

# Cation-chloride cotransporters and the polarity of GABA signalling in mouse hippocampal parvalbumin interneurons

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# 23 Key point summary

24	•	Cation-chloride cotransporters (CCCs) play a critical role in controlling the efficacy and
25		polarity of GABAA receptor (GABAAR)-mediated transmission in the brain, yet their
26		expression and function in GABAergic interneurons has been overlooked.
27	•	We compared the polarity of GABA signaling and the function of CCCs in mouse
28		hippocampal pyramidal neurons and parvalbumin-expressing interneurons.
29	•	Under resting conditions, GABAAR activation was mostly depolarizing and yet
30		inhibitory in both cell types. KCC2 blockade further depolarized the reversal potential
31		of GABAAR-mediated currents often above action potential threshold.
32	•	However, during repetitive GABAAR activation, the postsynaptic response declined
33		independently of the ion flux direction or KCC2 function, suggesting intracellular
34		chloride buildup is not responsible for this form of plasticity.
35	٠	Our data demonstrate similar mechanisms of chloride regulation in mouse
36		hippocampal pyramidal neurons and parvalbumin interneurons.

#### 38 Abstract

39 Transmembrane chloride gradients govern the efficacy and polarity of GABA signaling in 40 neurons and are usually maintained by the activity of cation chloride cotransporters, such as KCC2 and NKCC1. Whereas their role is well established in cortical principal neurons, it remains 41 poorly documented in GABAergic interneurons. We used complementary electrophysiological 42 approaches to compare the effects of GABAAR activation in adult mouse hippocampal 43 44 parvalbumin interneurons (PV INs) and pyramidal cells (PCs). Loose cell attached, tight-seal and gramicidin-perforated patch recordings all show GABAAR-mediated transmission is 45 slightly depolarizing and yet inhibitory in both PV INs and PCs. Focal GABA uncaging in whole-46 cell recordings reveal that KCC2 and NKCC1 are functional in both PV INs and PCs but 47 differentially contribute to transmembrane chloride gradients in their soma and dendrites. 48 49 Blocking KCC2 function depolarizes the reversal potential of GABAAR-mediated currents in PV 50 INs and PCs, often beyond firing threshold, showing KCC2 is essential to maintain the 51 inhibitory effect of GABAARs. Finally, we show that repetitive 10 Hz activation of GABAARs in 52 both PV INs and PCs leads to a progressive decline of the postsynaptic response independently of the ion flux direction or KCC2 function. This suggests intraneuronal chloride buildup may 53 not predominantly contribute to activity-dependent plasticity of GABAergic synapses in this 54 55 frequency range. Altogether our data demonstrate similar mechanisms of chloride regulation 56 in mouse hippocampal PV INs and PCs and suggest KCC2 downregulation in the pathology may 57 affect the valence of GABA signaling in both cell types.

58

#### 60 Introduction

Information representation and processing in the cerebral cortex relies on the dynamic 61 62 interaction between ensembles of glutamatergic principal neurons and local, highly diversified GABAergic interneurons (Buzsaki, 2010). These interneurons mediate feedforward and/or 63 feedback inhibition onto principal cells (PCs) and thereby control their coordinated activity 64 (Klausberger & Somogyi, 2008). In particular, parvalbumin-expressing interneurons (PV INs), 65 which receive excitatory inputs from both local and distant PCs, in turn provide them with fast 66 perisomatic inhibition (Hu et al., 2014). Fast inhibitory signaling by PV INs controls the timing 67 of principal cell activity (Pouille & Scanziani, 2001) and plays a major role in the generation of 68 rhythmic activities (Klausberger & Somogyi, 2008; Amilhon et al., 2015; Gan et al., 2017) as 69 well as the segregation of PCs into functional assemblies (Agetsuma et al., 2018). However, in 70 71 addition to excitatory inputs from PCs, PV INs also receive GABAergic innervation from local 72 interneurons (Chamberland & Topolnik, 2012), including some specialized in interneuron 73 inhibition (Gulyas et al., 1996), as well as long-range projecting interneurons (Freund & Antal, 74 1988). Although GABAergic synapses formed onto PV INs share many properties with those impinging onto principal cells, input- and cell-specific properties were also reported 75 (Chamberland & Topolnik, 2012). For instance, predominant expression of the  $\alpha$ 1 GABAAR 76 subunit confers PV INs with faster postsynaptic current kinetics as compared to PCs (Gao & 77 Fritschy, 1994; Bartos et al., 2002). 78

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Since GABAARs are predominantly chloride-permeable channels (Bormann *et al.*, 1987), transmembrane chloride gradients also represent a major source of variability for GABA signaling. Cation chloride cotransporters (CCCs) play a critical role in regulating chloride gradients in neurons. Thus, the Na<sup>+</sup> K<sup>+</sup> Cl<sup>-</sup> transporter NKCC1 and the K<sup>+</sup> Cl<sup>-</sup> transporter KCC2 are secondary active transporters that regulate intraneuronal chloride using the Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> electrochemical gradients generated by the Na/K-ATPase (Blaesse *et al.*, 2009). Delayed, postnatal KCC2 expression has been shown to contribute to a progressive shift in intraneuronal chloride and the polarity of GABA signaling in cortical PCs *in vitro* (Rivera *et al.*, 1999). *In vivo*, GABA was shown to depolarize immature PCs and yet exert a predominantly inhibitory action on their activity (Kirmse *et al.*, 2015), due to membrane resistance shunting.

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However, much less is known regarding chloride handling in GABAergic interneurons. Thus, 91 the reversal potential of GABAAR-mediated currents (EGABA) was suggested to be more 92 depolarized in unidentified hippocampal stratum radiatum interneurons compared with 93 neighboring PCs (Patenaude et al., 2005). In addition, the driving force of GABAAR-mediated 94 95 currents was shown to remain unchanged during postnatal maturation, in stratum oriens interneurons (Banke & McBain, 2006) but appear to exhibit a hyperpolarizing shift in dentate 96 gyrus basket cells (Sauer & Bartos, 2010). Although most interneurons subtypes were shown 97 98 to strongly express KCC2 in the adult rat hippocampus (Gulyas et al., 2001), how CCC expression or function control the polarity and efficacy of GABA signaling in these cells 99 remains unknown. One difficulty in addressing this question relates to the diversity and bias 100 101 of experimental approaches used to evaluate the effect of GABA or chloride transport with 102 minimal perturbation of the neuronal integrity. Here, we used a combination of both invasive and non-invasive in vitro electrophysiological approaches to compare GABA signaling in 103 mouse CA1 PV INs and PCs in adult mouse hippocampus. Our results reveal that GABA 104 105 predominantly exerts depolarizing yet inhibitory actions over both cell types. KCC2 and NKCC1 appear to be functional in both PV INs and PCs even though the two cell types exhibit different
somato-dendritic chloride gradients. Finally, we demonstrate that CCCs do not contribute in
activity-dependent depression of GABAAR-mediated transmission upon moderate activation
frequency (10 Hz). Together our results demonstrate that, in the adult hippocampus, PV INs
and PCs both rely on CCC activity to maintain inhibitory GABA signaling.

#### 112 Methods

#### 113 Ethical approval

All procedures conformed to the International Guidelines on the ethical use of animals, the French Agriculture and Forestry Ministry guidelines for handling animals (decree 87849, licence A 75-05-22) and were approved by the Charles Darwin ethical committee (APAFIS#4018-2015111011588776 v7).

