumbens projection neurons during adolescence, this may lead

to a disruption in the maintenance of local excitation in the mPFC. A different mechanism has been

described within the visual cortex. Here, inhibition of layer-II/III neurons during the critical period of

primary visual cortex development (P24-29) led to excitatory synaptic scaling and increased intrinsic

excitability suggesting homeostatic plasticity as a mechanism affecting visual cortex maturation (Wen and

Turrigiano, 2021). Further studies on synaptic scaling could identify the plasticity mechanisms in mPFC

circuitry induced by adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition.

A narrowed window of adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition regulates adult cognition.

Adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition from P20-35 elicited similar deficits in attentional set shifting the

adult mouse at P90 window compared to a broader time window from P20-50 (Benoit et al., 2022). This

narrows the sensitive window, implicating early adolescence as a critical period during which thalamic

input regulates prefrontal cortex development.

<u>Conclusions:</u>

In sum, our data demonstrate adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition results in projection specific

changes in synaptic connectivity in the mPFC that become evident already during adolescence. The

dysregulation of multiple neural circuits demonstrates a widespread effect of adolescent-thalamocortical-

inhibition that impacts more than just thalamocortical circuitry and deficits cannot be explained solely by

a lack of anatomical input. Rather, they generate widespread adaptive and possibly maladaptive

physiological responses within prefrontal circuitry.

<u>Future Directions:</u>

Future studies directly measuring excitatory and inhibitory currents and using optogenetic approaches to

probe functional connectivity in interneurons and pyramidal cells will be able to address how these

complex adaptations arise. Studies exploring how these physiological changes will scale into adulthood

will be of interest. If they do, it is likely adolescent-thalamocortical-inhibition would lead to changes in

prefrontal circuitry that are 'hardwired' into adulthood. Alternatively, changes identified in adolescence

may be transient, setting in motion altered adult prefrontal function. Finally, future research will address

whether disinhibition of callosal-cortical-projecting cells during adolescence following adolescent-

thalamocortical-inhibition will rescue long-term negative effects and determine whether adolescence is

a potential target for therapeutic intervention.

 Figure Legends:

 Figure 1) Adolescent thalamocortical activity regulates excitatory transmission to superficial

 mPFC. **a**, Adolescent experimental timeline, and schematic. Whole-cell patch clamp recordings were

 made from pyramidal cells in layer II/III of the mPFC from hM4D and control mice. These pyramidal

 cells receive excitatory inputs from the thalamus as well as inhibitory inputs from local interneurons;

 created with https://biorender.com. **b**, Example image illustrating hM4D-mCherry expression in the

 mediodorsal thalamus (dotted outline) in adolescent animals. Scale bar represents 300μm. **c**, Example

 image illustrating the recording location in the prelimbic (PrL) subregion (orange dotted outline) of

 the medial prefrontal cortex. All recordings for this experiment were conducted in this region

 approximately 200-350μm from the pial surface (L II/III) denoted by the orange dotted line.

 Recording pipette outlined in white. Scale bar represents 500μm **d**, Representative traces showing

 sEPSCs of hM4D animals and mCherry controls. **e**, Representative traces showing sIPSCs of hM4D

 animals and mCherry controls. **f**, sEPSC frequency (right) and median instantaneous frequency

 (middle) is significantly reduced following adolescent thalamic inhibition relative to control mice,

 but sEPSC amplitude (left) is unchanged; mCherry control, $n = 26$ cells and 6 animals; hM4D, $n = 14$

 cells and 5 animals; hM4D+Saline $n=9$ cells and 2 animals; frequency: mCherry control

 4.617(3.050) Hz, hM4D 2.833(3.858) Hz, and hM4D+Saline 5.733(2.700) Hz, contrasts of estimated

 marginal means revealed a significant difference between hM4D animals and both mCherry, $z = -$

 3.311.129, d.f. $= \infty$ *$P_{bonferroni} = 0.003$, and hM4D+Saline, $z = 3.035$, d.f. $= \infty$ *$P_{bonferroni} = 0.007$ but

 no significant difference between mCherry and hM4D+Saline, $z = 0.501$, d.f. $= \infty$ *$P_{bonferroni} = 1.000$;

 median instantaneous frequency: mCherry control 7.892(5.340) Hz, hM4D 5.126(4.882) Hz,

 hM4D+Saline 10.005(4.989) Hz; contrasts of estimated marginal means revealed a significant

 difference between hM4D animals and both mCherry, $z = -3.032$, d.f. $= \infty$ *$P_{bonferroni} = 0.007$, and

hM4D+Saline, $z = 3.348$, d.f. $= \infty$ *$P_{bonferroni} = 0.002$ but no significant difference between mCherry

and hM4D+Saline, $z = 1.097$, d.f. $= \infty$ *$P_{bonferroni} = 0.818$; amplitude: mCherry control

