Sonic Hedgehog Signaling (Shh) regulates the developmental shift of GABA polarity in rat

somatosensory cortex

Abbreviated title: Smoothened receptor controls the GABA responses polarity

Authors Names and affiliations:

Quentin Delmotte[1,2,3], Igor Medina[1,2,3], Mira Hamze[,1,2,3], Emmanuelle Buhler[2,5], Jinwei Zhang[6],

Yesser H. Belgacem[2,3,#] and Christophe Porcher [1,2,3,#,*]

Co-last authors

[1]Aix-Marseille Univ, INSERM, INMED, Parc Scientifique de Luminy 13273, Marseille, France.

[2]INSERM (Institut National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale) Unité 1249, Marseille, Parc

Scientifique de Luminy, 13273 Marseille, France. [3]INMED (Institut de Neurobiologie de la

Méditerranée), Parc Scientifique de Luminy, 13273 Marseille, France. [5]Plateforme Post-Génomique,

INMED, 13273 Marseille, France. [6]University of Exeter Medical School, United Kingdom.

[*]**Correspondence should be addressed to:**

Christophe Porcher, Ph.D., INMED, INSERM U1249, Parc scientifique de Luminy, BP 13, 13273

Marseille Cedex 09, France; Phone: 33 4 91 82 81 29; E-mail: Christophe.porcher@inserm.fr

Number of: Figures (7), Table (1), Multimedia (0)

Number of words: Abstract (184), Introduction (700), Discussion (1505).

Acknowledgements: We thank Drs. Y Ben Ari and J.L. Gaiarsa for critical reading of the manuscript;

F. Michel at InMAGIC (INMED Imaging Centre) for technical assistance.

Conflict of interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Funding: This work was supported by The National Institute of Health and Medical Research

(INSERM), the National Center for Scientific Research (CNRS), the National Agency for Research

(ANR, grant number R07066AS 2008-2011 to QD, CP and JLG and the A*MIDEX project (n° ANR-

11-IDEX-0001-02) funded by the « Investissements d'Avenir » French Government program,

managed by the French National Research Agency (ANR). IMERA/INSERM Grant, Marie Curie

Prestige/ERC Grant (PRESTIGE-2016-3-0025) and Brain & Behavior Research Foundation

(NARSAD) Young investigator grant (#25356) to YB.

ABSTRACT

Sonic Hedgehog (Shh) and its patched-smoothened receptor complex control a variety of functions in the early developing central nervous system (CNS) such as neural cell proliferation and differentiation. Recently, Shh signaling components have been found to be expressed at the synaptic level in the postnatal and adult brain, suggesting a potential role in the regulation of synaptic transmission. Here, using *in utero* electroporation of constitutively active and dominant-negative forms of the Shh co-receptor smoothened (Smo), we studied the role of Shh signaling in the development and maturation of GABAergic transmission in rat somatosensory cortex. Our results show that enhancing Smo activity during development accelerates, the shift from depolarizing to hyperpolarizing GABA, in a KCC2-dependent manner, rendering GABA inhibitory in immature tissues. On the other hand, blocking Smo activity maintains GABA response in a depolarizing state in mature cortical neurons resulting in altered chloride homeostasis and increased seizure susceptibility. Altogether, our study reveals an unexpected function of Shh signaling on the regulation of chloride homeostasis through the control of KCC2 trafficking and, in particular, on the timing of the GABA inhibitory/excitatory shift in brain maturation.

Introduction

Sonic hedgehog (Shh) is an activity-dependent secreted synaptic molecule (Beug et al., 2011). In the presence of Shh ligand, receptor Patched-1 (PTCH1) relieves its constitutive inhibition on G-protein coupled co-receptor Smoothened (Smo), leading to activation of downstream signaling factors (Riobo et al., 2006; Briscoe and Thérond, 2013; Belgacem and Borodinsky, 2015). The Shh signaling pathway plays a wide range of functions during embryonic development from neuronal cell proliferation to differentiation (Traiffort et al., 2010; Ruat et al., 2012; Briscoe and Thérond, 2013; Belgacem et al., 2016). Furthermore, in the developing mammalian central nervous system, Shh signaling is involved in axonal elongation (Hammond et al., 2009; Parra and Zou, 2010; Yao et al., 2015) and formation of the cortical connectivity (Harwell et al., 2012; Memi et al., 2018). After birth, Shh signaling components have been found in several brain regions, including the cerebral cortex and hippocampus, from an early stage of postnatal development to adulthood (Charytoniuk et al., 2002; Traiffort et al., 2010; Petralia et al., 2011, 2012; Rivell et al., 2019). In the adult hippocampus, Shh plays an essential role in neurogenesis in the dentate gyrus (Breunig et al., 2008; Antonelli et al., 2019). In addition, Shh receptors PTCH1 and Smo are also expressed at the synaptic junction of the immature and adult hippocampus (Charytoniuk et al., 2002; Petralia et al., 2011; Mitchell et al., 2012), suggesting other roles than control of neurogenesis (Zuñiga and Stoeckli, 2017). For instance, Shh was reported to exert a modulatory action on neuronal electrical activity in the adult brain (Bezard et al., 2003; Pascual et al., 2005) and more recently Shh signaling has been shown to regulates the formation of glutamatergic and GABAergic terminals in hippocampal neurons (Mitchell et al., 2012). These morphological changes were accompanied by an increase in the frequency of excitatory postsynaptic currents (Mitchell et al., 2012; Feng et al., 2016). Altogether, these findings support the view that Shh signaling pathway plays a crucial role during early postnatal neuronal circuit construction and synaptic plasticity in the hippocampus and cortex. Thus, its impairment may affect neuronal network formation and lead to brain dysfunction. Likewise, both in human and animal models accumulating evidences indicate that impairment of Shh pathway at postnatal stages may contribute for the emergence of neurodevelopmental disorders, including autism spectrum disorders (Al-Ayadhi, 2012; Halepoto et al., 2015) and seizures (Feng et al., 2016; Su et al., 2017).

In the early postnatal life, the $GABA_A$ receptor function changes from depolarizing to

hyperpolarizing in a KCC2 dependent manner (Ben-Ari et al., 1989; Rivera et al., 1999). Alteration in

the GABA developmental sequence leads to compromised balance between excitatory and inhibitory

transmission associated with severe changes in the neuronal network circuitry (Ben-Ari, 2002; Ben-

Ari et al., 2007; Wang and Kriegstein, 2009; Sernagor, 2010; Kilb et al., 2013) and subsequently,

onset of neurodevelopmental brain disorders such as ASD, epilepsy or schizophrenia (Ben-Ari and

Holmes, 2005; Kuzirian and Paradis, 2011; Mueller et al., 2015).

Although both Shh and earlier GABA signaling are critically involved in similar processes of

neuronal network formation and are implicated in etiology of same neurodevelopmental disorders,

their putative interplay remains unclear. Here we postulated that Shh components may contribute to

the onset of the GABA polarity shift and suggested that deregulation of Shh signalling pathway may

then lead to an impaired neuronal network and to the emergence of brain disorders at adulthood.

Because loss of function of Smo have an embryonic lethal phenotype (Zhang et al., 2001) and Smo

activation in Wnt1-Cre;R26SmoM2 mice induces a hyperplasia of the facial processes at embryonic

stages (Jeong et al., 2004), we used in utero electroporation (IUE) to target the somatosensory cortex

with constructs encoding either for the dominant-negative (Smo Δ570-581) (Kim et al., 2009) or the

constitutively active (Smo A1) (Chen et al., 2011) Smo variants. Our results reveal an unexpected

function for Shh/PTCH/Smo signaling pathway in the regulation of GABAergic developmental timing

in the rat cerebral cortex, notably through the modulation of KCC2 cell surface expression and

stability. We further show that impairment of Shh signaling maintains a depolarizing action of GABA,

which then leads to an alteration of GABAergic inhibitory transmission in adulthood and may

contributes to the emergence of brain disorders.

Material and methods

All animal procedures were carried out according to the guidelines set by the INSERM animal welfare through the local committee (CEEA n°14) and the European Communities Council Directives (2010/63/UE). Male and female Wistar rats were purchased from Janvier Labs (https://www.janvier-labs.com/fiche_produit/rat_wistar/). Animals were raised and mated at INMED A2 animal facility housed under a 12 h light/dark cycle at 22-24°C and had access to food and water *ad libitum*.

Reagents and treatments

The following reagents were purchased from the indicated sources: 1,2,3,4-Tetrahydro-6-nitro-2,3-dioxo-benzo[f]quinoxaline-7-sulfonamide (NBQX) was obtained from the Molecular, Cellular and Genomic Neuroscience Research Branch (MCGNRB) of the National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH, Bethesda, MD, USA). TTX was purchased from abcam (Cambridge, UK). Isoguvacine, bicuculline and VU0463271 were purchased from Tocris Cookson (Bristol, UK). Strychnine and Bumetanide from Sigma (St-Louis, Missouri, USA).

