Delayed developmental maturation of frontal cortical circuits impacts decision-making

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Abstract

In humans, frontal cortical circuits mature in parallel with the development of higher cognitive functions over the course of 15-20 years. In mice, behavior and brain structure change rapidly until reaching sexual maturity (~8 weeks of age). In contrast, the degree to which frontal cortices and the behaviors they support continue to develop in mice after this period is unclear. Here, we uncover age-related changes in the acquisition and execution of a probabilistic reward reinforcement task. Both young and old mice complete a similar number of trials per session, but 16-30-week-old mice obtain higher reward rates than younger mice. The older mice adjust their behavior more readily after failing to receive a reward, suggesting that age-dependent changes to circuits relevant to forming action-outcome associations, such as those in frontal associative cortices (FACs). Indeed, we identified cell-type and input-specific refinements of FAC circuits over the first 24 weeks of age, including protracted reductions in excitatory drive and increases in inhibition onto pyramidal cells. Dampening inhibitory activity in FAC alters behavior in a manner that counteracts the age-related differences. Together, these reveal an extended period of synaptic maturation in FAC that directly impacts age-related changes in decision-making.

Introduction

In humans, frontal cortical circuit maturation is a lengthy process that extends into the 2nd and 3rd decade of life and parallels the development of higher cognitive functions, such as goal-directed decision-making[1-4]. Structural changes over this time include synapse formation (birth to 10-12 years old) followed by synaptic pruning and maturation (12 to 20-25 years) and increases in myelination [5-8]. Functional imaging and physiological recordings reveal protracted changes in frontal cortical circuit connectivity and the oscillations they express that correlated with changes in behavior [9-13]. Over the same period, cognitive maturation is reflected in increased executive function and abstract reasoning and reduced impulsivity, which impact goal-directed decision-making [2, 14-18]. Moreover, perturbations of frontal cortical structure are implicated in cognitive deficits found in psychiatric and degenerative diseases [19-25].

In mice, age-dependent maturation of the circuitry of frontal association cortices (FAC) has been described up to ~8 weeks of life. Structural changes during this time include increased synapse density onto pyramidal neurons and input-specific refinement of synapses onto GABAergic interneurons [26-28]. Consistent with data from humans, lesions to mouse FAC and developmental manipulation of its inputs or local circuitry perturb cognition, including goal-directed decision-making [29-32].

Although the degree of homology of mouse and human FAC is contentious, in both species these areas are innervated by the mediodorsal thalamus (MD) [33, 34]. MD inputs are developmentally regulated, contribute to higher cognitive functions and, in mice, their manipulation affects decision-making [30, 35, 36]. Therefore, refinement of MD input may contribute to protracted development of mouse FAC and associated behavioral changes. Similarly, protracted age-dependent changes in the local GABAergic circuits, whose maturation in sensory cortical areas is thought to underlie the opening and closing of critical periods [37], may contribute to post-adolescent circuit and behavioral refinement. In sensory critical periods, fast-spiking interneurons (FSIs) constrain the developmental period (both onset and offset) and display age-dependent cellular, molecular and functional changes [38-40]. Within frontal cortical circuits, early postnatal increases in inhibition onto pyramidal neurons have been observed and developmental manipulations of FSI activity can either disrupt cognition or is a target for potential therapeutic intervention in mouse model of human disease [26, 32, 41].

Here, we examine the continued development of mouse FAC and behavior in FAC-dependent

tasks beyond the age of sexual maturity. We find differences in the acquisition and execution of

a FAC-dependent 2-armed bandit task (2ABT) in which thirsty mice must integrate information

across trials to optimally achieve water rewards. In parallel, we find changes in both FAC

microcircuitry and long-range excitatory inputs after the onset of sexual maturation. Utilizing

whole-cell electrophysiology and optogenetics in acute brain slices, we revealed that thalamic,

transhemispheric cortical, and local intracortical circuits continue to change after sexual maturity

in FAC. At sexual maturation, the relative proportions of inhibition and excitation shift towards

a greater influence of inhibitory tone. Furthermore, adult level performance in the 2ABT is

sensitive to the degree of inhibition in FAC, such that chemogenetic manipulation of FAC FSIs

alters how mice use past experience to select future actions. Together, these data reveal a

protracted period of synaptic and behavioral changes associated with the maturation of frontal

cortical circuits.

Results

To determine if FAC-dependent mouse behaviors change after sexual maturity, thirsty mice of a

variety of ages were trained in a 2-armed bandit task (2-ABT) that requires them to learn to nose

poke (i.e. place their snout) into a variety of ports for potential water rewards. Mice must learn

that one port delivers rewards at high probability and the other at low probability. The identity of

the highly rewarded port is held constant during "blocks" but switches in a uncued manner after

a predetermined number of rewards or trials (**Figure 1a**). Optimizing water acquisition on this

task requires the agent to infer the identity of the highly reward port based on reward history and

choose this port until the contingencies change. Therefore, at the start of a new block mice must

detect that the identity of the highly reward port has changed and adjust their behavior to

maximize water acquisition.

To learn the 2-ABT, mice progress through a curriculum of 6 learning stages that range from

easy to the full task**.** Mice progress from one learning stage to the next after they can acquire a

preset number of rewards at that stage difficulty within one session **(Supplementary Table 1)**.

Task acquisition is age dependent such that young mice (6-12 weeks old) move through the

stages more quickly and learn the full task faster than do older mice (16-30 weeks old) **(Figure**

1b).

After acquiring the full task, mice progressed to the evaluation phase in which the probabilities

of receiving rewards are 80% on the highly rewarded port ($p_{(high-port)} = 0.8$) and 20% on the lowly

rewarded port ($p_{(low-port)} = 1 - p_{(high-port)} = 0.2$). Under these uncertain conditions, mice experience

both rewarded and unrewarded outcomes at each port throughout each block (**Figure 1c**) and

must integrate information across trials to determine the highly rewarded port. During the final

five sessions of the evaluation phase, both groups complete the same number of trials and

acquire a greater number of rewarded than unrewarded trials but the younger mice complete both

rewarded and unrewarded trials significantly faster (**Figure 1d**).

To assess the history dependence of behavior in the task, we examined the probability

that the animal selects the highly rewarded port in trials centered around the block boundaries.