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#### 119 Animals

Pvalb<sup>tm1(cre)Arbr</sup>/J mice were crossed with Gt(ROSA)26Sor<sup>tm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze</sup>/J (Ai14) reporter mice expressing the red fluorescent protein tdTomato. The genetic background of both Pvalb<sup>tm1(cre)Arbr</sup>/J and Ai14 mice was C57BL/6J and dual homozygous male or female mice typically aged 35-70 days were used in all experiments. Mice were kept under a 12/12 hours light/dark photocycle and provided with food and water *ad libitum*. Since we did not observe sex-dependent differences in the biological parameters tested in this study, data from animals of either sex were grouped.

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### 128 Immunohistochemistry and imaging

Mice were deeply anesthetized by intraperitoneal injection of ketamine/xylazine (100/20 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>) and perfused transcardially with oxygenated ice-cold solution containing in mM : 110 choline-Cl, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 25 NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 25 glucose, 0.5 CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 7 MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 11.6 ascorbic acid, 3.1 Na pyruvate (~300 mOsm), equilibrated with 95% O<sub>2</sub>-5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Brains were removed and fixed for 4-5 h at 4°C with 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 134 7.5) and cryoprotected in 30% sucrose in PBS for an additional 24h. Coronal, 40 µm-thick sections were cut with a cryotome. Free-floating sections were rinsed in PBS and incubated 135 for 4 h in PBS supplemented with 0.5% Triton X-100 and 5% normal goat serum. They were 136 137 then incubated for 48 h at 4°C with rabbit polyclonal KCC2 antibody (1:400) diluted in PBS supplemented with 0.1% Triton X-100 and 5% normal goat serum before being rinsed in PBS 138 139 and incubated overnight at 4°C with biotinylated WFA lectin (1:500). The sections were then rinsed in PBS and then incubated for 4h with donkey anti-rabbit Cy5, rinsed in PB and 140 incubated for 40 min with streptavidin Alexa-488. After rinsing in PB, the sections were 141 mounted with Mowiol/Dabco (25 mg.ml<sup>-1</sup>) and stored at 4°C. 142

143

KCC2-immunolabeled sections were imaged with a Leica SP5 confocal microscope using a 63x
1.40-N.A. objective with 2X electronic magnification and Ar/Kr laser set at 488, 561 and 633
nm for excitation of Alexa-488, td-tomato and Cy5, respectively. Stacks of 10 optical sections
were acquired at a pixel resolution of 0.12 µm and a z-step of 0.29 µm.

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#### 149 Electrophysiological recordings

Mice were deeply anesthetized by intraperitoneal injection of ketamine/xylazine (100/20 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, Sigma-Aldrich) and transcardially perfused with ice-cold solution containing (in mM): 110 choline-Cl, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 25 NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 25 glucose, 0.5 CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 7 MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 11.6 ascorbic acid, 3.1 Na pyruvate (~300 mOsm), equilibrated with 95% O<sub>2</sub>-5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Mice were then decapitated and 350  $\mu$ m-thick parasagittal brain slices were prepared with a vibratome (Microm, Thermo Scientific, France) in the same ice-cold solution and maintained in a humidified interface chamber saturated with 95% O<sub>2</sub>-5% CO<sub>2</sub> for 10 minutes at 34°C and then
at room temperature until use. Artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF) for slice maintenance and
recording contained (in mM): 126 NaCl, 26 NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, 10 D-glucose, 3.5 KCl, 1.6 CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 1.2 MgCl<sub>2</sub>,
1.25 NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>. For recordings, slices were transferred into a chamber (BadController V; Luigs
& Neumann) maintained at 32°C and mounted on an upright microscope (BX51WI; Olympus).
Slices were superfused with ACSF at a rate of 2.5 ml.min<sup>-1</sup>. All recordings were performed
using a Multiclamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices).

Loose cell-attached recordings (seal resistance: 15-25 M $\Omega$ ) were made using 4-6 M $\Omega$ borosilicate glass pipettes containing normal ACSF or HEPES-buffered saline containing (in mM): 150 NaCl, 3.5 KCl, 1.6 CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 1.2 MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 10 HEPES, pH 7.4 with NaOH (300 mOsm) in the presence of excitatory transmission blockers (10  $\mu$ M NBQX and 50  $\mu$ M D-APV) at a holding potential of 0 mV. Recordings were established by gently pushing the pipette against the membrane of the cell. Signals were filtered at 4 kHz and acquired using pClamp software (Molecular Devices) in voltage clamp mode at a sampling rate of 10-20 kHz.

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Tight cell-attached recordings (Perkins, 2006) were performed in the presence of 10  $\mu$ M NBQX and 50  $\mu$ M D-APV under current-clamp configuration (I=0 mode) to evaluate the polarity of GABAAR-mediated potentials. Recording pipettes (4-9 MΩ) were filled with the HEPESbuffered saline. Seal resistance in the cell-attached mode was >4 GΩ. Voltage signals were filtered at 4 kHz and sampled at 10-20 kHz.

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For whole-cell recordings, pipettes (3–5 MΩ resistance) were filled with a solution containing
(in mM): 115 K-gluconate, 25.4 KCl, 10 HEPES, 10 EGTA, 1.8 MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 2 Mg-ATP, 0.4 Na<sub>3</sub>-GTP, pH

179 7.4 (290 mOsm) supplemented with Alexa 594 (20  $\mu$ M) to check cell morphology. Images of 180 the soma and dendrites were acquired at least 15 min after break in, using 535 nm excitation 181 light (CoolLED) to prevent RuBi-GABA uncaging. Cells were voltage-clamped at -60 or -70 mV. 182 Voltage was corrected *post hoc* for liquid junction potential (-11 mV) and voltage drop across 183 the series resistance (<25 MΩ) of the pipette. Currents were filtered at 4 kHz and sampled at 10 kHz.

For gramicidin-perforated patch recordings, the tip of the recording pipette was filled with 185 186 gramicidin-free solution containing (in mM): 120 KCl, 10 HEPES, 11 EGTA, 1 CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 2 MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 35 187 KOH, 30 glucose adjusted to pH 7.3 with KOH (300 mOsm). The pipette was then backfilled with the same solution containing 100  $\mu$ g/ml gramicidin and 20  $\mu$ M Alexa 488 to verify 188 189 membrane integrity during the recording. Gramicidin was prepared as a stock solution at 50 mg/ml in DMSO. Pipette resistance was 4-5 M $\Omega$ . Cells were voltage-clamped at -70 mV. 190 191 Recordings were started once series resistance was less than 100 M $\Omega$  (52.5±7.6 M $\Omega$  for PV INs (n=10) and  $69.1\pm5.8$  M $\Omega$  for PCs (n=16)). The Donnan potential between the pipette solution 192 and cell cytoplasm was measured (Kim & Trussell, 2007) after spontaneous membrane rupture 193 194  $(11.7\pm1.1 \text{ mV}; n = 4)$ . The Donnan potential was partly offset by a liquid junction potential of 195 -4 mV. Therefore, the holding potential in gramicidin-perforated recordings reads 7.7 mV 196 more hyperpolarized than the actual membrane potential. Potentials were corrected *post hoc* 197 for this residual potential and voltage drop across the series resistance of the pipette. Spontaneous action potentials (APs) and resting membrane potential (Vm) were monitored 198 199 under current clamp configuration (I=0 mode) while EGABA was measured by RuBi-GABA photolysis under voltage clamp. Vm was estimated by averaging membrane potential every 200 500 ms for 30-60 sec in normal ACSF. Membrane potential in the presence of drugs for 201 202 photolysis were similarly computed over 30-60 sec (Fig. 6A). The threshold for action potential initiation was determined from the first peak in the third derivative of action potential
waveforms averaged from > 4 APs (Henze & Buzsaki, 2001). Currents were filtered at 10 kHz
and sampled at 10-20 kHz.