In utero electroporation

In utero injections and electroporations were performed in embryos from timed pregnant rats (embryonic day 15) that received buprenorphine (Buprecare at 0.03 mg/kg) and were anaesthetized with sevoflurane (4.5%) 30 minutes later (Martineau et al., 2018). Briefly, the uterine horns were exposed, and a lateral ventricle of each embryo was injected using pulled glass capillaries and a microinjector (PV 820 Pneumatic PicoPump; World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, FL) with Fast Green (2 mg/ml; Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA) combined with the following DNA constructs encoding GFP or mCherry and/or Smo Δ570-581 (Kim et al., 2009) and/or Smo A1 (Chen et al., 2011) and/or Cl-Sensor (ratio 1:2). Plasmids were further electroporated by delivering 40V voltage pulses with a BTX ECM 830 electroporator (BTX Harvard Apparatus, Holliston, MA, USA). The voltage was discharged in five electrical pulses at 950 ms intervals via tweezer-type electrodes (Nepa Gene Co, Chiba, Japan) placed on the head of the embryo across the uterine wall. We

performed *in utero* electroporation in embryonic rats at E15, corresponding to an active period of both

radial and tangential migration of newborn neurons in the cortex (Kriegstein and Noctor, 2004). At

birth, successfully electroporated pups were selected after transcranial visualization of the

GFP reporter fluorescent proteins only. Following experimentation, morphological analysis of

electroporated tissues, selected by GFP or mCherry expression under fluorescent stereomicroscope

(Olympus SZX 16), was performed. The criteria commonly used for exclude animals were:

localization and cell density of transfected cortices and absence of abnormal cortex morphology (i.e.

cortical disruption, thickening and abnormal cortical organization). Our analyses revealed no

alterations in cortical layer position or morphology in GFP, mCherry, SmoA1 and Smo Δ570-581

conditions, although we cannot exclude the possibility that Smo constructs impact the neuronal cells at

the cellular and subcellular levels. Nevertheless, approximately 20% of electroporation failed due to

the absence of transfected cells as revealed by the lack of fluorescent cells (in GFP or mCherry and

Smo conditions). These animals were excluded from the study.

Western blotting

Electroporated zones of the somatosensory cortex were homogenized in RIPA buffer (150 mM NaCl,

1% Triton X100, 0,1% SDS, 50 mM Tris HCl, pH 8, containing protease inhibitors (Complete Mini;

Roche). Lysates were centrifuged (10.000g for 10 min at 4°C) and the supernatant was heated at 90°C

for 5 min with Laemmli loading buffer. Loading was 20 µg of proteins as determined using a modified

Bradford reaction (BioRad Laboratories). Proteins were separated in 7–15% SDS-PAGE and

electrophoretically transferred to nitrocellulose membranes. Membranes were blocked with 5%

Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) in TBS 0,1% Tween 20 (TBST) for 2h at RT, then incubated with

primary antibodies diluted in TBST containing 3% BSA overnight at 4°C or 2h at RT. Blots were

probed with antibody against KCC2 (1:2000; rabbit, US Biological), NKCC1 total (1mg/ml; Sheep,

S022D, Division of Signal Transduction Therapy Unit (DSTT), University of Dundee UK) and tubulin

(1:10.000; ß-tubulin, mouse, Sigma). After washing with TBST, membranes were incubated with

HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies diluted in TBST containing 3% BSA for 60 min, washed with

TBST and then developed using the G:BOX gel imaging system (Syngene). The appropriate exposure

time of the digital camera for acquisition of chemiluminescent signals from immunoblots was adapted

to avoid saturated pixels and expression levels were estimated by Image J software (NIH, Bethesda,

MD; http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/).

Immunocytochemistry and confocal microscopy

Under deep anesthesia with isoflurane prior to chloral hydrate (7% in PBS 1M), P10 to P30

electroporated rats were intracardially perfused with cold PBS (1M) followed by 4% PFA in PBS.

Brains were removed, post-fixed overnight at 4°C and rinsed in PBS. Coronal cortical sections (70μm

thick) were obtained using a vibratome (Microm HM 650V). Sections were incubated first for 1 h in

PBS with 1% BSA and 0.3% Triton X-100, then overnight at 4°C with rabbit anti-Smo (1:500;

ab38686; Abcam) or rabbit anti-caspase-3 cleaved (1:500; 9661S; Cell Signaling) or chicken anti-

MAP2 (1:5000; ab5392; Abcam) or mouse anti-NeuN (1:1000; MAB377; Chemicon), or rabbit anti-

FoxP2 (1:4000; ab16046; Abcam), or mouse anti-synaptophysin (1:000; MAB5258; Chemicon).

Sections were rinsed in PBS and incubated for 2h with the corresponding Alexa488 (1:1000;

FluoProbes), Cy5 or Cy3-conjugated secondary antibodies diluted in PBS (1:1000; Chemicon). DAPI

staining was applied for nuclear localization (Vector Laboratories H-1200). Control tissues used to

determine the level of nonspecific staining included tissues incubated without primary antibody.

Sequential acquisition of immunoreactivity of GFP positive pyramidal-like cells was performed using

laser scanning confocal microscope (Zeiss LSM 510 Meta) with a 40X or 63X oil-immersion

objectives. For each experimental condition, a semi-quantitative analysis of Synaptophysin (Syn)

labeled area fraction per field was measured and reported to the area fraction of positive pixels for

MAP2. The surface areas of NeuN immuno-positive neurons expressing GFP or Smo-related

constructs were measured manually using the Freehands selection tool in Image J. In each set of

images, laser light levels and detector gain and offset were adjusted to avoid any saturated levels.

Optical sections were digitized (1024 × 1024 pixels) and processed using Image J software. All of the

images were analyzed blindly.

Relative Quantitative Expression of mRNA transcripts

Expressions of Gli1 and PTCH1 mRNA in the electroporated regions of the somatosensory cortex were measured by real-time quantitative RT-PCR. Total RNAs were isolated from cerebral cortices (P15 rats) using Mini RNeasy kit (Qiagen) then converted to cDNA using 1 µg RNA and a QuantiTect Reverse Transcription kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's instructions. PCR was carried out with the LightCycler 480 SYBR Green I Master (Roche Applied Science) with 1 µL cDNA using the following oligonucleotides (QuantiTect Primer Assays, Qiagen): Gli1 (Gli1; QT01290324), PTCH1 (QT01579669), and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH; QT001199633). Quantitative RT-PCR was performed with a Roche LC480 Light Cycler (Roche Applied Science) following the manufacturer's instructions. Relative mRNA values were calculated using the LC480 software and GAPDH as the housekeeping gene. PCR was performed in replicates of 3.

Slices preparation and electrophysiological recordings

Somatosensory electroporated cortical slices identified by the atlas of Paxinos and Watson (Paxinos and Watson, 2005) were prepared from P30 rats in ice-cold (2-4°C) oxygenated modified artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) (0.5mM CaCl2 and 7mM MgSO4; NaCl replaced by an equimolar concentration of choline). Slices (300 µm thick) were cut with a Vibratome (VT1000E; Leica, Nussloch, Germany) and kept at room temperature (25°C) for at least one hour before recording in oxygenated normal ACSF containing (in mM): 126 NaCl, 3.5 KCl, 2 $CaCl_2$, 1.3 $MgCl_2$, 1.2 NaH_2PO_4, 25 $NaHCO_3$ and 11 glucose, pH 7.4 equilibrated with 95% O_2 and 5% CO_2. Slices were then transferred to a submerged recording chamber perfused with ACSF (3 mL/min) at 34°C.

Spiking activity and data analysis

Extracellular field potential recordings were performed from P14, P20 and P30 electroporated somatosensory cortical slices. Extracellular tungsten electrodes of 50µm diameter (California Fine Wire, Grover Beach, CA, USA) were positioned in the V/VI cortical pyramidal cell layer of the transfected area to record the Multi Unit Activity (MUA). Field potentials were recorded using a DAM80 Amplifier (World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, FL, USA) using a 1–3 Hz bandpass filter

and analyzed off-line with the Axon package MiniAnalysis program (Jaejin Software, Leonia, NJ,

USA). To determine the developmental changes in the GABA$_A$ signaling, we used isoguvacine, a

potent and selective GABA$_A$ receptor agonist (Krogsgaard-Larsen and Johnston, 1978). We

determined the effect of isoguvacine on MUA as a ratio of the spiking frequency at the peak of the

isoguvacine response to the spiking frequency in control.

Cl⁻-Sensor fluorescence recordings from brain slices

To perform a non-invasive monitoring of $[Cl^-]_i$ we used a ratiometric genetically-encoded Cl⁻-sensitive

probe called Cl-Sensor (Markova et al., 2008; Waseem et al., 2010) that was co-expressed into the

cells of interest together with other constructs as described above. The acquisition of fluorescence

images was performed using a customized imaging set-up and consecutive cells excitation at 430 and

500 nm and emission at 480 and 540 nm. The frequency of acquisition was 0.05 Hz. The duration of

excitation was selected for each cell type and was selected to avoid use-dependent bleaching of the

signal (Friedel et al., 2013). Results are expressed as ratio R430/500. Experiments were performed on

acute cortical slices from *in utero* electroporated rat pups on postnatal days P10 and P30.

