Bidirectional control of neurovascular coupling by cortical somatostatin interneurons

Boubacar Mohamed[1], Julie O'Reilly[1], Sandrine Picaud[1], Benjamin Le Gac[1], Esther Belzic[1], Liliana R V Castro[1], Hédi Soula[2], Isabelle Dusart[1], Dongdong Li[1], Bruno Cauli[1*]

1. Sorbonne Université, CNRS, INSERM, Neurosciences Paris Seine - Institut de Biologie Paris Seine (NPS-IBPS), 9 quai Saint Bernard, 75005 Paris, France.

2. Sorbonne Université, INSERM, Nutrition and Obesities: Systemic Approaches, NutriOmics, research unit, 91 boulevard de l'hôpital, 75013 Paris, France.

*Correspondence: Bruno CAULI

9 Quai Saint Bernard, 75 005 Paris, France

Phone number: + 33 1 44 27 25 01

e-mail : bruno.cauli@upmc.fr

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ABSTRACT

Neurovascular coupling, linking neuronal activity to cerebral blood flow, is altered early in neurological disorders and underlies functional brain imaging. This process involves numerous cellular players. Among them inhibitory interneurons receive increasing attention, but how they control blood flow remains elusive. This study elucidates the mechanisms by which somatostatin interneurons bidirectionally control neurovascular coupling. Patch clamp recordings in, ex vivo, cortical slices from mice expressing channelrhodopsin-2 in somatostatin interneurons, revealed that these neurons are supralinearly activated at low-frequencies (< 5 Hz) and efficiently photostimulated at frequencies up to 20 Hz. Ex vivo vascular imaging showed that low-frequency (2 Hz) photostimulation triggered vasodilation whereas high-frequency (20 Hz) photostimulation induced vasoconstriction. Histochemistry revealed that subpopulations of cortical somatostatin interneurons expressed the neuronal nitric oxide synthase, and/or neuropeptide Y to a greater extent. Consistently, pharmacological investigations showed that vasodilation induced by low-frequency photostimulation involves nitric oxide release and activation of soluble guanylate cyclase. In contrast, the vasoconstriction induced at high-frequency photostimulation involves neuropeptide Y release and activation of the Y1 vascular receptor. These findings provide valuable insights into neurovascular coupling and help to understand the cellular mechanism underlying the functional brain imaging signals.

INTRODUCTION

Brain function and integrity are critically dependent on a permanent blood supply provided by a dense vascular network (Schaeffer and Iadecola, 2021). Cerebral blood flow (CBF) is also tightly controlled by neuronal activity, an essential process called neurovascular coupling (NVC) that is impaired in neurological disorders (Iadecola, 2017). The NVC is thought to ensure the optimal supply of metabolic needs to, and removal of waste products and heat from the activated brain regions, although its precise motive remains to be understood (Drew, 2022). It allows CBF to surge within seconds of increased neuronal activity and serves as the physiological basis for functional brain imaging techniques to map brain function (Iadecola, 2017). In the cerebral cortex, this hyperemic response is supported by dynamically controlled vasodilation that is spatially and temporally confined by vasoconstriction (Devor et al., 2007; Boorman et al., 2010; Uhlirova et al., 2016).

CBF is critically orchestrated by pial and penetrating arterioles, which have a higher density of contractile mural cells and control their diameter more rapidly than capillaries (Hill et al., 2015; Rungta et al., 2018; Hartmann et al., 2021). NVC is mediated by multiple vasoactive agents produced by excitatory neurons, astrocytes, GABAergic interneurons, and/or endothelial cells (Cauli and Hamel, 2018; Kaplan et al., 2020; Schaeffer and Iadecola, 2021) that control vessel diameter and CBF along the vascular tree (Rungta et al., 2018). These agents may be vasodilatory [e.g. arachidonic acid derivatives, nitric oxide (NO)], vasoconstrictive [e.g. Neuropeptide Y (NPY) (Uhlirova et al., 2016)], or both [e.g. glutamate, K^+ (Girouard et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2024)].

The cellular diversity that characterizes cortical GABAergic interneurons (Ascoli et al., 2008), has made it challenging to study their contribution to NVC, and the conditions under which they release specific vasoactive agents have long remained elusive (Cauli et al., 2004). A major breakthrough in understanding their role came with the advent of transgenic mice and optogenetics, which allowed confirmation of their ability to induce vasodilation and/or vasoconstriction *in vivo* (Anenberg et al., 2015; Uhlirova et al., 2016). More recently the use of different Cre-line drivers has made it possible to investigate the contribution of different subpopulations of GABAergic interneurons (Krawchuk et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2020; Echagarruga et al., 2020; Krogsgaard et al., 2023; Ruff et al., 2024). Among these subclasses, somatostatin (Sst) interneurons have been found to either increase and/or decrease CBF

depending on the stimulation paradigm (Krawchuk et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2020), but the underlying mechanisms of this bimodal response have not been determined.

To address this unresolved issue, we used *ex vivo* approaches in combination with optogenetics to precisely control Sst interneurons firing in the mouse barrel cortex while monitoring the resulting arteriolar response. We found that Sst interneurons are supralinearly activated by low-frequency (< 5 Hz) photostimulation and are efficiently and reliably activated up to 20 Hz. Low frequency stimulation (2 Hz) induced predominantly vasodilation, whereas 20 Hz photostimulation resulted in vasoconstriction. Histochemical analyses showed that subpopulations of Sst interneurons expressed the neuronal isoform of NO synthase, NOS-1, and/or NPY at much greater extents. Pharmacological investigations revealed that both types of vascular responses were dependent on action potential (AP) firing. The vasodilation required NO synthesis and activation of the soluble guanylate cyclase (sGC), whereas the vasoconstriction involved NPY and activation of its Y1 receptor. Thus, our study elucidates the mechanisms by which Sst interneurons can induce vasodilation or vasoconstriction depending on their firing frequency.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animal models

Homozygous Sst-IRES-Cre mice [Jackson Laboratory, B6J.Cg-$Sst^{tm2.1(cre)Zjh}$/MwarJ, stock# 028864, (Taniguchi et al., 2011)] were crossed with homozygous Ai32 mice [Jackson Laboratory, B6.Cg-$Gt(ROSA)26Sor^{tm32(CAG-COP4*H134R/EYFP)Hze}$/J stock #024109, (Madisen et al., 2012)] or with homozygous Ai95d mice [Jackson Laboratory, B6J.Cg-$Gt(ROSA)26Sor^{tm95.1(CAG-GCaMP6f)Hze}$/MwarJ, stock# 028865 (Madisen et al., 2015)], to obtain heterozygous $Sst^{Cre/WT}$::$Ai32^{ChR2/WT}$ (Sst-ChR2) for optogenetic stimulations or $Sst^{Cre/Wt}$::$Ai95d^{GCaMP6f/Wt}$ (Sst-GCaMP6f) mice for immunohistochemistry. C57BL/6RJ mice were used for control optogenetic experiments and exogenous NPY applications. 16-21 days postnatal old females and males were used for all experiments. All experimental procedures involving animals were carried out in strict compliance with French regulations (Code Rural R214/87 to R214/130) and in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the Directive of the Council of the European Communities of September 22, 2010 (2010/63/EU).

Ex vivo slice preparation

Mice were deeply anesthetized by isoflurane (IsoVet Piramal Healthcare UK or IsoFlo,

Axience) evaporation in an induction box then euthanized by decapitation. The brain was

quickly removed and immersed in cold (~ 4°C) oxygenated artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF)

containing in (mM): 125 NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 2 $CaCl_2$, 1 $MgCl_2$, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 10

glucose, 15 sucrose and 1 kynurenic acid (Sigma-Aldrich). 300 µm-thick coronal slices

containing the barrel cortex were cut with a vibratome (VT1000s; Leica) and were allowed to

recover at room temperature for at least 45 min with oxygenated aCSF (95% O_2/5% CO_2)

(Devienne et al., 2018). The slices were transferred to a recording chamber and continuously

perfused at a rate of ~2 ml/min with oxygenated aCSF lacking kynurenic acid.

Patch-clamp recording

Borosilicate glass patch pipettes (5.0 ± 0.4 MΩ) were filled with an internal solution

containing (in mM): 144 K-gluconate, 3 $MgCl_2$, 0.5 EGTA, 10 HEPES, pH 7.2 (285/295 mOsm).