18.785(5.250) pA, hM4D 20.916(4.882) pA, and hM4D+Saline 28.786(5.782) pA. All reported

values are Median(Interquartile Range). **g**, Graph of the cumulative firing distribution for sEPSCs in

L 2/3 pyramidal cells in the mPFC, IEI represents the interevent-interval between spontaneous

events. **h**, sIPSC frequency (right) may trend downwards but median instantaneous frequency

(middle) and amplitude (left) are unchanged following adolescent thalamic inhibition relative to

control mice; mCherry control, $n = 26$ cells and 6 animals; hM4D, $n = 14$ cells and 5 animals;

frequency: mCherry control 2.500(3.267) Hz, hM4D 1.000(0.550) Hz and hM4D+Saline

2.717(1.833); median instantaneous frequency: mCherry control 3.826(5.039) Hz, hM4D

1.989(1.256) Hz, and hM4D+Saline 4.014(2.366; amplitude: mCherry control 14.264(5.638) pA,

hM4D 14.3(6.075) pA, and hM4D+Saline 18.849(6.737). All reported values are

Median(Interquartile Range). **i**, Graph of the cumulative firing distribution for sIPSCs in L 2/3

pyramidal cells in the mPFC, *P<0.05, #P~0.10.

Figure 2) Adolescent thalamocortical activity regulates excitatory and inhibitory transmission

to superficial layer II/III cortico-accumbens projections. a, Adolescent experimental timeline and

schematic. Whole-cell patch clamp recordings were made from accumbens-projecting pyramidal

cells in layer II/III of the mPFC from hM4D and control mice; Created with https://biorender.com. **b**,

Example image illustrating rgGFP positive, accumbens-projecting cells in the prelimbic subregion

of the medial prefrontal cortex, orange dotted outline represents layer II/III. Scale bar represents

500μm. **c**, Representative traces showing sEPSCs of hM4D animals and mCherry controls. **d**,

Representative traces showing sIPSCs of hM4D animals and mCherry controls**. e**, sEPSC frequency

(right) is significantly reduced in accumbens-projecting cortical cells following adolescent thalamic

inhibition relative to control mice, but sEPSC amplitude (left) and median instantaneous frequency

(middle) are unchanged; mCherry control, $n = 21$ cells and 5 animals; hM4D, $n = 28$ cells and 6

animals; frequency: mCherry control 5.367(2.717) Hz, hM4D 2.975(1.871) Hz.; median

instantaneous frequency: mCherry control 8.514(4.842) Hz and hM4D 5.579(4.803) Hz; amplitude:

mCherry control 21.051(7.992) pA and hM4D 23.648(12.495) pA. All reported values are

Median(Interquartile Range). **f**, Graph of the cumulative firing distribution for sEPSCs in L II/III

accumbens-projecting pyramidal cells in the mPFC, IEI represents the interevent-interval between

spontaneous events. **g**, sIPSC frequency (right) is significantly reduced in accumbens-projecting

cortical cells following adolescent thalamic inhibition relative to control mice, but sIPSC amplitude

(left) and median instantaneous frequency (middle) are unchanged; mCherry control, $n = 21$ cells and

5 animals; hM4D, $n = 28$ cells and 6 animals; frequency: mCherry control 3.350(2.350) Hz, hM4D

1.417(1.762) Hz; median instantaneous frequency: mCherry control 5.195(4.817) Hz and hM4D

2.776(2.753) Hz; amplitude: mCherry control 14.618(3.768) pA and hM4D 17.597(7.919) pA. All

reported values are Median(Interquartile Range). **h**, Graph of the cumulative firing distribution for

sIPSCs in L II/III accumbens-projecting pyramidal cells in the mPFC. *$P<0.05$.

Figure 3) Adolescent thalamocortical activity regulates excitatory and inhibitory transmission

to cortico-thalamic projections. a, Adolescent experimental timeline, and schematic. Whole-cell

patch clamp recordings were made from cortical-projecting pyramidal cells in layer V/VI of the

mPFC from hM4D and control mice. These pyramidal cells receive excitatory inputs from the

thalamus and superficial layers of the cortex as well as inhibitory inputs from local interneurons;

created with https://biorender.com. **b**, Example image illustrating rgGFP positive cells in the

prelimbic subregion of the medial prefrontal cortex. All recordings for this experiment were

conducted in this region approximately 500-600μm from the pial surface L V/VI (yellow outline).