Electroporated cortical regions of the P10 rat were identified using an atlas of the developing rat brain

(Khazipov et al., 2015). Electroporated cortical regions of the P30 rat were identified using the

Paxinos and Watson rat brain atlas (Paxinos and Watson, 2005). Based on these two atlases, the

somatosensory regions were used for acute slice experiments. Individual slices were transferred to a

specially designed recording chamber where they were fully submerged and superfused with

oxygenated ACSF complemented with 1 μM tetrodotoxin, 0.3 μM strychnine, and 10 μM NBQX to

prevent spontaneous neuronal activity and noncontrolled $[Cl^-]_i$ changes at 30–32°C at a rate of 2–3

ml/min. The applications of the ACSF solution containing isoguvacine (30 μM) or KCl (25 mM) +

isoguvacine (30 μM) were performed with a perfusion system.

Seizure induction with pentylenetetrazol (PTZ)

To evaluate the susceptibility to seizures in controls rats (GFP-transfected brains), in SmoA1 and Smo

Δ570-581 animals at P30, PTZ (25 mg/kg; Sigma) was administered via intraperitoneal injections

every 10 min until generalized seizures occurred. Rats were placed in a plexiglass cage and the time to

the onset of the generalized seizure was measured by observation. There was no significant difference

in weight and sex between groups of animals. Experiments were done blind and electroporated region

was verified after PTZ induction. Rats with a very focal fluorescence or fluorescence in other brain

regions than somatosensory cortex were excluded.

Primary cultures and transfection of rat hippocampal neurons

Neurons from 18-day-old rat embryos were dissected and dissociated using trypsin and plated at a

density of 70,000 cells cm^{-2} in minimal essential medium (MEM) supplemented with 10% NU serum

(BD Biosciences, Le Pont de Claix, France), 0.45% glucose, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 2 mM glutamine

and 10 U ml-1 penicillin–streptomycin (Buerli et al., 2007). On days 7, 10 and 13 of culture

incubation (DIV, days *in vitro*), half of the medium was changed to MEM with 2% B27 supplement

(Invitrogen). For electrophysiology neuronal cultures were plated on coverslips placed in 35-mm

culture dishes. Twelve hours before plating, dishes with coverslips were coated with polyethylenimine

(5 mg/ml). Transfection of cultured neurons was performed with 300 µl Opti-MEM medium mixed

with 7 µl Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen), 1 µl Magnetofection CombiMag (OZ Biosciences) per µg

of DNA and 1.5 µg premixed DNAs encoding constructs of interest. The mixture was incubated for 20

min at room temperature and thereafter distributed dropwise above the neuronal culture. Culture

dishes (35-mm) were placed on a magnetic plate (OZ Biosciences) and incubated for 35 min at 37°C,

5% CO_2. Transfection was terminated by the substitution of 80% of the incubation solution with fresh

culture medium. Cells were used in the experiments 48-72 hours after transfection. These experiments

were based on co-transfection into the same cell of two different pcDNAs encoding a fluorescent

marker of transfection (eGFP or mCherry, 0.3 µg), and Smo related-constructs (1.2 µg).

Gramicidin-perforated patch-clamp recordings

Gramicidin-perforated patch-clamp recordings were performed on primary hippocampal neurons,

transfected with a mixture of constructs encoding mCherry (mock) or Smo Δ570-581 or Smo A1 with

or without KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ (Friedel et al., 2017). Measurements were performed 2 or 3 days after

transfection (corresponding to 8 or 9 DIV). Coverslips with transfected neurons were placed onto the

inverted microscope and perfused with an external Hepes-buffered solution (HBS) (in mM): 140

NaCl, 2.5 KCl, 20 Hepes, 20 d-glucose, 2.0 $CaCl_2$, 2.0 $MgCl_2$, and 0.02 Bumetanide, pH 7.4. For

recording from neurons, external HBS contained 0.5 μM tetrodotoxin and 15 μM bumetanide. The

recording micropipettes (5 MΩ) were filled with a solution containing (in mM): 150 KCl, 10 Hepes,

and 20 μg/ml gramicidin A, pH 7.2. Isoguvacine (30 μM) was dissolved in external solution and

focally applied to recorded cells through a micropipette connected to a Picospritzer (General Valve

Corporation, pressure 5 p.s.i.). Recordings were done using an Axopatch-200A amplifier and

pCLAMP acquisition software (Molecular Devices) in voltage-clamp mode. Data were low-pass

filtered at 2 kHz and acquired at 10 kHz. Isoguvacine responses were recorded at voltages -110, -90, -

70 and -50 mV or at -70, -50, -30 and -10 mV depending on neuron GABA inversion potential. A

linear regression was used to calculate the best-fit line of the voltage dependence of the isoguvacine

responses.

Surface immunolabelling on living neurons and analysis of KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ proteins

For immunolabelling of KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ proteins on living neurons, rabbit anti-GFP antibody were

dissolved in culture media applied to neurons for 2 hours at 37°C, 5% CO2 (Friedel et al., 2015).

Neurons were then rinsed three times at room temperature (RT) with HBS, labeled with anti-rabbit

Cy3-conjugated antibody for 20 min at 13°C and fixed in Antigenfix (Diapath). To reveal intracellular

pool of live-labelled proteins, cells were permeabilized with 0.3% Triton X-100, blocked by 5% goat

serum and incubated during 1 h at RT with anti-rabbit Alexa 647-conjugated antibody. For

visualization of the total pool of overexpressed KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ cells were labeled overnight (4°C) with

mouse anti-GFP antibody and for 1 hour at RT with anti-chicken Alexa 488-conjugated antibody. For

control of the cell integrity during live-cell immunolabelling, one batch of cultures were routinely

transfected with KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ mutant ΔNTD-KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ that does not incorporate into the plasma

membrane (Friedel et al., 2017).

Images of labeled neurons were acquired with an Olympus Fluorview-500 confocal microscope

(oil-immersion objective 60x (NA1.4); zoom 1-5). We randomly selected and focused on a transfected

cell by only visualizing Alexa-488 fluorescence and then acquired Z-stack images of Alexa-488, CY3

and Alexa-647 fluorochromes. Each Z-stack included 10 planes of 1 μm optical thickness and taken at

0.5 μm distance between planes. The cluster properties and fluorescence intensities of each cell were

analyzed with Metamorph software. First, we used the logical "NOT" conversion of pairs of Alexa-

647 and CY3 images to isolate in each focal plane the Alexa-647 signal that was not overlapping with

CY3 fluorescence restricted to plasma membrane. This gave rise to additional images reflecting the

fluorescence of the internalized pool of labeled clusters, called thereafter "NOT-conversion". Second,

the arithmetic summation for each Z-stack and channel was performed to collect the whole

fluorescence of the different signals (Alexa-488 = total protein fluorescence; CY3 = plasma membrane

restricted fluorescence; NOT-conversion = internalized restricted fluorescence; Alexa-647 = all

surface labeled fluorescence). Third, a binary mask was created for each cell from Alexa-488 image to

isolate the signal coming from the transfected neuron, and the fluorescence parameters (total

fluorescence, single cluster fluorescence as well as density and brightness of clusters) were analyzed

for each channel (Alexa-488, CY3, NOT-conversion and Alexa-647) in regions overlapping with the

binary mask. The analysis parameters were the same for each experiment and all experiments were

done blind. After analysis, data were normalized to the mean value of cells transfected with KCC2-

pHext + GFP.

Statistical analysis

No statistical methods were used to predetermine sample sizes. To ensure the consistency and

reproducibility of our results, we conducted repeated trials in different cell cultures and acute brain

slices prepared from at least three different animals for each experimental condition. If not stated

otherwise, statistics are presented as the mean ± the standard deviation (SD) for normaly distributed

data and as the median only for non-normaly distributed data. Experiments with control and Smo

electroporated animals were processed at the same time to ensure homogeneity of experimental

conditions. Statistical analyses and assessment of normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilk test) were

performed with GraphPad Prism (GraphPad software 5.01). For data showing normal distribution,

ANOVA and the post hoc Tukey test were used for multiple comparisons between groups, and a

paired t-test was used to compare paired data. For data displaying non-normal distribution Kruskal-

Wallis test was used to compare three of more independent groups, Mann-Whitney U-test was used

for comparison between 2 independent groups and Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test to analyze

differences within one group across conditions. Details of the statistical analysis are summarized in

Table 1.