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207 Photolysis

Photolysis of RuBi-GABA (15  $\mu$ M) onto parvalbumin positive interneurons (PV INs) or 208 209 pyramidal cells (PCs) was performed in the presence of 10 µM NBQX, 50 µM D-APV, 2 µM 210 CGP55845 and 1  $\mu$ M tetrodotoxin (TTX). A 405 nm laser diode beam (Deepstar, Omicron, 211 Photon Lines, France) conducted through a multimode optic fibre and alignment device 212 (Prairie Technologies, Middleton, WI, USA) was set to generate a 3-5 μm spot in the objective 213 focus and directed to the soma or distal dendrites of the recorded neurons. The power of the laser head output was controlled using Omicron Laser Controller v2.97, while trigger and pulse 214 duration were set using pClamp software and a Digidata controller. Photolysis was induced by 215 216 a 0.5-1 msec pulse at 10 mW on the soma or 3-5 msec at 10 mW on distal dendrites. Series of 217 15 s voltage steps with a 5 mV increment were applied to the pipette with an inter-episode interval of 40 sec. Laser pulses were delivered at 12 sec after the onset of the voltage step to 218 allow for stabilization of the holding current. The amplitude of GABA-evoked currents was 219 220 computed as the difference between the current measured over a 4 ms window centered on 221 the peak and the baseline current averaged over 3 ms prior to the laser flash. The distance 222 from soma for dendritic uncaging was measured offline with NeuronJ (Meijering et al., 2004), based on Alexa 594 fluorescence imaging of the recorded neuron. 223

224

225 Drug application

Isoguvacine (100 µM; Tocris Bioscience) was dissolved in normal ACSF supplemented with 2
µM Alexa 488 to detect regions puffed through a patch pipette using a Picosplitzer III (5 sec at
10 psi). All other drugs were bath applied: NBQX, D-AP5, were from Hello Bio (Bristol, UK).
Isoguvacine, RuBi-GABA trimethylphosphine, CGP55845, VU0463271 were from Tocris
Bioscience (Bristol, UK). TTX was from Latoxan. All other drugs were from Sigma-Aldrich
France. CGP55845, VU0463271 and bumetanide were dissolved in DMSO for stock solutions.

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233 Data analysis

234 Electrophysiological data analysis was performed offline using Clampfit 10 (Molecular Devices,

235 USA) and custom routines written in Igor Pro 6 (WaveMetrics, USA).

236

### 237 Statistical analysis

The results are presented as mean ± standard deviation throughout the manuscript and in all figures. For statistical analyses, non-parametric Mann-Whitney or Wilcoxon signed-rank tests were used unless Shapiro-Wilk normality test was passed and Student's t-test could be used. Multiple linear regression analysis was performed using SigmaPlot 12,5 (SPSS).  $\chi^2$  tests were computed using Excel spreadsheets. Statistical significance was set at p<0.05.

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249 Results

#### 250 KCC2 expression in hippocampal parvalbumin interneurons

Although the expression and function of CCCs are well characterized in hippocampal principal neurons, whether they are expressed and functional in GABAergic interneurons remains largely unexplored. We used immunohistochemistry in *Pvalb*<sup>tm1(cre)Arbr/J</sup>::*Ai14* mice to investigate KCC2 expression in mouse hippocampal parvalbumin interneurons (PV Ins) (Le Roux *et al.*, 2013).

256

257 In all hippocampal subfields, KCC2 expression was observed in td-tomato-positive 258 interneurons (Figure 1A). As in PCs, KCC2 immunostaining in PV INs was mostly pericellular, 259 likely reflecting predominant membrane expression (Figure 1B). However, KCC2 expression in PV INs was sometimes difficult to distinguish from that in neighboring PCs. To circumvent this 260 problem, we used extracellular matrix staining to precisely visualize PV IN contours. 261 Hippocampal PV INs somata and proximal dendrites are wrapped by a chondroitin sulfate 262 263 proteoglycan-rich extracellular matrix, called perineuronal net (PNN) (Hartig et al., 1992). Thus 264 using specific staining of PNNs with Wisteria Floribunda Agglutinin (WFA), KCC2 immunostaining in PV INs could be distinguished from that in adjacent principal neurons as it 265 266 was surrounded by WFA staining, further confirming KCC2 expression in PV INs (Figure 1B).

267 These results support the conclusion that KCC2 protein is expressed at the membrane of PV268 INs in the adult mouse hippocampus.

269

#### (Figure 1 near here)

## 270 Net effect of GABAAR activation on CA1 pyramidal neurons and parvalbumin interneurons.

271 We next asked whether cation-chloride cotransporters are functional in CA1 PV INs and how they influence GABAAR-mediated signaling in these cells. Loose cell-attached recordings allow 272 detection of action potentials from identified neurons with minimal perturbation of their 273 physiology (Llano & Marty, 1995). We first used this approach to evaluate the excitatory vs. 274 inhibitory nature of GABA transmission in CA1 PV INs and neighboring pyramidal neurons 275 276 (PCs). The effect of GABAAR activation was tested by locally puffing the GABAAR agonist 277 isoguvacin (100  $\mu$ M, 5 s) onto the soma of the recorded cell. In order to prevent the influence of polysynaptic EPSPs, recordings were performed in the presence of AMPA and NMDA 278 receptor antagonists. Under these conditions however only a few (5 of 27) PV INs exhibited 279 spontaneous firing (Figure 2A). Out of 27 recorded PV INs, isoguvacine induced firing in 1, 280 blocked firing in 5 and had no detectable effect in 21 interneurons. The KCC2 specific 281 282 antagonist VU0463271 (10 µM) significantly increased the proportion of PV INs that were excited or inhibited by isoguvacine ( $\chi^2$  test, 0.01<p<0.02) whereas the NKCC1 antagonist 283 bumetanide (10  $\mu$ M) had no significant effect on the proportions of each type of response, 284 either when applied alone ( $\chi^2$  test, 0.05<p<0.1) or in the presence of VU0463271 ( $\chi^2$  test, 285 0.95<p<0.98). These results suggest the effect of GABAA receptor activation is predominantly 286 inhibitory in PV INs and is influenced by the function of KCC2 but not NKCC1. 287

288

# (figure 2 near here)

In neighboring PCs, isoguvacine had little effect on firing (5 of 23 cells), mostly owing to the fact that most of them were silent (18 of 23 cells) prior to isoguvacine application, making it difficult to assess the inhibitory or excitatory nature of GABA signaling. Again, bumetanide had no significant effect on the proportions of pyramidal cells excited (1 of 10 cells), inhibited (1 of 10 cells) or unaffected by isoguvacine ( $\chi^2$  test, 0.2<p<0.8), whereas VU0463271 induced a large increase in the proportion of excited neurons (7 of 11 cells,  $\chi^2$  test, 0.01<p<0.02; Figure 2D). In contrast, in slices from younger (3-7 days old) animals, the effect of isoguvacine was significantly more excitatory than in slices from adult mice ( $\chi^2$  test, 0.02<p<0.05) and triggered firing in 26 out of 66 neurons under control conditions, suggesting GABA signaling in PCs was clearly excitatory at this age.