Sst-ChR2 interneurons were first visually identified by their EYFP fluorescence. Whole-cell

recordings were performed at room temperature (20-25 °C) using a patch clamp amplifier

(Axopatch 200B, Molecular Devices) at a wavelength of 780 nm, which does not activate

ChR2 (Lin et al., 2009). Data were filtered at 5-10 kHz and digitized at 50 kHz using an

acquisition board (Digidata 1440, MDS) attached to a personal computer running pCLAMP

10.7 software package (MDS). Electrophysiological properties were determined using the

fast I-clamp mode of the amplifier and were measured as previously described (Karagiannis

et al., 2021, 2009). Membrane potential values were not corrected for liquid junction

potential. Only neurons with a resting membrane potential more hyperpolarized than -55

mV were further analyzed.

Optogenetic stimulation

Optogenetic stimulation performed through the objective using a 470 nm light-emitting

diode (LED) device (CoolLED brand, Precise Excite model) attached to the epifluorescence

port of a BX51WI microscope (Olympus) and a set of multiband filters consisting of an

excitation filter (HC 392/474/554/635, Semrock), a dichroic mirror (BS 409/493/573/652,

Semrock), and an emission filter (HC 432/515/595/730, Semrock). Photostimulation

consisted of a 10-s train of 5 ms light pulses at an intensity of 38 mW/mm² and delivered at

six different frequencies (1, 2, 5, 10, 20 and 40 Hz).

Vascular imaging

Blood vessels and cells were observed in slices under infrared illumination with Dodt

gradient contrast optics (IR-DGC Luigs and Neumann; (Dodt and Zieglgansberger, 1998))

using a collimated LED (780 nm; ThorLabs) as the transmitted light source, a 40X

(LUMPlanF/IR, 40X/0.80 W, Olympus) and a digital camera (OrcaFlash 4.0LT+, Hamamatsu)

attached to the microscope. Diving arterioles were selected by IR-DGC based on their well-

defined luminal diameter (16.7 ± 0.5 µm, n = 144 arterioles), their length remaining in the

focal plane of at least 50 µm, and the thickness of their wall (5.5 ± 0.1 µm, n = 144

arterioles). A resting period of at least 30 min (Lovick et al., 1999; Zonta et al., 2003) was

observed after slice transfer. IR-DGC images were acquired at 0.1 Hz for pharmacological

applications and at 1 Hz for optogenetic experiments using Imaging Workbench 6.1 software

(Indec Biosystems). The focal plane was continuously maintained on-line using IR-DGC

images of cells as anatomical landmark (Lacroix et al., 2015). After light-induced responses,

arteriolar identity and reactivity were systematically verified by assessing their contractility

(Hartmann et al., 2021) using the thromboxane A2 analog, U46619 (100 nM) (Cauli et al.,

2004; Rancillac et al., 2006). Blood vessels that failed to constrict after this pharmacological

application were discarded. Only one arteriole was monitored per slice.

Double fluorescence immunolabeling

Mice were euthanized with pentobarbital (150 mg/kg, i.p., Euthasol Vet) and their brains

were perfusion fixed (50 ml of ice-cold 4 % paraformaldehyde (PFA), in 0.1M phosphate

buffer, pH 7.4), and post-fixed by immersion in 4 % PFA (2 h, 4°C). Brains were then cut in 50

µm-thick coronal sections with a VT-1000S vibratome (Leica). After washing in PBS, free-

floating sections were blocked for 2 h at room temperature in a PBS 1X/0.25% Triton X-

100/0,2% gelatin solution before being incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies.

Sections from 3 to 4 different mouse brains were simultaneously incubated overnight with

the primary antibodies against GFP and specific markers. Antibodies included chicken anti-

GFP (1:1000; Aves Labs GFP-1020, (Tricoire et al., 2010)), rabbit anti-NOS-1 (1:1000,

Millipore AB5380, (Tricoire et al., 2010)), sheep anti-NPY (1:2000, Abcam ab6173, (Lee et al.,

2010)). The respective immunoreactions were visualized with the following secondary

antibodies: goat anti-chicken Alexafluor 488 (1:1000, Invitrogen A11039), donkey anti-rabbit

Alexafluor 555 (1:1000, Invitrogen A31572) donkey anti-sheep Alexafluor 555 (1:1000,

Invitrogen A21436). Nuclear counterstaining was performed with 100 ng/ml DAPI (4′,6-

diamidino-2-phenylindole; Invitrogen) solution in PBS for 20 min. Sections were mounted

with Fluoromount G (SouthernBiotech) on gelatin-coated slides for visualization. Images of

immunostained material were acquired and processed in Airyscan 2 mode using a LSM 980

confocal microscope with a 20x objective (N Plan-Apochromat 20x) and ZEN Blue 3 software

(Zeiss). Cell counting was achieved using the cell counter plug-in of FIJI software.

Drugs

All pharmacological compounds were bath-applied after a 5-minute control period (aCSF)

and vascular dynamics were recorded during bath application. The following drugs were

dissolved in water: NPY (Enzo, ALX-163-003), Nω-Nitro-L-arginine methyl ester hydrochloride

(L-NAME, Sigma-Aldrich, N5751), BIBP3226 (1 µM, Tocris, 2707). Tetrodotoxin (TTX, 1 µM,

Latoxan, L8503) was dissolved in 90% acetic acid. 1H-[1,2,4] oxadiazolo[4,3-a]quinoxalin-1-

one (ODQ, Sigma-Aldrich, O3636) was dissolved in DMSO and 9,11-dideoxy-9α,11α-

methanoepoxy prostaglandin F2α (U-46619, 100 nM, Enzo, BML-PG023) in ethanol. Acetic

acid, DMSO and ethanol doses were always used below 0.1% to avoid vascular interactions

(Sun et al., 2010). NO pathway inhibitors, BIBP3226 and TTX were applied at least 30 min

before optogenetic stimulation or exogenous NPY application.

Vascular reactivity analysis

To compensate for potential x-y drifts, all images were realigned off-line using the

"StackReg" plug-in (Thevenaz et al., 1998) of the ImageJ 1.54f software. Luminal diameter

was measured on registered images using custom analysis software developed in MATLAB

(MathWorks) (Lacroix et al., 2015). Only arterioles with a stable luminal diameter were

analyzed further. Arterioles were considered stable if the relative standard deviation (RSD)

of their luminal diameter during the baseline period was less than 5% (Lacroix et al., 2015).

The impact of blockers, inhibitors, and antagonists on arterioles was evaluated by comparing

the mean luminal diameter during the initial 5 minutes of the baseline period and the final 5

minutes of the treatment period prior to optogenetic stimulation or NPY application.

Diameter changes ($\Delta D/D_0$) were expressed according to: $(D_t - D_0)/D_0$ where D_t is the luminal

diameter at the time t and D_0 the average diameter during the 5 minutes baseline period.

Vasomotor responses and their parameters were determined from the diameter change

traces [$\Delta D/D_0$ = f(t)] plotted using Clampfit 10.7 (MDS). To determine whether arterioles

dilated or constricted, a Z-score was calculated from the diameter change traces using the

formula: Z = (x - μ)/ σ, where both the mean μ and standard deviation σ were calculated

using the values before photostimulation or NPY application. Vascular responses were

classified as vasodilation or vasoconstriction, respectively, if the Z-score exceeded a value of

1.96 (95% criteria) or fell below -1.96 for 10 seconds and 1 minute for photostimulation and

NPY application, respectively. For each vascular response, the time of onset and peak

(relative to the beginning of stimulation), duration, maximal amplitude and magnitude (area

under the curve [AUC]) were determined (Supplementary Fig. 2). When multiple events of

vasodilation or vasoconstriction occurred, the earliest onset was used for global onset, the

time and amplitude of the largest maximum amplitude were used for global time to peak

and global maximum amplitude, and the sum of durations and magnitudes was used for

global duration and magnitude.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism version 8.0.2 (GraphPad Software,

La Jolla, California, USA). All values are expressed as means ± SEM. Normality of distribution

was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Parametric tests were only used if this criterion

was met. The mean spike success rate per light pulse between photostimulation frequencies

was compared using the Q Friedman test. Comparisons of vascular responses were

determined using Brown-Forsythe ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis tests. Given p-values were

corrected for multiple comparisons using the original False Discovery Rate method of

Benjamini and Hochberg (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). Statistical significance on all

figures uses the following convention: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01 and ***p < 0.001.

RESULTS

Sst interneurons are efficiently activated by optogenetic stimulation over a wide range of frequencies.

