Altered synaptic adaptation and gain in sensory circuits of the casein kinase 1 delta (CK1d_{T44A}) mouse model of migraine

Pratyush Suryavanshi¹, Punam Sawant Pokam¹, KC Brennan¹

¹Neurology, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, United States

Abstract

6

7

8

10

11

12 13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20 21

22

23 24

25

26

27

Migraine is a very common and disabling neurological disorder that remains poorly understood at the cellular and circuit level. Transgenic mice harboring a mutation in casein kinase 1 delta (CK1d_{T44A}) represent the first animal model of non-hemiplegic migraine. These mice have decreased sensory thresholds to mechanical and thermal pain after treatment with the migraine trigger nitroglycerin; and an increased susceptibility to cortical spreading depression (CSD), which models the migraine aura. In this study, we investigated cellular and synaptic mechanisms within sensory cortical circuits that might underlie the migraine relevant phenotypes of CK1d_{T44A} mice, using in vitro and in vivo whole cell electrophysiology. Surprisingly we found that at resting state. CK1d_{T44A} neurons exhibited hyperpolarized membrane potentials, due to increased tonic inhibition. Despite this reduction in baseline excitability, CK1d_{T44A} neurons fired action potentials more frequently in response to current injection. And despite similar synaptic and dendritic characteristics to wild type neurons, excitatory but not inhibitory CK1d_{T44A} synapses failed to adapt to high frequency short-stimulus trains, resulting in elevated steady state excitatory currents. The increased steady state currents were attributable to an increased replenishment rate of the readily releasable pool, providing a presynaptic mechanism for the CK1d_{T44A} phenotype. Finally, during in vivo experiments, CK1d_{T44A} animals showed increased duration and membrane potential variance at 'cortical up states', showing that the intrinsic and synaptic changes we observed have excitatory consequences at the local network level. In conclusion excitatory sensory cortical neurons and networks in CK1d_{T44A} animals appear to exhibit decreased adaptation and increased gain that may inform the migraine phenotype.

Introduction

Migraine affects 12% of the world population¹, and causes enormous disability, especially to women and to those in working and childbearing years^{2,3}. Yet the disease remains poorly understood at the cellular and circuit level. Although migraine is typically associated with headache, multiple lines of evidence suggest it is a more widespread disorder of multisensory excitability and sensory gain of function⁴. Migraine attacks involve amplifications of multiple sensory inputs including light, sound, smell, touch, and interoception (photophobia, phonophobia, osmophobia, allodynia, and nausea, respectively)^{5,6}. For one third of migraine patients the attack is preceded by an aura, mediated by a massive spreading depolarization of cortical tissue⁷. Finally, both migraine models and migraine patients exhibit a blunted response to repetitive sensory stimulation^{8,9}.

However, the circuit mechanisms underlying this increased network excitability are essentially unknown. In this regard transgenic mouse models can be helpful¹⁰. Mutations found in familial hemiplegic migraine, a severe and rare form of the disease, show increases in neuronal excitability that are consistent with the network phenotypes^{11,12}. Recently a new monogenic migraine mutation was identified, in two families carrying a loss of function mutation in casein kinase 1 delta (CK1d_{T44A})¹³. Though the CK1d_{T44A} mutation is also rare, in contrast to prior mutations, CK1d_{T44A} mutations segregated with phenotypically normal, non-hemiplegic migraine. Thus it is possible that insights gained from the model might be of broad relevance to the disease. Mice carrying a CK1d_{T44A}mutation had increased sensitivity to nitroglycerin (NTG), which induces migraine in humans with the disease. They also had an increased susceptibility to CSD¹³. Both NTG and CSD results provide face validity regarding migraine relevance, and are consistent with an excitable network¹³. However unlike other monogenic migraine mutations, which encode proteins of obvious relevance to excitability, the CK1d_{T44A}mutation is in a ubiquitous serine threonine kinase with broad roles across the organism^{14–17}. Thus it is important to establish the cellular and circuit mechanisms that underlie the migraine phenotype of CK1d_{T44A}mice.

Abbreviations

- APs: action potentials, AHP: After-hyperpolarization, CSD: cortical spreading depression, CK1d:
- 57 Casein kinase 1 delta, RRP: Readily releasable pool, PPR: Paired pulse ratio, V_m: resting
- 58 membrane potential, R_m: membrane resistance, F/I curve: Frequency-current curve, I/O curve:
- 59 input-output curve, IV curve: current-voltage curve, HCN channels: hyperpolarization activated
- 60 cyclic nucleotide gated channels, I_h currents: Hyperpolarization induced currents, AMAPRs: α-
- 61 amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid receptors, NMDARs: N-methyl-D-aspartic
- 62 acid receptors, GABA: gamma-aminobutericacid E/IPSCs: Excitatory/Inhibitory post synaptic
- currents, TTX: tetrodotoxin, PTX: picrotoxin, L2/3 or 4 or 5_a: cortical layer 2/3 or 4 or or 5_a, S1:
- 64 primary somatosensory cortex

Methods

- 66 Animal care and handling
- 67 All protocols were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the University
- 68 of Utah. Animals were housed in temperature-controlled room on a 12-hour light-dark cycle.
- 69 Experimenters were blind to the genotypes in all experiments.
- 70 In vitro brain slice preparation
- 71 CK1d_{T44A} and wild type (WT) littermate mice (males, 2-3 months old) were deeply anesthetized
- 72 with 4% isoflurane, and the brain removed for slice preparation. Coronal sections were cut in ice
- cold dissection buffer (in mM; 220 Sucrose, 3 KCl, 10 MgSO₄, 1.25 NaH₂PO₄, 25 NaHCO₃, 25
- Glucose, 1.3 CaCl₂), Sections containing somatosensory cortex¹⁸ were allowed to recover in a
- 75 chamber normal artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF: in mM; 125 NaCl, 3 KCl, 10 MgSO₄, 1.25
- NaH₂PO₄, 25 NaHCO₃, 25 Glucose, 1.3 CaCl₂, and saturated with 95%O₂ / 5%CO₂) at 35°C. For
- electrophysiology experiments, the sections were transferred to a submerged chamber constantly
- supplied with ACSF (flow rate: 2.5 mL/min, saturated with 95%O₂ / 5%CO₂) also maintained at
- 79 35°C.
- 80 In vitro Electrophysiology recordings
- All whole-cell patch clamp recordings were obtained from regular spiking pyramidal neurons¹⁸ in
- 82 L2/3 somatosensory cortex. Neurons were visualized using differential interference contrast (DIC)
- microscopy and patched using glass microelectrodes (4-6 M Ω resistance, tip size of 3-4 µm). To
- 84 record intrinsic membrane properties, patch electrodes were filled with intracellular solution
- containing 135 K-gluconate, 8 NaCl, 5 EGTA, 10 HEPES, 0.3 GTP, 2 ATP, 7 phosphocreatine
- 86 (concentrations in mM, pH = 7.2). Baseline membrane voltage (resting membrane potential or
- 87 Vm) as well as membrane voltage responses to 20 pA current injections steps (from -100 to
- 88 400pA) were recorded. Spontaneous excitatory and inhibitory post synaptic currents
- 89 (EPSCs/IPSCs) were recorded using patch pipette containing 130 CsMeSO4, 3 CsCl, 10 HEPES,
- 90 2 MgATP, 0.3 Na3GTP, 5 EGTA, 10 Phosphocreatine, 5 QX-314, 8 biocytin (Concentration in
- 91 mM; pH 7.3). Excitatory and inhibitory currents were isolated by clamping neuronal membrane
- 92 potential to -70mV (inhibitory reversal potential) and 10mV (excitatory reversal potential)
- respectively. EPSCs and IPSCs were pharmacologically blocked by DNQX (50 µM) and picrotoxin
- 94 (20 µM) respectively; confirming the AMPA and GABA_a receptor mediated nature of the respective
- 95 currents.
- 96 Recording AMPA/NMDA ratio
- 97 For AMPA/NMDA ratio measurements, a concentric bipolar metal stimulating electrode (AM
- 98 systems, tip diameter ~75µm) connected to a stimulus isolator (World Precision Instruments) was
- 99 placed on L4 and L5a (~400µm distance from recording site). Post-synaptic evoked AMPA and
- 100 NMDA receptor mediated currents were recorded by stimulating L4 and L5_a (1ms, 1 to 10mV
- 101 stimuli). Stimulation intensity providing ~50% of maximum response with no failure was selected
- 102 for further experiments. Evoked AMPA currents were isolated at -70mV. Evoked NMDA mediated
- currents were isolated at 40mV in presence of DNQX (50 µM) and picrotoxin (20 µM).¹⁹

Tonic inhibitory current recording

104

- Tonic inhibitory current was pharmacolocally isolated using nonspecific GABA_A receptor inhibitor
- 20 μM picrotoxin (PTX) for at least 10 mins. PTX application reduced both tonic as well as phasic
- inhibitory current, evident by narrowing of current data point (pA) distribution. in Tonic current
- was measured by subtracting inhibitory holding currents recorded (at 10 mV) after picrotoxin
- treatment from baseline holding current.

110 Recording HCN channel mediated In current

- To record HCN mediated (I_h) currents, neurons were patched using a cesium based internal
- solution (see above). Slices were perfused in ACSF containing in µM: 0.75 TTX, 10 NBQX (2,3-
- dihydroxy-6-nitro-7-sulfamoyl-benzo[f]quinoxaline-2,3-dione), 10 gabazine, 5 CPP (3-[2-
- carboxypiperazin-4-yl]-propyl-1-phosphonic acid), and 3mM tetraethylammonium chloride to
- ensure blockade of most voltage gated and leak currents. Hyperpolarizing pulses (from -40mV to
- 116 -100mV, 500ms) were applied to record 'control' inward currents. HCN mediated currents were
- isolated using the selective antagonist ZD7288 (25µM) and subtracting currents recorded in the
- presence of ZD7288 from control currents (ZD7288 sensitive currents)²⁰.

119 Stimulus train evoked E/IPSCs

- For stimulus train experiments, bipolar stimulation electrodes were fabricated from pulled theta
- glass pipettes with 0.5 to $1G\Omega$ resistance (4-7 µm tip diameter), and filled with saline. Chlorinated
- silver wires inserted into each half of the theta glass were connected to the two poles of the
- 123 stimulus isolator. Distinct barrels in L4 somatosensory cortex were identified using IR-DIC
- microscopy²¹. Theta glass stimulation electrodes were placed at the bottom edge of the barrels.
- Postsynaptic L2/3 neurons from the same cortical column were patched for voltage clamp
- recording. Postsynaptic responses to 100 µs stimuli ranging from 1 to 10 mV intensity were
- recorded to establish input-output relationships. Range of stimulus intensity was restricted to
- 128 evoke only column-specific monosynaptic EPSC and disynaptic IPSC responses. Stimulus
- intensity sufficient to evoke ~50% of the maximum responses was selected for the rest of the
- experiment. Trains of 10 or 30 stimuli were introduced at different frequencies (10/20/50 Hz) and
- resulting monosynaptic EPSC and disynaptic IPSC responses were measured by clamping post-
- synaptic cell voltage at -70mV and 10 mV respectively²².

133 In vivo whole-cell recordings.

- Mice (males; 2-3 months old) were anesthetized using urethane (0.75 g/kg; i.p.) supplemented
- with isoflurane (~0.5 %). Body temperature was monitored and maintained at 35 37°C using a
- heating pad. Vital signs (HR: 470-540 bpm, SpO2: 92-98%, respiration: 120-140/min) were
- monitored (MouseStat, Kent Scientific) throughout the experiment, and maintained within a
- physiologically normal range. An Omega-shaped head bar was mounted on the skull, using glue
- and dental cement, and affixed with screws to a holding rod attached to the stage. A craniotomy
- 2 mm in diameter was made above the hindpaw region of somatosensory cortex (1 mm caudal to
- the bregma and 2 mm lateral to the midline), and filled with 1.5% agarose (in ACSF) in order to
- keep the cortical surface moist and dampen the movement associated with breathing¹⁸. We used

in vivo whole-cell techniques to record the membrane potential from L2/3 neurons in the mouse somatosensory cortex and analyzed spontaneous up states in current-clamp mode at resting membrane potential (i.e., -65 to -70 mV). Patch electrodes with 4-6 MΩ resistance and longer taper were used (tip size of 3-4 μm)¹⁸, filled with intracellular solution containing potassium gluconate to record membrane voltages and cesium methanesulphonate to record excitatory and inhibitory currents (see above).