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Altogether, these results suggest KCC2 is functional in both CA1 pyramidal cells and PV INs and influences the valence of GABA signaling. However, the high proportion of silent neurons under our recording conditions makes it difficult to draw firm conclusions regarding the polarity of GABA transmission in these cells under physiological conditions.

304

Tight-seal, cell-attached recordings provide another, minimally invasive approach to detect 305 306 the polarity of synaptic potentials without rupturing the cell membrane and perturbing transmembrane ionic gradients (Perkins, 2006). In particular, gigaseal recordings allow a fairly 307 308 reliable measurement of the polarity (but not the actual amplitude) of synaptic potentials, as well as of resting membrane potential, provided that series resistance is high relative to patch 309 310 and cell membrane resistances (Mason et al., 2005; Perkins, 2006). We recorded currents evoked by GABAAR activation with isoguvacine in gigaseal mode from both CA1 PV INs and 311 PCs (Figure 3A). In both cell types, isoguvacine-induced potentials were predominantly 312 depolarizing (5 of 7 and 5 of 6 cells, respectively). This proportion was similar to recordings 313 from immature (P3-P7) CA1 pyramidal neurons (6 of 9 cells, Figure 3B). Together, these results 314 315 suggest that, at least in the absence of glutamatergic drive, both CA1 PCs and PV INs are 316 predominantly depolarized upon GABAAR activation, even though a significant fraction are

functionally inhibited, likely due to shunting of their membrane resistance (Staley & Mody,1992).

319

#### (Figure 3 near here)

### 320 KCC2-mediated chloride extrusion in CA1 parvalbumin interneurons

321 Transmembrane chloride transport can be directly estimated from whole-cell recordings of GABA-evoked currents while clamping somatic chloride concentration to 29 mM (Khirug et al., 322 2008; Gauvain et al., 2011). The gradient of the reversal potential of GABAAR-mediated 323 currents (E<sub>GABA</sub>) along the somato-dendritic membrane then reflects actual transmembrane 324 325 chloride extrusion. We compared EGABA gradients in CA1 PV INs and PCs using local photolysis of RubiGABA (15 μM, 0.5-5 ms laser pulse, see Methods). As in other cortical neurons (Khirug 326 et al., 2008; Gauvain et al., 2011), EGABA in PV INs, was always more depolarized for somatically-327 evoked currents, as compared to currents evoked onto dendrites 50-250 µm away from the 328 329 soma (Figure 4). This somato -dendritic gradient ( $\Delta E_{GABA}$ ) however was significantly steeper in neighboring PCs as compared with PV INs (-21.1  $\pm$  5.7 vs -12.6  $\pm$  2.8 mV/100  $\mu$ m; 11 dendritic 330 331 sites in 8 cells and 17 dendritic sites in 9 cells, respectively, p<0.001; Figure 5A-B), suggesting 332 chloride extrusion along dendrites may be less effective in PV INs. However, the effect of KCC2 333 and NKCC1 blockers on  $\Delta E_{GABA}$  was not significantly different between the two cell types. Thus, the KCC2 specific antagonist VU046321 produced similar reduction in the somato-dendritic 334 gradient of  $E_{GABA}$  in PV INs (-58.5 ± 11.6 %, 15 dendritic sites in 9 cells) and PCs (-57.1 ± 8.1 %, 335 336 9 dendritic sites in 7 cells, p=0.770; Figure 4B and 5C). Further application of the NKCC1 antagonist bumetanide also produced similar increase in  $\Delta E_{GABA}$  in PV INs and PCs (+41.5 ± 337 23.9% and +45.7 ± 28.2, respectively, as compared to VU046321 only; p=0.67, Figure 5C). This 338 339 suggests NKCC1 activity may significantly contribute to transmembrane chloride gradients in both cell types, at least upon KCC2 blockade. Altogether, these observations demonstrate
chloride extrusion is more efficient along the dendrites of PCs as compared with PV INs and
suggest mechanisms other than CCC function may contribute to this difference.

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# (Figure 4 near here)

344 Remarkably, although somatic chloride concentration was expected to be clamped by the 345 internal solution of the pipette, somatic E<sub>GABA</sub> was more hyperpolarized than that estimated by the Nernst equation (-41.3 mV, dashed line in Figure 5D) and more so in PV INs than PCs 346 347 (53.1 ± 3.4 vs 46.5 ± 2.5 mV, n=10 and 8 cells, respectively, p=0.003; Figure 5D). This suggests 348 that active chloride transport at the plasma membrane i) may generate intracellular chloride gradients, such that actual transmembrane gradients do not directly reflect the mean 349 intracellular and extracellular concentrations and ii) is more efficient in the soma of PV INs 350 than in PCs. Consistent with this hypothesis, somatic E<sub>GABA</sub> was more depolarized upon 351 352 application of VU0463271 in PV INs than in PCs (+4.9  $\pm$  1.7 vs +2.8  $\pm$  1.6 mV, n=9 and 7 cells, respectively, p=0.039; Figure 5E). Further application of bumetanide however had no 353 significant effect on EGABA in either cell type, suggesting NKCC1 does not contribute 354 355 significantly to somatic transmembrane chloride gradients when intracellular chloride concentration is high (-0.43  $\pm$  1.1 vs -0.71  $\pm$  1.9 mV, n=8 and 7 cells, respectively, p= 0.95; 356 Figure 5E). Altogether, our results demonstrate that KCC2 and NKCC1 are functional in PCs and 357 358 PV-INs and contribute to establish steady-state transmembrane chloride gradients. The relative contribution of each transporter to somatic gradients however differ between PV INs 359 and PCs. 360

(Figure 5 near here)