Results

Cortical expression pattern of Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581

Previous studies have shown that Shh signaling pathways components, including PTCH and Smo, are present in the postnatal mammalian brain (Petralia et al., 2011; Harwell et al., 2012; Mitchell et al., 2012; Rivell et al., 2019). In the mouse neocortex, Shh signaling pathway regulates the formation of neuronal network in immature brain, suggesting that Shh signaling components may play a major role in construction and maturation of neural circuits during the postnatal periods. In order to evaluate the potential role of Shh in the developing brain, we used IUE of plasmids to express GFP or mCherry alone as controls or in combination with constitutively active (Smo A1) or dominant-negative (Smo Δ570-581) forms of Smo, an essential component for Shh signaling. IUE of rat brains was performed at embryonic day 15 (E15) in order to target mainly pyramidal neurons of the layers V/VI (Kriegstein and Noctor, 2004). Coronal sections through the somatosensory cortex of GFP or mCherry and Smo-related constructs co-electroporated tissues from P15 rodents were immunolabeled with neuronal markers NeuN and FoxP2 (deeper layer neurons markers) to assist in the histological identification of cortical layers (Fig. 1A). The fluorescence intensity profile of both Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581 expressing neurons does not show any obvious differences in the cortical layering when compared to control GFP or mCherry-expressing cells. Thus, Smo A1 or Smo Δ570-581 expressing neurons electroporated at E15 most likely represent the layers V/VI of the somatosensory cortex.

Because Shh signaling is involved in cell division and cell growth of cerebral cortex progenitors (Araújo et al., 2014), we investigated whether Smo-related constructs could impact the cortical thickness or the neuronal cell density and size in electroporated tissues. We found that cortical thickness of Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581 rats does not present any difference compared to control rats (median values: 1772 μm, 1779 μm and 1772 μm respectively; p=0.07 between Smo A1 and CTRL rats, p=0.17 between Smo Δ570-581 and CTRL, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 1B). The density of NeuN immuno-positive cells in Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581 electroporated somatosensory cortices, measured in the layer V, reveals no difference when compared to control tissues (46 neurons per observation field for CTRL, vs 41 for Smo A1; $p = 0.72$ and 41 neurons for Smo Δ570-581; $p = 0.44$, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 1C). Similarly, the average soma neuronal size remains unchanged (210,3

μm² for CTRL vs 229.2 μm ² for Smo A1 and 213.8 μm² for Smo Δ570-581; p=0.26 and p=0.48

between CTRL and Smo Δ570-581, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 1D).

In hippocampal neurons, exogenous treatment with Shh or Smo agonist (SAG) upregulate

presynaptic nerve terminals (Mitchell et al., 2012). Theses observations led us to investigate whether

Smo A1 or Smo Δ570-581 could modulate the density of presynaptic terminals in electroporated

cortices. In order to assess the possible changes at the presynaptic levels, we performed quantitative

analysis of the area fraction of synaptophysin on MAP2-positive neurons at P30. Compared with

control GFP, Smo Δ570-581 electroporated tissues showed a significant decrease in the area fraction

of synaptophysin immunolabeling (16.05 % for Smo Δ570-581 vs 19.67 % for CTRL; $p = 0.01$,

Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 1E), whereas Smo A1 increased the area fraction of synaptophysin-positive

synapses (24.77 % for Smo A1; $p = 0.01$ when compared to CTRL and $p < 0.0001$ when compared to

Smo Δ570-581, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 1E).

Recent evidences indicate that Smo signaling pathway inhibits neuronal apotosis (Wang et al.

2018), whereas loss of Smo activity leads to increased neuronal apoptosis (Qin, Suping, 2019). In

order to assess if Smo A1 or Smo Δ570-581 induces apoptosis in electroporated neurons, we

performed immunohistochemical analysis for cleaved caspase-3, a marker for cell apoptosis (Logue

and Martin, 2008) on electroporated rats at P15. Quantification of cleaved caspase-3-positive neurons

shows no significant difference between the constitutively active mutant (0.24 ± 0.13 % and 0.34 ±

0.23 % in respectively Smo A1 and CTRL; $p = 0.70$, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 1F and G), or dominant

negative (0.23 ± 0.15; $p = 0.74$, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 1F and G) forms of Smo when compared to

GFP control tissues.

All together, these observations indicate that expression of constitutively active or dominant

negative forms of Smo does not alter the mean neuronal density and the positioning of pyramidal

neurons in the cerebral cortex. Moreover, these results also suggest that *in utero* electroporation of the

constitutively active or dominant-negative forms of Smo does not affect apoptosis mechanisms in the

postnatal cerebral cortex. By contrast, both Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581 modify significantly the

formation of synaptic terminals. In keeping with previous findings showing Smo-dependent

enhancement of synapse formation (Mitchell et al., 2012) our results indicate that Smo A1 and Smo

Δ570-581 electroporation is an effective strategy to modify Shh signaling pathway.

Smo-related constructs regulate the expression levels of its downstream target genes

To investigate the functional expression of the two Smo-related constructs, we performed

immunofluorescence labeling by using antibody raised against Smo protein in somatosensory cortical

tissues overexpressing Smo A1 or Smo Δ570-581 constructs at P15. As illustrated in figure 2A, the

anti-Smo antibody detected well the expression of Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581 in the electroporated

somatosensory cortex. Smo activation mobilizes activator forms of Gli transcription factors, which in

turn lead to an increase of PTCH1 and Gli1 expression (Jacob and Lum, 2007). In order to validate

functional expression of Smo A1 or Smo Δ570-581, we quantified Gli1 and PTCH1 mRNA levels in

cortices overexpressing Smo A1 or Smo Δ570-581 mutants using qRT-PCR at P15. As expected, Gli1

mRNA expression levels are increased in Smo A1 when compared with GFP control animals (CTRL)

(median values: 1.39 vs 0.76 a.u. in respectively Smo A1 and CTRL; $p = 0.041$, Mann-Whitney test;

Fig. 2B), and conversely decreased in Smo Δ570-581 (0.48 a.u.; $p = 0.039$ when compared to CTRL,

Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 2B). When compared with CTRL and Smo A1 animals, PTCH1 mRNA

transcripts are downregulated in Smo Δ570-581 rats (3.61 a.u. in Smo Δ570-581 vs 6.97 a.u. in CTRL

and 6.21 a.u. in Smo A1; $p = 0.026$ when compared Smo Δ570-581 to CTRL; $p = 0.008$ when

compared Smo Δ570-581 to Smo A1, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 2C). No significant difference is

observed for PTCH1 mRNA levels between CTRL and Smo A1 (6.21 a.u. for Smo A1; $p = 0.66$,

Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 2C).

These results confirm that in the electroporated tissues, the constitutively active SmoA1

significantly promotes the expression of the target gene Gli1 whereas the dominant negative Smo

Δ570-581 acts in an opposite way by reducing its expression.

Smo-dependent Shh signaling controls the developmental GABA excitatory to inhibitory shift

Cortical neuronal network construction during postnatal period requires the depolarizing to

hyperpolarizing shift of GABA to occur at a precise timing during maturation (Ben-Ari and Holmes,

2005; Wang and Kriegstein, 2009; Wu and Sun, 2015). Because Shh signaling plays a nodal role in

brain development (Álvarez-Buylla and Ihrie, 2014; Yao et al., 2016), we investigated whether the

manipulation of Smo activity will affect the onset of GABA excitatory/inhibitory postnatal shift at the

network level. We performed field recordings of MUA in acute cortical slices from control (GFP)-,

Smo A1- and Smo Δ570-581 rats and measured the effect of bath application of the $GABA_AR$ agonist

isoguvacine (10 µM) on their spiking activity at P14, P20 and P30. Accordingly to the known

depolarizing action of GABA in the immature neocortex (Kirmse et al., 2015; Riffault et al., 2018),

isoguvacine induced an increase of spiking activity at P14 in cortical slices from control and Smo

Δ570-581 dominant negative rodents (median values: +33.87 %; $p = 0.019$ and +86.12 %; $p = 0.019$

respectively, Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed test; Fig. 3A and B). In contrast, isoguvacine decreased

the spiking activity in Smo A1 constitutively active mutants (-12 %; $p = 0.009$, Wilcoxon matched-

pairs signed test, Fig. 3A and B). At P20, isoguvacine induced either a decrease or an increase of

spiking activity in control (-11.37 %; $p = 0.519$, Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed test; Fig. 3B). In

slices obtained from Smo A1 rats we observed a decrease of spikes frequency, while in Smo Δ570-581

condition, isoguvacine induced a strong increase of spikes frequency (-47.03 %; $p = 0.011$ and

+60.21%; $p = 0.042$ respectively, Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed test; Fig. 3B). At P30 (Fig. 3A, B

and C), isoguvacine induced a decrease in spikes frequency from control and Smo A1 cortical slices,

whereas it increases the spiking activity in Smo Δ570-581 rats (-22.86 %; $p = 0.0078$, -42.15 %; $p =$

0.015 and +12.89 %; $p = 0.015$ respectively, Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed test; Fig. 3A and B).