Towards the end of one block, the behavior of mice in both age groups stabilize such that they

select highly rewarded port in ~2/3 of trials; however, the frequency of selected the highly

rewarded port is higher for mice in the older group (**Figure 1e**). As described previously[42],

mice exhibit such stochastic port choice, occasionally sampling the lowly rewarded port well into

the block, even if the highest reward rate is theoretically achieved by consistently selected the

port that is inferred to be highly rewarded. At the uncued block transition, the identity of the

highly reward port changes and the probability of selecting it drops for both groups before

gradually increasing back to the steady state level (**Figure 1e**). Although mice tend to select the

same port on consecutive trials, they do occasionally switch port selections from trial-to-trial.

Older mice display greater probability of port switching than younger mice both at steady state

and following block transitions (**Figure 1f**). In particular, older mice are more likely to switch

ports after failing to receive a reward than are younger mice (i.e., they have a higher lose-switch

rate, **Figure 1f).** Together, these data reveal that decision-making processes change during post-

adolescent maturation, suggesting that concomitant changes may occur in FAC circuitry.

To determine the developmental profile of FAC during, we examined its circuitry and

synaptic properties at different ages, binning data into 4 groups depending on mouse age (2-5, 6-

9, 10-15, and 16-30 weeks). We performed whole-cell voltage-clamp recordings from Layer 2/3

(l2/3) pyramidal neurons in the prelimbic (PL) region of the FAC in acute brain slices. An

extracellular stimulating electrode was placed 500 µm from pia and the stimulation intensity was

adjusted to establish a threshold stimulus that generated a 25-250 pA excitatory response in the

voltage-clamped neuron (**Figure 2a-b**). For each cell, synaptic currents were recorded at holding

potentials of -70 and 0 mV to isolate excitatory (EPSCs) and inhibitory (IPSCs) postsynaptic

currents, respectively, elicited by a range of stimulus strengths relative to the minimal threshold

stimulus strength (**Supplementary Figure 2a-d**). Series resistance and membrane capacitance

were similar across groups, but membrane resistance is significantly higher at 10-15 and 16-30

weeks relative to other ages (**Supplementary Figure 1e**), suggesting changes in cell size and

passive properties across ages.

To compare synaptic properties across the four age groups, we normalized the amplitude

of evoked responses to that of the average threshold response per group which, despite our best

efforts, varied across the groups (**Supplementary Figure 1a-b**). Comparing the amplitude of

current at 1.5 the threshold stimulus strength (1.5x) revealed that this recruited the greatest

amount of excitatory drive at 6-9 weeks followed by 10-15 weeks as compared to all other

groups (**Figure 2d-e**). The amplitude of inhibitory synaptic currents evoked at this same stimulus

strength increased at 6-9 weeks and 10-15 weeks as compared to 2-5 weeks before decreasing

again at 16-30 weeks. These age-dependent changes in IPSC amplitudes were consistent across

the full range of stimulus strengths (**Supplementary Figure 1c-d**). Together, these data reveal

age-dependent reorganization of the frontal cortical circuits but what features of the circuit

underlie these changes remain unclear.

To determine whether changes in excitatory connectivity are due to pre-synaptic and/or

postsynaptic modifications, we measured the frequency and amplitude of spontaneous miniature

excitatory postsynaptic currents (mEPSCs) measured in the presence of TTX (**Figure 2f**).

Consistent with anatomical and electrophysiological evidence for increasing spine and synapse

density of l2/3 pyramidal neurons over the first 5 weeks of life [26], the frequency of mEPSCs

increases from postnatal 2-5 to 6-9 weeks (**Figure 2g**). However, following this peak, mEPSC

frequency decreases at 10-15 and 16-30 weeks (**Figure 2g**). In contrast, mEPSC amplitude

increases until, and is maintained after, 6-9 weeks (**Figure 2g**). The amplitude of mEPSCs

typically reflects post-synaptic properties such as the number of AMPA-type glutamate receptor

(AMPAR) per synapse, whereas changes in mEPSC frequency suggest alterations in the number

functional AMPAR-containing synapses due to either increases in synapse number, probability

of neurotransmitter release, or the fraction of synapses that contain AMPARs (i.e., that are not
silent) [43].

Mediodorsal thalamus (MD) and contralateral projecting-FAC (referred to as c-FAC)
send dense axonal projections that synapse onto l2/3 neurons within FAC [44]. Disturbances to
MD activity through lesions or prolonged inhibition perturb both physiology and behavior [30,
36]. MD innervates FAC early in development and the number of FAC-projecting thalamic
neurons decreases over early development in both humans and rodents [45, 46]. Therefore, we
hypothesized that changes to MD inputs may contribute to the decreases in the frequency of
mEPSCs and amplitude of electrically-evoked responses. To study MD inputs in isolation, we
stereotaxically delivered an adeno-associated virus (AAV) encoding channelrhodopsin (ChR2)
into MD and, 7-10 days later, prepared acute slices of FAC to examine optogenetically-evoked
EPSCs and disynaptic (i.e., feedforward) IPSCs in l2/3 pyramidal neurons (**Figure 3a,**
Supplementary Figure 2a). We focused on analysis of mice before (6-9 weeks) the observed
reduction in mEPSC frequency or after the reduction had stabilized (16-30 weeks). With the
highest laser power, MD-evoked EPSCs are significantly larger at 6-9 than at 16-30 weeks,
whereas IPSCs are unchanged (**Figure 3b-c**). These data suggest an overall decrease in the MD
projection strength into the l2/3 pyramidal neurons with aging.

c-FAC sends dense projections to Layer 3 intratelenchepalic (IT) neurons, but the
changes in these projections across development have not been explored. Following injections of
AAV driving expression of ChR2 in c-FAC, we recorded optogenetically-evoked synaptic
currents in l2/3 pyramidal neurons in the contralateral hemisphere (**Figure 3d, Supplementary**
Figure 2b). Optogenetic stimulation of inputs from c-FAC revealed a decrease in amplitude of
EPSCs across laser powers whereas inhibition was reduced at only one intensity from 6-9 to 16-
30 weeks (**Figure 3e-f**).

To investigate whether there synaptic changes are accompanied by age-related changes in
intrinsic properties, we obtained whole-cell current clamp recordings from l2/3 pyramidal
neurons and examined responses to hyper- and de-polarizing current steps (**Figure 4a-b**). In
response to hyperpolarizing currents, neurons from 10-15 weeks old mice had larger voltage
changes compared to both 6-9 weeks and 16-30 weeks **(Figure 4b, left)**. We next examined the
action potential characteristics at rheobase. The half-width was reduced in both 10-15 weeks and

16-30 weeks compared to 6-9 weeks (**Figure 4c**). Similarly, the afterhyperpolarization (AHP)

voltage was more hyperpolarized in 10-15 weeks as compared to the 6-9 weeks and 16-30 weeks

(**Figure 4b**). Consistent with this, the maximal firing was slightly increased in this age range

relative to both 6-9 and 16-30 weeks timepoints (**Figure 4c**). Overall, intrinsic properties of l2/3

pyramidal neurons are relatively similar across ages.