Data analysis.

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153154

155

156157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165166

167

168

169

170

171172

173174

All whole cell recordings were acquired at 20kHz and filtered at 2kHz (lowpass) using Axopatch 700B amplifier. Analog data were digitized using Digidata 1330 digitizer and clampex 9 software (Axon Instruments). Access resistance was monitored throughout recordings (5mV pulses at 50Hz). Recordings with access resistance higher than 20 M Ω or with > 20% change in the access resistance were discarded from analysis. 70% series resistance compensation was applied to recorded currents in voltage clamp setting. Offline data processing was done with clmapfit 10 (Axon Instruments) and analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 5 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, California), MATLAB 7.8.0 (Mathworks), Stata (statacorp) and Microsoft Excel (Microsoft Corp). Normality of distributions was determined using D'Agostino-Pearson K2 test. Average values for individual cells were compared across genotypes using student's t test (parametric data) or Mann Whitney U test (non-parametric data), whereas probability distributions of individual events were compared across genotype using two sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test. For the analysis of current/voltage (IV curve), frequency/input current (F/I curve) relationships, and normalized post-synaptic currents in response to stimulus trains, comparisons across genotype for different values of input current/stimuli were made using two-way ANOVA (Kruskal Wallis test for non parametric data) with Bonferroni's post hoc test. To compare rise kinetics of IV and F/I curves, linear regression was fitted across datasets and slope were compared between genotypes. For the analysis of cumulative amplitudes of post-synaptic currents in response to stimulus trains, steady state responses were fitted with linear regression. and the initial fast rise was fitted with a single phase exponential^{23,24}. For pharmacology experiments, comparisons between cells before and after drug treatment within a genotype were done by paired t-test; comparisons between control and drug treatment groups across genotypes were done by two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test. Data points more or less than 3 times standard deviation (parametric data) or mean standard error (non-parametric data) of the dataset were regarded as outliers.

Results:

Hyperpolarized membrane potential in CK1d_{T44A} L2/3 pyramidal neurons due to increased

tonic inhibition

To determine whether the migraine relevant excitable phenotype seen in CK1d_{T44A}mice *in vivo*¹³ could be attributed to intrinsic membrane excitability of pyramidal neurons in sensory cortex, we performed whole cell current clamp experiments from L2/3 excitatory somatosensory cortical neurons. On the contrary, we found that resting membrane potentials (V_m) in CK1d_{T44A} neurons were significantly hyperpolarized compared to those of WT neurons (figure 1C, p<0.05, Mann Whitney test; WT n=21 neurons and CK1d_{T44A} n=22 neurons). Membrane resistance (R_m) which dictates V_m responses to subthreshold current injections, was not different between the two genotypes when calculated as slope of I/V curve (figure 1D, p=0.99, ANCOVA) or R_m values for individual neurons (figure 1E, p=0.36, Mann Whitney test, WT n=21, CK1d_{T44A} n=22); suggesting no difference in intrinsic membrane excitability. Therefore, instead of hyperexcitability, CK1d_{T44A} were found to be hypoexcitable at resting state.

A candidate mechanism for resting state hyperpolarization is tonic inhibitory currents²⁵. We pharmacologically isolated tonic inhibitory currents using the GABA_A receptor antagonist picrotoxin (20 μM) in CK1d_{T44A} and WT neurons. We found that CK1d_{T44A} neurons had significantly larger tonic inhibitory currents compared to WT (figure 1G, p=0.03, Mann Whitney test, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A} n=8). To determine if increased tonic inhibitory currents in CK1d_{T44A} neurons resulted in hyperpolarization, we recorded resting V_m before and after picrotoxin treatment. Though V_m in both WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons was depolarized following picrotoxin treatment, depolarization in CK1d_{T44A} neurons was significantly larger (figure 1I, WT n=11, p<0.05, paired t test; CK1d n=12, p<0.0001, paired t test). Moreover, pharmacologically abolishing of tonic inhibition current led to the rescue of hyperpolarized membrane potential in CK1d_{T44A} mutant neurons (figure1J, p<0.05, two-way ANOVA, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A} n=12), suggesting that increased tonic inhibition was indeed the primary cause of hyperpolarized resting V_m in CK1d_{T44A} pyramidal neurons.

No difference in excitatory and inhibitory post-synaptic responses in $CK1d_{T44A}$ L2/3 pyramidal neurons

Neural networks require a precise balance of excitation and inhibition to perform normally. Imbalance between excitatory and inhibitory synaptic transmission may underlay migraine relevant excitability phenotype seen in CK1d_{T44A} animals *in vivo*. To test this hypothesis, we recorded miniature excitatory and inhibitory post-synaptic currents (mE/IPSCs) from S1 L2/3 neurons in presence of 1µM TTX. We found that neither amplitude (p=0.32, Mann Whitney test; WT n=7 and CK1d_{T44A} n=9 neurons; Figure 2C) nor frequency (p=0.97, Mann Whitney test; WT n=7 and CK1d_{T44A} n=9 neurons; Figure 2C) of mEPSCs were significantly different between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons. Similarly, when we compared mIPSC amplitude (p=0.33, Mann Whitney test; WT n=9 and CK1d_{T44A} n=15 neurons; Figure 2F) and frequency (p=0.8, Mann Whitney test; WT n=9 and CK1d_{T44A} n=15 neurons; Figure 2F) between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons, we did not find a significant difference. These results suggest that AP independent post-synaptic responses to a single quantum of released neurotransmitter, are not significantly different between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons.

- NMDA receptors are a key component of excitatory synapses as well as a known substrates for CK1 family kinases²⁶. Phosphorylation of NMDA receptors through CK1 kinases result in reduced receptor conductance. Hypofunction of kinase activity in CK1d_{T44A} mice¹³ could result in reduced phosphorylation, causing increases in NMDA receptor mediated currents²⁶. We recorded synaptically evoked AMPA and NMDA mediated currents from L2/3 neurons by stimulating
- feedforward afferents from L4 and L5_a. We found no significant difference in AMPA/NMDA ratio (amplitude or area) in CK1d_{T44A} compared to WT neurons (figure 2G, p=0.24, Mann Whitney test).

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245246

247

248

249

250

251

252253

254

255

256

257

Dendritic I_h currents are not altered in L2/3 pyramidal neurons due to CK1d_{T44A} mutation

Somatic voltage responses resulting from post-synaptic currents are shaped and constrained by 225 local dendritic input resistance, which is often determined by the density of hyperpolarization 226 227 activated (I_h) currents, mediated by cyclic nucleotide gated 'HCN' channels²⁷. Reduced I_h currents could not only lead to hyperpolarized dendritic V_m in CK1d_{T44A} neurons, but also result in increased 228 voltage responses to unit synaptic input currents due to reduced dendritic resistance. We isolated 229 I_b currents from L2/3 neurons of both genotype, using the HCN specific antagonist ZD7288. 230 231 Hyperpolarizing pulses (from -40mV to -100mV, 500ms) were applied to record 'control' currents in presence of pharmacological inhibitor cocktail (see methods). HCN mediated In currents were 232 blocked using HCN selective antagonist ZD7288 (25µM) and calculated by subtracting ZD7288 233 234 sensitive currents from control currents. We found no difference in the ZD7288 sensitive I_h 235 currents between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons (p = 0.95, two-way ANOVA, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A} n=8; Figure 2H). Combined with the likely low expression of HCN channels reported in L2/320, this 236 237 allowed us to rule out HCN dysfunction as a mechanism of the CK1d_{T44A} phenotype.

Increased action potential frequency in CK1d_{T44A} neurons in response to suprathreshold current injections

Thus far, our data suggested subthreshold hypoexcitability in neurons with no difference in synaptic and dendritic currents. These findings, although seemingly contradictory to our initial hypothesis, only elucidate neuronal activity at rest. Hence, we investigated supratheshold activity in WT and CK1d_{T44A} L2/3 neurons, recording action potential (AP) firing in response to current injection steps. We found no significant difference in the rheobase (figure 3F). However, the V_m thresholds for AP induction were significantly lower in CK1d_{T44A} neurons compared to WT (p<0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT n=21, CK1d_{T44A} n=22 Figure 3E). Moreover, CK1d_{T44A} neurons fired action potentials at a higher frequency compared to WT neurons, specifically at higher input current values. This resulted in a significantly higher slope of the AP frequency vs input current curve (F/I slope) in CK1d_{T44A} neurons. (figure 3B, p<0.05, two-way ANOVA, Bonferroni's post hoc test, WT n=21 and CK1d_{T44A} n=22; figure 3D, individual neuron comparisons: p<0.05, t test, WT n=21 and CK1d_{T44A} n=22). Inter-spike interval between action potentials was also significantly lower in CK1d_{T44A} neurons at the highest input current (400pA) compared to WT (figure 3H, p<0.05, twoway ANOVA, WT n=18 and CK1d_{T44A} n=18). This difference was not evident at lower input currents (300pA, figure 3G, p=0.12, two-way ANOVA, WT n=16 and CK1d_{T44A} n=16), suggesting impaired adaptation of action potential firing in CK1d_{T44A} neurons at high intensity input currents. Comparison of AP waveform parameters (figure 3F, AP half-width, p=0.07; figure 3G, AHP duration, p=0.3; figure 3H, AHP amplitude, p=0.14, Mann Whitney test, WT n=21, CK1d_{T44A} n=22)

as well as phase plots of V_m and its first derivative (dV_m/dt , Figure 3J) showed no difference in the depolarization and repolarization phase between $CK1d_{T44A}$ and WT neurons. Thus changes in kinetics of APs were not responsible for the reduced inter spike intervals in $CK1d_{T44A}$ neurons.

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269 270

271

272

273

274

275

276277

278279

280

281

282 283

284

285

286

287

288

289 290

291

292

293 294

295

296 297 Tonic inhibitory currents can modulate suprathreshold activity²⁵. We found that abolishing tonic inhibitory current with 20μm PTX reduced rheobase in both WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons (figure 3I, p<0.05, paired t test, WT, n=11, CK1d_{T44A}, n=12). However, rheobase comparison between PTX treated WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons was not significantly different (figure 3J, p<0.05, two-way ANOVA, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=12). Moreover, the F/I curves of both WT (figure 3K, p<0.05, ANCOVA, WT n=11) and CK1d_{T44A} (figure 3L, p<0.05, ANCOVA, WT n=12, Figure 3L) neurons were not significantly altered by PTX treatment. Thus, although increased tonic inhibition in CK1d_{T44A} neurons contributed hyperpolarized V_m, it did not affect suprathreshold excitability. Taken together, our dissection of intrinsic and synaptic cellular properties suggested that in spite of hyperpolarized membrane potentials and identical subthreshold membrane and synaptic characteristics, CK1d_{T44A} neurons show a suprathreshold gain of function at higher stimulus intensities.