Thus, the overall effects of isoguvacine on the spiking activity in the electroporated cortical slices

suggest that Smo A1- and Smo Δ570-581-related construct accelerates and delays respectively the

developmental hyperpolarizing GABA shift (p<0.0001, Chi-square test; Fig. 3C).

To investigate if early GABAergic maturation in Smo A1 rats is KCC2 or NKCC1-dependent,

we applied the KCC2-selective blocker VU0463271 (VU0) on somatosensory cortex slices obtained

from Smo A1 rats at P14. VU0 application shifted the isoguvacine response from inhibitory to

excitatory when compared with non treated Smo A1 slices (-12 % vs +57.1% with VU0; $p = 0.0009$,

Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 3D) suggesting a KCC2-dependent mechanism for Smo-A1 action.

We next analyzed, using western blotting techniques, whether the expression of NKCC1 and

KCC2 protein levels were modified in Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581 rats. We found that KCC2 protein

expression is up-regulated in Smo A1 electroporated cortices compared to Smo Δ570-581 (2.138 for

Smo A1 vs 1.98 Smo Δ570-581, when normalized to ß3 tubulin; $p = 0.0087$, Mann-Whitney test; Fig.

3E and F). No significant difference is observed between control and Smo-related constructs for

KCC2 protein levels. NKCC1 protein expression levels is similar between Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-

581 when compared to control (2.095 for Smo A1 vs 2.136 for Smo Δ570-581 and 2.167 for control

tissues when normalized to ß3 tubulin; $p = 0.09$ and $p = 0.48$ respectively, Mann Whitney test; Fig. 3E

and G).

Collectively, our data suggest that increasing Smo activity prematurely shifts GABA polarity

from excitatory to inhibitory in a KCC2-dependent manner, while decreasing Smo activity delays that

shift.

Neuronal chloride homeostasis is altered in the cerebral cortex of Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581 rats

The developmental shift from excitatory to inhibitory action of GABAergic transmission is mainly

dependent on extrusion activity of KCC2 in neuronal cells (Medina et al., 2014). We therefore sought

to determine whether the intracellular concentration of chloride is altered in the somatosensory cortex

of Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581 rats. To test this hypothesis, constructs encoding ratiometric Cl-sensor

plus mCherry (control) or Smo A1 or Smo Δ570-581 were electroporated *in utero* in rats at E15 (see

Methods for details; Fig. 4A). Transverse slices of electroporated somatosensory cortex were prepared

at postnatal days P10 and P30. Electroporated slices harbored hundreds of neurons expressing Cl⁻-

Sensor in cortical layers V/VI. Results show that bath application of isoguvacine (10 µM, 3 min) on

P10 Smo Δ570-581 and mCherry-control slices produces a uniform decrease of $R_{430/500}$ (indicated by

an arrowhead in Fig. 4B and by the negative value of ΔR/R in Fig. 4D), reflecting a chloride ion

extrusion characteristic of depolarizing action of GABA (median values: -0.04 a.u. for Smo Δ570-581

vs -0.09 a.u. for CTRL; $p = 0.17$, Mann Whitney test; Fig. 4B and D), whereas in Smo A1 slices,

isoguvacine triggers either an increase or a decrease of $R_{430/500}$ (+0.00 a.u. for Smo A1; $p = 0.005$

compared to CTRL, Mann Whitney test, Fig. 4B and D), a characteristic feature indicating that GABA

is switching from depolarizing to hyperpolarizing actions. In P30 control and Smo A1 slices,

isoguvacine produces a chloride influx (indicated by an arrow in Fig. 4C) as shown by the positive

value of ΔR/R (+0.22 a.u. for CTRL mCherry vs +0.26 a.u. for Smo A1; $p = 0.63$, Mann-Whitney test;

Fig. 4C and D), while Smo Δ570-581 slices show a slight increase of $R_{430/500}$ (+0.06 a.u.; $p = 0.002$

compared to CTRL and $p = 0.01$ compared to Smo A1; Fig. 4C and D), suggesting that the conversion

of GABA-induced depolarization into hyperpolarization is altered in Smo Δ570-581 condition.

Our data therefore suggest that KCC2 activity is upregulated in Smo A1 and downregulated in

Smo Δ570-581, leading to low or high intracellular chloride concentration, respectively.

SmoΔ570-581 rats display increased susceptibility to PTZ-induced seizures

We next investigated whether overexpression of Smo mutants may influence the susceptibility to

seizures. Smo Δ570-581, Smo A1 and age-matched control rats (transfected with mCherry or GFP

alone) at P30 were intraperitoneally injected with subconvulsive doses of PTZ (25 mg/kg) every 10

min (see Figure 5A). PTZ is known to induce seizures by reducing the GABA_A receptor-mediated

inhibition (Klioueva et al., 2001). The susceptibility to PTZ is age-dependent and previous studies

found that the lowest threshold for major seizures can be observed during the first 2 postnatal weeks of

life and the highest at around P30 (Vernadakis and Woodbury, 1969; Klioueva et al., 2001). These

results suggest that the vulnerability of the developing cerebral cortex to PTZ is correlated to the

maturation of GABAergic system. Injections of PTZ were continued every 10 min until each rat had

generated generalized tonic-clonic seizure. Seizure susceptibility and severity were quantified with the

canonical Racine's scale of seizure severity (Lüttjohann et al., 2009), including dose and latency to

onset of the first generalized tonic-clonic seizure. Generalized seizures in Smo Δ570-581 rats (n = 18

rats) occur at lower doses of PTZ (median values: 87.5 mg/kg compared with 100 mg/kg for both

control and Smo A1 rats; $p = 0.005$ and $p = 0.003$ respectively, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 5C) with

shorter latencies than control and Smo A1 rats (30.83 min compared with 32.71 min in control and

32.69 min in Smo A1; $p = 0.041$ and $p = 0.024$ respectively;, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 5B). No

significant difference is observed between control and Smo A1 rats in the latency (32.69 min

compared with 32.71 min in control; $p = 0.5158$; Fig. 5B) or cumulative dose of PTZ to induce tonic-

clonic seizures ($p = 0.501$; Fig. 5C).

Together, our results indicate that reduced-seizure threshold in Smo Δ570-581 rats could be due

to a downregulation of KCC2 triggered by the diminution of Smo signaling pathway.

Smo signaling controls chloride homeostasis in vitro

To further link Shh-PTCH-Smo signaling with the GABA polarity shift and neuronal chloride

homeostasis, we performed gramicidin-perforated patch-clamp technique to measure the $GABA_A$

reversal potential (E_{GABA}) on dissociated hippocampal cultures in immature neurons (9 DIV). We first

measured E_{GABA} in transfected neurons (9 DIV) expressing mCherry or KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ (Fig. 6A, B). In

accordance with results obtained from a recent study (Friedel et al., 2017), E_{GABA} is much lower in

KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ transfected neurons than in mCherry cells (median values: -86.25 mV vs -50.13 mV

respectively; $p < 0.0001$, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 6A and B). These results validate the functional

expression of KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ overexpressed in hippocampal neurons, mimicking KCC2 neuronal activity

at mature stages. The measurements of E_{GABA} in Smo A1 transfected neurons show a hyperpolarizing

shift of isoguvacine currents when compared to mCherry neurons (-61.63 mV in Smo A1vs -50.13 mV

in mCherry; $p = 0.008$, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 6A and B). In contrast, among neurons

overexpressing KCC2-pH$_{ext}$, those co-transfected with Smo Δ570-581 show a depolarizing shift of

isoguvacine currents when compared to KCC2-pH$_{ext}$–cotransfected mCherry neurons (-53.1 mV in

Smo Δ570-581 vs -86.25 mV in CTRL; $p = 0.006$, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 6A and B). Our findings

suggest that the constitutively active Smo A1 upregulates KCC2 activity shifting E_{GABA} towards

hyperpolarizing values in hippocampal neurons at 9 DIV, whereas expression of the dominant-

negative Smo Δ570-581 in KCC2-pH$_{ext}$–expressing neurons downregulates KCC2 activity shifting

E_{GABA} towards depolarizing values. These results fit with our *ex vivo* data showing an impaired

chloride homeostasis either at high intracellular chloride concentration condition for Smo A1, or at

low intracellular chloride concentration condition for Smo Δ570-581.