To evaluate the frequency dependence of the vascular response driven by Sst interneurons, we optogenetically elicited their AP firing while visualizing the evoked vascular response in cortical brain slices from Sst$^{Cre/WT}$::Ai32$^{ChR2/WT}$ mice (Madisen et al., 2012; Taniguchi et al., 2011) conditionally expressing the H134R variant of channelrhodopsin-2 (ChR2) in Sst interneurons. We first determined the electrophysiological phenotype of Sst-ChR2 cortical neurons using whole-cell patch clamp recordings. Cortical neurons expressing EYFP/ChR2 were selected based on their EYFP fluorescence (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. 1) in layers II-III (n=13 neurons) and V (n=3 neurons). Most neurons exhibited electrophysiological features typical of adapting-Sst interneurons (Karagiannis et al., 2009, 2021; Perrenoud et al., 2012a), including a relatively high membrane resistance (608 ± 231 MΩ) and a pronounced voltage sag (21.2 ± 10.8 %) in response to hyperpolarizing current pulses (Fig. 1a, middle traces). They also exhibited a low rheobasic current (8 ± 14 pA, Fig. 1a) and a slowly developing early frequency adaptation (adaptation time constant: 60.5 ± 23.8 ms) when depolarized by high stimulation intensities (Fig. 1a). Consistently, the hyperpolarization (AHP) phase of their action potentials consisted of a fast AHP, followed by an afterdepolarization (ADP) and a medium AHP (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Table 1). However, as previously reported in Sst-Cre cortical neurons (Hu et al., 2013) and expected from the occasional expression of Sst transcripts in parvalbumin neurons (Cauli et al., 1997; Tasic et al., 2016), one Sst-ChR2 neuron exhibited the electrophysiological features of a fast spiking cell with a low input resistance (129 MΩ), a fast time constant (11.7 ms), a high rheobase (185 pA), short spikes (0.6 ms) with a sharp fast AHP (-26.5 mV), and the ability to fire high firing rates (maximal frequency: 99 Hz) with little frequency adaptation (Supplementary Fig. 1 and Table 1).

Next, we evaluated the efficiency of optogenetic stimulation by recording the voltage response of the patched Sst-ChR2 neurons. Wide-field photostimulation was achieved using 10-second trains of 5 ms light pulses (see Materials and Methods) delivered at six different frequencies (1, 2, 5, 10, 20 and 40 Hz, Fig. 1b, lower traces). Surprisingly, at the beginning of the light pulse trains, Sst-ChR2 neurons fired up to five APs per light pulse (Fig. 1b, upper traces). Such bursting response declined within seconds before reaching a steady state level

(Fig. 1b, middle traces). The instantaneous spike success rate remained above 100 % at

stimulation frequencies below 10 Hz, while it decreased below 100% at higher frequencies

(Fig. 1b, middle traces). Consistent with the kinetic properties of the H134R ChR2 variant (Lin

et al., 2009), Sst-ChR2 neurons were not able to sustain the firing of action potentials when

photostimulated at 40 Hz (Fig. 1b6). The mean spike success rate over the 10 s train differed

between photostimulation frequencies (Fig. 1c, $Q_{(6,9)}$= 41.89, p= 6.203 10^{-8}, 1 Hz: 176 ± 13%;

2 Hz: 197 ± 15%; 5 Hz: 118 ± 11%; 10 Hz: 103 ± 10%; 20 Hz: 97 ± 5%; 40 Hz: 25 ± 7%, n=9 Sst-

ChR2 neurons). Indeed, photostimulation at 1 Hz and 2 Hz showed a higher number of APs

per light pulse than that observed at frequencies above 5 Hz (Fig. 1c, 1Hz vs. 10 Hz, p=

0.0374; 1Hz vs. 20 Hz, p= 0.0063; 1 Hz vs. 40 Hz, p= 7.000 10^{-6}; 2 Hz vs. 10 Hz, p = 0.0245; 2Hz

vs. 20 Hz, p= 0.0039, 2 Hz vs. 40 Hz, p=3.597 10^{-6}). Taken together, these observations

indicate that optogenetic stimulation efficiently and reliably activates Sst-ChR2 neurons,

mostly of the adapting Sst subtype, at frequencies up to 20 Hz. They also reveal that these

neurons over-respond to low frequencies of photostimulation.

The polarity of the vascular response induced by the optogenetic stimulation of Sst-ChR2

neurons is frequency dependent.

Next, we visualized the optogenetically induced response of diving arterioles in cortical slices

(Fig. 2). We focused on the photostimulations at 2 Hz and 20 Hz, which correspond

respectively to the highest AP number per light pulse and to the frequency that produced

the highest total AP number, respectively (Fig. 1b,c). When photostimulation was delivered

at 2 Hz in Sst-ChR2 slices, we observed that the vast majority of arterioles exhibited

vasodilatory events (n= 13 of 14 arterioles, Fig. 2a,b), which could be accompanied by

vasoconstrictive events (n=6 of 14). On average, this resulted in a slight vasodilation (Fig. 2c).

High light intensity can cause dilation (Rungta et al., 2017) or constriction (Choi et al., 2010)

independent of ChR2, so we did control experiments by repeating 2 Hz photostimulation in

slices of C57Bl6 mice that do not express ChR2 (Fig. 2c). Although the overall vascular

response, as estimated by the area under the curve (AUC) of the response following the

optogenetic stimulation did not differ between Sst-ChR2 (55.8 ± 24.1 %.min, n= 14

arterioles) and C57Bl6 arterioles (37.4 ± 15.3 %.min, n= 6 arterioles, p= 0.15146, Fig. 2g1), an

evident tendency was observed toward vasodilation in Sst-ChR2 arterioles (Fig. 2c). Because

both vasodilation and vasoconstriction can occur in the same arteriole (Fig. 2b), we refined

the analysis of vascular responses by separating vasodilatory events from vasoconstrictive
events based on a Z-score test (supplementary Fig. 2a-b, see Methods). The magnitude of
vasodilation was greater in Sst-ChR2 arterioles (69.6 ± 19.9 %.min, Fig. 2g2) than in control
arterioles (8.5 ± 4.5 %.min, p=0.03415), although not the maximal amplitude (Sst-ChR2: 6.1 ±
1.3 % *vs.* C57Bl6: 2.2 ± 0.7 %, p= 0.12763, Fig. 2g3). Vasodilation also occurred earlier and
lasted longer in Sst-ChR2 arterioles (onset: 221 ± 130 s, duration: 1121 ± 195 s) than in
control arterioles (onset: 1013 ± 314 s, p= 0.02501, Fig. 2g4, duration: 304 ± 135 s, p=
0.04865, Fig. 2g6) but did not differ in their time to peak (Sst-ChR2: 669 ± 155 s *vs.* C57Bl6:
1014 ± 314 s, p= 0.32174, Fig. 2g5). In contrast, the amplitude, magnitude, and kinetic
properties of vasoconstriction induced by photostimulation at 2 Hz did not differ between
Sst-ChR2 and C57Bl6 arterioles (supplementary Fig. 2c1-5).
We next evaluated whether a stronger optogenetic stimulation could induce a similar
vascular response. Surprisingly, photostimulation at 20 Hz of Sst-ChR2 slices (n= 16) induced
vasoconstrictive events in the vast majority of arterioles (n= 15 of 16), but also vasodilatory
events to a lesser extent (n=9 of 16, Fig. 2d,e). This resulted on average in a progressive
vasoconstriction that was not observed in control arterioles (n= 4, Fig. 2f). Although the
overall vascular response was not statistically different between Sst-ChR2 and C57Bl6
arterioles (p=0.13458, Fig. 2h1), similarly to 2 Hz photostimulation it was more
heterogeneous in Sst-ChR2 arterioles (-83.3 ± 46.7 %.min) than in C57Bl6 arterioles (0.0 ±
25.3 %.min) and may be associated with both vasoconstriction and vasodilation (Fig. 2d,e
and supplemental Fig. 2 a,b). Both the magnitude of vasoconstriction and the maximal
vasoconstriction were greater in Sst-ChR2 arterioles (AUC: -121.7 ± 35.4 %.min, Fig. 2h2;
Maximal constriction: -12.2 ± 2.7 %, Fig. 2h3) than in control C57Bl6 (AUC: -17.8 ± 17.8
%.min, p=0.01810; Maximal constriction: -1.6 ± 1.6 %, p=0.00505). The onset and time to
peak of vasoconstriction were also earlier in Sst-ChR2 arterioles (onset: 267 ± 120 s, Fig. 2h4;
time to peak: 874 ± 181 s, Fig. 2h5) compared to control C57Bl6 arterioles (onset: 1361 ± 439
s; p= 0.01993; time to peak: 1680 ± 121 s, p= 0.04397). The contraction duration did not
differ between Sst-ChR2 arterioles (981 ± 152 s) and C57Bl6 (424 ± 424 s, p= 0.13849, Fig.
2h6). In contrast, the amplitude, magnitude, and kinetic properties of vasodilatory events
induced by photostimulation at 20 Hz did not differ between Sst-ChR2 and C57Bl6 arterioles
(supplementary Fig. 2d1-5). Taken together, these observations indicate that, depending on
the frequency of optogenetic stimulation Sst-ChR2 neurons elicit a bidirectional vascular

response consisting mainly of vasodilation and vasoconstriction at 2 Hz and at 20 Hz,
respectively.