Frequency dependent adaptation deficit in excitatory synapses of CK1d_{T44A} neurons

To investigate microcircuit dynamics in CK1d_{T44A} mutants, we simulated feedforward L4-L2/3 afferents in acute slices at different frequencies (10, 20, 50Hz) and recorded evoked monosynaptic EPSCs and disynaptic IPSCs. We verified column specificity of stimulation by confirming lack of evoked response from cells outside column (figure 4B and C, p<0.001, twoway ANOVA, cells within column and outside column, n=4), to avoid polysynaptic responses. I/O curve of L4-L2/3 synaptic stimulation was not significantly different between WT and CK1d_{T44A} (Figure 4D, p=0.7, ANCOVA, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A} n=10). WT synapses showed expected adaptation to evoked E/IPSCs as well as paired pulse ratio (PPR), consistent with that described in the literature for adult L4-L2/3 somatosensory cortical synapses^{28,29}. Evoked post-synaptic responses reached a steady state with 30 stimuli for EPSCs and 10 stimuli for IPSCs. Following 50 Hz stimulation, the adaptation at CK1d_{T44A} excitatory synapses was significantly impaired, resulting in higher amplitude of evoked steady state currents compared to WT (figure 4F, p<0.05, two-way ANOVA, Bonferroni's post hoc test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A} n=8). However, at 10 Hz, evoked EPSCs exhibited identical adaptation patterns between WT and CK1d_{T44A} (figure 4H). Response to 20 Hz stimulation showed an intermediate phenotype, with a trend towards blunted adaptation, but no significant difference in steady state currents between WT and CK1d_{T44A} (figure 4G). Interestingly, the increased amplitude of steady state currents was seen exclusively at excitatory synapses, not with evoked inhibitory currents (figure 4I to K, p>0.05, two-way ANOVA, Bonferroni's post hoc test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A} n=8). Moreover, across all stimulation frequencies, evoked E/IPSCs revealed no significant difference in the PPR between WT and CK1d_{T44A} (figures 4F to K insets, p>0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A} n=8). These results suggest high frequency dependent adaptation failure at CK1d_{T44A} excitatory synapses.

Enhanced RRP replenishment underlies impaired adaptation at CK1d_{T44A} excitatory synapses

300

301

302 303

304 305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324 325

326

327

328 329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337338

The rapid adaptation to repeated stimuli is a presynaptic phenomenon, due to relative depletion and replenishment of the readily releasable pool (RRP), a process that has biphasic kinetics^{23,24,30}. When subjected to sustained stimulation, the RRP initially depletes guickly as the rate of release is greater than the rate of replenishment. Later, RRP replenishment maintains equilibrium with RRP release, as post-synaptic responses reach a steady state^{23,24}. Kinetics of RRP replenishment can be resolved using cumulative amplitude plots of post-synaptic responses. We dissected biphasic kinetics of RRP replenishment with the single phase exponential fitted to the initial rise (fast RRP) and linear regression fitted through the steady state (slow RRP) with Y intercept of the linear regression is an indicator of the size of the RRP (figure 5A)^{24,30}. The linear regression slopes of cumulative E/IPSC amplitude plots were not significantly different between WT and CK1d_{T44A} at any stimulation frequency (figures 5B to G, top, p>0.05, ANCOVA, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A} n=8). Similarly, the Y intercept values of the linear regression were not different at any frequency for EPSC or IPSC plots between WT and CK1d_{T44A} (figure 5B-G bottom right). Therefore, WT and CK1d_{T44A} had similar slow RRP replenishment rate and RRP size. However, the single exponential rise of EPSC cumulative amplitude plots was significantly faster in CK1d_{T44A} at both 50 Hz and 20 Hz (figure 5B and C top, p<0.0001, F test with AIC correction, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8), along with significantly higher time constant (T) values in CK1d_{T44A} (figure 5B and C bottom left, p<0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8). No difference in the initial exponential rise was seen in the cumulative EPSCs at 10Hz as well as cumulative IPSCs at every stimulation frequency (figures 5E to G). This suggests that the frequency dependent adaptation failure at CK1d_{T44A} excitatory synapses is due to more efficient 'fast' replenishment of the RRP.

Impaired adaptation at excitatory synapses leads to a net excitatory shift in excitation-inhibition balance

In a separate set of experiments to isolate fast RRP replenishment in evoked EPSCs, we stimulated the L4-L2/3 synapse with only 10 stimuli not allowing the post-synaptic responses to reach steady state. Similar to our experiments with 30 stimuli, we found that the evoked EPSCs failed to adapt at CK1d_{T44A} synapses, specifically at 50Hz (figure 6C, p<0.05, two-way ANOVA, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A} n=13). However, there was no difference in the PPR between genotypes (figure 6C, inset). We also found that single phase exponentials fitted to the cumulative amplitude plots were significantly different between WT and CK1d_{T44A} at all stimulation frequencies (p<0.05, Two-way ANOVA, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A} n=13 Figure 6F to H), with significantly higher time constant (τ) values in CK1d_{T44A} (figure 6F inset p<0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A}n=13). These results recapitulate our previous observation of enhanced fast RRP replenishment at CK1d_{T44A} excitatory synapses.

We then wanted to investigate whether high frequency stimulation perturbs excitation/inhibition (E/I) balance in CK1d_{T44A} microcircuits. We used amplitudes of evoked E/IPSCs to 10 stimuli from the same neurons to generate E/I ratios and compared them across genotype. We found a significant excitatory shift in CK1d_{T44A} compared to WT synapses at both 50 and 20 Hz stimulation (figure 6I, 50Hz: p<0.0001, Figure 6J, 20Hz: p<0.05, two-way ANOVA, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A}n=13) but not 10 HZ stimulation (figure 6K). Thus, frequency dependent impairment of adaptation at

CK1d_{T44A} excitatory synapses result in a net excitatory shift in L4-L2/3 synapses.

Adaptation deficit at CK1d_{T44A} excitatory synapses is independent of presynaptic NMDAR function

339 340

341

342

343

344

345

346 347

348

349

350 351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358 359

360

361

362 363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370 371

372

373

374

375

Recent evidence suggests that RRP replenishment may be modulated by presynaptic NMDA receptors at cortical synapses³¹. CK1 isoforms phosphorylate NMDA receptors, especially NR2B subunits found presynaptically in adult cortex, decreasing their conductance²⁶. We hypothesized that the reduced kinase activity in CK1d_{T44A} mice¹³ could lead to an increase in presynaptic NMDA currents, resulting in a gain of presynaptic function consistent with the observed phenotype. To test this hypothesis we eliminated the possible role of post-synaptic NMDARs with intracellular application of MK801 (10µM) via patch pipette, and isolated presynaptic NMDA currents by applying AP5 (50µM) to the bath (figure 7A). Intracellular MK801 that blocked post-synaptic NMDA currents did not alter excitatory synaptic adaptation in WT or CK1d_{T44A} neurons (Supplimentary figure). More importantly, bath application of AP5 had no effect on the increased steady state currents in CK1d_{T44A} neurons (figure 7C right, p>0.05, two-way ANOVA, CK1d_{T44A} MK801 and CK1d_{T44A} MK801+AP5 n=7). Therefore, pre-synaptic NMDARs do not likely contribute to the elevated excitatory steady state currents seen at CK1d_{T44A} synapses. Moreover, kinetic analysis of cumulative amplitudes revealed that bath application of AP5 did not affect either linear regression slopes (figure 7C right, p>0.05, ANCOVA, CK1d_{T44A MK801} and CK1d_{T44A} MK801+AP5 n=7) or the single phase exponential rise (figure 7C right, p>0.05, F test with AIC correction, CK1d_{T44A} MK801 and CK1d_{T44A} MK801+AP5 n=7) that quantify components of RRP. This suggests that the adaptation deficit due to enhanced fast RRP replenishment in CK1d_{T44A} synapses was independent of pre-synaptic NMDAR function.

Inhibition of recurrent excitation abolished increase in action potential frequency in $CK1d_{T44A}$ neurons

CK1d_{T44A} neurons showed larger number of APs with increased current intensities (180-200pA suprathreshold current), compared to WT. At such high intensities, neurons typically fire APs at 30-40 Hz³². Due to impairment of excitatory synaptic adaptation at higher frequencies, recurrent excitation (feedback excitation generated due to neuronal activity) on CK1d_{T44A} neurons can be amplified³³. To test whether increased recurrent excitation is responsible for increased AP firing, we recorded F/I curves in presence of glutamate receptor antagonists. Post-synaptic NMDARs were blocked using 10µM MK801 in the patch pipette and AMPARs with 20µM CNQX applied in the bath. Interestingly, abolishing recurrent excitation with post-synaptic glutamate receptor antagonists normalized input current dependent increase in AP frequency seen in CK1d_{T44A} neurons (figure 7H left: p>0.05, two-way ANOVA, WT n=7, CK1d_{T44A} n=10). It also rescued differences in F/I curve slopes between genotypes (figure 7H right: p>0.05, two-way ANOVA, WT n=7, CK1d_{T44A} neurons at higher current intensities was due to amplified recurrent excitation.

Excitable sensory cortical circuits in CK1d_{T44A} mice in vivo

We wanted to test whether the cellular and synaptic phenotypes we observed *in vitro*, were reflected in sensory network phenotypes *in vivo*. Cortical slow oscillations (1Hz), expressed as depolarized 'up state' and hyperpolarized 'down states', represent a form of dynamic gain modulation^{34,35}. The depolarized 'up states' increase the likelihood of neuronal AP generation

upon feedforward stimulus^{35–37}. We recorded membrane responses of S1 L2/3 pyramidal neurons to network driven up and down states using *in vivo* current clamp recordings. Consistent with our *in vitro* findings, neuronal resting V_m were significantly hyperpolarized in CK1d_{T44A} mice *in vivo* (p<0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT N=5 and CK1d_{T44A} N=5, figure 8B) suggesting that *in vitro* cellular phenotypes were similarly operant *in vivo*. Comparison of 'up states' revealed that their duration was significantly increased in CK1d_{T44A} mice compared to WT (figure 8C, p < 0.001; 2-sample KS test; WT N=5 and CK1d_{T44A}N=5). The percent time neurons spent in 'up states' was also significantly higher in CK1d_{T44A} mice (figure 8D, p<0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT N=5 and CK1d_{T44A} compared to WT neurons (p<0.0001, Mann Whitney test, WT N=5 and CK1d_{T44A} N=5). The 'up state' phenotype in CK1d_{T44A} mice is consistent with increase in local network excitability, as the phenotype is shared by mouse models of other neurological disorders like epilepsy³⁶.

Neurons exhibit excitatory (V_{clamp} -70mV) and inhibitory (V_{clamp} 20mV) synaptic currents during up states, which can be quantified as E/I ratio. We found a robust increase in the half width as well as area of excitatory (figure 8F, p<0.05, 2-sample KS test, WT N=5 and CK1d_{T44A} N=5) compared to inhibitory (figure 8I p>0.05, 2-sample KS test) current recorded during up states in CK1d_{T44A} mice, resulting in a significant shift in E/I balance towards excitation in CK1d_{T44A} mice (figure 8I, p<0.05, 2-sample KS test, WT N=5 and CK1d_{T44A} N=5). This results, taken together with 'up states', provides a robust evidence of excitable sensory networks in CK1d_{T44A} mice.

Discussion

 Migraine is a common neurological disorder that severely impairs quality of life and imposes a serious economic burden on society^{1,3}. Apart from the headaches and craniofacial pain, a key feature in migraine is sensory network excitability⁴. One third of migraine attacks are preceded by sensory hallucinations called 'auras', triggered by a self-propagating cortical wave of neuro-glial depolarization called cortical spreading depression (CSD)^{4,7}. CSD is followed by long term perturbation of subcortical sensory activity, of cortical synaptic transmission¹⁸ and sensory processing³⁸, which may contribute to a global increase in pan-multi-sensory gain (photophobia, phonophobia, allodynia etc.)^{5,6}. Similar multisensory gain phenotypes occur in migraine without aura; thus other mechanisms likely converge to activate the overall network response. Interestingly, migraineurs report reduced habituation to repeated sensory stimuli under normal conditions, which may contribute to sensory hypersensitivity^{8,9}. However, the precise molecular and cellular mechanisms that render migraineurs susceptible to such excitability are poorly understood.

CK1d_{T44A} mutant mice: a new model of non-hemiplegic migraine with obscure mechanisms

Although migraine is more commonly polygenic⁴, animal models of monogenic forms of the disorder offer a unique opportunity for mechanistic dissection. Thus far, mouse models of migraine have carried mutations identified from patients with a severe monogenic form, familial hemiplegic migraine (FHM 1 and 2)¹². Both these models share common a migraine phenotype (increased susceptibility to CSD evoked in sensory cortex)¹¹, as well as a common mechanism (gain of function at glutamatergic synapses either by increased glutamate release in FHM1^{39,40} or impaired glutamate reuptake in FHM2⁴¹). Apart from reduced CSD threshold, excitable sensory network features are a common theme in migraineurs and migraine models alike⁴. Familial hemiplegic migraine models show increased output at excitatory synapses^{39,41} and enhanced hippocampal long term potentiation⁴².