Fast-spiking interneurons (FSIs), which often express parvalbumin (PV) and

cholecystokinin (CCK), typically mediate the fast feedforward inhibition (FFI) in cortex,

including that driven by MD inputs [40, 41]. We used either a transgenic mouse (PV-cre) or an

adeno-associated virus engineered to express transgenes in PV neurons (E2 enhancer) to express

genetically-encoded fluorophores in FSIs for targeted whole-cell recordings. We used the

electrical stimulation protocol described above for analysis of EPSCs and IPSCs in l2/3

pyramidal neurons to uncover age-dependent changes in synapses formed onto FSIs (**Figure 5a**).

We found significant decreases in the excitatory and inhibitory drive onto superficial, putative

FSIs (**Figure 5b, Supplementary Figure 3a-d**) at 16-30 relative to 6-9 weeks. To delineate

pathway-specific changes onto FSIs, we again utilized optogenetic-assisted mapping of both MD

and c-FAC inputs. MD-evoked excitatory and inhibitory drive was significantly reduced at 16-30

compared to 6-9 weeks (**Figure 5c-d**). In contrast, the c-FAC evoked excitatory and inhibitory

drive were unchanged (**Figure 5e-f**). Comparing these results with the concurrently collected

data in l2/3 pyramidal neurons shows cell-type and pathway-specific changes over aging

(**Supplementary Figure 4**). MD inputs switch from more strongly innervating FSIs to equally

targeting FSIs and l2/3 pyramids whereas c-FAC preferentially targets FSIs at both timepoints.

To compare changes in excitation and inhibition across cell types, age and experimental

paradigm, we calculated an excitation index by dividing the amplitude of the EPSC by the sum

of the amplitudes of the EPSC and IPSC (referred to as R). For optogenetically-triggered

synaptic currents, the profile of R over age was input- and cell-type dependent: it was stable for

MD-evoked synaptic currents across ages whereas it increased with age for c-FAC-evoked

activity in FSIs and not l2/3 pyramidal cells (**Supplementary Figure 4b, d**). For electrically-

evoked synaptic currents onto l2/3 pyramidal neurons, IPSCs and EPSCs have similar amplitude

at 2-5 weeks, resulting in $R\sim0.5$. However, the excitation index decreases at 6-9 weeks before

increasing again in the two subsequent time periods (**Supplementary Figure 4e**). For FSIs, the

excitation index was ~0.5 at 6-9 weeks before first increasing at 10-15 weeks and subsequently

decreasing at 16-30 weeks **(Supplementary Figure 4e)**. Together, these data reveal cell-type

and input-specific changes in synaptic strength and in the relative contributions of excitation and

inhibition across age.

To investigate the contribution of FSI-mediated FFI to these synaptic changes, we

crossed the PV-*cre* mouse line with the a Cre-conditional ChR2 line (Ai32) to drive expression

of ChR2 in all PV cells and measured the evoked inhibitory current onto l2/3 pyramidal neurons

(Figure 5g). The light-evoked IPSC amplitude increased from 2-5 weeks to 6-9 and 10-15 weeks

before increasing greatly by 16-30 weeks **(Figure 5h)**. Thus, utilizing a transgenic approach for

ChR2 expression, reveals that local inhibitory drive from PV+ interneurons (putative FSIs)

undergoes a delayed period of maturation.

Our results demonstrate that FAC circuitry undergoes delayed development maturation,

including changes in long-range excitation and local inhibition that, with increasing age, result in

greater FSI-mediated inhibition onto l2/3 pyramidal neurons. As these circuit alterations occur

concurrently with changes in behavior, we examined if manipulation of inhibition in FAC

activity alters behavior in the 2ABT. We used an AAV driving the expression of an inhibitory

DREADDs receptor (hM4Di) under the enhancer element (E2) to chemogenetically target

putative FSIs (**Figure 6a**). Control mice were handled in the same way with the exception that an

E2-AAV expressing a reporter fluorophore was injected. We trained both control and hM4Di

expressing adult mice (16-30 weeks) without injection of DREADDs ligand until they completed

15 sessions and achieved expert performance (**Figure 6a**). We subsequently administered the

DREADDs receptor antagonist, deschloroclozapine (DCZ, 3 µg/kg) 30 minutes prior to each

behavioral session to both sets of mice. DCZ administration perturbed the strategy in the 2-ABT

in mice expressing the hM4Di construct, such that they increased their lose-switch rate. This

effect was seen by comparing the first two sessions with DCZ administration to the last two

without the drug and was specific to hM4Di expressing mice (**Figure 6b**). Thus, acute

manipulation of FSIs in FAC alters performance in the 2ABT, consistent with the involvement of

activity of these cells in this task. In order to examine the effects of prolonged changes in FSI

mediated inhibition on task performance, as occurs with developmental regulation of feed-

forward inhibition in FAC, we continue DCZ administration for an additional 8 days. In this

chronically manipulated state, hMD4i-expressing mice selected the highly rewarded port less

frequently than control mice (**Figure 6c**), recapitulating the behavioral phenotype observed in

young mice (**Figure 1d**).

Discussion

We find that the mouse frontal cortical circuits undergo a protracted period of maturation

characterized by changes in excitatory and inhibitory inputs onto l2/3 pyramidal neurons and

FSIs. These changes reflect pathway-specific refinements of thalamic and intracortical

innervation of these two cells types, as well as changes in local inhibitory circuits, during the

first 6 months of life. Behaviorally, we find age-related differences in both the acquisition and

execution of a probabilistic 2-ABT over the same period such that 6-12 week old mice acquire

the task more quickly than their 16-30 week old counterparts. After task acquisition, the older

mice are more likely to both select the highly reward port and to switch between ports trial-to-

trial, reflected differences in task execution. Chemogenetic inhibition of FSIs in 16-30 week old

mice acutely and chronically alters behavior in the 2ABT. Furthermore, chronic inhibition

results in task performance in older mice that resembles that of 6-12 weeks old mice. Thus,

refinement of FAC inhibition contributes to age-related changes in behavior and to the prolonged

development of the FAC circuits.

