

Synaptic integration in CA1 pyramidal neurons is intact despite deficits in GABAergic transmission in the *Scn1a* haploinsufficiency mouse model of Dravet syndrome

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1 **Title:** Synaptic integration in CA1 pyramidal neurons is intact despite deficits in
2 GABAergic transmission in the *Scn1a* haploinsufficiency mouse model of Dravet
3 syndrome

4 **Abbreviated Title:** Synaptic physiology in *Scn1a* Het hippocampus

5
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1 **Abstract**

2 Mutations of *SCN1A*, which encodes the voltage-gated sodium channel Na_v1.1,
3 can cause epilepsy disorders such as Dravet syndrome that are comorbid with wide-
4 ranging neurological dysfunction. Many studies suggest that Na_v1.1 haploinsufficiency
5 causes forebrain GABAergic interneuron hypoexcitability, while pyramidal neuron
6 physiology is mostly unaltered, and that this serves as a primary cell physiology
7 phenotype linking mutation to disease. We hypothesized that deficits in inhibition would
8 alter synaptic integration during activation of the hippocampal microcircuit, thus
9 disrupting cellular information processing and leading to seizures and cognitive deficits.
10 We tested this hypothesis using *ex vivo* whole-cell recordings from CA1 pyramidal
11 neurons in a heterozygous *Scn1a* knockout mouse model and wild type littermates,
12 measuring responses to single and patterned synaptic stimulation and spontaneous
13 synaptic activity. Overall, our experiments reveal a surprising normalcy of excitatory and
14 inhibitory synaptic temporal integration in the hippocampus of *Scn1a* haploinsufficient
15 mice. While miniature IPSCs and feedforward inhibition and were decreased, we did not
16 identify a pattern or frequency of input that caused a failure of synaptic inhibition. We
17 further show that reduced GABA release probability and subsequent reduced short-term
18 depression may act to overcome deficits in inhibition normalizing input/output functions
19 in the *Scn1a* haploinsufficient hippocampus. These experiments show that CA1
20 pyramidal neuron synaptic processing is surprisingly robust, even during decreased
21 interneuron function, and more complex circuit activity is likely required to reveal altered
22 function in the hippocampal microcircuit.

23

24 **Significance statement**

25 Mouse models of genetic epilepsy disorders are useful tools for better understanding
26 the neurophysiology underlying the seizures and cognitive comorbidities of disease.
27 Here, we use a *Scn1a* haploinsufficiency model of Dravet syndrome (DS) to investigate
28 synaptic integration and input/output functions, which are fundamental forms of
29 neuronal information processing. We found that while DS model hippocampal pyramidal
30 neurons had modest deficits in inhibition, synaptic integration and input/output functions
31 were surprisingly normal. We also found that changes in GABA release probability may
32 be a compensatory mechanism by which the hippocampal circuit overcomes deficits in
33 inhibition to normalize input/output functions.

34 35 **Introduction**

36 Disruption of the most vital building blocks of neural signaling lead to the most
37 severe neurological outcomes. The *SCN1A* gene encodes one such foundational
38 component of neuronal excitability, Na_v1.1, a voltage-gated sodium channel alpha
39 subunit that supports action potential generation in many neurons (Catterall et al. 2010).
40 Mutations to *SCN1A* lead to epilepsy disorders ranging from simple febrile seizures to
41 the spectrum of generalized epilepsy with febrile seizures plus (GEFS+) disorders
42 (Catterall et al. 2010; Escayg and Goldin 2010). Patients with a mutation that renders
43 one allele of *SCN1A* nonfunctional often present with the most severe form of GEFS+:
44 Dravet syndrome (DS, aka severe myoclonic epilepsy in infancy: SMEI) (Claes et al.
45 2001; Marini et al. 2011). With limited treatment options, DS is a profoundly devastating

46 disease characterized by frequent, severe seizures, developmental delays, a range of
47 comorbid neurological and cardiac deficits, and high mortality rates (Dravet 2011).