304 NOS-1 and NPY are expressed by subpopulations of Sst cortical interneurons

Subpopulation of Sst-expressing cortical interneurons have been reported to produce NO
and/or NPY (Hendry et al., 1984; Kubota et al., 1994, 2011; Perrenoud et al., 2012a). These
mediators may explain the bidirectional vascular responses induced by the photostimulation
of Sst-ChR2 interneurons at 2 and 20 Hz, respectively, as they have been shown to induce
vasodilation and vasoconstriction, respectively (Cauli et al., 2004; Rancillac et al., 2006). We
therefore used double immunohistofluorescence to determine the extent to which Sst
interneurons have the ability to produce NO and NPY. Consistent with previous reports
(Kubota et al., 1994, 2011; Perrenoud et al., 2012a), NOS-1 immunolabeling revealed that
strongly immunoreactive somata appeared denser in deep than in superficial cortical layers
(Fig. 3a2-3 and supplementary Fig. 3). Some of these neurons were clearly identified as Sst-
ChR2 interneurons as shown by immunolabelling of the ChR2-EYFP fusion transgene using an
anti-GFP antibody (supplementary Fig. 3). However, consistent with the membrane
localization of ChR2-EYFP (Fig. 1a and supplementary Fig. 1), GFP immunofluorescence was
present at the periphery of the somata and in a dense fiber plexus (supplementary Fig. 3)
making it difficult to evaluate the degree of co-expression. Therefore, we thus used Sst-
GCamp6 mice (n= 3 mice) to obtain somatic Cre-dependent expression of the circularly
permuted GFP of GCamp6 (Madisen et al., 2015). As previously reported in Sst-IRES-Cre mice
(Taniguchi et al., 2011), Cre-dependent GFP expression was observed in the somata of
neurons distributed throughout all cortical layers except layer I (Fig. 3a1,b1), which
nevertheless showed diffuse GFP labelling presumably originating from the ascending axon
of Martinotti cells branching in this layer (DeFelipe et al., 2013). The average density of GFP-
positive cells was comparable between sections immunostained for NOS-1 (49.9 ± 2.7
cells/mm^2, n=3 mice, Fig. 3a1) and NPY (41.0 ± 7.1 cells/mm^2, n= 3 mice, Fig. 3b1,
t(2.55619)= 1.16763, p= 0.3403). A similar density of neurons immunolabeled for NOS-1 was
observed in GFP positive (2.0 ± 0.1 cells/mm^2) and negative cells (1.9 ± 0.4 cells/mm^2,
t(2.28582)= 0.215387, p= 0.8472, Fig. 3a3-4). However, the intensity of NOS-1
immunostaining was stronger in GFP-positive cells than in negative cells (Fig. 3a1,2),
indicating that they likely correspond to type 1 and type 2 NO-producing interneurons,
respectively. Consistent with previous reports in Sst interneurons, (Kubota et al., 1994, 2011;

Karagiannis et al., 2009; Perrenoud et al., 2012a; Tricoire et al., 2013), putative type 1 NO
interneurons represented only a minority of GFP-positive cells (4.0 ± 0.1%). NPY
immunostaining showed a relatively high density of positive cells (29.4 ± 6.0 cells/mm^2) and
fiber plexus in superficial and deep layers (Fig. 3b2) as reported in other mammals (Hendry
et al., 1984). The vast majority of NPY immunoreactive neurons were also GFP positive (81.4
± 2.1%, Fig. 3b3-4) with the remaining NPY interneurons likely corresponding to
neurogliaform cells (Cauli et al., 2004; Price et al., 2005; Karagiannis et al., 2009; Kubota et
al., 2011; Perrenoud et al., 2012a), as suggested by their round immunolabeled somata (Fig.
3b3-4). More precisely, the proportion of GFP-positive cells immunostained for NPY was
much higher (58.9 + 8.2%, t(2.00020)=6.70695, p= 0.0215) than those immunolabeled for
NOS-1, which is known to represent a subpopulation of NPY interneurons (Estrada and
DeFelipe, 1998; Karagiannis et al., 2009; Tasic et al., 2016). These observations collectively
indicate that the Cre-dependent expression of the transgenes in Sst-IRES-Cre mice occurs in
at least two subpopulations of interneurons that express NOS-1 and/or NPY to a greater
extent.
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Vasodilation induced by 2 Hz photostimulation of Sst-ChR2 interneurons requires AP firing
and NO signaling
Since a subpopulation of Sst interneurons (Fig. 3a3-4 and supplementary 3) can produce the
vasodilator NO (Cauli et al., 2004), we next investigated the mechanisms by which they
induce vasodilation when photostimulated at 2 Hz. We first determined whether spiking
activity was required by blocking APs with the voltage-activated sodium channel blocker
tetrodotoxin (TTX 1 μM (Zonta et al., 2003), n= 10 arterioles). Bath application of TTX did not
change arteriolar diameter (diameter before: 17.0 ± 1.8 μm *vs.* after TTX: 16.9 ± 1.7 μm, $t_{(9)}$=
1.0031, p=0.3420, Supplementary Fig. 4a,b), indicating that basal network activity does not
influence the resting vascular tone. By contrast, it dramatically reduced the overall vascular
response (-19.6 ± 10.5 %.min, p= 0.04966, Fig. 4a and d1) and the magnitude of evoked
vasodilation (6.8 ± 2.4 %.min, p= 0.00844, Fig. 4d2) without altering the maximal dilation (2.2
± 0.6%, p=0.11114, Fig. 4d3) or its time to peak (1256 ± 192 s, p= 0.07716, Fig. 4e2). In
addition, the onset and the duration of vasodilation were respectively delayed (1142 ± 210 s,
p= 0.00152, Fig. 4e1) and shortened (306 ± 121 s, p= 0.01623, Fig. 4e3). Of note, the
vasoconstrictive events were not altered except for their onset and time to peak

(Supplementary Fig. 4g1-5). These observations indicate that AP firing is mandatory for the

vasodilation induced by 2 Hz photostimulation.

We next asked whether NO signaling could be responsible for the vasodilation induced by 2

Hz photostimulation. Inhibiting nitric oxide synthases with L-NAME (100 µM (Zonta et al.,

2003), n = 9 arterioles) did not alter the arteriolar diameter (diameter before: 15.3 ± 2.1 µm

vs. after L-NAME: 15.4 ± 2.3 µm, $W_{(9)}$= -2, p=0.9453, Supplementary Fig. 4c,d) indicating that

basal NO synthase activity does not influence resting vascular tone. By contrast L-NAME

treatment completely abolished the evoked vasodilation as evidenced by its dramatic impact

on the overall vascular response (AUC: -71.0 ± 20.4 %.min, p= 0.00042, Fig. 4b and 4d1), as

well as on the magnitude (4.9 ± 2.9 %.min, p = 0.00096, Fig. 4d2) and maximal amplitude of

vasodilation (1.5 ± 0.9%, p= 0.00172, Fig. 4d3). It also strongly delayed the apparent onset of

vasodilation (1407 ± 210 s, p= 0.0004, Fig. 4e1) and reduced its duration (169 ± 100 s,

p=0.00059, Fig. 4e3), but not the time to peak (1410 ± 210 s, $H_{(4,54)}$= 8.299, p= 0.08123, Fig.

4e2). The overall negative responses observed under NOS inhibition suggest that

vasoconstriction was uncovered. Indeed, L-NAME increased the magnitude (-70.1 ± 19.7

%.min, p= 0.00234, Supplementary Fig. 4g1) and the maximal amplitude (-8.6 ± 1.9 %, p=

0.00089, Supplementary Fig. 4g2) of vasoconstrictive events induced by 2 Hz

photostimulation. It also shortened their onset (475 ± 207s, p= 0.01292, Supplementary Fig.