Cortical inhibition regulates plasticity and cognitive behaviors

Periods of heightened plasticity, known as critical periods, have been extensively studied in

sensory areas where modulation of inhibition is postulated to open and close plasticity windows

[39]. Furthermore, experience-dependent refinement of GABAergic circuits is coordinated

across multiple inhibitory cell-types and is necessary to establish the precise wiring of cortical

circuits. Specifically, FSIs and low-threshold spiking interneurons (LTSI) establish their

connectivity at different rates and their post-natal maturation has been observed across multiple

sensory areas [47-50]. We show with electrical stimulation that FAC inhibitory circuits continue

to refine in a complex manner over a prolonged 30-week period, with increases in evoked

inhibition at 6-15 weeks of age relative to younger and older ages. In contrast, selective

activation of PV-mediated inhibition shows that the inhibition of l2/3 pyramidal neurons by FSIs

increases steadily across this same period. These data suggest that continued maturation of other

inhibitory circuits also occurs, including potentially that mediated by LTSIs.

Similar changes occur during the protracted development of human frontal cortex, which

includes decreases in excitation and increases in GABA-mediated inhibition until excitatory and

inhibitory ratios stabilize in adulthood [51, 52]. Greater inhibitory tone has been postulated to

contribute to the refinement of higher cognitive functions. Nevertheless, the specific cellular and

synaptic changes that results in the correct excitatory and inhibitory drives at the levels of

individual cells and the whole circuits are not fully understood.

Age impacts decision making

Following sensory critical periods, the brain continues to develop and refine into adulthood,

which impacts decision making in humans and rodents [2, 54]. In these species, the maturation of

frontal cortical circuits has been linked to behavioral changes and lesions of specific frontal

circuits perturb decision-making. From an evolutionary perspective, the frontal cortex has

undergone the greatest expansion within mammals and is most complex and enlarged in

primates. Although rodent frontal cortex lacks the regionalization and some of the anatomical

attributes (e.g., granularity) found in humans, there are anatomical and functional parallels. First,

rodent frontal cortex has a similar pattern of connectivity with thalamus and other subcortical

regions as primate frontal cortex. Second, lesions to distinct regions perturb decision-making.

Lastly, consistent with observations in humans, changes to frontal cortical structure and function

are implicated in the modulation of decision-making during development, diseases and

degeneration.

The data presented here illuminate the complex changes that occur in one part of mouse

FAC circuitry over a protracted developmental period and that influence the relative activation of

inhibitory and excitatory cortical neurons. However, they likely comprise only a small part of

the circuity changes that occur over this period. In addition to the inputs from MD and c-FAC,

FAC is innervated by other cortical areas, ventromedial thalamus, amygdala, hippocampus and

VTA. Moreover, the FAC contains additional laminar organization and a diverse set of

interneurons which likely also change over this extended period. In addition, both the refinement

and action of neuromodulators, including dopamine, likely contribute to post-sexual maturity

circuit development, as occurs in the maturation of human FAC and reward processing systems.

Therefore, cell-type and input-specific chemogenetic manipulation of FAC FSIs, such as done

here, is unlikely to fully revert the behavior of an aged animal to that of a younger one.

Nevertheless, it does demonstrate the sufficiency of changes in the activity or synapses of

specific interneuron population, such as we find occurs during protracted FAC development, to

influence complex behaviors. Our data reveal that blunting FAC inhibition does not influence all

aspects of 2ABT behavior but does modulates switching behavior following a negative outcome.

In future experiments, will address the contribution of other circuit elements to age-dependent

changes in cognitive behaviors in mice.

Linking synapses to behavior: implications for aging

The synaptic and circuit changes demonstrated here are likely driven by age-dependent

transcriptional, neuromodulatory, and experience-dependent processes in both neuronal and non-

neuronal cells. Microglial and astrocytic pruning of synapses are key candidates for the

mechanisms of developmental circuit sculpting. In addition, oligodendrocytes contribute via

post-adolescence myelination including in frontal cortex (FC) which is one of the last brain

regions to myelinate. These programs likely also contribute to neuropsychiatric disease,

including schizophrenia and other disorders that typically manifest during the transition from

adolescence to adulthood and whose risk factors include genes involved in synaptic, glial, and

neuroimmune pathways [55-57]. However, further characterization of developmental and

disease associated circuit changes, as well as quantitative models in which to examine the

functional implications of these alterations, are necessary to understand their full contribution to

normal aging and disease progression.

Methods

All procedures were performed in accordance with the guidelines established by the National

Institutes of Health and with approval from the Harvard Medical School Institutional Animal

Care and Use Committee.

Animals

Male mice ranging from 2-30 weeks old on the C57BL/6J (Strain #:000664) background from Jackson Laboratory were employed for all studies. To target a fluorophore or opsin to parvalbumin-positive interneurons, we crossed the PV-Cre (Strain #: 017320) to Ai14 (dTomato, Strain #:007914) or Ai32 (ChR2: Strain #:024109) mouse lines, respectively.

Viruses

Recombinant adeno-associated viruses (AAVs with stereotypes 2/9, 5 and PHP.eB) were used to identify, monitor or manipulate cell-types utilized viral strategies in the C57BL6/Jax (Strain #:000664) mouse cohort via neuronal or PV-specific enhancer elements[58]. Most viral plasmids can be found at Addgene: AAV5-CamKII-GCaMP6f-WPRE-SV40 (no. 100834-AAV5), AAV9-hSyn-hChR2(H134R)-EYFP (no. 26973-AAV9), and AAV-PHP.eB-S5E2-dTom-nlsdTom (no. 135630-PHPeB). Some custom plasmids were packaged commercially (WZ Biosciences): AAV-PHP.eB-S5E2-hM4D(Gi)-mCherry. The E2-enhancer element provided directed expression in putatively parvalbumin-positive interneurons in frontal association cortex[58]. Upon delivery, viruses were separated into single-use aliquots (3-5 uL) and stored in the -80ºC. Injection volumes ranged from 200-250nL and titers were adjusted to approximately 10^{11} to 10^{12} genomic copies per ml.

Surgery

Stereotaxic injections were performed similarly to previously reported studies[59]. Briefly, mice were anesthetized deeply using isoflurane before being placed in a stereotaxic frame where body temperature and level of anesthesia were monitored throughout the procedure. For all surgeries, the skull was exposed and the distance from bregma to lambda was used to both level and normalized for changes in skull size over the lifespan (normalization factor = measured distance (mm) /4.2 mm). Coordinates were established from bregma and a drill was used to make small craniotomies for viral injections. We used the following coordinates used for each brain area: prelimbic region of the FAC (Area 24: A/P = +1.85, M/L = +/- 0.40, D/V = -1.85) and mediodorsal thalamus (MD: A/P = -1.3, M/L = +/- 0.55 , D/V = -3.05). Pulled electrodes

containing the virus would be slowly lower to the dorsal/ventral coordinate and allowed to sit for

5 minutes. Infusion of the virus took 4-5 minutes at a rate of 50 nl/min and was followed by an

additional 5 mins to counteract any flow up the injection site. After completing the injections,

skin was returned and sutured and ointment was used to prevent any infection and limit

inflammation.