More recently, a loss of function mutation in the casein kinase-1 delta gene (CK1d_{T44A}) was identified from two families with a combination of familial migraine with aura and advanced sleep phase syndrome^{13,43}. Mice harboring this mutation show migraine relevant phenotypes including increased CSD susceptibility and increased sensitivity to the migraine trigger¹³. However, the CK1d protein is ubiquitously expressed in multiple cell types across various brain regions and developmental stages and interacts with different downstream signaling molecules¹⁴. Thus, though the molecular moiety responsible is identified, the circuit mechanisms by which this molecule acts are not immediately obvious. Understanding these mechanisms are is important, as it they may offer insights into novel therapeutic targets for phenotypically normal migraine.

Impaired adaptation at excitatory synapses contributes to hyperexcitability within sensory networks

In this study, we used *in vitro* whole cell slice electrophysiology as our primary technique to dissect cellular and synaptic mechanisms. We found that CK1d_{T44A} pyramidal neurons had hyperpolarized resting V_m due to increased tonic inhibitory current. However, we observed increased amplitude of the steady state evoked excitatory currents in CK1d_{T44A}, due to impaired

adaptation at high stimulation frequencies. Similarly, CK1d_{T44A} neurons fired APs at significantly higher frequencies with increased intensities of suprathreshold current injections. Increased frequency of AP was abolished by subjecting CK1d_{T44A} neurons to glutamate receptor antagonists (AMPA and NMDA), suggesting the role of recurrent synaptic excitation induced by higher intensity of injected current. These results show that although CK1d_{T44A} neurons are apparently hypoexcitable at resting state, the network becomes hyperexcitable when presented with intense stimuli. Finally, *in vivo* whole cell recordings from CK1d_{T44A} animals revealed increased duration and V_m variance at cortical 'up states'. These experiments show that the cellular and synaptic mechanisms we observed *in vitro* are likely operant in excitatory local networks *in vivo*.

 Increased sensory gain is a key feature in migraine, with migraineurs reporting lack of habituation to repeated sensory stimuli^{8,9,44}. Although synaptic adaptation is regarded as a prominent mechanism for sensory gain modulation and habituation^{45,46}, it remains poorly investigated in migraine models. Excitatory synapses rapidly adapt to repeated sensory stimuli compared to slow adaptation at inhibitory synapses⁴⁷. Fast adaptation at excitatory synapses moderates the intensity of feedforward sensory signaling that is necessary for perception without overactivating the circuit^{48,49}. The results in this study are consistent with our previous findings showing blunted adaptation to repeated sensory stimuli *in vivo* following a migraine relevant perturbation (CSD) in WT mice³⁸. Adaptation failure is thus present in two different migraine models, (a genetic model and a model of migraine aura), potentially providing a circuit mechanism for the habituation failure to repeated stimuli reported in migraineurs⁹.

Improved RRP turnover - a possible mechanism for the $CK1d_{T44A}$ synaptic adaptation phenotype

Our in vitro findings showing adaptation impairment at excitatory synapses strongly implicate presynaptic mechanisms^{50,51}. The amplitudes of evoked currents at steady state depends on the size and replenishment rate of readily releasable pool (RRP), which is a small fraction of vesicles ready for immediate release in densely packed presynaptic boutons²⁴. Upon stimulation, these vesicles are readily released, depleting the RRP. The probability of vesicular release within the RRP determines synaptic strength. Replenishment of the RRP determines release in response to consecutive stimuli, regulating short-term synaptic adaptation to multiple stimuli⁵². The RRP is never completely depleted following repeated stimulations, as it is replenished from a distinct pool of vesicles known as the reserve pool²³, through a delicate balance between vesicular endo- and exocytosis⁵³. Although disparate at first, the rates of depletion and replenishment of the RRP reach equilibrium eventually, resulting in steady state post-synaptic responses. This generates two distinct rates of RRP replenishment- RRP is depleted rapidly at first (fast) and then replenishment is at equilibrium with release (slow)^{23,54}. We found that the fast component of RRP replenishment was more efficient in CK1d_{T44A} neurons, with the slow component at steady state not different from WT. Interestingly, our finding of enhanced RRP replenishment in CK1d_{T44A} model is phenotypically consistent with studies in the FHM1 model⁵⁵ – another circuit phenotype that is convergent across very different migraine models.

Presynaptic NMDA receptors have been shown to specifically mediate evoked release³¹ and are implicated in regulating vesicle replenishment at different cortical synapses, either through

Ca⁺²/calmodulin dependent or several other downstream molecular mechanisms^{31,56–58}. NMDA receptors are a known substrate for CK1 family of kinases, most prominently affecting NR2B subunit containing receptors²⁶. Presynaptic NMDARs are implicated regulation of in presynaptic plasticity, functioning as coincidence detectors for high frequency activity^{59,60}. In adult cortex, NR2B containing NMDA receptors are mostly found at presynaptic terminals^{61,62}. Phosphorylation of NMDA receptors by CK1 kinases leads to reduced NMDA currents. We hypothesized that loss of function mutation in CK1d_{T44A} would lead to increase in presynaptic NMDA currents resulting in gain of presynaptic function. However, pharmacological interventions used to selectively block pre-synaptic NMDA receptors^{63,64} revealed no significant effect on the amplitude excitatory steady state currents, suggesting a presynaptic NMDA-independent mechanism.

The RRP is thought to consist of either all of the docked vesicles or a subset of them, with some studies suggesting that some undocked vesicles also contribute to the RRP through rapid recruitment²⁴. The vesicles become part of the RRP though a molecular process called 'vesicle priming'. In vitro fusion assays using knockout animals show that presynaptic proteins like RIM, Munc13, and Munc18 are essential for vesicle priming⁶⁵. Current models suggest RIM interacts with Munc13 to activate release cites, while Munc13 and Munc18 mediate assembly of SNARE complex^{65,66}, making them critical for vesicle docking and fusion. Although interactions between CK1d_{T44A} and these presynaptic proteins are unknown, improved vesicle docking is a plausible mechanism. Another potential mechanism for the presynaptic gain of function involves synaptic vesicle proteins. CK1 kinases not only co-localize with synaptic vesicular markers⁶⁷, but are shown to phosphorylate a specific subset of vesicle specific proteins, namely SV2. Phosphorylation of SV2_A protein at Thr84 by CK1 family kinases controls the retrieval of synaptotagmin-1, a calcium sensor for the SNARE complex mediating release of synaptic vesicles^{68,69}. CK1d was also found to specifically interact with the SNARE associated protein snapin, which was originally identified as a SNAP25 interacting protein that regulates the association of the calcium sensor synaptotagmin-1 with the SNARE complex¹⁵. More recent evidence suggests that snapin also interacts with a non-neuronal yet homologous SNAP23 protein, which facilitates vesicle transport⁷⁰. These data support a role of CK1d in the regulation of synaptic vesicle release/transport processes, but which specific protein/protein interaction is involved requires further investigation.

'Up state' phenotype in $CK1d_{T44A}$ animals indicates hyperexcitable sensory networks in vivo

Sensory perception is a mutlinetwork process and the mechanisms for altered perception span well beyond the single synapse level⁷¹. Migraine as a disorder of sensory gain is unlikely to be understood without understanding network-wide mechanisms. Cortical slow oscillations are a well-characterized form of dynamic gain modulation⁷². Our *in vivo* investigations of cortical slow oscillations show increased up state duration and membrane voltage variance, in spite of hyperpolarized resting membrane potentials. Slow oscillations (up and down states) occur in sleep and are typically measured under urethane anesthesia, but they also occur during quiet wakefulness^{72,73}. Depolarized cortical up states provide a window for AP generation, by increasing the probability of membrane potential reaching AP threshold. Hence, an up state can act as a coincidence detector for feedforward signal transduction^{73,74}. We found that sensory neurons from

CK1d_{T44A} animals exhibit increased duration as well as V_m variance during 'up states', therefore increasing the probability of action potential firing upon receiving feedforward sensory signal ^{37,75}. Increased 'up state' frequency and duration are often regarded as markers for network excitability - e.g. in epilepsy^{35,36}. Like epilepsy patients, migraine patients show alterations in both high- and low-frequency cortical and thalamocortical oscillations; the latter are likely correlates of upstates^{44,76}. We also found that CK1d_{T44A} neurons receive significantly longer excitatory post-synaptic currents during upstates, tipping the excitatory-inhibitory balance towards net excitation. This is consistent with our *in vitro* findings that indicate an increase in excitatory-inhibitory ratio of currents evoked at higher stimulation frequency. The convergent *in vitro* and *in vivo* findings provide insight on the mechanisms of sensory gain at the network level that may be relevant beyond the CK1d_{T44A} mutation. Analogous to the common phenotype of CSD, there are multiple ways to arrive at the common circuit phenotype.

Increased tonic inhibitory current in CK1d_{T44A} neurons: compensatory mechanism or consequence of network excitability?

Our in vitro dissection shows that CK1d_{T44A} neurons experience a significantly higher tonic inhibitory current, which is responsible for their hyperpolarized resting V_m. Pharmacological blockade of inhibitory currents reveled that increased tonic inhibition was responsible for hyperpolarized membrane potentials; however it did not have a significant effect on suprathreshold cellular properties in CK1d_{T44A} neuro ns compared with WT. Tonic inhibitory currents are mediated by δ subunit containing extra-synaptic GABA_A receptors²⁵. An increase in tonic inhibition can be attributed to a gain in number or function of extra-synaptic GABAA receptors. Likewise, presynaptic mechanisms can also lead to increase tonic inhibitory currents^{77,78}. The magnitude of tonic inhibitory current is dependent on the balance between GABA release and reuptake, and thus varies with the intensity of local network activity^{78,79}. GABA transporters, responsible for GABA reuptake, are near equilibrium under baseline conditions⁸⁰, thus only moderate cell depolarization with brief bursts of action potentials should be sufficient for GABA transporter reversal^{81,82}, resulting in non-vesicular release of GABA. Moreover, asynchronous GABA release during prolonged high frequency stimulation was shown to be a major contributor of tonic inhibition⁸³. Hence, increased tonic GABA current may actually be a result of network hyperexcitability found in CK1d_{T44A} animals, due to a presynaptic gain of function.

Gain of function at glutamatergic synapses as a unifying mechanism linking multiple monogenic migraine models

CK1d_{T44A} along with models of hemiplegic migraine (FHM1 and 2) show an increased susceptibility to CSD, consistent with increased sensory circuit excitability. The mechanism underlying this increased excitability is well established in FHM1 and 2, because the proteins involved have roles that are immediately attributable. FHM1 is a gain of function mutation of a P/Q type Ca⁺² channel subunit (CaV2.1) that results in larger presynaptic calcium currents^{12,40}, and increased synaptic release at excitatory glutamatergic synapses³⁹. FHM2 is a loss function mutation of an Na⁺/K⁺ ATPase subunit that is essential to astrocytic glutamate transporter function, and results in impaired glutamate and K⁺ reuptake at the excitatory synapse^{12,41}. We found that the CK1d_{T44A} mutation also excibited a gain of function the glutamatergic synapse, in

the form of high frequency dependent impairment of presynaptic adaptation. Although the precise protein/protein interaction remains unexplored, these results provide a unifying synaptic mechanism for migraine relevant phenotypes across different models. Interestingly, this glutamatergic gain of function is larger in FHM 1 and 2 than in CK1d_{T44A}, potentially consistent with the differences in severity between hemiplegic and non-hemiplegic forms of migraine⁸⁴. The cellular and synaptic gain of function found in CK1d_{T44A} in response to higher stimulus intensity recapitulates the intensity dependent hypersensitivity phenotype found in most migraineurs. The findings in this study not only establish CK1d_{T44A} as an effective model for non-hemiplegic forms of migraine, but also provide key mechanistic insights to understand migraine as a disorder of network excitability more broadly.