362 In order to assess both E<sub>GABA</sub> and V<sub>m</sub> while minimizing perturbation of intracellular anion homeostasis, we next used gramicidin-perforated patch recordings. First, we measured Vm 363 364 and tested the effect of pharmacologically blocking the excitatory drive onto CA1 PV INs and PCs, as in experiments shown in Figure 2 and 3. Whereas all PV INs were spontaneously firing 365 at rest (frequency: 4.0  $\pm$  5.2 Hz, n=14 cells), application of AMPA and NMDAR blockers 366 hyperpolarized their membrane potential by  $3.5 \pm 2.2$  mV (Figure 6A and 6Bb). Most PCs (12 367 368 out of 15) were also spontaneously firing but had lower firing frequency (0.23 ± 0.3 Hz, p<0.001) and threshold (p=0.006) (Figure 6A and 6Bc). Glutamate receptor antagonists also 369 hyperpolarized CA1 pyramidal cells, yet to a lesser extent than PV INs ( $0.96 \pm 1.2 \text{ mV}$ , p=0.001, 370 371 n= 13 cells of each type, Figure 6Bb), consistent with the latter receiving massive excitatory drive as compared with neighboring pyramidal cells (Gulyas et al., 1999; Takacs et al., 2012). 372 373 Remarkably, these values of V<sub>m</sub> measured in the presence of glutamate receptor antagonists 374 were very similar to those derived from gigaseal recordings (71.6  $\pm$  2.1 vs -74.9  $\pm$  5.2 mV (n=7) for PV INs and vs -74.9 ± 4.5 (n=8) for PCs; Figure 3). GABAAR -mediated currents were then 375 evoked using focal uncaging of RubiGABA, as above, and EGABA was derived from current-376 377 voltage relations of somatically evoked currents (Figure 6C-D). EGABA was significantly more 378 depolarized in PV INs as compared with PCs (-64.1  $\pm$  7.2 vs -71.7  $\pm$  3.0 mV, p=0.003, n= 10 and 379 16 cells, respectively; Figure 6E). However, due to more depolarized  $V_m$  in PV INs (Figure 6Ba), 380 the driving force of GABAAR-mediated currents at rest was similar in the two cell types (3.8 ± 7.0 vs 1.7 ± 3.7 mV, n=10 and 13 cells, respectively; p=0.34; Figure 6F). Also consistent with 381 gigaseal recordings,  $E_{GABA}$  was slightly more depolarized than  $V_m$  both in PV INs and PCs. 382 383 Application of VU0463271 depolarized somatic E<sub>GABA</sub> in both cell types (by 12.5 ± 2.8 and 16.1  $\pm$  4.2 mV, in PV INs (n=3) and PCs (n=8), respectively; Figure 6G) whereas further application 384 of bumetanide only slightly hyperpolarized EGABA. This suggests that, under steady-state 385

conditions, E<sub>GABA</sub> in both PV INs and PCs is moderately depolarized as compared with V<sub>m</sub> and predominantly influenced by the activity of KCC2, whereas NKCC1 contribution is minor. Importantly, however, although GABA may have depolarizing actions in both cells types, its effect is mostly shunting as  $E_{GABA}$  is more hyperpolarized than the action potential threshold (Figure 6H). Suppressing KCC2 activity may however be sufficient to depolarize  $E_{GABA}$  beyond this threshold, thereby promoting firing, as observed in Figure 2.

392

# (Figure 6 near here)

## 393 Dynamic regulation of GABA signaling in CA1 parvalbumin interneurons and pyramidal cells

394 Repetitive activation of GABAARs has been shown in a variety of neurons to result in activitydependent depression. This depression was attributed to intracellular chloride buildup 395 (Thompson & Gahwiler, 1989a; Staley & Proctor, 1999; Jedlicka et al., 2011) or to receptor 396 desensitization (Thompson & Gahwiler, 1989c; Jones & Westbrook, 1995) or a combination of 397 both. We compared the contribution of these mechanisms upon repetitive activation of 398 GABAARs in CA1 PV INs and neighboring PCs. In order to exclude presynaptic mechanisms that 399 400 may contribute to short-term, activity-dependent changes in GABA release (Thompson & Gahwiler, 1989c; Zucker & Regehr, 2002), GABAAR activation was achieved by repetitive (10 401 Hz), focal uncaging of RubiGABA onto the soma or dendrites of neurons recorded in 402 403 gramicidin-perforated patch mode (Figure 7A). We then compared the dynamics of GABAARmediated currents evoked while holding cells below (-8.2  $\pm$  3.3 mV) or above (+9.4  $\pm$  3.6 mV) 404 405 their reversal potential, such that the absolute amplitude of the first response was similar for inward and outward currents. Both in PV INs and PCs, the peak amplitude of GABAAR-406 mediated currents decayed with very similar kinetics during the train, independent of their 407 polarity (soma:  $\tau_{inward}$ =0.11 ± 0.03 vs 0.17 ± 0.12 s<sup>-1</sup>, Mann-Whitney test p=0.291;  $\tau_{outward}$ =0.10 408

 $\pm$  0.04 vs 0.13  $\pm$  0.03 s<sup>-1</sup>, Mann-Whitney test p=0.232; n=6 and 11 cells, respectively) and their 409 site of initiation (soma vs dendrite; 0.242<p<0.695; Figure 7B). This observation suggests the 410 mechanisms involved in the activity-dependent depression of GABAAR-mediated currents 411 during a train of 10 Hz stimulation is unlikely to primarily involve changes in transmembrane 412 ionic gradients. Consistent with this conclusion, application of the KCC2 antagonist 413 414 VU0463271 had no detectable effect on the decay of outward GABAAR-mediated currents, either in PV INs ( $\tau_{outward}$ =0.13 ± 0.04 vs 0.11 ± 0.06 s<sup>-1</sup>, paired t-test p=0.363; n=2 cells) or in 415 PCs ( $\tau_{outward}$ =0.11 ± 0.02 vs 0.11 ± 0.01 s<sup>-1</sup>, paired t-test p=0.848; n=4 cells ; Figure 7C). We 416 conclude that, at least in our range of current amplitude and stimulation frequency, activity-417 418 dependent depression of GABAAR-mediated currents is largely independent of CCC function and does not reflect changes in transmembrane chloride gradients. 419

420

(Figure 7 near here)

#### 421 Discussion

422 We have used a combination of approaches to assess and compare the polarity of GABA 423 signaling in adult mouse CA1 hippocampal PCs and PV INs. Our results reveal that the basic mechanisms of steady-state chloride handling controlling GABA transmission are similar in 424 both neuronal types, with a predominantly depolarizing yet inhibitory effect under resting in 425 vitro conditions. PV INs and PCs, however, show different behaviors upon intracellular chloride 426 427 loading, that may reflect differential distribution, regulation or efficacy of cation chloride cotransport along their somato-dendritic axis as well as electrotonic properties. Finally, we 428 429 have shown that activity-dependent depression of GABAR-mediated transmission is largely independent of the polarity of the evoked currents and the activity of the transporters. This 430 suggests this form of plasticity may not predominantly involve postsynaptic chloride loading, 431 432 at least under moderate regimes of synaptic activation.

433

Evaluating the net effect of GABAAR activation in neurons is technically challenging as all 434 experimental approaches may introduce some bias. Classical electrophysiological techniques 435 may induce cell dialysis, compromise membrane integrity or underestimate Donnan 436 potentials between pipette solution and the neuronal cytoplasm (Marty & Neher, 1995). Non-437 438 invasive approaches, such as loose-patch recordings, are then often used to assess the polarity 439 and/or the net effect of GABAAR activation on neuronal activity (Deidda et al., 2015; Lozovaya 440 et al., 2019). This approach, however, is only valid when recorded cells display spontaneous firing. As focal application of GABAAR agonists may affect the activity of neighboring neurons 441 and subsequently modify that of the recorded neuron, we performed these recordings in the 442 presence of glutamate receptor antagonists (Fig. 2). In the absence of excitatory drive, 443

444 however, most recorded neurons (either PV INs or PCs) did not exhibit spontaneous firing and the effect of GABAAR activation could not be tested. These experiments nevertheless showed 445 446 that GABA agonists mostly inhibit spontaneously firing PV INs. Cell-attached current clamp recordings provide another, minimally invasive approach to evaluate the polarity of synaptic 447 potentials as well as resting membrane potential (Perkins, 2006; Kirmse et al., 2015). Such 448 449 recordings showed that GABAAR activation mostly induces membrane depolarization in both PV INs and PCs in adult mouse hippocampus, as well as in PCs from immature (P3-7) 450 hippocampus. This observation is supported by gramicidin-perforated patch recordings, which 451 452 revealed a depolarizing driving force for GABAAR-mediated currents (Fig. 6). Although EGABA 453 was more depolarized in CA1 PV INs than in neighboring PCs, the driving force of GABAARmediated currents was remarkably similar, due to a more depolarized resting membrane 454 455 potential in PV INs. This observation is consistent with previous recordings from presumptive 456 basket (fast spiking) and pyramidal (regular spiking) neurons in both amygdala and cortex (Martina et al., 2001). Importantly, under control conditions, EGABA was less depolarized than 457 action potential threshold (Fig. 6H), consistent with a predominantly shunting and inhibitory 458 459 effect. This observation is in line with earlier studies on cerebellar interneurons (Chavas & Marty, 2003), unidentified hippocampal interneurons (Verheugen et al., 1999; Banke & 460 461 McBain, 2006) as well as presumptive dentate gyrus PV INs (Sauer & Bartos, 2010).