Behavior

The two-armed bandit task (2-ABT) was consistent in both box and behavioral design as

previous work[42, 59]. Briefly, mice were water regulated to 1-2 ml/day until they maintained

~80% *ad libitum* weight. On training days, mice were placed in a 4.9" x 6" acrylic chamber that

contained three custom nose ports with an infrared-beam sensor (full design plans can be found

on "Open Behavior").

To facilitate the acquisition of the task, mice progressed through a series of stages. As shown in

Supplementary Table 1, parameters of the tasks were shifted until achieving the ideal task

structure where decisions are made within 2 seconds ("Decision Window") where the probability

of the highly rewarded port ("p(high port)") was 0.8, probability of the low rewarded port

("p(low port)") was 0.2 with a variable blocklength of 10-30 trials. For example, Stage 1 rewards

the agent for any pokes in the right and left ports. This stage is necessary to acquire the

relationship between a nose poke action and the reward. Stage 2 requires the agent to poke in the

center port followed by side port poke and reward. This center to side association is strengthened

through a combination of decreasing the amount of time allowed between the two pokes (Stage

2-5) followed by a reduction in the length of a given block (Stage 6). To complete a stage,

animals had to successfully acquire 100 rewards in a given session for each of stages 1-5 and 200

rewards for Stage 6. Upon successful acquisition of the task, mice were progressed to stage 7

where they completed 8-12 sessions of the probabilistic task. Behavioral training was completed

during the dark phase of the mouse sleep/wake cycle and were run under no ambient light.

Behavioral Analysis

All metrics were based on completed trials where mice initiated a center nose poke followed by

the selection of a right or left nose poke. To observe differences in training, the number of days

to achieve criterion on any given stage was plotted.

To evaluate the performance on the probabilistic task, the probability that a mouse selects the

highly reward port can be calculated relative to the trial position in the block. At 'Block Position'

zero, the highly rewarded port switches to the other port (From left to right, or right to left) and

the mouse must adapt their behavior to track the change in the task. The action of the mouse can

be represented by either the probability of correctly choosing the highly-rewarded port (p(high

port)) or the probability of switching (p(switch)) which would be expected to increase after block

position 0.

We employed a bootstrapping approach to estimate the means and standard deviations of several

behavioral metrics across conditions or age groups. For each metric, data was resampled with

replacement 500 times to generate bootstrapped distributions. To quantify the differences

between conditions, we calculated the delta (Δ) values by subtracting the bootstrapped estimates

of the control group from those of the treatment group for each iteration (p120-180 vs p60-100 or

Control vs hM4Di, respectively). This generated a distribution of delta values, representing the

pairwise differences between the two groups.

Slice physiology preparation

Coronal sections (250-300 um thickness) were prepared from brains of 5-28 weeks-old mice.

First, mice were transcranially perfused with ice-cold ACSF solution (in mM): 125 NaCl,

2.5 KCl, 25 NaHCO3, 2 CaCl2, 1 MgCl2, 1.25 NaH2PO4 and 11 glucose (300–

305 mOsm kg−1). Slices from the anterior portion of the mouse brain that contained prelimbic

region of the FAC were prepared on a Leica VT1200 vibratome in the same ice-cold ACSF

solution followed by a 5-10 min incubation period at 34 °C containing a choline-based solution

(in mM): 110 mM choline chloride, 25 mM $NaHCO_3$, 2.5 mM KCl, 7 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.5 mM

$CaCl_2$, 1.25 mM NaH_2PO_4, 25 mM glucose, 11.6 mM ascorbic acid and 3.1 mM pyruvic acid.

The choline-based incubation is followed by an additional 15-minute incubation in ACSF at

34 °C. After the second incubation, slices were moved to room temperature and maintained for

the length of the recording. All solutions were carbogenated at all stages of tissue preparation

and data collection.

Slice physiology collection and analysis

<u>General recording principals:</u> Recordings were made at 32-34°C in carbogenated ACSF (in mM):

125 NaCl, 26 NaHCO3, 1.25 NaH2PO4, 2.5 KCl, 12.5 glucose, 1 MgCl2, and 2 CaCl2. Data

was collected on and a low-pass filter was applied (MultiClamp 700B amplifier; Molecular

Devices) and then digitized on a National Instruments acquisition board. Data was acquired via a

custom version of ScanImage written in MATLAB. Data was analyzed offline using custom

code written in Matlab or Python. Electrodes were made from borosilicate glass (pipette

resistance, 2– 4 M). Series resistance was monitored throughout the voltage clamp recordings

and prior to the start of all current clamp recordings and cells were excluded if series changed

greater than 20% of the initial baseline.

<u>Voltage clamp recordings</u> utilized a cesium-based internal (in mM): 135 $CsMeSO_3$, 10 HEPES, 1

EGTA, 3.3 QX-314 (Cl^- salt), 4 Mg^-ATP, 0.3 Na-GTP, 8 Na_2-phosphocreatine, pH 7.3 adjusted

with CsOH; 295 mOsm kg^-1). For the external ACSF solution for the electrical and optogenetic

experiments, no blockers were used in the external ACSF. For miniature excitatory postsynaptic

(mEPSC) experiments, external ACSF contained 1 μM TTX and 10 uM CPP. Voltage-clamp

recordings were filtered at 2 kHz and digitized at 10 kHz.

For mEPSC recordings, cells were held at -70 mV and monitored for 5-10 mins. Recording

epochs with stable baselines and access resistance were included for analysis. To measure the

frequency and amplitude of the excitatory events, we utilized custom MATLAB scripts adapted

[60]and applied previously[61].

For electrical stimulation, a bipolar concentric electrode was positioned 500 um from the top of

pia and recordings targeted superficial pyramidal neurons and putative fast-spiking interneurons

labeled by either viral or transgenic approaches. As described previously[62], threshold (theta)

was established by tuning the electrical stimulation (1 pulse @ 10 ms) until a 20-150 pA (peak

magnitude) excitatory postsynaptic current was present at the -70 mV holding voltage. The

threshold was then multiplied by 1.1-1.5 and responses were recorded at both -70 mV and 0 mV for each neuron. Each stimulation intensity was collected five times with a 30 second inter-stimulation interval. For optogenetic stimulation, laser power was calibrated to the same level of laser intensity. Stimulation (1 pulse @ 3 ms) were taken at varying laser intensities and were randomly interspersed. Each laser intensity was collected three times with a 30 second inter-stimulation interval. Like electrical stimulation, cells were held at -70 mV (to isolate excitatory drive) followed by 0 mV hold (to isolate inhibitory drive). To understand how each stimulation impacted the local network, the current response for each stimulation was integrated over a 20 ms window of time (Area under the curve). To isolate the impact of monosynaptic drive, peak magnitude was analyzed within a short latency activation (<5 ms). For statistical testing, multiple unpaired t-tests adjusted for multiple comparisons were performed and both the p-value and q-value (adjusted for False Discovery Rate) are reported.