The dominant-negative form of Smo affects the stability of KCC2 to the plasmalemmal surface

by promoting endocytosis

Finally, we assessed whether Smo-related constructs are able to regulate KCC2 trafficking to the cell

surface. We therefore quantified KCC2 expression in different cell compartments of control and Smo-

related constructs in cultured hippocampal neurons, using a KCC2 construct tagged in an external loop

with a green fluorescent protein (KCC2-pH$_{ext}$) (Kahle et al., 2014). This construct allowed us to

visualize the total amount of KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ expressed by neurons (F$_t$), the level of KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ cell

surface expression (F$_m$) and the level of KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ internalized (F$_i$) (Fig. 7A and B). As controls, we

used KCC2 mutant constructions to stay at the membrane (A/A KCC2 mutant), or to not be addressed

to neuronal membrane (ΔNTD-KCC2 mutant). (Friedel et al., 2017). As expected KCC2 membrane

pool is increased for A/A KCC2 mutant condition (median values were: 1.49 a.u. for A/A KCC2 vs

0.94 a.u. for CTRL; p=0.002, Mann Whitney test; Fig. 7B, E). About ΔNTD-KCC2 mutant, the

multistep immunolabeling protocol didn't detect membrane expression (0.008 a.u. for ΔNTD-KCC2

vs 0.94 a.u. for CTRL; p<0.0001, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 7B, E) or internalization (0.09 a.u. for

ΔNTD-KCC2 vs 0.84 a.u. for CTRL; p<0.0001, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 7B, D), confirming cell

membrane integrity during experiment. Results show no difference in total KCC2 expression F$_t$

between control and Smo-related constructs (0.95 for CTRL vs 1.06 for Smo A1 and 1.06 a.u for Smo

Δ570-581; p = 0.28 and p = 0.31 respectively, Mann Whitney test; Fig. 7B and C). No difference is

observed between control and Smo A1 neurons for KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ membrane pool F$_m$ (0.94 vs 0.80 a.u.;

p = 0.40, Mann-Whitney test; Fig. 7E) or KCC2-pH$_{ext}$ internalization F$_i$ (0.84 vs 1.00 a.u.; p = 0.15,

Fig. 7D). Neurons expressing Smo Δ570-581 show a decrease in KCC2 surface expression compared

to control neurons (0.57 vs 0.94 a.u. for CTRL; p = 0.009; Fig. 7E) whereas, a large increase was

observed for KCC2 internalized clusters (2.57 a.u. for Smo Δ570-581 vs 0.84 a.u. for control, and 1.00

a.u. for Smo A1; p < 0.0001 and p = 0.0002 respectively; Fig. 7D). Interestingly, single membrane

cluster size shows a decrease compared to control in Smo Δ570-581 but not in Smo A1 neuronal cells

(1.02 a.u. for CTRL vs 0.92 a.u. for Smo Δ570-581 vs 0.99 a.u. for Smo A1; p < 0.0001 and p = 0.47

respectively; Fig. 7B and F). These results suggest that Smo Δ570-581 is able to regulate KCC2

membrane stability with an increased endocytosis leading to a lower KCC2 activity. Altogether, these

data suggest that Smo Δ570-581 affects the density of KCC2 cell surface expression and its stability to

the plasmalemmal surface by increasing endocytosis.

576
577 **Discussion**

In the present study, we investigated the actions of Shh-Smo signaling pathway on GABAergic transmission *in vivo* and *ex vivo* in the rat somatosensory cortex and *in vitro* in primary culture of hippocampal neurons using dominant-negative and constitutively-active forms of Smo (Smo Δ570-581 and Smo A1 respectively). We show that activation of Smo signaling in immature neurons at early postnatal stages accelerates the process of GABAergic switch form depolarizing to hyperpolarizing activity in a KCC2-dependent manner, leading to a low intracellular chloride concentration. Conversely, Smo signaling blockade alters KCC2 function and membrane stability, weakening the GABAergic inhibition on later stages of the development, resulting in an increase of seizure susceptibility. These findings reveal an unexpected function of the G-protein-coupled receptor Smoothened on chloride homeostasis regulation and, in particular, on the timing of the GABA shift from depolarizing- to hyperpolarizing-response of the postnatal developing brain.

The postnatal developmental switch in GABA polarity is tightly regulated by the actions of several peptides including neurotrophic factors (Kelsch et al., 2001; Aguado et al., 2003; Ludwig et al., 2011; Riffault et al., 2018), hypothalamic neurohormones (Tyzio et al., 2006; Leonzino et al., 2016; Spoljaric et al., 2017), central and peripheral hormones (Sawano et al., 2013; Dumon et al., 2018). Hence, the precise timing of GABAergic polarity shift depends on the balance between factors promoting or delaying the onset of GABAergic inhibitory transmission. It is noteworthy that these factors are developmentally regulated and/or operates within specific time windows to control the functional expression of KCC2 and associated chloride homeostasis and, consequently the postnatal maturation of GABAergic transmission in the central nervous system. Interestingly, the excitatory action of GABA at early stages of the development, coincide with the predominance of trophic factors responsible for the inhibition of KCC2 expression and function, such the immature form of BDNF (proBDNF) (Riffault et al., 2018) and the adipocyte hormone leptin (Dumon et al., 2018). These two factors are expressed shortly after birth and surge during the first postnatal week in rodents (Menshanov et al., 2015; Dumon et al., 2018). They have been shown to promote a low KCC2 protein and mRNA expression levels and consequently a high intracellular chloride concentration, thus maintaining a depolarizing action of GABA in neonates. The developmental decreases of leptin and proBDNF observed at the end of the first postnatal week in rodents, are concomitant to an increase in

oxytocin (Tyzio et al., 2006; Leonzino et al., 2016), mature BDNF (mBDNF) (Maisonpierre et al.,

1990) and thyroid hormones (Sawano et al., 2013), which in turn, up-regulates KCC2, leading to a low

intracellular chloride and a hyperpolarizing action of GABA. During the postnatal developmental

period, Shh expression paralleled the temporal expression of mBDNF in the rodents cortex with a

nearly undetectable level at birth and a continuous increased expression at both mRNA and protein

levels during the first postnatal weeks (Rivell et al., 2019). This temporal expression of Shh and its

signaling partners during postnatal brain development has been shown to play a role in neuronal

network construction through axonal growth and synaptic maturation (Yao et al., 2015). Here, we

uncover a new critical function of Shh components in the regulation of the GABA polarity switch.

Indeed, we showed that activation of the $GABA_A$ receptor by isoguvacine, in immature (i.e. post-natal

day 14) Smo A1 cortical neurons results in an influx of chloride and a decrease in spiking activity

whereas, in mature (i.e. post-natal day 30) dominant negative Smo cortical neurons (Smo Δ570-581),

maintains a depolarizing and excitatory action of GABA. Thus in the absence of Smo signaling, the

GABA shift is delayed, thereby leading to an altered chloride homeostasis and higher susceptibility to

seizures, presumably reflecting an unbalanced excitation to inhibition (E/I) ratio. E/I imbalance has

been linked to cognitive disorders such as schizophrenia, autism spectrum disorders (ASD),

depression and epilepsy (Brambilla et al., 2003; Ben-Ari and Holmes, 2005; Kuzirian and Paradis,

2011; Mueller et al., 2015). Abnormal levels of Shh have been also observed in ASD patients with

either an increased serum level in children or a decreased mRNA level in post-mortem adult human

brain tissue from autism patients (Choi et al., 2014; Halepoto et al., 2015). In addition, mutations in

PTCHD1, a gene displaying secondary structures similar to PTCH1, are found in patients with

intellectual disability and ASD (Ung et al., 2018). Consistent with a possible role of Shh components

in the regulation of the E/I balance, these observations also suggest that an alteration in Shh-PTCH-

Smo pathway may have an implication to the pathophysiological mechanisms in ASD. In line with

these observations, the role of Shh signaling in neuronal activity has been recently addressed in an

elegant study (Hill et al., 2019) showing that the selective disruption of Shh signaling with a

conditional knockout of Smo leads to an increase in neuronal excitability of cortical neurons, thus

highlighting the importance of Shh on the E/I equilibrium and the construction of functional cortical

networks. The results from this study are consistent with our findings from, showing that Shh signaling blockade increases neuronal network excitability in rodents expressing the dominant negative form of Smo. Furthermore, our *in vivo* experiments indicate that the threshold for PTZ-induced tonic-clonic seizure was reduced in Smo Δ570-581 rodents. The implication of Shh signaling in epilepsy and seizures has been indirectly addressed in previous studies showing that somatic mutations in Shh pathway genes in human are associated with hypothalamic hamartoma and drug-resistant epilepsy (Hildebrand et al., 2016; Saitsu et al., 2016). Likewise, the Shh expression was increased in hippocampus and neocortex from both human and animal models of temporal lobe epilepsy (TLE) (Fang et al., 2011), thus suggesting a potential relationship between epilepsy and Shh activity. In line of the above studies, Feng et al. (Feng et al., 2016) reported that during TLE development, Shh contributes to epileptogenesis through the inhibition of glutamate transporters function leading to abnormal extracellular glutamate levels, whereas the blockade of Shh signaling pathway reduced the severity of seizures. Together, these observations can lead to opposing interpretations regarding the possible interplay between Shh pathway and epilepsy. These apparent discrepancies could be explained by the treatments utilized (i.e. acute seizure models with PTZ versus spontaneous seizures in the pilocarpine model of chronic TLE) that are able to activate different downstream signaling cascades (Choudhry et al., 2014). Moreover, other studies have found that the Shh/Gli pathway activation increased the synthesis and secretion of neurotrophic factors like nerve growth factor (NGF) and BDNF (Radzikinas et al., 2011; Bond et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2018), which they may have neuroprotective effects in TLE (Paradiso et al., 2009; Bovolenta et al., 2010; Falcicchia et al., 2018). Clearly, additional studies are needed to get a deeper knowledge on the cellular and molecular mechanisms linking epilepsy to Shh pathway components.