462

Very few studies have explored CCC expression in cortical interneurons and data are somewhat controversial, possibly due to the differential expression of distinct isoforms (Uvarov *et al.*, 2007; Markkanen *et al.*, 2014). Thus, KCC2 was shown to be expressed in MGEderived interneurons earlier than in neighboring pyramidal cells during embryogenesis and to 467 control the termination of their migration (Bortone & Polleux, 2009). However, KCC2 expression and function in specific MGE-derived subtypes in postnatal cortex have not been 468 469 further explored. In the cerebellum on the contrary, KCC2 expression is very weak in early postnatal presumptive baskets cells and increases postnatally (Simat et al., 2007). In the adult 470 rat hippocampus, KCC2 was shown to be strongly expressed in PV-immunopositive 471 472 interneurons (Gulyas et al., 2001), consistent with our immunohistochemical data (Fig. 1). Due 473 to the delayed expression of parvalbumin in PV INs (Solbach & Celio, 1991), we could not, however, visualize CA1 PV INs in PVCre:: Ai14 mice in early postnatal mice and therefore could 474 475 not evaluate the temporal profile of KCC2 expression and function in these cells at earlier 476 stages. In addition, the lack of a specific NKCC1 antibody for immunohistochemistry precluded examination of NKCC1 expression in PV INs and PCs. Our pharmacological data, however, 477 478 support that both transporters are expressed and functional in both cell types in PV INs and 479 PCs in the adult mouse hippocampus. Thus, the KCC2 antagonist VU0463271 and the NKCC1 antagonist bumetanide had opposing actions on the efficacy of transmembrane chloride 480 export (Fig. 5) and EGABA (Fig. 6) in both PV INs and PCs. However, blocking KCC2 was sufficient 481 482 to promote the excitatory effect of GABAAR activation whereas blocking NKCC1 had not detectable effect (Fig 2), suggesting although both transporters are active in PV INs and PCs, 483 484 the valence of GABA signaling in both cell types predominantly relies on KCC2 but not NKCC1 485 function. Moreover, although KCC2 and NKCC1 blockade had similar effects on somatic EGABA in PV INs and PCs in perforated-patch recordings (Fig. 6G), we observed significant differences 486 when cells were loaded with high intracellular chloride in whole-cell mode. Thus, the somato-487 488 dendritic gradient of E<sub>GABA</sub> was more pronounced in PCs than in PV INs (Fig. 5A-B) and somatic chloride extrusion was more efficient in PV INs than in PCs. These differences are consistent 489 with a differential expression and/or function of KCC2 and NKCC1 along the somato-dendritic 490

491 axis of the two cell types, with a higher KCC2/NKCC1 function ratio in the soma of PV INs. In addition, differences in the cable properties of PV IN and PC dendrites may also contribute to 492 this difference. Thus, lower membrane resistance of PV IN as compared to PC dendrites 493 (Norenberg et al., 2010) may induce poorer space clamp of GABAAR-mediated currents 494 evoked onto their distal dendrites. It should also be noted that, whereas the whole-cell 495 496 evaluation of E<sub>GABA</sub> gradients is an effective method to assess the efficacy of transmembrane chloride transport (Khirug et al., 2008; Gauvain et al., 2011), it may tend to overestimate 497 steady-state KCC2/NKCC1 function ratio, as it uses high intracellular chloride concentration. 498 This in turn is expected to inhibit the chloride-sensitive with-no-lysine (WNK) STE20 (sterile 499 500 20)-like kinases (SPAK) kinases, resulting in reduced NKCC1 and increased KCC2 function (de Los Heros et al., 2014; Friedel et al., 2015; Heubl et al., 2017). 501

502

Activity-dependent depression of GABAAR-mediated transmission is well-documented and 503 504 likely results from a combination of factors involving both pre- and postsynaptic elements (Thompson & Gahwiler, 1989a, b, c). In particular, several studies suggested repetitive 505 activation of GABAARs may lead to postsynaptic chloride loading and a subsequent 506 depolarization of EGABA (Thompson & Gahwiler, 1989a; Kaila et al., 1997; Staley & Proctor, 507 1999; Magloire et al., 2019). However, these studies used massive chloride loading induced 508 either by multi-quantal IPSCs or prolonged, high-frequency stimulation. Although such intense 509 510 receptor activation may be relevant to specific, mostly pathological conditions (Magloire et 511 al., 2019), it may not represent the receptor activation at individual, somatic or dendritic sites. Our results from gramidicin-perforated patch recordings instead show that, upon 10 Hz focal 512 Rubi-GABA uncaging for up to 1s, GABAAR-mediated currents decay in amplitude in both PV 513

514 INs and PCs largely independent of both the direction of the ion flux and KCC2 function (Fig. 7). These results suggest that chloride accumulation during repetitive (10 Hz) activation at 515 516 single somatic or dendritic sites is not sufficient to significantly affect the driving force of GABAAR-mediated currents, likely owing to the rapid diffusion of chloride ions inside the 517 postsynaptic cytoplasm (Doyon et al., 2011). Instead, since these experiments were 518 519 performed independent of synaptic stimulation, activity-dependent depression of GABAAR-520 mediated currents likely reflected receptor desensitization (Jones & Westbrook, 1996; Papke et al., 2011; Gielen et al., 2015). Our results demonstrate this process occurs with a time 521 constant of about 100-130 ms, consistent with the intermediate component of the 522 desensitization kinetics of recombinant  $\alpha_1\beta_{1/2}\gamma_2L$  receptors (Papke *et al.*, 2011; Brodzki *et al.*, 523 2016). Therefore, under physiological regimes of synaptic activity, GABAAR desensitization 524 525 appears as a major postsynaptic factor acting as a low-pass filter with respect to GABA 526 signaling (Jones & Westbrook, 1996).