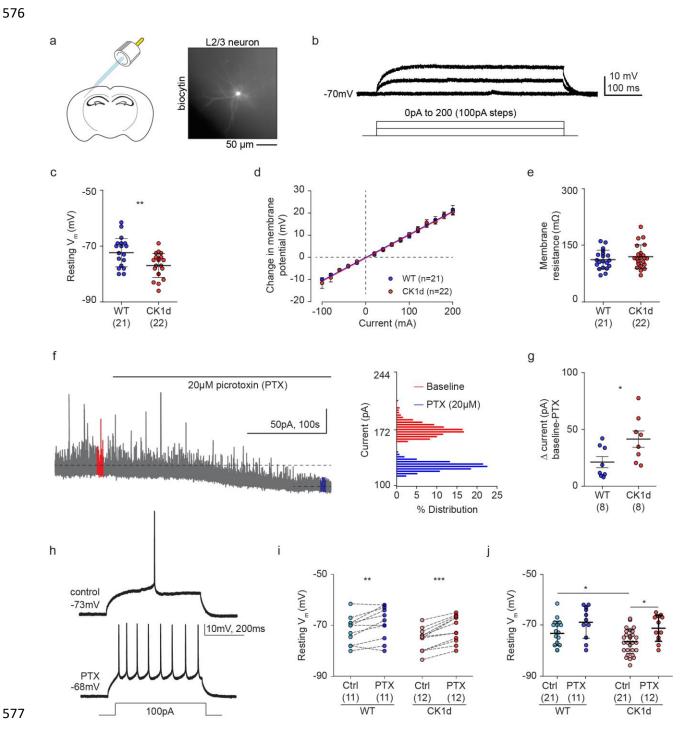


Figure 1: Hyperpolarized membrane potentials due to increased tonic inhibition in $CK1d_{T44A}$ neurons

578 579

580

581

582 583

584

585

586 587

588

589 590

591

592

593

594

595

596 597

598

599

600 601

602

603

604

605

606

al Schematic showing in vitro whole cell patch clamp set up using acute coronal sections of mouse brain (top) and a representative image of a typical excitatory L2/3 neuron labelled with biocytin during patch clamp experiment. b] Representative traces showing membrane voltage responses to subthreshold current injections (from 0pA to 200 at 100pA steps) recorded in Iclamp mode. c] Comparison of resting membrane potentials (Vm) between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons revealed that CK1d_{T44A} neurons were significantly hyperpolarized (p<0.05, t test, WT n=21, CK1d_{T44A} n=22). d] Comparison between slopes of the IV curves of WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons (Linear regression fitted through IV curves, WT slope =0.104, CK1d_{T44A} slope =0.103, p= 0.99, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA)). e] Comparison of input resistance values for individual neurons between WT and CK1d_{T44A} (p=0.36, t test, WT n=21, CK1d_{T44A} n=22). f] Left: Representative trace showing reduction in tonic inhibitory holding current recorded at Vclamp 10mV, after application of 20µM picrotoxin (GABA_a antagonist). Tonic inhibitory currents or picrotoxin sensitive currents are calculated by subtracting currents recorded after picrotoxin treatment from baseline (control) current. Right: % Distribution histogram shows narrow distribution with reduced mean currents after picrotoxin application (blue) compared to baseline (red), ql Tonic inhibitory currents (ΔpA) were significantly higher in CK1d_{T44A} neurons compared to WT (p<0.05, Mann Whitney, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A} n=8). h] Representative traces showing resting membrane potential as well as voltage response to depolarizing current pulse before and after picrotoxin application, i] Difference in the resting membrane potential between individual WT neurons (p<0.05, paired T test, n=11) as well as F] CK1d_{T44A}neurons (p<0.05, paired T test, n=12) before and after picrotoxin treatment. j] Pharmacological blockade of tonic inhibitory current lead to rescue of hyperpolarized membrane potentials in CK1d_{T44A}neurons (p<0.05, WT ctrl n=21 vs CK1d_{T44A}ctrl n=21, p<0.05 CK1d_{T44A}ctrl vs CK1d_{T44A}ptx, p=0.39 WT ptx n=11 vs CK1d_{T44A}ptx n=12, Two-way ANOVA).

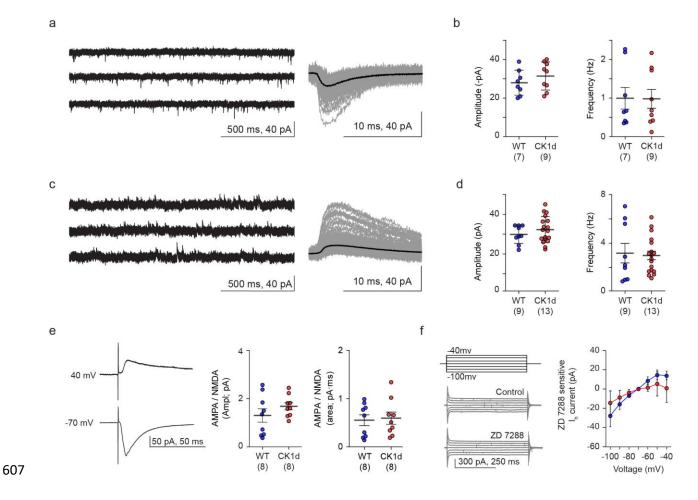


Figure 2: No difference in the synaptic and dendritic currents between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons

608 609

610

611

612613

614

615

616

617

618

619 620

621

622

623

624

625

626 627

628

629

630 631

632

633

634

al Representative traces of miniature excitatory post synaptic currents (mEPSC) recorded by clamping neurons at -70mV in the presence of 1µM tetrodotoxin (TTX). Inset: traces of individual mEPSC events (gray) and average value for all events (black) for a single neuron. b] No significant difference was found in mEPSC amplitude (left, p=0.32, t test, WT n=7, CK1d_{T44A} n=9) as well as mEPSC frequency (right, p=0.97, t test, WT n=7, CK1d_{T44A} n=9) between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons. c] Representative traces of miniature inhibitory post synaptic currents (mIPSC) recorded by clamping neurons at 10mV in the presence of 1µM tetrodotoxin (TTX). Inset: traces of individual mIPSC events (gray) and average value for all events (black) for a single neuron. d] No significant difference was found in mIPSC amplitude (left, p=0.33, t test, WT n=9, CK1d_{T44A} n=15) as well as mIPSC frequency (right, p=0.8, t test, WT n=9, CK1d_{T44A} n=15) between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons. e] Left: Representative traces of evoked AMPA currents (bottom, V_{clamp} -70mV) and evoked NMDA currents (top, V_{clamp} 40mV) recorded from L2/3 excitatory neurons upon stimulation of L4/L5a afferents. Right: no difference was found either in AMPA/NMDA ratio of amplitude (p=0.24, t test, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A} n=8) or area (p=0.76, t test, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A} n=8) between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons. f] Left: Representative traces of currents recoded in V_{clamp} mode in response to hyperpolarizing voltage steps (from -40 to -100mV). All currents were recorded in the presence of cocktail of inhibitors (1μM TTX, 10 μM PTX, 10 μM CNQX, 10 μΜ XE991, 3mM TEA) to block all voltage as well as ligand gated currents. HCN channel mediated I_h currents were isolated using specific antagonist ZD7288 (25μM). Right: comparison of I_h currents or normalized ZD7288 sensitive currents between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons at voltages ranging from -40 to -100 mV revealed no significant difference between the two groups (p>0.05. two-way ANOVA, Bonferroni's post hoc test revealed non-significant differences at individual voltage steps, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A} n=8).

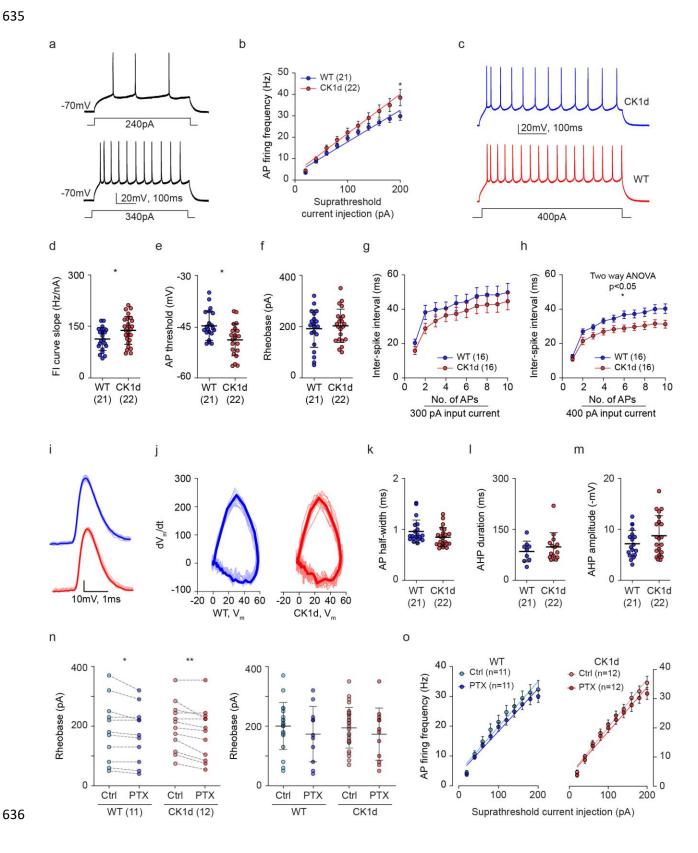


Figure 3: Increased frequency of action potentials in CK1d_{T44A} neurons at higher suprathreshold input currents

al Representative traces of L2/3 excitatory neurons firing action potentials to suprathreshold current injections. b] Comparison of action potential firing frequencies at different input current values (F/I curves) between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons. F/I curves were significantly different between WT and CK1d_{T44A} mice, especially at higher input currents, (p<0.0001, two-way ANOVA. at 200pA, p<0.05, Bonferroni's post hoc test). Slopes of F/I curves were also found to be significantly different between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons (Linear regression fitted through F/I curves, WT slope =0 0.148, CK1d_{T44A} slope = 0.184, p= 0.012, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA)). c] Representative traces of WT (top, blue) and CK1d_{T44A} (bottom, red) neurons firing action potentials in response to 400pA current injection. d] Comparison of F/I curve slopes calculated for individual neurons between WT and CK1d_{T44A}neurons revealed that CK1d_{T44A} had significantly higher F/I slopes (p<0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT n=21, CK1d_{T44A} n=22). e] The membrane voltage thresholds values at which individual neurons started firing action potentials were significantly lower in CK1d_{T44A} neurons (p<0.05, non-parametric T test, WT n=21, CK1d_{T44A} n=22). f] No significant difference in rheobase between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons (p=0.59, t test, WT n=21, CK1d_{T44A} n=22), gl Comparison of inter spike interval (ISI) between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons was not significantly difference at 300pA (p<0.0001, two-way ANOVA, WT n=16, CK1d_{T44A} n=18). h] However the difference in ISI was statistically significant at 400pA (p < 0.0001, two-way ANOVA, WT n=16, CK1d_{T44A} n=18). i] Representative AP traces (blue: WT, red: CK1d_{T44A} dark traces indicate averages) as well as j] phase plots V_m differentials (dV_m/dt vs V_m) showing no difference in the AP waveforms between WT and CK1d_{T44A} neurons. No difference was observed in k] AP half-width (p=0.45, t test, WT n=21, CK1d_{T44A} n=22), I] Afterhyperpolarization or AHP duration (p=0.97, t test, WT n=21, CK1d_{T44A} n=22) as well as m] AHP amplitude (p=0.82, t test, WT n=21, CK1d_{T44A} n=22). n] Although picrotoxin reduced rheobase in neurons across the two genotypes (left: p<0.05, paired t test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A} n=12), comparison between picrotoxin treated CK1d_{T44A} and WT neurons showed no difference (right: p>0.05, two-way ANOVA). o] Picrotoxin did not FI slopes in both WT (p<0.05, ANCOVA, n=11) as well as CK1 d_{T44A} (p<0.05, ANCOVA, n=12).