4g3) without affecting their time to peak (1056 ± 185 s, p= 0.06502, Supplementary Fig. 4g4)

and duration (926 ± 155 s, $H_{(4,54)}$=9.278, p= 0.05452, Supplementary Fig. 4g5). These

observations suggest that the vasodilation evoked by 2 Hz photostimulation involves NO

synthesis, and that its blockade unmasks vasoconstriction. To confirm that NO signaling is

required, we next used ODQ (10 µM (Hepp et al., 2007), n= 12 arterioles) to inhibit the sGC,

the intracellular receptor responsible for NO-mediated vasodilation. Similar to NOS

inhibition, blockade of NO-signaling did not alter the basal diameter (diameter before: 19.3 ±

2.9 µm *vs.* after ODQ: 19.2 ± 2.9 µm, $W_{(12)}$= -14, p=0.6055, Supplementary Fig. 4c,d)

confirming that NO signaling does not influence resting vascular tone. Similar to NOS

inhibition by L-NAME, ODQ dramatically altered the overall vascular response (-27.6 ± 10.2

%.min, p= 0.02253, Fig. 4c and d1) and reduced the magnitude (3.0 ± 1.2%, p=0.00093, Fig.

4d2) and maximal amplitude of vasodilation (0.9 ± 0.3 %, p= 0.00172, Fig. 4d3). It also

strongly delayed the vasodilation onset (1119 ± 216 s, p= 0.00130, Fig. 4e1), and reduced its

duration (147 ± 58 s, p= 0.00123, Fig. 4e3) without impacting the time to peak of

vasodilation (1119 ± 216 s, Fig. 4e2). In contrast to L-NAME treatment, ODQ, did not alter

the magnitude, amplitude, or kinetic properties of vasoconstrictive events (Supplementary

Fig. 4g1-5). Taken together, these results indicate that AP firing is mandatory for the

vasodilation evoked by 2 Hz photostimulation, which is mediated by NO synthesis and

signaling. Furthermore, they show that 2 Hz optogenetic stimulation induces

vasoconstriction that is masked by NO-dependent vasodilation.

NPY-induced vasoconstriction involves the Y1 receptor independently of spiking activity.

Since the majority of Sst interneurons are positive for NPY (Fig. 3b1,2) and virtually all

cortical type 1 NO-producing interneurons express this neuropeptide (Dawson et al., 1991;

Estrada and DeFelipe, 1998; Kubota et al., 1994, 2011; Perrenoud et al., 2012a), NPY could

be responsible for the vasoconstriction observed with 20 Hz photostimulation, but also with

2 Hz photostimulation under NOS inhibition. We first verified that NPY induced

vasoconstriction in a dose-dependent manner (Supplementary Fig. 5). 10 nM NPY (n= 11

arterioles) evoked very small vasoconstriction (Supplementary Fig. 5b e1-3), that only

differed form control condition (n= 3 arterioles) for their onset (10 nM: 548 ± 194 s, p=

0.04430, Supplementary Fig. 5f1). 100 nM (n= 10 arterioles) and 1 µM NPY (n= 9 arterioles)

evoked much stronger vasoconstriction, as evidenced by their magnitude (100 nM: -154.9 ±

40.7 %.min, p= 0.01154; 1 µM: -162.5 ± 23.0 %.min, p= 0.00474, Supplementary Fig. 5e1),

maximal amplitude (100 nM: -13.1 ± 2.2 %, p= 0.02023; 1 µM: -25.1 ± 3.4 %, p= 0.00062,

Supplementary Fig. 5e2). Vasoconstriction evoked by 100 nM and 1 µM occurred also much

faster (100 nM: 282 ± 43 s, p= 0.04430; 1µM: 147 ± 18 s, p= 0.00281, Supplementary Fig.

5e3) and time to peak (100 nM: 545 ± 116 s, p= 0.02912; 1µM: 311 ± 38 s, p= 0.00395,

Supplementary Fig. 5e4). They also lasted longer (998 ± 124 s, p= 0.01731; 1µM: 1234 ±

104s, p= 0.00113, Supplementary Fig. 5e5). Since the vasoconstriction induced by 20 Hz

optogenetic stimulation of Sst-ChR2 and 100 nM NPY were of similar magnitude and

maximal amplitude (Fig. 2f2,3 and supplementary Fig. 5e1,2) we next evaluated whether the

NPY Y1 antagonist BIBP3226 could abolish the vasoconstriction induced by 100 nM.

Pretreatment with BIBP3226 (1µM (Perrenoud et al., 2012b), n= 10 arterioles) dramatically

reduced the vasoconstriction induced by 100 nM NPY (Fig. 5a), as evidenced by its effect on

the magnitude (-8.0 ± 7.6 %.min, p= 0.00181, Fig. 5c1) and maximum amplitude (-0.8 ± 0.7

%, p= 0.00144, Fig. 5c2). BIBP3226 also dramatically delayed the onset (1486 ± 212 s, p=

0.01467, Fig. 5c3) and time to peak (1622 ± 137 s, p= 0.00207, Fig. 5c4) of NPY-induced
vasoconstriction and reduced its duration (175 ± 148 s, p= 0.01261, Fig. 5c5). These
observations confirm that NPY induces strong arteriolar vasoconstriction via Y1 receptors.
Since Y1 receptor is expressed by smooth muscle cells (Vanlandewijck et al., 2018; Zhang et
al., 2024) but also by neurons (Smith et al., 2019; Tasic et al., 2016; Zeisel et al., 2015) it has
been proposed that NPY-induced vasoconstriction could be mediated by intermediary
neuronal types (Kaplan et al., 2020). To rule out this possibility we investigated the impact of
AP firing inhibition on NPY-induced vasoconstriction. We found that TTX treatment (1 µM,
n= 9 arterioles) had no effect on the magnitude (-173.7 ± 58.8 %.min, p= 0.62911, Fig. 5c1),
maximum amplitude (-14.3 ± 4.2 %, p= 0.64910, Fig. 5c2), onset (554 ± 239s, p= 0.88537, Fig.
5c3), time to peak (752 ± 211 s, p= 0.45002, Fig. 5c4) and duration (903 ± 199s, p= 0.80606,
Fig. 2c5) of vasoconstriction induced by 100 nM NPY. Collectively these observations indicate
that NPY induces vasoconstriction via the Y1 receptor independently of neuronal activity.
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Vasoconstriction induced by 20 Hz photostimulation of Sst-ChR2 interneurons requires AP
firing and NPY Y1 signaling
To investigate the mechanisms responsible for the vasoconstriction induced by 20 Hz
optogenetic stimulation of Sst-ChR2 interneurons, we first evaluated the requirement of AP
firing. TTX treatment (1µM, n= 10 arterioles) dramatically reduced the magnitude (-14.1 ±
5.8, %.min, p= 0.01810, Fig. 6a, c2), maximum amplitude (-1.9 ± 0.5 %, p= 0.00092, Fig. 6c3)
of vasoconstriction induced by 20 Hz photostimulation. It also delayed the vasoconstriction
onset (990 ± 236 s, p= 0.01993, Fig. 6d1) without significantly altering its apparent time to
peak (1163 ± 187 s, Fig. 6d2) and duration (571 ± 196 s, Fig. 6d3). TTX had also no impact on
vasodilatory events evoked by 20 Hz photostimulation (Supplementary Fig. 6c1-5). These
observations indicate that AP firing is mandatory for vasoconstriction induced by 20 Hz
optogenetic stimulation of Sst-ChR2 interneurons. We next investigated whether this
vascular response could be mediated by NPY. Antagonizing Y1 receptor in Sst-ChR2 slices
with BIBP3226 (1µM, n=10 arterioles) did not alter the arteriolar diameter (diameter before:
17.1 ± 2.0 µm $vs.$ after BIBP3226: 17.0 ± 2.0 µm, $t_{(9)}$= 0.82945, p= 0.4283, Supplementary Fig.
6a,b) indicating that tonic NPY level does not influence resting vascular tone. In contrast,
BIBP3226 dramatically reduced the magnitude (-21.8 ± 8.6 %.min, p= 0.01810, Fig. 6a,c2)
and the maximum amplitude (-2.0 ± 0.6 %, p= 0.00092, Fig. 6c3) of vasoconstriction induced

by 20 Hz optogenetic stimulation. It also delayed the onset of vasoconstriction (934 ± 244 s,

p= 0.01993, Fig 6d1) without altering its time to peak (1148 ± 201s, Fig. 6d2) and duration

(643 ± 224s, Fig. 6d3). Similar to TTX, BIBP3226 had no impact on the vasodilatory events

induced by 20 Hz Photostimulation (Supplementary Fig. 6c1-5). Taken together, these

observations indicate that vasoconstriction induced by 20 Hz photostimulation of Sst-ChR2

neurons requires both AP firing and NPY signaling through the Y1 receptor.