Scale bar represents 300μm **c**, Representative traces showing sEPSCs of hM4D animals and mCherry

controls. **d**, Representative traces showing sIPSCs of hM4D animals and mCherry controls**. e**, sEPSC

frequency (right) and median instantaneous frequency (middle) is significantly reduced in thalamic-

projecting cortical cells following adolescent thalamic inhibition relative to control mice, but sEPSC

amplitude (left) is unchanged; mCherry control, $n = 19$ cells and 4 animals; hM4D, $n = 26$ cells and

5 animals; frequency: mCherry control 6.717(4.392) Hz and hM4D 2.833(1.408) Hz; median

instantaneous frequency: mCherry control 11.173(7.187) Hz and hM4D 4.204(1.997) Hz; amplitude:

mCherry control 21.764(9.897) pA and hM4D 24.043(13.508) pA. All reported values are

Median(Interquartile Range). **f**, Graph of the cumulative firing distribution for sEPSCs in L V/VI

thalamic-projecting pyramidal cells in the mPFC, IEI represents the interevent-interval between

spontaneous events. **g**, sIPSC frequency (right) and median instantaneous frequency (middle) is

significantly reduced in thalamic-projecting cortical cells following adolescent thalamic inhibition

relative to control mice, but sIPSC amplitude (left) is unchanged; mCherry control, $n = 19$ cells and

4 animals; hM4D, $n = 26$ cells and 5 animals; frequency: mCherry control 4.917(1.825) Hz and

hM4D 2.100(1.350) Hz; median instantaneous frequency: mCherry control 7.896(4.100) Hz and

hM4D 2.755(2.081) Hz; amplitude: mCherry control 19.267(7.264) pA and hM4D 15.720(7.127) pA.

All reported values are Median(Interquartile Range). **h**, Graph of the cumulative firing distribution

for sIPSCs in L V/VI thalamic-projecting pyramidal cells in the mPFC. *$P<0.05$.

Figure 4) Adolescent thalamocortical activity results in enhanced amplitude in deeper (V/VI) accumbens-projecting cortical cells. a, Adolescent experimental timeline and schematic. Whole-cell patch clamp recordings were made from accumbens-projecting pyramidal cells in layer V/VI of the mPFC from hM4D and control mice; Created with https://biorender.com. **b**, Example image illustrating rgGFP positive, accumbens-projecting cells in the prelimbic subregion of the medial prefrontal cortex, Layer V/VI (yellow outline). Scale bar represents 500µm. **c**, Representative traces showing sEPSCs of hM4D animals and mCherry controls. **d**, Representative traces showing sIPSCs of hM4D animals and mCherry controls. **e**, sEPSC amplitude (left) is significantly increased in accumbens-projecting cortical cells following adolescent thalamic inhibition relative to control mice, but sEPSC frequency (right) and median instantaneous frequency (middle) are unchanged; mCherry control, $n = 22$ cells and 5 animals; hM4D, $n = 9$ cells and 4 animals; frequency: mCherry control 4.450(2.012) Hz, hM4D 3.167(4.217) Hz.; median instantaneous frequency: mCherry control 7.371(4.043) Hz and hM4D 5.290(12.190) Hz; amplitude: mCherry control 20.460(11.638) pA and hM4D 29.858(5.869). All reported values are Median(Interquartile Range). **f**, Graph of the cumulative firing distribution for sEPSCs in L II/III accumbens-projecting pyramidal cells in the mPFC, IEI represents the interevent-interval between spontaneous events. **g**, sIPSC frequency (right) is significantly reduced in accumbens-projecting cortical cells following adolescent thalamic inhibition relative to control mice, but sIPSC amplitude (left) and median instantaneous frequency (middle) are unchanged; mCherry control, $n = 21$ cells and 5 animals; hM4D, $n = 28$ cells and 6 animals; frequency: mCherry control 1.883(1.817) Hz, hM4D 2.50(2.350) Hz; median instantaneous frequency: mCherry control 2.997(2.405) Hz and hM4D 4.005(4.349) Hz; amplitude: mCherry control 13.362(2.306) pA and hM4D 17.495(3.331). All reported values are Median(Interquartile

Range). **h**, Graph of the cumulative firing distribution for sIPSCs in L V/VI accumbens-projecting

pyramidal cells in the mPFC. *P<0.05.