637 638

639

640

641 642

643

644

645

646

647

648 649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656 657

658

659 660

661

662 663

664

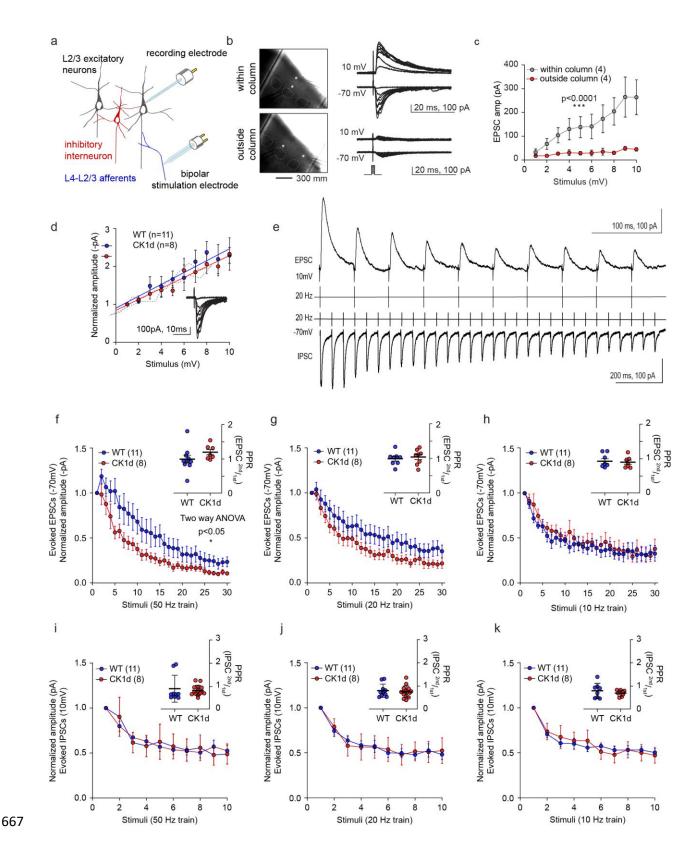


Figure 4: Frequency dependent adaptation deficits due to higher steady state current at $CK1d_{T44A}$ excitatory synapse

668

669 670

671

672

673674

675

676

677

678

679

680 681

682

683 684

685

686

687

688

689

690

al Schematic representation of L2/3 cortical microcircuit showing placement of stimulation as well as recording electrodes. b] Images and representative traces and showing experimentally evoked EPSC and IPSC responses recorded from neurons within (top) and outside (bottom) of cortical column c] Quantification of EPSC amplitudes to increasing stimulus intensities for within column and outside column stimulation (p<0.0001, two-way ANOVA, within column n=4, outside column n=4). d] Input-output relationship between WT and CK1d_{T44A} to selected microsimulation intensities was not significantly different (p=0.7, ANCOVA, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A} n=8). el Representative traces showing evoked EPSC and IPSC responses to trains of 30 and 10 stimuli respectively, at 20Hz. f] Normalized EPSC Steady state evoked EPSC response to 50Hz stimulus train were significantly higher at CK1d_{T44A}synapse (P<0.05, Two-way ANOVA; Bonferroni's post hoc test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8). Inset: no difference in the paired pulse ratio (PPR) at 50Hz between genotypes (p>0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8). No significant difference between in steady state currents (p>0.05, Two-way ANOVA: Bonferroni's post hoc test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8) as well as PPR (p>0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8) at 20Hz [q] and 10Hz [h] stimulus trains. Similarly, normalized IPSC plots showing no difference in steady state currents (p>0.05, Two-way ANOVA; Bonferroni's post hoc test, WT n=11. CK1d_{T44A}n=8) as well as PPR (inset, p>0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8) with [i] 50Hz, [j] 20Hz and [k] 10Hz

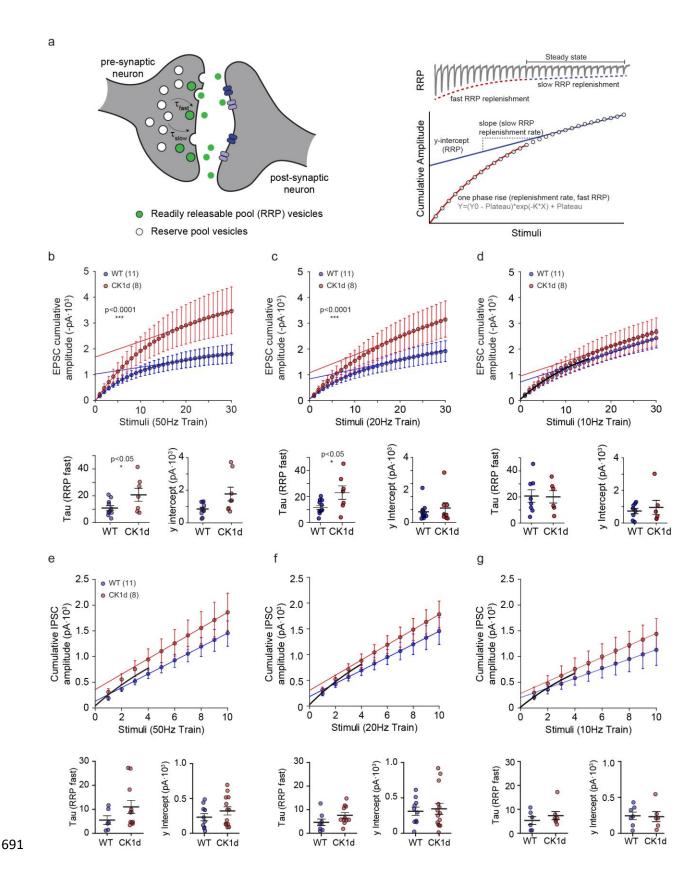


Figure 5: Frequency dependent enhancement of fast replenishment of RRP at CK1d_{T44A} excitatory synapses

692 693

694

695

696

697 698

699 700

701

702 703

704

705

706

707 708

709

710

a] Left: Schematic of a model for RRP replenishment with two distinct components of their kinetics; fast and slow RRP replenishment. Right: Strategy used to analyze replenishment rates of slow and fast components of RRP using cumulative amplitude of post-synaptic response, bl Cumulative EPSC amplitude plot for 50 Hz stim train reveals no difference in the steady state linear regression slope (top, p>0.05, ANCOVA, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8), however initial one phase exponential rise was significantly faster in CK1d_{T44A}neurons (top, p<0.0001, F test with AIC method, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8). Insets show no difference in y-intercept values (bottom right, p=0.08, Mann Whitney test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8) but a significant increase in Tau of fast one phase rise (bottom left, p<0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8) recorded from individual neurons. c] Similarly, significant increase in initial one phase exponential rise in CK1d_{T44A}neurons (top, p<0.0001, F test with AIC method, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8) as well as significant increase in Tau of fast one phase rise (bottom left, p<0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A}n=8) for EPSCs at 20Hz stimulation. None of the analyzed parameters were found to be significantly different in cumulative EPSC amplitude plot at [d] 10Hz stimulation (top. p>0.05, ANCOVA, p>0.05, F test with AIC method, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A} n=8) as well as cumulative IPSC amplitude plots recorded at either [e] 50Hz, [f] 20Hz or [g] 10Hz (top, p>0.05, ANCOVA, p>0.05, F test with AIC method, WT n=11, CK1d_{T44A} n=8).

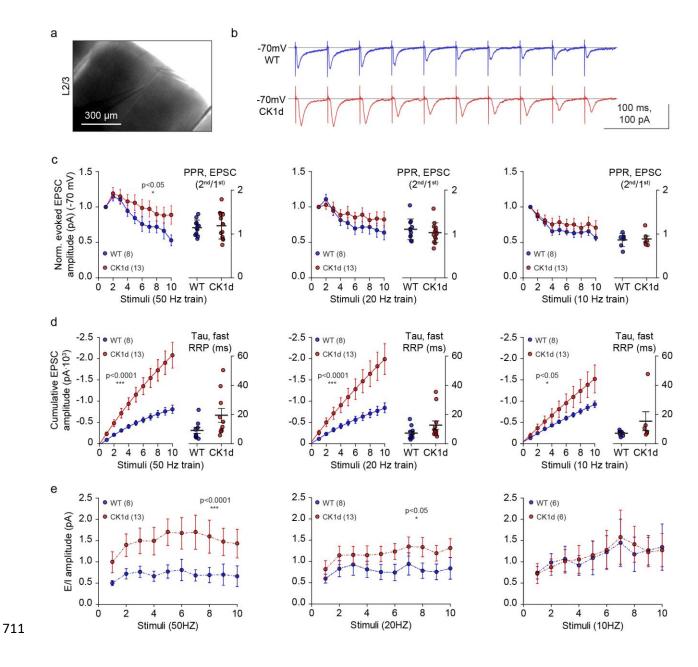


Figure 6: Enhanced replenishment of fast component of RRP leads to a net excitatory shift in excitation-inhibition (E/I) balance in CK1d_{T44A}

a] Image showing placement of recording and stimulation electrode. b] Representative race showing evoked EPSCs recorded from WT (top, blue) and CK1d_{T44A} (bottom, red) in response to a train of 10 stimuli, at 20Hz. c] Increased steady state EPSC amplitude at 50Hz train of 10 stimuli (P<0.05, Two-way ANOVA, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A}n=13) without increase in PPR (p=0.6, Mann Whitney test, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A}n=13) at CK1d_{T44A}synapses. No difference in steady state EPSC amplitude (P>0.05, Two-way ANOVA, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A}n=13) as well as PPR (p>0.05, Mann Whitney test, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A}n=13) at [d] 20 Hz and [e] 10 Hz stimulus trains between WT and CK1d_{T44A}synapses. Cumulative EPSC amplitude plots show significantly faster kinetics of exponential rise at [f] 50Hz and [g] 20Hz (p<0.0001, F-test with AIC method, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A}n=13); as well as in response to [h] 10Hz stimuli (p<0.05, F-test with AIC method, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A}n=13). EPSC/IPSC (E/I) ratios recorded from individual neurons reveal a significant shift towards excitation [i] at 50Hz (p<0.0001, two-way ANOVA, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A} n=13) and [j] 20Hz (p<0.05, two-way ANOVA, WT n=8, CK1d_{T44A} n=13); in response to trains of 10 stimuli. k] Such a difference in the E/I ratio was not seen at 10Hz (p>0.05, two-way ANOVA, WT n=6, CK1d_{T44A}n=6).