DISCUSSION

Here we used optogenetics in mouse cortical slices to show that Sst interneurons exert a bimodal vascular response that requires AP firing and whose polarity depends on the stimulation frequency. The vasodilation induced by 2 Hz photostimulation involves NO synthesis and signaling via the sGC, whereas the vasoconstriction induced by 20 Hz photostimulation implies NPY and activation of its Y1 receptor. Consistently, histochemical investigations revealed that subpopulations of photostimulated Sst interneurons express the NOS-1 and/or NPY (Fig. 7).

Frequency dependence of the neuronal and vascular responses

The observation that Sst interneurons respond supralinearly to low-frequency optogenetic stimulation is reminiscent of the higher impedance observed at low frequency in hippocampal Sst-positive oriens lacunosum-moleculare cells (Zemankovics et al., 2010), which depends on a high capacitance and a pronounced hyperpolarisation-activated cation current I_h, two features shared by cortical Sst interneurons (Halabisky et al., 2006; Karagiannis et al., 2009, 2021; Perrenoud et al., 2012a). Indeed, according to Ohm's law, a higher impedance at low frequency would have resulted in a larger voltage response induced by the ChR2 photocurrents, resulting in a higher number of spikes per light pulse. We found that depending on the AP firing frequency, Sst interneurons can induce vasodilation or vasoconstriction. These results confirm and extend our previous observations in rat cortical slices showing that the evoked firing of single Sst interneurons at a frequency of at least 8 Hz results in vasoconstriction (Cauli et al., 2004). Similarly, the *in vivo* optogenetic stimulation of GABAergic interneurons was found to induce hyperemia/vasodilation, which can be followed by vasoconstriction (Anenberg et al., 2015; Uhlirova et al., 2016). In addition, photostimulation of Sst interneurons also induced a hyperemic response, followed by a decrease in blood flow that became more pronounced with increasing duration of stimulation (Krawchuk et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2020). Our findings are further supported by the observations showing that the selective optogenetic, chemogenetic or pharmacological stimulation of NOS-1 expressing Sst interneurons induced hyperemia/vasodilation (Echagarruga et al., 2020; Ruff et al., 2024) also support our findings. Nevertheless compared to those *in vivo,* the responses we observed in slices were notably much slower and longer lasting (Krawchuk et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2020). This is likely

due to the lower temperature in *ex vivo* experiments which has been reported to slowdown

the synthesis of vasoactive messenger (Rancillac et al., 2006) and subsequent reactions. In

contrast to *in vivo* observations (Uhlirova et al., 2016; Krawchuk et al., 2019; Lee et al.,

2020), the *ex vivo* magnitude of vasoconstriction was greater than that of vasodilation. Here,

the absence of vascular tone in slices, which favors vasoconstriction (Blanco et al., 2008),

probably led to an underestimation of vasodilation. On the other hand the absence of blood

flow in the slices may have reduced the scavenging of NO by hemoglobin (Rancillac et al.,

2006), whose *in vivo* concentration locally increases during functional hyperemia (Devor et

al., 2007; Lee et al., 2020), thereby prolonging *ex vivo* vasodilation.

Cellular and molecular mechanisms of vasodilation and vasoconstriction.

We found that the vasodilation induced by the 2 Hz optogenetic stimulation was dependent

on AP firing, NO synthesis and activation of soluble guanylate cyclase (sGC). The mandatory

role of APs indicates that Ca^{2+} entry via ChR2 alone is insufficient to drive vasodilation. This

likely reflects the essential role of voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channels in somatic Ca^{2+} elevation

(Mao et al., 2001) and the subsequent Ca^{2+}-dependent activation of NOS-1, NO release and

arteriolar vasodilation (Rancillac et al., 2006; Attwell et al., 2010; Cauli and Hamel, 2010;

Mishra et al., 2016; Iadecola, 2017; Cauli and Hamel, 2018). Consistently, some

supragranular NOS-1 neurons showed an increase in somatic Ca^{2+} prior to vasodilation

evoked by whisker stimulation and/or spontaneous locomotion in awake head-fixed mice

whereas others showed a gradual and delayed activation (Ahn et al., 2023). Although type 1

NOS-1 interneurons are preferentially located in deep layers (Perrenoud et al., 2012a), our

histochemical observations revealed the presence of NOS-1 positive Sst-Cre interneurons in

superficial layers. Together with the high excitability of Sst interneurons (Karagiannis et al.,

2009, 2021; Perrenoud et al., 2012a), these observations suggest that some of these

interneurons correspond to the fast responder NOS-1 neurons (Ahn et al., 2023). The

abolition of the optogenetically induced vasodilation evoked by 2 Hz photostimulation by

both NOS and sGC inhibition strongly suggests that it is mediated by NO synthesis, release

and direct action on smooth muscle cells, leading to their relaxation (Fig. 7). However, NOS

inhibition revealed a vasoconstriction, most likely mediated by NPY (Uhlirova et al., 2016),

that was not observed when sGC or AP firing was blocked. These observations suggest that a

NO-sensitive, but soluble guanylate cyclase-independent, mechanism of vasodilation

counterbalanced the vasoconstriction disclosed by L-NAME. Active astrocytes, which have
been shown to produce vasodilatory epoxyeicosatrienoic acids via the P450 epoxygenase
(Alkayed et al., 1997), may be responsible for such a vasodilation. Indeed, astrocytes have
been reported to be robustly activated by the repetitive firing of Sst interneurons (Mariotti
et al., 2018), and the P450 expoygenase, which is expressed in arteriolar but not cappillary
endfeet (Mishra et al., 2016), is inhibited by NO (Roman, 2002; Metea and Newman, 2006;
Attwell et al., 2010).

We found that vasoconstriction predominates over vasodilation when Sst-ChR2 interneurons
are photostimulated at 20 Hz. This reflects the much higher number of NPY-positive Sst-
ChR2 interneurons compared to type 1 NOS-1 interneurons (Karagiannis et al., 2009;
Perrenoud et al., 2012a) and the dense network of NPY positive terminals on blood vessels
(Abounader and Hamel, 1997). Furthermore, the release of NPY from large dense-core
vesicles requires a higher firing frequency than the release of neurotransmitters from
synaptic vesicles (Baraban and Tallent, 2004). It is also possible that the release of NO
requires a lower firing frequency than that of NPY. We found that optogenetically induced
vasoconstriction was almost completely abolished by the antagonism of Y1 receptors,
suggesting that this effect was essentially mediated by NPY, as reported for the optogenetic
stimulation of GABAergic interneurons (Uhlirova et al., 2016). We cannot exclude the
indirect contribution of Sst and GABA which can exert vasoconstrictive effects (Long et al.,
1992; Fergus and Lee, 1997). Indeed, the repetitive firing of Sst interneurons robustly
activates astrocytes via Sst and GABA$_B$ receptors (Mariotti et al., 2018), which could in turn
induce vasoconstriction via 20-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid (Mulligan and MacVicar, 2004)
and/or K+ (Girouard et al., 2010). However, Sst is not as efficient as NPY in inducing
vasoconstriction in cortical slices (Cauli et al., 2004), and the amount of Sst in the cerebral
cortex is reduced in Sst-Cre mice (Viollet et al., 2017), but not that of NPY. On the other
hand, the vasoconstrictor effect of the GABA$_B$ receptor activation requires AP firing (Fergus
and Lee, 1997), suggesting that it is mediated by neurons and not by astrocytes. Thus, it is
more likely that the vasoconstriction induced by 20 Hz optogenetic stimulation of Sst-ChR2
interneurons is essentially mediated by NPY and the Y1 receptors.