Figure 5) Adolescent thalamocortical activity regulates cross-hemispheric inhibition. a,

Adolescent experimental timeline and schematic. Whole-cell patch clamp recordings were made

from cortical-projecting pyramidal cells in layer II/III of the mPFC from hM4D and control mice;

Created with https://biorender.com. **b**, Example image illustrating rgGFP positive, cortical-

projecting cells in the prelimbic subregion of the medial prefrontal cortex (orange outline). Virus was

injected into the dextral (right) hemisphere and cells were recorded only in the sinistral (left)

hemisphere. Scale bar represents 500µm. **c**, Representative traces showing sEPSCs of hM4D animals

and mCherry controls. **d**, Representative traces showing sIPSCs of hM4D animals and mCherry

controls**. e**, sEPSC frequency (right), sEPSC amplitude (left) and sEPSC median instantaneous

frequency are unchanged in cortical-projecting cortical cells following adolescent thalamic inhibition

relative to control mice; mCherry control, $n = 38$ cells and 5 animals; hM4D, $n = 26$ cells and 5

animals; frequency: mCherry control 3.042(1.713) Hz and hM4D 2.95(2.933) Hz; median

instantaneous frequency: mCherry control 4.807(3.944) Hz and hM4D 5.042(5.890) Hz; amplitude:

mCherry control 17.876(7.549) pA and hM4D 23.951(8.397) pA. All reported values are

Median(Interquartile Range). **f**, Graph of the cumulative firing distribution for sEPSCs in cortical-

projecting pyramidal cells in the mPFC, IEI represents the interevent-interval between spontaneous

events. **g**, sIPSC median instantaneous frequency (middle) is significantly increased and frequency

(right) is trending towards an increase in cortical-projecting cortical cells following adolescent

thalamic inhibition relative to control mice, while amplitude (left) is unchanged; mCherry

control, $n = 38$ cells and 5 animals; hM4D, $n = 26$ cells and 5 animals; frequency: mCherry control

1.233(0.954) Hz and hM4D 2.208(1.887) Hz; median instantaneous frequency: mCherry control

1.937(1.676) Hz and hM4D 5.551(2.498); amplitude: mCherry control 15.735(5.268) pA and hM4D

15.099(5.667) pA. All reported values are Median(Interquartile Range). **h**, Graph of the cumulative

firing distribution for sIPSCs in cortical-projecting pyramidal cells in the mPFC. *$P < 0.05$, #$P < 0.10$.

Figure 6) Adolescent thalamocortical inhibition disrupts E/I Ratio in cortical-

projecting cortical cells. a, Excitatory/Inhibitory ratio in nonspecific layer II/III cells for amplitude

(left), median instantaneous frequency (middle), and frequency (right). There was no significant difference

in E/I ratio between mCherry 1.188(0.400) pA/pA, hM4D 1.432(0.704) pA/pA or hM4D+Saline

2.005(1.247) pA/pA for amplitude [$f = 2.567$, d.f. $= 2$, 11.07 $P = 0.121$]. There was no significant

difference in E/I ratio between mCherry 2.131(2.020) Hz/Hz, hM4D 1.736(2.409) Hz/Hz or hM4D+Saline

2.183(1.306) Hz/Hz for median instantaneous frequency [$f = 0.713$, d.f. $= 2$, 11.65 $P = 0.511$]. There was

no significant difference in E/I ratio between mCherry 2.265(4.677) Hz/Hz, hM4D 2.186(3.134) Hz/Hz or

hM4D+Saline 2.490(1.325) Hz/Hz for median instantaneous frequency [$f = 1.209$, d.f. $= 2$, 43 $P = 0.308$].

b, Excitatory/Inhibitory ratio in layer II/III accumbens-projecting cortical cells for amplitude (left),

median instantaneous frequency (middle), and frequency (right). There was no significant difference in

E/I ratio between mCherry 1.316(0.587) pA/pA or hM4D 1.524(0.505) pA/pA for amplitude [$f = 0.543$,

d.f. $= 1$, 6.59 $P = 0.487$]. There was no significant difference in E/I ratio between mCherry

1.686(1.368) Hz/Hz and hM4D 1.999(1.715) Hz/Hz for median instantaneous frequency [$f = 0.836$,

d.f. $= 1$, 7.91 $P = 0.388$]. There was no significant difference in E/I ratio between mCherry

1.663(0.963) Hz/Hz and hM4D 1.865(1.406) Hz/Hz for frequency [$f = 0.750$, d.f. $= 1$, 8.10 $P = 0.411$]. **c,**