Importantly, our *in vitro* experiments revealed that the reversal potential of GABA responses (E_{GABA}) shifted towards a more hyperpolarized level in Smo A1 expressing neurons and conversely towards more depolarized values in Smo Δ570-581 neurons. It is well known that these changes in E_{GABA} values are also closely related to the functional expression of KCC2 (Rivera et al., 1999). KCC2 activity levels are determined by its cell surface targeting and clustering (Medina et al., 2014; Côme et al., 2019a). Thus, KCC2 cycle between synaptic sites and endocytic compartments which depends on

the phosphorylation and/or dephosphorylation state on different amino-acid residues (Kahle et al., 2014; Kahle and Delpire, 2016; Côme et al., 2019), but also this membrane turnover requires regulation to its cytosolic N- and C-termini (Friedel et al., 2017). For instance, N-terminal truncation of KCC2 prevents its export at the cell surface, whereas C-terminal truncation leads to a decreased surface expression of KCC2 (Friedel et al., 2017). The observed loss of KCC2 surface expression in the C-terminal mutants mice is explained by an increase in the internalization rate without affecting cell surface delivery. Furthermore, KCC2 function can also be regulated through lateral diffusion at the plasma membrane (Chamma et al., 2013). This suggest that KCC2 membrane dispersion may, in turn, mediates membrane destabilization and endocytosis resulting in intracellular chloride homeostatic dysregulation (Côme et al., 2019). In agreement with this, we found that inhibition of Smo signaling pathway in mature neurons induces a decreases in KCC2 cluster size and enhances the intracellular concentration of chloride that sets E_{GABA} at more positive values than the resting potential with a reduced plasmalemmal levels of KCC2 cell surface expression levels. We further show that these effects occur through an increased rate of KCC2 turnover.

In conclusion, these data uncovering an unexpected role of Shh components during early postnatal development in the regulation of the E/I balance through the control of chloride homeostasis. Thus Shh signaling will tune up or down GABA inhibitory transmission by acting on chloride homeostasis and trafficking of KCC2 at the cell membrane. Although the molecular links between Shh and KCC2 require further studies, our observations suggest that Shh is able to set the cursor of GABAergic inhibitory switch during this critical maturational period where developmental pathogenesis takes place.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Cortical expression pattern of Smo-related constructs. (A) Representative neocortical section showing laminar position of transfected cells electroporated at E15 with control GFP alone (CTRL – GFP) or co-electroporated with Smo A1 (SmoA1 – GFP) or Smo Δ570-587 (Smo Δ570-587 – GFP) and processed postnatally at P15 and co-immunostained with NeuN (blue) and FoxP2 (red). GFP fluorescence intensity profile shows that E15 generated neurons are distributed mainly in deeper layers V-VI. Scale bar = 250 μm. (B) Box plots of cortical thickness in GFP control (CTRL), Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-587 brains. Mann-Whitney test. (C) Boxplot of neuronal density in GFP control, Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-587 brains. Mann-Whitney test. (D) Box plots of neurons soma size on P15 electroporated rats. Mann-Whitney test. (E) Box plots of synaptophysin area fraction normalized with MAP2 area fraction (left; Mann-Whitney test) and (right) example of immunofluorescence signal of P30 cortical section expressing Smo Δ570-581 - GFP, co-immunostained with Synaptophysin (red) and MAP2 (blue). Scale bar = 30 μm. (F) Immunofluorescence signal of P15 cortical sections electroporated at E15 with GFP (CTRL – GFP) with or without Smo-related constructs and immunolabeled with cleaved caspase-3 antibody. Scale bar = 100 μm. (G) Ratio of cleaved caspase-3-positive neurons (apoptotic) per surface area and expressed as a percentage of control (GFP). Overexpression of Smo A1 or Smo Δ570-581 does not increase the number of apoptotic neurons compared to control (GFP). Mann-Whitney test. Errors bars are mean ± SD. Number of slices and rats are indicated in parenthesis. *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; **$p < 0.001$.

Figure 2: Smo-related constructs regulate the expression levels of PTCH1 and Gli1. (A) Cells overexpressing Smo related constructs (green) and immunostained with Smo antibody (red) showed a similar localization (overlay). Scale bar = 25 μm. (B and C) Box plots of relative expression of Gli1 and PTCH1 mRNA transcripts in GFP (CTRL), SmoA1 and Smo Δ570-581 rats. (B) Box plots of Gli1 and (C) PTCH1 genes expression are normalized to GAPDH expression in the same RNA preparation. Scale bar = 25 μm. n=6 rats for each condition. Mann-Whitney test. *$p > 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

Figure 3: The developmental shift in the polarity of GABA$_A$R mediated responses is modulated

in cortical neurons expressing the dominant negative or the constitutively active forms of Smo.

(A) Effects of isoguvacine (10 µM) in cortical slices from control GFP, Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581

rats: representative traces of spontaneous extracellular field potentials (left column) recorded in

electroporated area of cortical slices at P14 in GFP (CTRL) and Smo A1 and at P30 in CTRL and Smo

Δ570-581 rats (left column). Corresponding time course of normalized frequency MUA is shown

beside (right column) (B) Box plots of relative change of isoguvacine-dependent MUA frequency in

electroporated rats at P14, P20 and P30. Numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of slices recorded

and rats used. (C) Developmental regulation of GABAergic excitation in electroporated rats.

Proportion of excited slices is the proportion of slices showing an increase of 20% or more of MUA

frequency during isoguvacine application. (D) Box plots of relative changes in MUA frequency during

isoguvacine application with and without VU0463271 (VU0) a KCC2-selective blocker application on

Smo A1 rats at P14. Mann-Whitney test. (E) Immunoblots for NKCC1 and KCC2 protein extracts

from GFP, Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581 electroporated somatosensory cortices. (F and G) Box plots of

normalized KCC2 and NKCC1 relative protein level. n=6 rats for each condition. Mann-Whitney test.

*$p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$.

Figure 4: Smo-dependent regulation of Cl-Sensor ratiometric fluorescence in acute cortical slices

prepared from rats on P10 and P30. Rats were electroporated *in utero* at embryonic day 15 with Cl-

Sensor plus mCherry (CTRL) or Cl-Sensor plus Smo A1 (Smo A1) or Cl-Sensor plus Smo Δ570-581

(Smo Δ570-581). Data represent results obtained from 4-5 rats per experimental condition and 1-2

slices were recorded per animal. (A) Typical images of Cl-Sensor fluorescence excited at 500nm in

slice from P30 rat electroporated with Cl- Sensor plus Smo A1. The region of interest is drawn around

the soma of cells located in the focal plane. (B and C) Example of typical ratiometric fluorescence

(R430/500) recordings at P10 and P30 from control (CTRL), Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581 rats.

Horizontal bars indicate the times of application of ACSF containing isoguvacine. Arrows and

arrowheads indicate different types of responses between control, Smo A1 and Smo Δ570-581 neurons

at P10 and P30. (D) Box plots quantification of fluorescence change of ΔR/R, where R is the mean of

5 measurements before isoguvacine application and ΔR is the difference between absolute maximum

of isoguvacine-induced response. Number of slices and rats are indicated in parenthesis. $*p < 0.01$,

$**p < 0.01$ when compared to control at the same age. Mann-Whitney test.

Figure 5: Modified susceptibility to pentylenetrazol-induced (PTZ) seizures in Smo mutant rats.

(A) Experimental paradigm design. (B) Boxplot of latency needed to induce generalized tonic-clonic

seizures in 3 groups of electroporated rats: control (CTR; electroporated with mCherry or GFP), Smo

A1 and Smo Δ570-581. (C) Bar graph of PTZ cumulative dose needed to induce generalized tonic-

clonic seizures. Bars are medians with experimental points. Mann-Whitney test. Numbers in

parenthesis indicate the number of rats used. $*p < 0.05$; $**p < 0.01$.

Figure 6: Smo signaling controls chloride homeostasis in vitro. (A) Gramicidin perforated patch

clamp recordings I-V relationships for isoguvacine currents in mCherry (left panel) or KCC2-pH$_{ext}$

(right panel) with or without Smo A1 or Smo Δ570-581 in hippocampal primary neuronal cultures (9

DIV). Inserts depict the isoguvacine currents for CTRL condition. Scale bar, 500 ms, 50 pA. (B) Box

plots of E$_{GABA}$ in the indicated conditions. Mann-Whitney test. The number of cells recorded and

cultures used are indicated in parenthesis. $*p < 0.05$; $** p < 0.01$; $***p < 0.001$.