Physiological relevance of the bidirectional control of neurovascular coupling by Sst-
interneurons

The ability of Sst interneurons to drive a bimodal vascular response *ex vivo* depending on
firing frequency is consistent with *in vivo* observations showing that increasing the duration
and/or the frequency of photostimulation of Sst-ChR2 interneurons favors the observation
of decreased blood flow, in addition to hyperemia (Krawchuk et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2020).
However, the evoked decrease in blood flow appears to be more pronounced at a site
different from the site of hyperemia (Lee et al., 2020). This is reminiscent of the
center/surround pattern of vasodilation/vasoconstriction observed *in vivo* in response to
sensory stimulation, with the vasodilation in the activated area preceding the peripheral
vasoconstriction (Devor et al., 2007; Boorman et al., 2010; Uhlirova et al., 2016). Because
fast-responding NOS-1 neurons are activated before the onset of vasodilation (Ahn et al.,
2023), they are most likely involved in the initiation of vasodilation. Consistently, local NO
production precedes functional hyperemia but disappears before the end of stimulation
(Buerk et al., 2003), presumably because of the short half-life of NO (Wood and Garthwaite,
1994) and its increased scavenging induced by functional hyperemia. The delayed and/or
peripheral vasoconstriction (Devor et al., 2007; Uhlirova et al., 2016; Krawchuk et al., 2019;
Lee et al., 2020) could be due to its blunting by early occurring vasodilation, a higher level of
activity required for NPY release (Baraban and Tallent, 2004), as suggested by our
observations, and/or a different site of action of NO and NPY (Estrada and DeFelipe, 1998).
Sst/NOS-1/NPY neurons largely correspond to long-range GABAergic neurons (Tomioka et
al., 2005) and have been shown to locally induce vasodilation (Echagarruga et al., 2020; Ruff
et al., 2024). It remains to determine whether their interhemispheric long-range projection
(Ruff et al., 2024) could explain the vasoconstriction observed contralaterally to the
activated area (Devor et al., 2008) when their activity is elevated. Sst/NOS-1/NPY also
correspond to cortical sleep active neurons (Gerashchenko et al., 2008; Kilduff et al., 2011).
Furthermore, Sst and Sst/NOS-1 interneurons are involved in slow and delta wave activities,
respectively (Morairty et al., 2013; Funk et al., 2017; Zielinski et al., 2019), a frequency range
associated with sleep that we showed was the most efficient at activating them.
Interestingly, oscillating vasodilation of large amplitude and a vasoconstriction are observed
during non REM sleep and upon awakening, respectively (Turner et al., 2020; Bojarskaite et
al., 2023). Whether the coordinated action of NO and NPY could participate in these
hemodynamic changes in a frequency-dependent manner remains also to be determined.
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Bidirectional control of neurovascular coupling by Sst interneurons in pathological conditions

Several neurological disorders, such as epilepsy (Sada et al., 2015; Gaxiola-Valdez et al., 2017) or Alzheimer's disease (Palop et al., 2007; Kimbrough et al., 2015; Le Douce J. et al., 2020), associate hyperactivity with gliovascular and metabolic deficits that are likely to alter the control of neurovascular coupling by Sst interneurons. For example, cerebral lactate, which is produced by astrocytes from glucose during excitatory transmission (Pellerin and Magistretti, 1994; Cauli et al., 2023), is dramatically increased in epilepsy (Slais et al., 2008). Drugs that interfere with lactate metabolism by neurons have emerged as a promising strategy for treating epilepsy (Sada et al., 2015), an effect that involves the neuronal uptake of lactate, its oxidative metabolism and the subsequent closure of ATP-sensitive potassium channels. Since Sst interneurons functionally express these channels (Karagiannis et al., 2021) and are among the neurons showing the highest mitochondrial content (Gulyas et al., 2006), their activity is likely to be efficiently enhanced by the presence of lactate and its oxidative metabolism. This could favor the GABAergic inhibition of pyramidal cells (Silberberg and Markram, 2007), but also decreased glutamatergic transmission (Bacci et al., 2002), and Y1-mediated vasoconstriction (Uhlirova et al., 2016), thereby mitigating lactate-induced hyperactivity (Sada et al., 2015).

Hyperactivity has also been reported in several models of Alzheimer's disease (Palop et al., 2007; Bezzina et al., 2015; Zott et al., 2019), and loss of Sst interneurons has been observed in patients (Gaspar et al., 1989) and in the early stages of a mouse model of the disease (Ramos et al., 2006). Furthermore, Sst/NOS-1/NPY interneurons play a key role in non-REM sleep (Gerashchenko et al., 2008; Morairty et al., 2013; Zielinski et al., 2019), during which the fluctuations in the perivascular space favor the clearance of β-amyloid peptides (Iliff et al., 2013; Xie et al., 2013; Bojarskaite et al., 2023). These observations suggest that the control of NVC by Sst interneurons may be altered early, accelerating amyloid plaque accumulation and disease progression. However, NVC has been shown to be impaired (Niwa et al., 2002; Kimbrough et al., 2015; Lourenco et al., 2017), unchanged (Sharp et al., 2020) or even enhanced (Shabir et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2024), making it difficult to assess its alterations. Whether these differences depend on the mouse model, the stage of disease progression, or the experimental condition remains to be investigated.

Conclusion

Here, using a combination of approaches, we describe the mechanisms by which Sst interneurons bidirectionally control NVC as a function of their firing frequency. Vasodilation was preferentially evoked at low-frequency photostimulation and primarily involves NO release and activation of its vascular receptor sGC. In contrast, vasoconstriction was more reliably induced at high frequency and involves NPY release and activation of the vascular receptor Y1. This finding will help to update the interpretation of the functional brain imaging signals used to map network activity in health and disease (Iadecola, 2017; Zhang and Raichle, 2010). This bimodal control of neurovascular coupling may also help to define therapeutic targets for epilepsy and Alzheimer's disease in which hyperactivity, gliovascular and metabolic deficits overlap (Palop and Mucke, 2010; Sada et al., 2015; Gaxiola-Valdez et al., 2017).

Data availability statement

The data that support the results of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Author contributions

B.M., J.O.R, S.P. B.L.G., M.T., and E.B. designed experiments, acquired and analyzed the data, and edited the manuscript. B.M. and B.C. drafted the manuscript. L.R.V.C. edited the manuscript. I.D. designed experiments and edited the manuscript. H.S. analyzed the data.

D.L. provided resources and edited the manuscript. B.C. designed experiments, analyzed the

data and edited the manuscript.

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FIGURE LEGEND

Figure 1: Electrophysiological characterization of cortical Sst-ChR2 neurons. (a) Representative
recording showing the voltage responses induced by 800 ms current injections (bottom traces) of -
100 pA, -80 pA, -60 pA, -40 pA, -20 pA, 0 pA, +15 and +150 pA in a cortical EYFP/ChR2-expressing
neuron from a Sst-Cre:Ai32 mouse. Note the pronounced voltage sag after the initial peak response
(arrow) to hyperpolarizing current injections (middle traces). Just-above threshold current pulse (+15
pA) triggered a discharge of three action potentials (middle traces). Note the complex AHP consisting
of a fast AHP, a small ADP, and a medium AHP. Near saturation, a strong depolarizing current (+150
pA) elicited a discharge of action potentials with a marked frequency adaptation and a monotonous
amplitude accommodation (upper trace). Top inset: IR videomicroscopy picture of the recorded
neuron, the pial surface is upward (scale bar, 20 μm). Bottom insets, corresponding field of view
showing the EYFP fluorescence of the recorded neuron. **(b1-6)** Voltage responses (upper traces) of
the Sst-ChR2 neuron shown in **(a)** induced by photostimulations (470 nm, 10 s train, 5 ms pulses)
delivered at 1, 2, 5, 10, 20 and 40 Hz (cyan lower traces) and instantaneous spike success rate
(middle trace). The red boxes highlight the first second of the zoomed recording in the right insets

(scaled bars 200 ms, 40 mV). The red lines represent a spike success rate of 100%. Note that more
than one action potential is elicited per light pulse delivered at 1 or 2 Hz whereas at frequencies
above 5 Hz this success rate rapidly decreases to a maximum of one spike per light pulse. (**c**)
Histogram showing the average spike success rate induced by photostimulations at 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, or
40 Hz (n = 9 Sst-ChR2 cortical neurons from 6 SST-Cre:Ai32 mice). Note the average spike success rate
exceeding 100 % at photostimulation frequencies lower than 10 Hz. Data are presented as means ±
SEM. The SEMs envelope the mean traces Statistically different with *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$ and ***$p <$
0.001; n.s.: not statistically significant.
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Figure 2: Bidirectional frequency-dependent vascular response induced by optogenetic stimulation
of cortical Sst-ChR2 neurons. (a, d) Representative examples of infrared pictures of diving arterioles
and diameter measurements before (0 min) and after (6, 11, 22 min) photostimulation at 2 Hz **(a)**
and 20 Hz **(d)** in Sst-Cre:Ai32 cortical slices. The pial surface is upward. Scale bars 20 µm. **(a, d)** White,
red and blue calipers correspond to baseline, dilated, and contracted arteriolar diameters,
respectively. The dashed yellow lines indicate the initial diameters. Note the slight increase **(a)** and
decrease followed by an increase **(d)** in diameter induced by photostimulation delivered at 2 Hz **(a)**