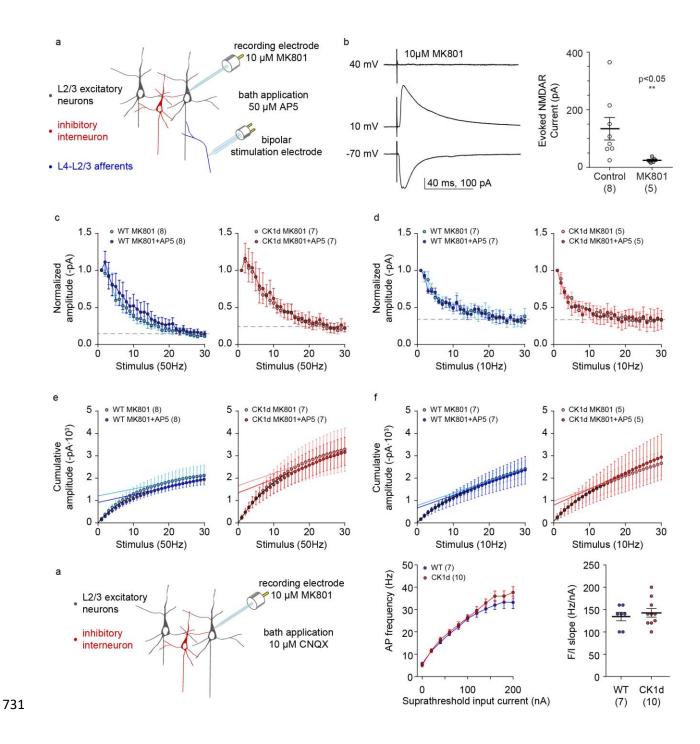


Figure 7: Presynaptic NMDARs do not mediate frequency dependent excitatory steady state currents in CK1d_{T44A} synapses

al Schematic showing strategy for selective blockade of post synaptic (10uM MK801 in patch pipette) as well as presynaptic NMDARs (50µM AP5 bath application). b] Representative traces showing along with quantification of NMDAR currents (V_{Clamp}: 40mV) showing selective blockade of post-synaptic NMDARs with 10µM MK801, yet unaffected AMPAR as well as GABAR mediated E/IPSCs. c] Presynaptic NMDAR blockade with 50µM AP5 had no effect on increased excitatory steady state currents in response to 50Hz stimulation (Left: p>0.05, two-way ANOVA, WT MK801 MK801+AP5 n=8. Right: p>0.05, two-way ANOVA, CK1d_{T44A}MK801 CK1d_{T44A}MK801+AP5 n=7) as well as d] 10Hz stimulation. e] Initial exponential rise as well as steady state linear regression slopes of cumulative EPSC amplitude plot were not significantly different between WT and CK1d_{T44A}at 50Hz (p<0.05, F test with AIC corrections; p>0.05, ANCOVA, WT MK801 vs WT MK801+AP5 n=7, CK1d_{T44A} MK801 vs CK1d_{T44A} MK801+AP5 n=5) as well as f] 10Hz stimulation. g] Schematic showing pharmacological inhibition of post-synaptic NMDARs (10µM MK801 in patch pipette) and AMPARs (20µM CNQX bath application). h] F/I curve (left) demonstrating that inhibition of post-synaptic glutamate receptors normalized input current dependent increase in AP frequency seen in CK1d_{T44A} neurons (p>0.05, two-way ANOVA, WT n=7, CK1d_{T44A} n=10) abolishing differences in F/I curve slopes (right) between genotypes (p>0.05, two-way ANOVA, WT n=7, CK1 d_{T44A} n=10).

732

733

734

735

736 737

738 739

740

741

742

743 744

745

746

747

748

749

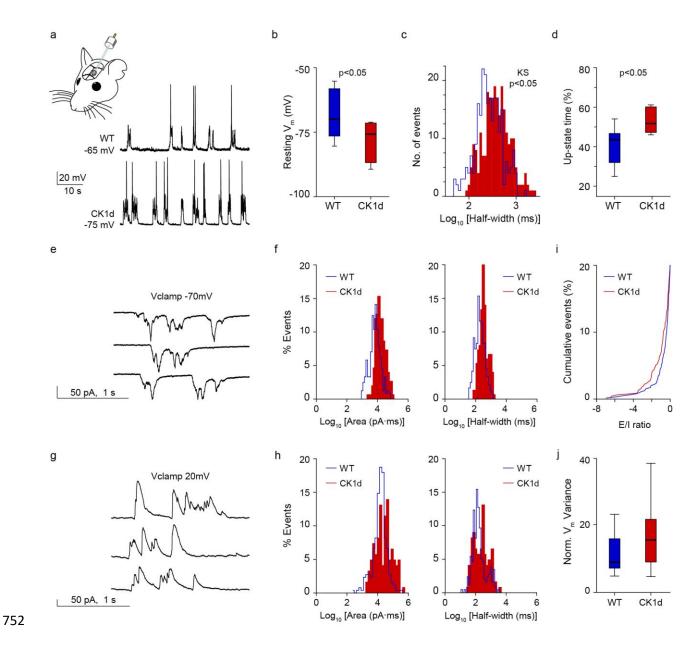


Figure 8: Increased up state duration and V_m variance CK1d_{T44A} mice along with net excitatory shift *in vivo*

a] Schematic of *in vivo* whole cell patch clamp experiment as well as representative traces of current clamp recordings of L2/3 pyramidal neurons from WT (top) and CK1d_{T44A} (bottom) mutant mice, showing bistable anesthetized cortical networks (up and down states). b] CK1d_{T44A}neurons were significantly hyperpolarized (p<0.05, t test, WT n=7, CK1d_{T44A}n=5) compared to WT neurons *in vivo*. c] Frequency histograms of up state half-width suggest increased duration of up states in CK1d_{T44A}animals (p<0.05, 2-sample KS test, WT n=7, CK1d_{T44A}n=5). d] CK1d_{T44A} animals also showed an increase in percent time spent in up states (p<0.05, t test, WT n=7, CK1d_{T44A}n=5). Representative traces showing e] EPSCs and g] IPSCs recorded *in vivo* during an up state event. f] Distribution histograms showing increase in the area and half width of excitatory events (P<0.05, 2-sample KS test, WT n=4, CK1d_{T44A}n=4), but no difference in the h] area and half width of inhibitory events (P>0.05, 2-sample KS test, WT n=4, CK1d_{T44A}animals. i] E/I ratio skewed towards excitation in CK1d_{T44A}animals (p<0.05, 2-sample KS test, WT n=4, CK1d_{T44A}n=4). j] Increased membrane potential variance during up states (p<0.0001, t test, WT n=4, CK1d_{T44A}n=4) in CK1d_{T44A}animals.

References

- 1. Lipton, R. B. *et al.* Migraine prevalence, disease burden, and the need for preventive
- 772 therapy. *Neurology* **68**, 343–349 (2007).
- 2. Stewart, W. F., Ricci, J. A., Chee, E., Morganstein, D. & Lipton, R. Lost productive time and
- cost due to common pain conditions in the US workforce. JAMA 290, 2443–2454 (2003).
- 3. Murray, C. J. L. et al. Disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) for 291 diseases and injuries in
- 21 regions, 1990-2010: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2010.
- 777 Lancet Lond. Engl. **380**, 2197–2223 (2012).
- 4. Brennan, K. C. & Pietrobon, D. A Systems Neuroscience Approach to Migraine. *Neuron* 97,
- 779 1004–1021 (2018).
- 5. Mulleners, W. M. et al. Self-reported photophobic symptoms in migraineurs and controls are
- reliable and predict diagnostic category accurately. *Headache* **41**, 31–39 (2001).
- 6. Lipton, R. B. *et al.* Cutaneous allodynia in the migraine population. *Ann. Neurol.* **63**, 148–158
- 783 (2008).
- 784 7. Pietrobon, D. & Moskowitz, M. A. Chaos and commotion in the wake of cortical spreading
- depression and spreading depolarizations. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* **15**, 379–393 (2014).
- 786 8. Ambrosini, A. & Schoenen, J. Electrophysiological response patterns of primary sensory
- 787 cortices in migraine. *J. Headache Pain* **7**, 377–388 (2006).
- 9. Coppola, G., Pierelli, F. & Schoenen, J. Habituation and migraine. *Neurobiol. Learn. Mem.*
- **92**, 249–259 (2009).
- 790 10. Perlman, R. L. Mouse models of human disease. Evol. Med. Public Health 2016, 170–
- 791 176 (2016).
- 792 11. Pietrobon, D. Cortical spreading depression and familial hemiplegic migraine 2015. J.
- 793 *Headache Pain* **16**, (2015).

- 794 12. Pietrobon, D. Familial hemiplegic migraine. Neurother. J. Am. Soc. Exp. Neurother. 4,
- 795 274–284 (2007).
- 796 13. Brennan, K. C. et al. Casein Kinase Iδ Mutations in Familial Migraine and Advanced
- 797 Sleep Phase. Sci. Transl. Med. 5, 183ra56-11 (2013).
- 798 14. Knippschild, U. et al. The casein kinase 1 family: participation in multiple cellular
- 799 processes in eukaryotes. *Cell. Signal.* **17**, 675–689 (2005).
- 800 15. Wolff, S. et al. Casein kinase 1 delta (CK1 δ) interacts with the SNARE associated
- protein snapin. *FEBS Lett.* **580**, 6477–6484 (2006).
- 802 16. Greer, Y. E., Gao, B., Yang, Y., Nussenzweig, A. & Rubin, J. S. Lack of Casein Kinase 1
- 803 Delta Promotes Genomic Instability The Accumulation of DNA Damage and Down-
- Regulation of Checkpoint Kinase 1. *PLOS ONE* **12**, e0170903 (2017).
- 805 17. Etchegaray, J.-P. et al. Casein Kinase 1 Delta Regulates the Pace of the Mammalian
- 806 Circadian Clock. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* **29**, 3853–3866 (2009).
- 807 18. Sawant-Pokam, P. M., Suryavanshi, P., Mendez, J. M., Dudek, F. E. & Brennan, K. C.
- Mechanisms of Neuronal Silencing After Cortical Spreading Depression. *Cereb. Cortex N. Y.*
- 809 *N 1991* **27**, 1311–1325 (2017).
- 810 19. Zhang, Z., Matos, S. C., Jego, S., Adamantidis, A. & Séguéla, P. Norepinephrine Drives
- Persistent Activity in Prefrontal Cortex via Synergistic α1 and α2 Adrenoceptors. *PLOS ONE*
- **8**, e66122 (2013).
- 813 20. Sheets, P. L. et al. Corticospinal-specific HCN expression in mouse motor cortex: Ih-
- dependent synaptic integration as a candidate microcircuit mechanism involved in motor
- 815 control. *J. Neurophysiol.* **106**, 2216–2231 (2011).

- Petersen, C. C. H. & Sakmann, B. The Excitatory Neuronal Network of Rat Layer 4
- 817 Barrel Cortex. *J. Neurosci.* **20**, 7579–7586 (2000).
- Varela, J. A., Song, S., Turrigiano, G. G. & Nelson, S. B. Differential Depression at
- Excitatory and Inhibitory Synapses in Visual Cortex. *J. Neurosci.* **19**, 4293–4304 (1999).
- 820 23. Guo, J. et al. A Three-Pool Model Dissecting Readily Releasable Pool Replenishment at
- the Calyx of Held. *Sci. Rep.* **5**, (2015).
- 822 24. Kaeser, P. S. & Regehr, W. G. The readily releasable pool of synaptic vesicles. *Curr*.
- 823 *Opin. Neurobiol.* **43**, 63–70 (2017).
- 824 25. Farrant, M. & Nusser, Z. Variations on an inhibitory theme: phasic and tonic activation of
- 825 GABA_A receptors. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* **6**, 215–229 (2005).
- 826 26. Chergui, K., Svenningsson, P. & Greengard, P. Physiological role for casein kinase 1 in
- glutamatergic synaptic transmission. J. Neurosci. Off. J. Soc. Neurosci. 25, 6601–6609 (2005).
- 828 27. Kase, D. & Imoto, K. The Role of HCN Channels on Membrane Excitability in the
- Nervous System. *Journal of Signal Transduction* (2012). doi:10.1155/2012/619747
- Cheetham, C. E. J. & Fox, K. Presynaptic Development at L4 to L2/3 Excitatory
- 831 Synapses Follows Different Time Courses in Visual and Somatosensory Cortex. *J. Neurosci.*
- **30**, 12566–12571 (2010).
- 29. Lefort, S. & Petersen, C. C. H. Layer-Dependent Short-Term Synaptic Plasticity Between
- Excitatory Neurons in the C2 Barrel Column of Mouse Primary Somatosensory Cortex.
- 835 *Cereb. Cortex* **27**, 3869–3878 (2017).
- 836 30. Fioravante, D. & Regehr, W. G. Short-term forms of presynaptic plasticity. *Curr. Opin.*
- 837 *Neurobiol.* **21**, 269–274 (2011).