Figure 7: Dominant negative form of Smo affects the stability of KCC2 to the plasmalemmal

surface. (A) Scheme of the multistep immunolabeling protocol applied to 9 DIV neurons. First Ab,

primary antibody; second Cy3, Cy3-conjugated secondary antibody; second Alexa 647, Alexa Fluor

647–conjugated secondary antibody; PFA, paraformaldehyde. The scheme does not include final steps

of fixed and permeabilized cells labeled with mouse anti-GFP and anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 488

antibody [total protein pool (Ft)]. (B) Representative images illustrating total, membrane and

internalized pools of KCC2 with external tag (KCC2-pHext) in vehicle, and Smo-related transfected

constructs in hippocampal primary culture neurons. A KCC2 construction stable to membrane (A/A

KCC2) was used as positive control for KCC2 membrane trafficking. Neurons expressing a KCC2

mutant construction not addressed to membrane (ΔNTD-KCC2) were proceeded in parallel

experiments to ensure that immunocytochemistry on living neurons does not permeabilized the

membrane. Scale bars 20μm. (C) Box plots of total protein (F_t), (D) normalized membrane (F_m), (E) internalized pool (F_i) fluorescence and (F) single membrane cluster size in cultured neurons expressing the indicated constructs. Mann-Whitney test. The number of cells and cultures used indicated in parenthesis are identical for all box plots. The samples size are the same for all boxplots. *p <0.05, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p<0.005$, ****$p<0.001$.

Fig. 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure	Data structure	Data type	Group (n)	Type of Test	Power, statistical significance
1B	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL (12) vs Smo A1 (15)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=53, *p*=0.074
			CTRL (12) vs Smo Δ570-581 (12)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=48, *p*=0.178
			Smo A1 (15) vs Smo Δ570-581 (12)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=78, *p*=0.580
1C	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL (15) vs Smo A1 (24)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=167.5, *p*=0.726
			CTRL (15) vs Smo Δ570-581 (19)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=120, *p*=0.444
			Smo A1 (24) vs Smo Δ570-581 (19)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=199, *p*=0.485
1D	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL (70) vs Smo A1 (73)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=2255, *p*=0.226
			CTRL (70) vs Smo Δ570-581 (70)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=2282, *p*=0.485
			Smo A1 (73) vs Smo Δ570-581 (70)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=2431, *p*=0.618
1E	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL (23) vs Smo A1 (25)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=167, *p*=0.012
			CTRL (23) vs Smo Δ570-581 (24)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=160, *p*=0.013
			Smo A1 (25) vs Smo Δ570-581 (24)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=37, *p*<0.0001
1G	Non-normal distribution	mean $\pm$ SD	CTRL (15) vs Smo A1 (24)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=176.5, *p*=0.704
			CTRL (15) vs Smo Δ570-581 (19)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=137.5, *p*=0.741
			Smo A1 (24) vs Smo Δ570-581 (19)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=224.5, *p*=0.928
2B	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL (6) vs Smo A1 (6)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=5, *p*=0.041
			CTRL (6) vs Smo Δ570-581 (6)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=5, *p*=0.039
			Smo A1 (6) vs Smo Δ570-581 (6)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=3, *p*=0.015
2C	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL (6) vs Smo A1 (6)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=15, *p*=0.666
			CTRL (6) vs Smo Δ570-581 (6)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=4, *p*=0.026
			Smo A1 (6) vs Smo Δ570-581 (6)	Mann-Whitney	*U*=2, *p*=0.008
3B	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL P14 (9)	Wilcoxon test	rank sum=39, *p*=0.019

			Smo A1 P14 (11)	Wilcoxon test	rank sum=-54, p=0.009
			Smo Δ570-581 P14 (6)	Wilcoxon test	rank sum=21, p=0.031
			CTRL P20 (11)	Wilcoxon test	rank sum=-16, p=0.519
			Smo A1 P20 (9)	Wilcoxon test	rank sum=-41, p=0.011
			Smo Δ570-581 P20 (12)	Wilcoxon test	rank sum=52, p=0.042
			CTRL P30 (8)	Wilcoxon test	rank sum=-36, p=0.007
			Smo A1 P30 (9)	Wilcoxon test	rank sum=-34, p=0.015
			Smo Δ570-581 P30 (10)	Wilcoxon test	rank sum=41, p=0.037
3C	Non-normal distribution	percentage		Chi square test	CR(4)=67.13, p<0.0001
3D	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	Smo A1 (11) vs Smo A1 + VU0 (5)	Mann-Whitney	U= 1, p=0.0009
3F	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL (6) vs Smo A1 (6)	Mann-Whitney	U=6, p=0.064
			CTRL (6) vs Smo Δ570-581 (6)	Mann-Whitney	U=8, p=0.132
			Smo A1 (6) vs Smo Δ570-581 (6)	Mann-Whitney	U=2, p=0.008
3G	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL (6) vs Smo A1 (6)	Mann-Whitney	U=7, p=0.093
			CTRL (6) vs Smo Δ570-581 (6)	Mann-Whitney	U=13, p=0.484
			Smo A1 (6) vs Smo Δ570-581 (6)	Mann-Whitney	U=10, p=0.240
4D	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL P14 (8) vs Smo A1 P14 (11)	Mann-Whitney	U=11, p=0.005
			CTRL P14 (8) vs Smo Δ570-581 P14 (10)	Mann-Whitney	U=24, p=0.172
			Smo A1 P14 (11) vs Smo Δ570-581 P14 (10)	Mann-Whitney	U=32, p=0.114
			CTRL P30 (10) vs Smo A1 P30 (8)	Mann-Whitney	U=34, p=0.633
			CTRL P30 (10) vs Smo Δ570-581 P30 (9)	Mann-Whitney	U=9, p=0.002
			Smo A1 P30 (8) vs Smo Δ570-581 P30 (9)	Mann-Whitney	U=11, p=0.015

5B	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL (20) vs Smo A1 (14)	Mann-Whitney	U=121, p=0.515
			CTRL (20) vs Smo Δ570-581 (18)	Mann-Whitney	U=110.5, p=0.041
			Smo A1 (14) vs Smo Δ570-581 (18)	Mann-Whitney	U=67, p=0.024
5C	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	CTRL (20) vs Smo A1 (14)	Mann-Whitney	U=126, p=0.500
			CTRL (20) vs Smo Δ570-581 (18)	Mann-Whitney	U=103.5, p=0.005
			Smo A1 (14) vs Smo Δ570-581 (18)	Mann-Whitney	U=63, p=0.003
6B	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	mCherry (9) vs KCC2+mCherry	Mann-Whitney	U=0, p<0.0001
			mCherry (9) vs mCherry+Smo A1 (15)	Mann-Whitney	U=24, p=0.008
			mCherry (9) vs mCherry+Smo Δ570-581 (9)	Mann-Whitney	U=30, p=0.386
			mCherry+Smo A1 (15) vs mCherry+Smo Δ570-581 (9)	Mann-Whitney	U=46, p=0.215
			KCC2 (10) vs KCC2+Smo A1 (8)	Mann-Whitney	U=35, p=0.696
			KCC2 (10) vs KCC2+Smo Δ570-581 (8)	Mann-Whitney	U=17, p=0.006
			KCC2+Smo A1 (8) vs KCC2+Smo Δ570-581 (8)	Mann-Whitney	U=21, p=0.062
7C	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	WT (37) vs A/A (45)	Mann-Whitney	U=648, p=0.086
			WT (37) vs ΔNTD (29)	Mann-Whitney	U=469, p=0.389
			WT (37) vs +Smo A1 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=784, p=0.288
			WT (37) vs +Smo Δ570-581 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=790, p=0.313
			+ Smo A1 (49) vs +Smo Δ570-581 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=1198, p=0.988
7D	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	WT (37) vs A/A (45)	Mann-Whitney	U=647, p=0.084
			WT (37) vs ΔNTD (29)	Mann-Whitney	U=201, p<0.0001
			WT (37) vs +Smo A1 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=741, p=0.150

			WT (37) vs +Smo Δ570-581 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=390, p<0.0001
			+ Smo A1 (49) vs +Smo Δ570-581 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=682, p=0.0002
7E	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	WT (37) vs A/A (45)	Mann-Whitney	U=508, p=0.002
			WT (37) vs ΔNTD (29)	Mann-Whitney	U=2, p<0.0001
			WT (37) vs +Smo A1 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=810, p=0.404
			WT (37) vs +Smo Δ570-581 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=608, p=0.008
			+ Smo A1 (49) vs +Smo Δ570-581 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=944, p=0.068
7F	Non-normal distribution	Boxplot	WT (37) vs A/A (45)	Mann-Whitney	U=420, p<0.0001
			WT (37) vs ΔNTD (29)	Mann-Whitney	U=37, p<0.0001
			WT (37) vs +Smo A1 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=647, p=0.478
			WT (37) vs +Smo Δ570-581 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=480, p<0.0001
			+ Smo A1 (49) vs +Smo Δ570-581 (49)	Mann-Whitney	U=785, p=0.002