and 20 Hz **(d)**, respectively. **(b, e)** Waterfall plots showing the kinetics of changes in diameter of
single arterioles induced by photostimulation at 2 Hz **(b)** and 20 Hz **(e)**. The inset shows the color
code used for constriction (blue) and dilation (red) used in both panels. Arterioles are sorted by
increasing values of total vascular changes. The cyan planes and arrows indicate the onset of
photostimulation. Black arrows indicate changes in diameter of the arterioles shown in **(a)** and **(b)**. **(c,**
f) Kinetics of mean diameter changes induced by 2 Hz **(c)** or 20 Hz **(f)** photostimulation. The dashed
yellow lines correspond to the initial diameters. **(c)** Note the average small diameter increase
induced by 2 Hz photostimulation in Sst-Cre:Ai32 (red, n= 14 arterioles from 8 mice) but not in
C57Bl6 arterioles (black, n= 6 arterioles from 5 mice) and **(f)** the average progressive diameter
decrease induced by 20 Hz photostimulation in Sst-Cre:Ai32 (blue, n= 16 arterioles from 10 mice) but
not in WT arterioles (black, n= 4 arterioles from 3 mice). **(g1-6, h1-6)** Violin plots summarizing the
comparison of overall vascular response **(g1, h1)**, magnitude of dilation **(g2)** and contraction **(h2)**,
maximum dilation **(g3)** and contraction **(h3)**, onset **(g4,h4)** time to peak **(g5,h5)** and duration **(g6,h6)**
of dilation **(g2-6)** and contraction **(h2-6)** between arterioles from slices of Sst-Cre:Ai32 and C57Bl6
mice stimulated at 2 **(g1-6)** and 20 Hz **(h1-6)**. Note the larger **(g2)**, earlier **(g4)** and longer **(g6)** dilation
in Sst-ChR2 slices stimulated at 2 Hz and the larger **(h2,3)**, and earlier onset **(h4)** and time to peak
(h5) contraction in Sst-ChR2 slices stimulated at 20 Hz Data are presented as individual values. Solid
and dashed black bars correspond to median and quartile values. * and ** statistically different from
C57Bl6 mice with p< 0.05 and 0.01, respectively. n.s.: not statistically significant.
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Figure 3: Expression of NOS-1 and NPY in Sst-Cre neurons. (a1,b1) Representative maximum intensity projections of 30 µm thick stacked confocal images showing GFP (green) expression in cortical slices from Sst-GCaMP6f mice. (a2) NOS-1 immunolabeling (red) is present in rare neurons. (b2) Numerous GFP-positive neurons are immunolabeled for NPY (red). (a3,b3) Double fluorescence images showing the co-expression of NOS-1 in rare GFP-positive neurons (a3) and NPY in numerous GFP positive neurons (b3). The white rectangles in **a3** and **b3** correspond to the zoomed regions shown in **a4** and **b4**, respectively. Arrowheads indicate GPF-positive neurons immunolabelled for NOS-1 (**a4**) or NPY (**b4**). Asterisks denote GFP-negative neurons immunostained for NOS-1 (**a4**) or NPY (**b4**). Scale bars: 200 µm (**a3, b3**) and 40 µm (**a4,b4**).

Figure 4: Vasodilation induced by 2 Hz photostimulation of Sst-ChR2 neurons requires spiking activity and nitric oxide signaling. (a, b, c) Effects of tetrodotoxin (TTX, 1 µM, brown, n= 10 arterioles from 6 mice), NOS inhibitor (L-NAME, orange, 100 µM, n= 9 arterioles from 6 mice) and ODQ (10 µM, purple, n= 12 arterioles from 7 mice), on the kinetics of the vascular response induced by 2 Hz photostimulation of Sst-ChR2 neurons. The red traces correspond to the control condition shown in Fig. 2b. The SEMs envelope the mean traces. Vasodilation is abolished by blocking action potentials with TTX **(a)**, inhibiting nitric oxide synthase with L-NAME **(b)** or sGC with ODQ **(c)**. The dashed black lines indicate the normalized initial diameters. Violin plots summarizing the effects of TTX (brown), L-NAME (orange) and ODQ (purple) on the overall vascular response (**d1**, $H_{(5,51)}$= 16.105, p= 0.00288), magnitude (**d2**, $H_{(5,51)}$= 18.625, p= 0.00093), maximum (**d3**, $H_{(5,51)}$= 14.834, p=0.00506), onset (**e1**, $H_{(5,51)}$= 20.592, p= 0.00038), time to peak (**e2**, $H_{(5,51)}$= 8.299, p= 0.08123), and duration (**e3**, $H_{(5,51)}$= 16.867, p= 0.00205) of vasodilation induced by 2 Hz photostimulation (red). Data are presented as individual values. Solid and dashed black bars correspond to median and quartile values. * and ** statistically different from control condition with p<0.05 and 0.01 respectively.

Figure 5: NPY-induced vasoconstriction involves the Y1 receptor independently of spiking activity.
(a,b) Kinetics of diameter changes induced by 5 minutes exogenous application of 100 nM NPY (blue bars) under control condition (**a**, blue trace) and in presence of 1 µM BIBP3226 (**a**, green trace, n= 10 arterioles from 6 mice) or 1 µM TTX (**b**, brown trace, n= 9 arterioles from 4 mice). The SEMs envelope the mean traces. Violin plots summarizing the effects of BIBP 3226 (green) and TTX (brown) on the on the magnitude (**c1**, $H_{(4,32)}$= 17.244, p= 0.00063**),** maximum (**c2**, $H_{(4,32)}$= 17.859, p= 0.00047**),** onset (**c3**, $H_{(4,32)}$= 13.529, p= 0.00362**),** time to peak (**c4**, $H_{(4,32)}$= 16.209, p= 0.00103), and duration (**c5**, $H_{(4,32)}$= 13.557, p= 0.00357**)** of vasoconstriction induced by NPY. The selective NPY Y1 receptor antagonist BIBP3226 but not TTX abolished the NPY-induced vasoconstriction. Data are presented as individual values. Solid and dashed black bars correspond to median and quartile values. * and ** statistically different from the 100 nM control condition with p< 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

Figure 6: Vasoconstriction induced by 20 Hz photostimulation of Sst-ChR2 neurons requires spiking activity and NPY signaling. (a, b) Effects of tetrodotoxin (TTX, 1 µM, brown, n= 10 arterioles from 5 mice) and the selective Y1 receptor antagonist (BIBP 3226, 1 µM, green, n= 11 arterioles from 9 mice)

on the kinetics of the vascular response induced by 20 Hz photostimulation of Sst-ChR2 neurons. The blue trace corresponds to the control condition shown in Fig. 2e. The SEMs envelope the mean traces. Vasoconstriction is abolished by blocking action potentials with TTX **(a)** or by the selective antagonist of Y1 receptor, BIBP 3226 **(b)**. Violin plots summarizing the effects of TTX (brown) and BIBP 3226 (green) on the overall vascular response **(c1**, $F*_{(3, 22.04)}$= 2.557, p= 0.08117**)**, magnitude **(c2**, $H_{(4,41)}$= 10.774, p= 0.01301**),** maximum **(c3**, $H_{(4,41)}$= 19.152, p= 0.00025), onset **(d1**, $H_{(4,41)}$= 10.671, p= 0.01364**),** time to peak **(d2**, $H_{(4,41)}$= 6.373, p= 0.09481**)**, and duration **(d3**, $H_{(4,41)}$= 4.726, p= 0.19300**)** of vasoconstriction induced by 20 Hz photostimulation (cyan). Data are presented as individual values. Solid and dashed black bars correspond to median and quartile values. *, ** and *** statistically different from control condition with p<0.05, p<0,01 and 0.001 respectively.

Figure 7: Schematic representation of the mechanisms of bidirectional control of neurovascular coupling by Sst-ChR2 interneurons. Bidirectional responses are shown on both sides of the Sst-NPY-NOS-1 interneuron. **Left:** 2 Hz stimulation of Sst-ChR2 interneurons activates NOS-1 and releases NO which in turn activates the sGC of smooth muscle cells leading to their relaxation and vasodilation. This effect is abolished by TTX (brown) and by inhibition of NOS with L-NAME (orange) and sGC with ODQ (purple). **Right**: 20 Hz photostimulation of Sst-ChR2 interneurons induces NPY release and activation of vascular receptor Y1 leading to smooth muscle cell contraction and vasoconstriction. This effect is suppressed by the TTX (brown) and the Y1 receptor antagonist, BIPB3226 (green).

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