Currently clamp recordings utilized a potassium-based internal: 130 KMeSO3, 3 KCl, 10 HEPES, 1 EGTA, 4 Mg-ATP, 0.3 Na-GTP, 8 sodium phosphocreatine (pH 7.3 adjusted with KOH; 295 mOsm). For recordings of intrinsic excitability, 10 uM gabazine 10 uM NBQX and 10 uM CPP were included in the bath to block fast inhibitory and excitatory transmission, respectively. Data was filtered at 10 kHz and digitized at 40 kHz. Each step included a -100 pA step for 100 ms for the calculation of input resistence. For current-voltage relationship, current steps were applied for 1000 ms from -200 to 200 pA in 20 pA steps. For current-firing rate relationship, additional steps were applied from 200-1500 pA in 50-100 pA steps. Cells were monitored for inactivation and steps following inactivation were excluded from analysis.

Behavioral Chemogenetics

Mice underwent surgery and were randomly assigned to receive injection of HM4Di or mCherry viral vectors. Following surgical recovery and water regulation, mice completed acquisition (Stages 1-6) and 15 sessions of the probabilistic (Stage 7) of the 2-ABT. After which animals were administered the DREADDs activator deschloroclozapine (DCZ: 1-3 mg/ml) via intraperitoneal injection 30-minutes prior to completing the task for 10 sessions [63]. Experimenters were blind to experimental conditions during data acquisition.

Histology and Imaging

Mice were deeply anesthetized with isoflurane and perfused transcardially with 20 ml of PBS followed by 10 ml of 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA). Brain was excavated and placed overnight in 4% PFA at 4°C. Brains were transferred to 30% sucrose for equilibration and stored at 4°C until falling to the bottom of the container. Using dry ice, brains were frozen in an optimal cutting temperature compound (O.C.T.: Tissue-Tek) and cut on the cryostat (50 um slice). DAPI mounting medium (Vectashield, H-1200) was used to preserve fluorescence quality and was imaged immediately on a widefield microscope at 10x objective. For viral verification, no enhancement of the expression was necessary.

Statistics

Statistical analysis was completed using custom MATLAB and Python scripts and Prism (GraphPad; Version 10).

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Figure 1. Age related differences in acquisition and execution of a 2-armed bandit task

a, Schematic representation of task structure. Mice initiate a trial with a nose poke in the center port followed by a side choice selection whose outcome is probabilistic delivery of a water reward. The identity of the highly rewarded port is held constant for a variable length of rewards during acquisition or trials during evaluation (known as a 'block') before the rule is reversed.

b, Proportion of mice progressing from stage 1 to 7 across daily sessions of training (~30 mins/session) across two ages ($n_{6-12wks}$=12 & $n_{16-30wks}$=18 mice). Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed (p=0.001).

c, Schematic representation of task performance showing that mice select the left (top) or right (bottom) port which is followed by either a rewarded (filled) or unrewarded (unfilled) outcome. Shaded portions show the blocks in which the left port is highly rewarded.

d, Boxplots superimposed onto violin plots of the number of trials completed per session (top) and trial duration (bottom) that are either rewarded (filled) or unrewarded (unfilled) during the evaluation phase. Student's T-test comparing rewarded and unrewarded across age groups (p=0.001).

e, Probability of selecting the highly rewarded port (p(high-port)) at each trial position before (-5
to -1), after (1-12) the rule change (block position=0) (*left*) and violin plot of the bootstrapped
probability distributions for selecting the highly rewarded port (*right*) ($p<0.0001$).

f, Probability of switching the selected side choice (p(switch)) at each trial position before (-5 to -
1), after (1-12) the rule change (block position=0) (*left*) and violin plot of the bootstrapped
probability distributions for switch ports after a loss (*right*) ($p<0.0001$).

Figure 2

Figure 2. Refinement of excitatory drive onto l2/3 pyramidal (pyr) neurons in the FAC

a, Schematic of stimulation and recording configuration for analyzing evoked synaptic currents in l2/3 pyramidal (pyr) neurons with (inset, *left*) low-magnification image of stimulator (two-prong) and recording electrode in frontal association cortex (FAC). The bipolar concentric electrode was placed 500 μm from pia (inset, right)

b, Representative (gray) and average (overlaid color) of evoked EPSCs at threshold (theta) for an individual l2/3 pyr neuron for each age range.

c, Evoked EPSC peak amplitude in l2/3 pyr neurons at threshold shown as violin plots (solid line=median, dashed line=upper and lower quartiles) with all points superimposed. For EPSC: (n_{2-5wks}=47, n_{6-9wks}=20, $n_{10-15wks}$=31, $n_{16-30wks}$=21 cells). One-way ANOVA was performed and found no difference at threshold (Kruskal Wallis test statistic=5.803; p=0.1216

d, Representative (gray) and average (overlaid color) trials of electrically-evoked EPSCs (V_{hold}=-70 mV) and IPSCs (V_{hold}=0 mV) for an individual l2/3 pyr neuron in each age group

e, EPSC peak amplitudes evoked at 1.5*threshold in each age group shown as violin plots (solid line=median, dashed line=upper and lower quartiles) with all points superimposed (n_{2-5wks}=47, n_{6-9wks}= 20 cells, $n_{10-15wks}$=31, $n_{16-30wks}$=21 cells). One-way ANOVA was performed (Kruskal-Wallis statistic=10.49: p=0.0148) with tests for multiple comparisons (* p<0.05)

f, Schematic of configuration for recording miniature excitatory postsynaptic current (mEPSC)
from l2/3 pyr neurons and representative traces of mEPSC recordings from pyr neurons at two
of the four ages analyzed.