- 838 31. Abrahamsson, T. et al. Differential Regulation of Evoked and Spontaneous Release by
- Presynaptic NMDA Receptors. *Neuron* **96**, 839-855.e5 (2017).
- 840 32. Luo, H., Hasegawa, K., Liu, M. & Song, W.-J. Comparison of the Upper Marginal
- Neurons of Cortical Layer 2 with Layer 2/3 Pyramidal Neurons in Mouse Temporal Cortex.
- 842 *Front. Neuroanat.* **11**, (2017).
- 33. Douglas, R. J., Koch, C., Mahowald, M., Martin, K. A. C. & Suarez, H. H. Recurrent
- Excitation in Neocortical Circuits. *Science* **269**, 981–985 (1995).
- 845 34. Wilson, C. Up and down states. *Sch. J.* **3**, 1410 (2008).
- 35. Gerkin, R. C., Clem, R. L., Shruti, S., Kass, R. E. & Barth, A. L. Cortical Up State
- Activity Is Enhanced After Seizures: A Quantitative Analysis. J. Clin. Neurophysiol. Off.
- 848 *Publ. Am. Electroencephalogr. Soc.* **27**, 425–432 (2010).
- 849 36. Bragin, A., Benassi, S. K. & Engel, J. Patterns of the Up-Down State in normal and
- epileptic mice. *Neuroscience* **225**, 76–87 (2012).
- 851 37. Anderson, J. S., Lampl, I., Gillespie, D. C. & Ferster, D. The contribution of noise to
- contrast invariance of orientation tuning in cat visual cortex. *Science* **290**, 1968–1972 (2000).
- Theriot, J. J., Toga, A. W., Prakash, N., Ju, Y. S. & Brennan, K. C. Cortical sensory
- plasticity in a model of migraine with aura. J. Neurosci. Off. J. Soc. Neurosci. 32, 15252–
- 855 15261 (2012).
- 856 39. Tottene, A. et al. Enhanced Excitatory Transmission at Cortical Synapses as the Basis for
- Facilitated Spreading Depression in CaV2.1 Knockin Migraine Mice. *Neuron* **61**, 762–773
- 858 (2009).

- 859 40. Tottene, A. et al. Familial hemiplegic migraine mutations increase Ca(2+) influx through
- single human CaV2.1 channels and decrease maximal CaV2.1 current density in neurons.
- 861 *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **99**, 13284–13289 (2002).
- 862 41. Capuani, C. et al. Defective glutamate and K+ clearance by cortical astrocytes in familial
- 863 hemiplegic migraine type 2. *EMBO Mol. Med.* e201505944 (2016).
- doi:10.15252/emmm.201505944
- 42. Dilekoz, E. et al. Migraine Mutations Impair Hippocampal Learning Despite Enhanced
- 866 Long-Term Potentiation. *J. Neurosci.* **35**, 3397–3402 (2015).
- 43. Xu, Y. et al. Functional consequences of a CKIdelta mutation causing familial advanced
- sleep phase syndrome. *Nature* **434**, 640–644 (2005).
- 869 44. Coppola, G. et al. Interictal abnormalities of gamma band activity in visual evoked
- responses in migraine: an indication of thalamocortical dysrhythmia? *Cephalalgia Int. J.*
- 871 *Headache* **27**, 1360–1367 (2007).
- 45. Lampl, I. & Katz, Y. Neuronal adaptation in the somatosensory system of rodents.
- 873 *Neuroscience* **343**, 66–76 (2017).
- Wark, B., Lundstrom, B. N. & Fairhall, A. Sensory adaptation. Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.
- **17**, 423–429 (2007).
- Heiss, J. E., Katz, Y., Ganmor, E. & Lampl, I. Shift in the balance between excitation and
- inhibition during sensory adaptation of S1 neurons. J. Neurosci. Off. J. Soc. Neurosci. 28,
- 878 13320–13330 (2008).
- 879 48. Isaacson, J. S. & Scanziani, M. How Inhibition Shapes Cortical Activity. *Neuron* 72,
- 880 231–243 (2011).

- 49. Higley, M. J. & Contreras, D. Balanced excitation and inhibition determine spike timing
- during frequency adaptation. J. Neurosci. Off. J. Soc. Neurosci. 26, 448–457 (2006).
- Hsu, S.-F., Augustine, G. J. & Jackson, M. B. Adaptation of Ca2+-Triggered Exocytosis
- in Presynaptic Terminals. *Neuron* **17**, 501–512 (1996).
- 885 51. Regehr, W. G. Short-Term Presynaptic Plasticity. Cold Spring Harb. Perspect. Biol. 4,
- 886 a005702 (2012).
- 52. Lipstein, N. et al. Dynamic Control of Synaptic Vesicle Replenishment and Short-Term
- Plasticity by Ca2+-Calmodulin-Munc13-1 Signaling. *Neuron* **79**, 82–96 (2013).
- 889 53. Bui, L. & Glavinović, M. I. Is replenishment of the readily releasable pool associated
- 890 with vesicular movement? *Cogn. Neurodyn.* **8**, 99–110 (2014).
- 891 54. Martin, T. F. J. Tuning exocytosis for speed: fast and slow modes. *Biochim. Biophys.*
- 892 *Acta BBA Mol. Cell Res.* **1641**, 157–165 (2003).
- 893 55. Inchauspe, C. G. et al. Presynaptic CaV2.1 calcium channels carrying familial hemiplegic
- migraine mutation R192Q allow faster recovery from synaptic depression in mouse calyx of
- 895 Held. J. Neurophysiol. **108**, 2967–2976 (2012).
- 896 56. Alabi, A. A. & Tsien, R. W. Synaptic Vesicle Pools and Dynamics. *Cold Spring Harb*.
- 897 *Perspect. Biol.* **4**, (2012).
- 898 57. Yamasaki, T., Kawasaki, H. & Nishina, H. Diverse Roles of JNK and MKK Pathways in
- the Brain. *Journal of Signal Transduction* (2012). doi:10.1155/2012/459265
- 900 58. Fourcaudot, E. et al. cAMP/PKA signaling and RIM1α mediate presynaptic LTP in the
- 901 lateral amygdala. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **105**, 15130–15135 (2008).

- 902 59. Bidoret, C., Ayon, A., Barbour, B. & Casado, M. Presynaptic NR2A-containing NMDA
- receptors implement a high-pass filter synaptic plasticity rule. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*
- 904 pnas.0904284106 (2009). doi:10.1073/pnas.0904284106
- 905 60. Banerjee, A., Larsen, R. S., Philpot, B. D. & Paulsen, O. Roles of Presynaptic NMDA
- 906 Receptors in Neurotransmission and Plasticity. *Trends Neurosci.* **39**, 26–39 (2016).
- 907 61. Brasier, D. J. & Feldman, D. E. Synapse-Specific Expression of Functional Presynaptic
- 908 NMDA Receptors in Rat Somatosensory Cortex. J. Neurosci. 28, 2199–2211 (2008).
- 909 62. Yang, J., Woodhall, G. L. & Jones, R. S. G. Tonic Facilitation of Glutamate Release by
- Presynaptic NR2B-Containing NMDA Receptors Is Increased in the Entorhinal Cortex of
- 911 Chronically Epileptic Rats. *J. Neurosci.* **26**, 406–410 (2006).
- 912 63. Larsen, R. S. et al. Synapse-specific control of experience-dependent plasticity by
- presynaptic NMDA receptors. *Neuron* **83**, 879–893 (2014).
- 914 64. Zhou, N. et al. Regenerative glutamate release by presynaptic NMDA receptors
- ontributes to spreading depression. J. Cereb. Blood Flow Metab. Off. J. Int. Soc. Cereb.
- 916 *Blood Flow Metab.* **33**, 1582–1594 (2013).
- 917 65. Ma, C., Su, L., Seven, A. B., Xu, Y. & Rizo, J. Reconstitution of the vital functions of
- 918 Munc18 and Munc13 in neurotransmitter release. *Science* **339**, 421–425 (2013).
- 919 66. Yang, X. et al. Syntaxin opening by the MUN domain underlies the function of Munc13
- 920 in synaptic-vesicle priming. Nat. Struct. Mol. Biol. 22, 547–554 (2015).
- 921 67. A phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate-sensitive casein kinase I alpha associates with
- 922 synaptic vesicles and phosphorylates a subset of vesicle proteins. J. Cell Biol. 130, 711–724
- 923 (1995).

- 924 68. Zhang, N. et al. Phosphorylation of Synaptic Vesicle Protein 2A at Thr84 by Casein
- 925 Kinase 1 Family Kinases Controls the Specific Retrieval of Synaptotagmin-1. *J. Neurosci.* **35**,
- 926 2492–2507 (2015).
- 927 69. Pyle, R. A., Schivell, A. E., Hidaka, H. & Bajjalieh, S. M. Phosphorylation of synaptic
- vesicle protein 2 modulates binding to synaptotagmin. J. Biol. Chem. 275, 17195–17200
- 929 (2000).
- 930 70. Buxton, P. et al. Identification and characterization of Snapin as a ubiquitously expressed
- 931 SNARE-binding protein that interacts with SNAP23 in non-neuronal cells. *Biochem. J.* **375**,
- 932 433–440 (2003).
- 933 71. Murray, M. M., Lewkowicz, D. J., Amedi, A. & Wallace, M. T. Multisensory Processes:
- A Balancing Act across the Lifespan. *Trends Neurosci.* **39**, 567–579 (2016).
- 935 72. Haider, B. & McCormick, D. A. Rapid neocortical dynamics: cellular and network
- 936 mechanisms. *Neuron* **62**, 171–189 (2009).
- 73. Zagha, E. & McCormick, D. A. Neural control of brain state. Curr. Opin. Neurobiol. 29,
- 938 178–186 (2014).
- 939 74. Bartram, J. et al. Cortical Up states induce the selective weakening of subthreshold
- 940 synaptic inputs. *Nat. Commun.* **8**, 665 (2017).
- 941 75. Petersen, C. C. H., Hahn, T. T. G., Mehta, M., Grinvald, A. & Sakmann, B. Interaction of
- sensory responses with spontaneous depolarization in layer 2/3 barrel cortex. *Proc. Natl.*
- 943 *Acad. Sci.* **100**, 13638–13643 (2003).
- 944 76. Hodkinson, D. J. et al. Increased Amplitude of Thalamocortical Low-Frequency
- 945 Oscillations in Patients with Migraine. J. Neurosci. 36, 8026–8036 (2016).

- 946 77. Meis, S., Endres, T., Munsch, T. & Lessmann, V. Presynaptic Regulation of Tonic
- Inhibition by Neuromodulatory Transmitters in the Basal Amygdala. *Mol. Neurobiol.* **55**,
- 948 8509–8521 (2018).

- 949 78. Glykys, J. & Mody, I. The main source of ambient GABA responsible for tonic inhibition
- 950 in the mouse hippocampus. *J. Physiol.* **582**, 1163–1178 (2007).
- 951 79. Song, I. et al. Different transporter systems regulate extracellular GABA from vesicular
- and non-vesicular sources. Front. Cell. Neurosci. 7, 23 (2013).
- 953 80. Richerson, G. B. & Wu, Y. Dynamic Equilibrium of Neurotransmitter Transporters: Not
- Just for Reuptake Anymore. *J. Neurophysiol.* **90**, 1363–1374 (2003).
- 955 81. Wu, Y., Wang, W. & Richerson, G. B. GABA Transaminase Inhibition Induces
- 956 Spontaneous and Enhances Depolarization-Evoked GABA Efflux via Reversal of the GABA
- 957 Transporter. J. Neurosci. **21**, 2630–2639 (2001).
- 958 82. Wu, Y., Wang, W., Díez-Sampedro, A. & Richerson, G. B. Nonvesicular inhibitory
- neurotransmission via reversal of the GABA transporter GAT-1. *Neuron* **56**, 851–865 (2007).
- 960 83. Medrihan, L., Ferrea, E., Greco, B., Baldelli, P. & Benfenati, F. Asynchronous GABA
- Release Is a Key Determinant of Tonic Inhibition and Controls Neuronal Excitability: A
- 962 Study in the Synapsin II–/– Mouse. *Cereb. Cortex* **25**, 3356–3368 (2015).
- 963 84. Lebas, A. et al. Severe Attacks of Familial Hemiplegic Migraine, Childhood Epilepsy
- and ATP1A2 Mutation. *Cephalalgia* **28**, 774–777 (2008).