527

528 CCC expression is altered in a variety of neurological and psychiatric conditions including 529 epilepsy (Palma et al., 2006; Huberfeld et al., 2007; Karlocai et al., 2016; Kourdougli et al., 2017), chronic stress (MacKenzie & Maguire, 2015), Rett syndrome (Duarte et al., 2013; 530 531 Banerjee et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2016) and autism spectrum disorders (Tyzio et al., 2014). Impaired chloride homeostasis has been suggested to induce paradoxical excitatory GABA 532 signaling and thereby promote anomalous ensemble activities that underlie the pathology. 533 Our data also suggest that KCC2 downregulation may be sufficient to depolarize EGABA above 534 535 action potential threshold in PV INs (Fig. 6H). In addition, since KCC2 is involved in a variety of molecular interactions with synaptic proteins (Ivakine et al., 2013; Mahadevan et al., 2014), 536

537 ion channels (Goutierre et al., 2019) and cytoskeleton-related proteins (Li et al., 2007; Gauvain et al., 2011; Chevy et al., 2015; Llano et al., 2015), the loss of its expression also affects several 538 physiological properties beyond the mere control of chloride transport and GABA signaling 539 (Chamma et al., 2012). Thus, KCC2 knockdown in cortical PCs was shown to also profoundly 540 541 perturb neuronal excitability as well as network activity (Kelley et al., 2018; Goutierre et al., 542 2019). Since PV INs exert a critical control over the activity of cortical PCs (Pouille & Scanziani, 543 2001) and shape their rhythmic activities (Klausberger & Somogyi, 2008; Amilhon et al., 2015; Gan et al., 2017), altered CCC expression in these cells would be expected to profoundly 544 perturb cortical rhythmogenesis. As most studies on CCC expression in the pathology lacked 545 cell-subtype resolution, whether and how it is affected in PV INs remains to be fully explored 546 547 and the consequences on cortical activity should then be further investigated.

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## 872 Competing interests

873 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# 876 Author contributions

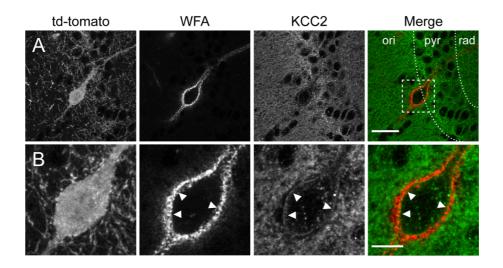
877 Y.O. and J.C.P. conceived and designed the research. Y.O. performed all electrophysiological recordings and data analysis with help of E.J.S. who also maintained the mouse colony. F.D. 878 performed immunohistochemistry, confocal imaging and analysis. Y.O and J.C.P. prepared the 879 figures and wrote the paper. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript and 880 agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the 881 accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved. All 882 persons designated as authors qualify for authorship, and all those who qualify for authorship 883 are listed. 884

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## 898 Figures and legends



#### 899

## 900 Figure 1. KCC2 labeling of hippocampal CA1 parvalbumin interneurons.

A, Representative micrograph (maximum projection of 10 confocal sections over 2.6 μm) of
area CA1 of an adult *Pvalb*<sup>tm1(cre)Arbr/J</sup>::*Ai14* mouse hippocampal section immunostained for
KCC2 (green) and WFA lectin (red), showing td-tomato expression in a PV IN surrounded by
WFA staining on the soma and proximal dendrites. Right, merged images of KCC2 and WFA
stainings. Scale, 30 μm. B, Magnified region boxed in A, showing KCC2 immunostaining in tdtomato expressing PV IN lies just underneath the perineuronal net stained with WFA
(arrowheads). Scale, 10 μm.

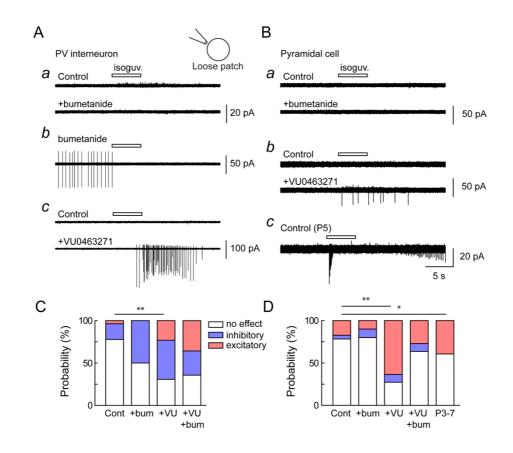
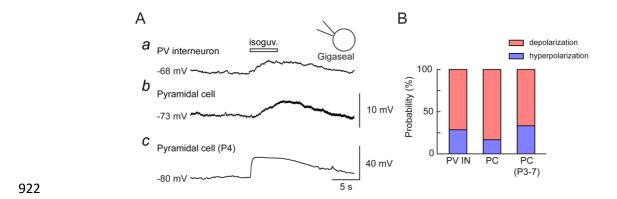


Figure 2. Excitatory and inhibitory actions of GABAA receptor activation in CA1 parvalbumin
interneurons and pyramidal cells.

912 A *a*, Representative sections of recordings in loose patch mode of a CA1 PV IN upon brief, focal somatic application of isoguvacine (100  $\mu$ M, white bar), before and during application of the 913 NKCC1 antagonist bumetanide (10  $\mu$ M). *b*, same as in *a* in another PV IN during bumetanide 914 application. c, same as in a and b, before and during application of the KCC2 antagonist 915 916 VU0463271 (10 µM). B a and b, recordings as in A a and c from CA1 PCs in P30-P40 mice. c, 917 recording showing the effect of somatic isoguvacine application on a CA1 PC from a P5 mouse. 918 C, summary graph showing the proportions of each type response (excitatory, inhibitory or none) recorded upon isoguvacine application in PV INs. D, Same as C for recordings from PCs. 919 χ<sup>2</sup> test \* p<0.05, \*\* p<0.02. 920

921



923 Figure 3. Polarity of GABAAR-mediated potentials in CA1 parvalbumin interneurons and 924 pyramidal cells.

A, Representative sections of recordings in gigaseal patch mode of a CA1 PV IN from a P46
mouse (*a*) and a PC from a P33 (*b*) or P4 (*c*) mouse upon brief, focal somatic application of
isoguvacine (100 μM, white bar). B, summary graph showing the proportions of each type of
response (depolarizing, hyperpolarizing) recorded upon isoguvacine application in each cell
type.

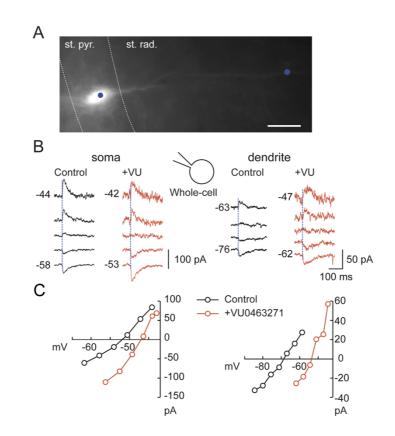




Figure 4. Contribution of KCC2 to transmembrane chloride extrusion in a CA1 parvalbumin
 interneuron.

A, Fluorescence micrograph of a CA1 PV IN from a P37 mouse hippocampal slice, recorded in 934 935 whole-cell mode and filled with Alex594. The blue spots represent the position and size of the 936 laser beam used for focal RubiGABA photolysis. Scale, 20 µm. B, Currents evoked at varying potentials by focal somatic (left) or dendritic (right) photolysis of RubiGABA in the cell shown 937 938 in A, before (black) and during (red) application of VU0463271 (10  $\mu$ M). Numbers of the right represent holding potentials corrected for liquid junction potential and voltage drop across 939 the pipette resistance. C, Current-voltage relations from recordings shown in B showing the 940 different reversal potentials of RubiGABA-evoked currents in the soma vs. dendrites and their 941 942 depolarizing shift upon KCC2 blockade.