Excitatory/Inhibitory ratio in layer V/VI thalamic-projecting cortical cells for amplitude (left), median

instantaneous frequency (middle), and frequency (right). There was no significant difference in E/I ratio

between mCherry 1.195(0.500) pA/pA or hM4D 1.376(0.858) pA/pA for amplitude [f = 3.625, d.f. = 1, 42

P = 0.064]. There was no significant difference in E/I ratio between mCherry 1.414(0.485) Hz/Hz and

hM4D 1.660(1.143) Hz/Hz for median instantaneous frequency [f = 0.975, d.f. = 1, 5.21 P = 0.367]. There

was no significant difference in E/I ratio between mCherry 1.414(0.485) Hz/Hz and hM4D

1.503(1.136) Hz/Hz for frequency [f = 1.115, d.f. = 1, 5.31 P = 0.337]. **d,** Excitatory/Inhibitory ratio in

layer V/VI accumbens-projecting cortical cells for amplitude (left), median instantaneous frequency

(middle), and frequency (right). There was no significant difference in E/I ratio between mCherry

1.467(0.624) pA/pA or hM4D 1.730(0.618) pA/pA for amplitude [f = 2.220, d.f. = 1, 28 P = 0.147]. There

was no significant difference in E/I ratio between mCherry 2.060(1.840) Hz/Hz and hM4D

2.432(1.435) Hz/Hz for median instantaneous frequency [f = 0.412, d.f. = 1, 12.33 P = 0.533]. There was

no significant difference in E/I ratio between mCherry 1.829(1.623) Hz/Hz and hM4D

2.658(1.765) Hz/Hz for frequency [f = 0.014, d.f. = 1, 12.10 P = 0.908]. **e,** Excitatory/Inhibitory ratio in

cortical-projecting cortical cells for amplitude (left), median instantaneous frequency (middle), and

frequency (right). There was no significant difference in E/I ratio between mCherry 1.209(0.359) pA/pA

or hM4D 1.473(0.403) pA/pA for amplitude [f = 1.099, d.f. = 1, 59 P = 0.299]. There was a significant

decrease in E/I ratio between mCherry 2.513(1.915) Hz/Hz and hM4D 1.517(1.670) Hz/Hz for median

instantaneous frequency. There was also a significant decrease in E/I ratio between mCherry

2.594(1.607) Hz/Hz and hM4D 1.564(1.544) Hz/Hz for frequency. All reported values are

Median(Interquartile Range). *P<0.05.

Figure 7) P20-P35 thalamocortical inhibition produces cognitive deficits in adult mice. a, Adolescent experimental timeline, and schematic. J60 was administered from P20-P35 to mice expressing hM4D or a control fluorophore (GFP) in the thalamus. Behavioral testing was conducted 55 days later, at P90. Created with https://biorender.com **b,** Representative image of hM4D expression in the MD of adult mice. Scale bar represents 300μm. **c,** Representative viral spread of hM4D receptor in mice that underwent the ASST task. **d,** Schematic of the attentional set-shifting task (ASST). Mice were trained to associate a cinnamon scent with a reward irrespective of bedding medium (IA). After meeting criterion, an extra-dimensional set shift occurred (EDSS) and mice had to associate the paper bedding with a reward irrespective of scent. Red is representative of the rewarded stimulus. **e,** Adolescent-inhibited hM4D animals are no different than controls in the initial acquisition (IA) of the ASST (left, Control: n=11 animals, 14.27± 2.276 trials, hM4D: n=13 animals, hM4D: 12.08±2.276 trials; two-sided unpaired t-test, t=0.9647, df=22, p=0.3452) but take significantly more trials in the extra-dimensional set shift (EDSS) than controls (right, Control: n=11 animals, 10.73±1.871 trials, hM4D: n=13 animals, hM4D: 14.92±1.871 trials; unpaired t-test, t=2.442, df=22, *p=0.0354). **f,** Adolescent-inhibited hM4D animals committed more perseverative errors (P. Err.) than control animals (left, Control: n=11 animals, 1.091±0.7759 trials, hM4D: n=13 animals, hM4D: 3.000±0.7759 trials; unpaired t-test, t=2.461, df=22, *p=0.0222). Perseverative errors are when the mouse continues with the same response strategy following a rule switch. Adolescent-inhibited hM4D animals committed more random errors (P. Err.) than control animals (right, Control: n=11 animals, 1.182±0.9010 trials, hM4D: n=13 animals, hM4D: 3.692±0.9010 trials; unpaired t-test, t=2.786, df=22, *p=0.0108) non-perseverative errors are generally considered to be random.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7