g, Frequency (left) and amplitude (right) of mEPSCs in l2/3 pyr neurons from each age group
shown as violin plots (solid line=median, dashed line=upper and lower quartiles) with all points
superimposed (n_{2-5wks}=54, n_{6-9wks} =33, $n_{10-15wks}$=51, $n_{16-30wks}$=36 cells). For frequency: one-way
ANOVA was performed (Kruskal Wallis test statistic=40.48; $p<0.0001$) with tests for multiple
comparisons (* $p<0.02$, ** $p=0.0089$, **** $p<0.0001$). For amplitude: one-way ANOVA was
performed (Kruskal Wallis test statistic=15.79; $p=0.0013$) with tests for multiple comparisons (*
$p<0.03$, ** $p<0.004$)

Figure 3. Differential age-dependent refinement of cortical vs. thalamic excitatory drive onto l2/3 pyramidal neurons

a, Schematic of experimental preparation showing low-magnification image of expression of ChR2-YFP in mediodorsal thalamic (MD) axons in the FAC (*left*) and recording configuration (*right*).

b, Representative traces (*left,* average overlaid) (V_{hold}=-70 mV) and peak amplitude of optically-evoked thalamic EPSCs in l2/3 pyrs as a function of laser power in two age groups (n_{6-9wks}=31, $n_{16-30wks}$=19 cells). Average +/- standard error of the mean shown. Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed (p=0.186) with tests for multiple comparisons (* p<0.02)

c, As in panel **b** but for polysynaptic inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) (V_{hold}=0 mV) (n_{6-9wks}=31, $n_{16-30wks}$=19 cells). Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed (p=0.3487).

d, Schematic of experimental preparation showing low-magnification image of expression of ChR2-YFP in cFAC and expression of the red fluorophore in the FSIs (*left*) and recording configuration (*right*).

e, As in panel **b** but for optically-evoked cortical inputs to l2/3 pyrs (n_{6-9wks}=19, $n_{16-30wks}$=17 cells). Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed (p=0.053) with tests for multiple comparisons (* p=0.038, ** p<0.002)

f, As in panel **c** but for polysynaptic IPSCs recorded in l2/3 pyrs and evoked by optical stimulation of cortical inputs (n_{6-9wks}=19, $n_{16-30wks}$=17 cells)**.** Average +/- standard error of the mean shown. Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed (p=0.122) with tests for multiple comparisons (* p=0.0487)

Figure 4

Figure 4. Intrinsic properties and excitability across age

a, Representative traces of whole-cell currant clamp recordings of l2/3 pry neurons in the presence of synaptic blockers at each indicated age range. The color code is maintained throughout the figure.

b, Plateau voltage (*left*) and action potential firing rate (*right*) vs. amplitude of current step (1 s, -200 to 800 pA) for each age group as indicated in panel **a**

c, Action potential half-width (*left*), afterhyperpolarization (AHP) voltage (*middle*), and maximum firing rate (FR_{max}, *right*) as a function of current step amplitude for each age group shown as violin plots (solid line=median, dashed line=upper and lower quartiles) with all points superimposed (n_{6-9wks}=35, $n_{10-15wks}$=71, $n_{16-30wks}$=55 cells). For half-width: one-way ANOVA was performed (Kruskal Wallis test statistic=19.17; $p<0.0001$) with tests for multiple comparisons (* $p=0.0239$, **** $p<0.0001$). For AHP voltage: one-way ANOVA was performed (Kruskal Wallis test statistic=12.72; $p=0.0017$) with tests for multiple comparisons (* $p=0.0340$, ** $p=0.0031$). For FR_{max}: one-way ANOVA was performed (Kruskal Wallis test statistic=11.18; $p=0.0037$) with tests for multiple comparisons (* $p<0.01$)

Figure 5

Figure 5. Differential age-dependent refinement of cortical vs. thalamic excitatory drive onto l2/3 fast-spiking interneurons

a, Schematic of stimulation and recording configuration for analyzing evoked synaptic currents in fast-spiking interneurons (FSIs) with (inset, *left*) low-magnification image of AAV expression driving fluorophore in putative FSIs in the FAC. The bipolar concentric electrode was placed 500 μm from pia.

b, Evoked synaptic current peak at 1.5*threshold shown for EPSCs (*left*) and IPSCs (*right*) across ages (n_{6-9wks}=29, $n_{10-15wks}$=22, $n_{16-30wks}$=18 cells) shown as violin plots (solid line=median,

dashed line=upper and lower quartiles) with all points superimposed. Two-way repeated
measures ANOVA was performed (p=0.0328) with tests for multiple comparisons (* p=0.034).

c, Representative traces (*left,* average overlaid) (V_{hold}=-70 mV) and peak amplitude of optically-
evoked thalamic EPSCs in l2/3 pyrs as a function of laser power in two age groups (n_{6-9wks}=15,
$n_{16-30wks}$=20 cells). Average +/- standard error of the mean shown. Two-way repeated measures
ANOVA was performed (p=0.002) with tests for multiple comparisons (* p=0.010, ** p<0.0001).

d, As in panel **c** but for polysynaptic IPSCs recorded in FSIs (V_{hold}=0 mV) (n_{6-9wks}=15, n_{16-}
$_{30wks}$=20 cells). Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed (p=0.002) with tests for
multiple comparisons (** p<0.0008).

e, As in panel **c** but for optically-evoked cortical inputs to FSIs (n_{6-9wks}=19, $n_{16-30wks}$=17 cells).
Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed (p=0.814).

f, As in panel **e** but for polysynaptic IPSCs recorded in FSIs and evoked by optical stimulation of
cortical inputs (n_{6-9wks}=19, $n_{16-30wks}$=17 cells). Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was
performed (p=0.318).

g, Schematic of optogenetic stimulation and recording configuration in tissue expressing ChR2
in PV+ FSIs in FAC (*left*) and representative traces (average overlaid) of evoked IPSCs (each
cell was held at 0 mV) onto l2/3 pyramidal (pyr) neurons (*right*) in l2/3 pyr neurons at a variety
of ages.

h, Evoked synaptic current peak from low to high laser power in l2/3 pyr neurons across ages
(n_{2-5wks}=41, n_{6-9wks}=21, $n_{10-15wks}$= 18, $n_{16-30wks}$=9 cells)**.** Average +/- standard error of the mean
shown. Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed (p<0.0001) with tests for multiple
comparisons (NS p=0.372, ** p<0.0001)

Figure 6

Figure 6. Decreased inhibition reverses age-related changes in 2-armed bandit task

a, Representative image (inset, *left*) of frontal association cortical (FAC) expression of AAV driving either fluorophore (dTomato) or inhibitory DREADDs receptor (HM4Di) under the synapsin (SYN) promotor and with the putative fast spiking interneuron (FSI) enhancer (E2). Schematic of receptor expression (inset, *right*) in FSIs and not in pyramidal neurons. Schematic of experimental timeline (*right*): 15 sessions of evaluation without drug administration followed by 10 sessions with administration of DCZ (1-3 mg/ml) via intraperitoneal injection 30-minutes prior to each session.

b, Bootstrapped distributions of the lose-switch rate for control fluorophore (*left*) and hM4Di (*right*) expression animals before (unfilled; n-2, n-1) and after (filled; n, n+1) the start of the sessions with DCZ administration (session n).

c, Bootstrapped distribution of highport selection rate in the final five sessions of DCZ administration in hM4Di and control flourophore expressing mice.

Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Figure 1

Supplementary Figure 1 Protracted development of excitatory and inhibitory drive onto l2/3 pyramidal (pyr) neurons in the frontal association cortex (FAC)

a, Evoked synaptic current peak from threshold to threshold x 1.5 multiplier shown for excitatory (EPSC) postsynaptic currents onto l2/3 pyr neurons (grey=individual cells overlaid with average) across ages (n_{2-5wks}=47, n_{6-9wks}=20, $n_{10-15wks}$=31, $n_{16-30wks}$=21 cells).

b, Averaged evoked synaptic current peak from threshold to threshold x 1.5 multiplier across ages. Average +/- standard error of the mean shown. Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed (p=0.052) with tests for multiple comparisons (* p=0.007).

c, As in panel **a** but for polysynaptic inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) onto l2/3 pyr neurons (V_{hold}=0 mV).

d, As in panel **b** but for the average polysynaptic inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) (V_{hold}=0 mV) onto l2/3 pyr neurons (n_{2-5wks}=47, n_{6-9wks}=20, $n_{10-15wks}$=31, $n_{16-30wks}$=21 cells).

e, Series resistance (left), capacitance (µF) (middle) and Input resistance (right) shown as violin plots (solid line=median, dashed line=upper and lower quartiles) with all points superimposed (n_{2-5wks} =54, n_{6-9wk}=33, $n_{10-15wks}$=51, $n_{16-30wks}$=36 cells). **All cells included from electrical stimulation experiment, even those where stimulation led to greater than 250 pA**

807   **excitatory response**. For series resistance: one-way ANOVA was performed (F-statistic=2.37;
808   p=0.0790). For capacitance: one-way ANOVA was performed (F-statistic=0.9209; p=0.4428).
809   For input resistance: one-way ANOVA was performed (F-statistic =5.168; p=0.0020) with tests
810   for multiple comparisons (* p<0.02, ** p<0.3 ** p<0.004).

Supplementary Figure 2 Targeting location for optogenetic-assisted mapping of mediodorsal thalamic and contra-frontal cortical inputs

a, Representative viral targeting location across 3 animals in the mediodorsal thalamus (MD), injected with the AAV driving expression of channelrhodopsin (ChR2) in neurons (human synapsin (hSyn) promoter)

b, Representative viral targeting location across 3 animals in the contralateral-frontal association cortex (c-FAC), injected with the AAV driving expression of ChR2 in neurons (hSyn promoter)

Supplementary Figure 3 Protracted development of excitatory and inhibitory drive onto fast-spiking interneurons (FSIs) in the frontal association cortex (FAC)

a, Evoked synaptic current peak from threshold to threshold x 1.5 multiplier shown for excitatory (EPSC) postsynaptic currents onto FSIs (grey=individual cells overlaid with average) across ages (n_{6-9wks}=29, $n_{10-15wks}$=22, $n_{16-30wks}$=18 cells).

b, Averaged evoked synaptic current peak from threshold to threshold x 1.5 multiplier across ages. Average +/- standard error of the mean shown.

c, As in panel **a** but for polysynaptic inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) onto FSIs (V_{hold}=0 mV).

d, As in panel **b** but for the average polysynaptic inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) (V_{hold}=0 mV) onto FSIs (n_{6-9wks}=29, $n_{10-15wks}$=22, $n_{16-30wks}$=18 cells).

Supplementary Figure 4

Supplementary Figure 4 Protracted refinement of excitatory/inhibitory balance drive onto l2/3 pyramidal neurons and fast spiking interneurons across experimental paradigms

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a, Optically-evoked mediodorsal (MD) thalamic EPSCs onto l2/3 pyramidal (pyr) neurons and
fast-spiking interneurons (FSIs) as a function of laser power at 6-9 weeks (left) and 16-30 weeks
(right). Average +/- standard error of the mean shown.

b, Fraction of EPSC over total synaptic inputs (EPSC+IPSC) onto l2/3 pyr (left) and FSIs (right)
vs. the optogenetic stimulation of MD inputs across the two ages shown as violin plots (solid
line=median, dashed line=upper and lower quartiles) with all points superimposed (pyr: $n_{6\text{-}9wks}$=31, $n_{16\text{-}30wks}$=19 cells & fsi: $n_{6\text{-}9wks}$=15, $n_{16\text{-}30wks}$=20 cells).
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c, As in panel **a** but for optically evoked contracortical (c-FAC) inputs onto currents l2/3 pyr
neurons and FSIs at 6-9 weeks (left) and 16-30 weeks (right).

d, Fraction of EPSC over total synaptic inputs (EPSC+IPSC) onto l2/3 pyr (left) and FSIs (right)
vs. the optogenetic stimulation of c-FAC inputs across the two ages shown as violin plots (solid

line=median, dashed line=upper and lower quartiles) with all points superimposed (pyr: n_{6-9wks}=19, $n_{16-30wks}$=17 cells, fsi=(n_{6-9wks}=19, $n_{16-30wks}$=17 cells).

e, As in panel **b** but for electrically evoked synaptic currents for l2/3 pyr neurons (left) and FSIs
(right)

f, Schematic representation of observed changes onto l2/3 pyr neurons and FSIs through
analysis of excitatory and inhibitory postsynaptic currents (EPSCs & IPSCs, respectively).

Supplementary Table

stage	decision window	p(high port)	p(low port)	blocklength
1	NA	1.0	1.0	NA
2	15	1.0	0.0	50
3	7	1.0	0.0	50
4	3	1.0	0.0	50
5	2	1.0	0.0	30
6	2	1.0	0.0	20
7	2	0.8	0.2	10-30

Supplementary Table 1: Stages of acquisition for the 2-armed bandit task (2-ABT)

Center poke followed by a side poke behavior is shaped over the course of 6 stages where
experimenter shifts the amount of time to make center to side selection ('decision window' in
seconds), probability of the highly rewarded (p(high port)) and lowly rewarded (p(low port)) ports
and the length of trials that the rule is held constant ('blocklength'). Stage 7 represents the final
stage of the 2-ABT that is used for the execution phase.

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