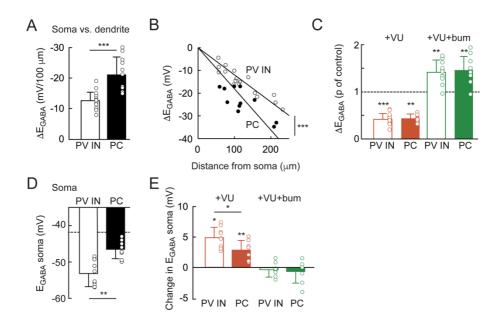


Figure 5. Compared contribution of KCC2 and NKCC1 to somato-dendritic chloride gradients
 in CA1 parvalbumin interneuron and pyramidal cells.

A, Summary graph showing  $E_{GABA}$  somatodendritic gradient ( $\Delta E_{GABA}$ ) between soma and 947 dendrites normalized by the distance from soma to dendritic photolysis locations. PV IN: n=17 948 dendritic sites in 9 cells. PC: n=11 dendritic sites in 8 cells. \*\*\* Mann Whitney test p<0.001. B, 949 somatodendritic E<sub>GABA</sub> gradient plotted against the distance from soma to dendritic photolysis 950 951 locations with superimposed linear regression, showing steeper relation in PCs compared with PV INs. Same data as in A, \*\*\* Multiple regression test p<0.001. C, Change in  $\Delta E_{GABA}$  upon 952 953 sequential KCC2 (red) and KCC2+NKCC1 blockade (green) by VU0463271 and bumetanide, 954 respectively. The values are normalized to those of the preceding condition (control for VU0463271, VU0463271 for VU0463271+bumetanide). \*\* and \*\*\* Wilcoxon signed-rank test 955 p<0.01 and 0.001, respectively. No significant difference was observed in PC vs PV INs. Same 956 957 recordings as in A and B. D, Reversal potential (E<sub>GABA</sub>) of currents evoked by somatic RubiGABA uncaging in PV INs and PCs. Same data as in A-C. Dashed line: estimated E<sub>CI</sub> based on Nernst 958 equation. \*\* Mann Whitney test p<0.01. E, Change in somatic E<sub>GABA</sub> upon sequential KCC2 959

960 (red) and KCC2+NKCC1 blockade (green) by VU0463271 and bumetanide, respectively. The
961 values are normalized to those of the preceding condition (control for VU0463271,
962 VU0463271 for VU0463271+bumetanide). VU0463271 depolarized E<sub>GABA</sub> more in PV INs than
963 in PCs. However, further addition of bumetanide had no significant effect. \* and \*\* Wilcoxon
964 rank signed-rank test p<0.05 and 0.01, respectively. \* for PV INs vs PCs, Mann Whitney test</li>
965 p<0.05.</li>

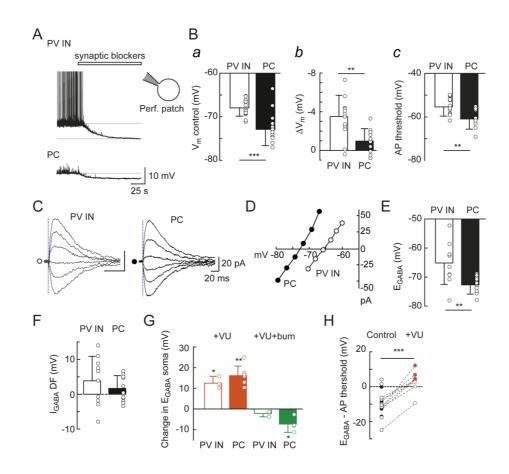
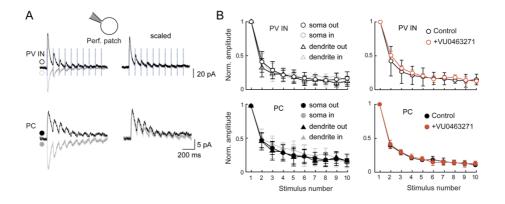


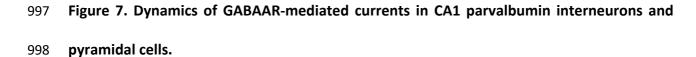
Figure 6. Compared reversal potential and driving force of GABA currents in CA1
 parvalbumin interneurons and pyramidal cells.

A, Representative current clamp recordings from a CA1 PV IN (top) and PC (bottom) in 970 gramicidin-perforated patch mode, showing the effect of synaptic receptor antagonists (APV, 971 NBQX and CGP55845) and TTX (white bar) on holding potential. Note that the PV IN but not 972 973 the PC shows spontaneous firing prior to application of the blockers. B, a, resting membrane potential measured in 15 CA1 PV INs and 15 PCs prior to application of synaptic blockers. \*\*\*, 974 Mann Whitney test p<0.001. b, change in membrane potential ( $\Delta V_m$ ) upon application of 975 synaptic blockers in the same cells as in *a*. \*\*, Mann Whitney test p<0.01. *c*, Action potential 976 threshold measured in spontaneously firing PV INs (n=15) and PCs (n=9). \*\*, Mann Withney 977 test p<0.01. C, Currents evoked at varying potentials by focal somatic photolysis of RubiGABA 978 in a PV IN (left) and a PC (right). The dotted line represents the timing of photolysis. D, 979

980 corresponding current/voltage relation for the recordings shown in C. Open circles, PV IN. Filled circles, PC. E, Summary graphs showing the reversal potential of somatically evoked 981 GABAAR-mediated currents in 10 CA1 PV INs and 16 PCs. \*\*, Mann Whitney test p<0.01. F, 982 983 estimated driving force of somatic GABAAR-mediated currents computed by subtracting Vm 984 from E<sub>GABA</sub>, showing GABAARs have slightly depolarizing actions in both PV INs and PCs. G, summary graph showing the change in somatic EGABA upon sequential KCC2 (red) and 985 986 KCC2+NKCC1 blockade (green) by VU0463271 and bumetanide, respectively. The values are normalized to those of the preceding condition (control for VU0463271, VU0463271 for 987 VU0463271+bumetanide). Addition of bumetanide after VU0463271 had no significant effect 988 on somatic E<sub>GABA</sub> in either PV INs (n=3) or PCs (n=4). \*, paired t-test, p<0.05; \*\*, Wilcoxon 989 signed rank test, p<0.01. H, Difference between E<sub>GABA</sub> and firing threshold for PV INs (open 990 991 circles) and PCs (filled circles), before (black) and during (red) application of VU0463271. Dotted lines represent paired data used for statistical comparison (all cells pooled). \*\*\*, Paired 992 t-test, p<0.001. 993

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A, Representative recordings of currents evoked by 10 Hz somatic photolysis of RubiGABA in 999 a CA1 PV IN and a PC recorded in gramicidin-perforated patch mode and held at potentials 1000 above (black) or below (grey) E<sub>GABA</sub> (PV IN: -60 and -80 mV; PC: -60 and -77 mV). B, Summary 1001 1002 graphs showing peak current amplitudes normalized to the peak amplitude of the first current, during a train of RubiGABA photolysis on the soma (circles) or dendrites (triangles) of PV INs 1003 (soma: n=6, dendrites: n=3, open symbols) and PCs (soma: n=11, dendrites: n=4, filled 1004 symbols). C, Same as in B showing the lack of effect of VU0463271 (10 μM, red symbols) on 1005 the decay of the peak amplitude of GABAAR-mediated currents during a 10 Hz somatic 1006 1007 RubiGABA photolysis (PV INs, n=2; PCs, n=4).