48 The epilepsy, comorbidities, and high mortality exhibited by DS patients are
49 recapitulated in genetically engineered animal models of *SCN1A* disruption, including
50 rat (Mashimo et al. 2010), mouse (Mistry et al. 2014; Yu et al. 2006), zebrafish (Baraban
51 et al. 2013), and drosophila (Sun et al. 2012). Initial characterization of heterozygous
52 *Scn1a* mice revealed decreased sodium currents and action potential generation in
53 GABAergic interneurons in cortex and hippocampus, resulting in decreased synaptic
54 inhibition (Yu et al. 2006). In contrast, sodium currents in pyramidal neurons were
55 unaffected. Work in animal models across phyla, in heterozygous knockout and human
56 disease mutation knock-in models, and interneuron specific $Na_v1.1$ knockouts offer
57 support to the hypothesis that decreased inhibitory neuron function is an
58 electrophysiological signature of, and major mechanism underlying, neural dysfunction
59 in *SCN1A*-linked epilepsy disorders (Catterall 2018).

60 Further studies have added depth and complexity to the interneuron-dysfunction
61 hypothesis of DS. *In vivo* spike rates of interneurons have been recorded to be normal
62 or even elevated during ongoing activity in heterozygous mice (De Stasi et al. 2016;
63 Tran et al. 2020). Further, the decreased intrinsic excitability of parvalbumin- and
64 somatostatin-expressing interneurons is transient, normalizing to wild type levels after a
65 developmental delay (Almog et al. 2021; Favero et al. 2018). This suggests that other
66 developmental abnormalities or compensatory changes in the neural circuitry persist
67 beyond the recovery of function of these inhibitory neurons. A recent study found that
68 while parvalbumin interneurons are hypoexcitable in the dentate gyrus of young adult

69 *Scn1a*^{+/-} mice, the magnitude of evoked inhibition was modestly higher, not lower, in
70 dentate granule cells in response to perforant path stimulation, and that
71 excitatory/inhibitory ratio and granule cell recruitment did increase, but due to increases
72 in excitatory input rather than deficits in inhibition (Mattis et al. 2022). Finally, vasoactive
73 intestinal peptide (VIP)-expressing neurons, which largely target other GABAergic
74 interneurons, and therefore disinhibit neural circuitry, also exhibit excitability deficits in
75 heterozygous mice (Goff and Goldberg 2019). Thus, the mechanism underlying DS is
76 more complicated than simple circuit disinhibition due to GABAergic neuron
77 hypoexcitability.

78 Neural circuit activity and information processing depend on the complex
79 integration of temporally patterned excitatory and inhibitory synaptic inputs (Stuart and
80 Spruston 2015). We hypothesized that deficits in interneuron function would alter
81 synaptic integration and synaptic input/action potential output functions in forebrain
82 pyramidal neurons, serving as a circuit mechanism by which interneuron hypofunction
83 causes cognitive processing deficits of DS. We tested this hypothesis by examining
84 temporal synaptic integration and detailing excitatory and inhibitory synaptic physiology
85 in CA1 hippocampal pyramidal neurons in *ex vivo* slices from *Scn1a* heterozygous and
86 wild type littermate mice. Despite clear evidence of severe epilepsy, broad neurological
87 dysfunction, and early death in the *Scn1a* deficient mouse model used here (Miller et al.
88 2014; Mistry et al. 2014; Tran et al. 2020), we found only subtle changes to synaptic
89 inhibition, and overall, synaptic integration and input/output functions were relatively
90 unchanged in the hippocampus of this Dravet syndrome model.

91

92 **Methods**

93 *Animals.* All procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use
94 Committee at our institution. A breeding colony of *Scn1a*^{+/-} mice (a generous gift from
95 Dr. Jennifer Kearney) was maintained on the 129S6/SvEvTac background strain
96 (Taconic). Experimental animals were produced by crossing these mice with wild type
97 (WT) C57Bl/6J mice (Jackson Labs, Strain #000664). All experiments were performed
98 on the 129.*Scn1a*^{+/-} x C56/B6J F1 generation as in Mistry et al. (2014). Experimental
99 animals were male and female 129/C57 *Scn1a*^{+/-} (Het), while male and female wild type
100 129/C57 *Scn1a*^{+/+} (WT) littermates served as controls. Pups were toe-clipped at ~P7 for
101 identification and tail tissue samples were taken for genotyping by PCR (Miller et al.
102 2014). All experiments were performed in mice age P21-38 (shaded area in Fig. 1A). A
103 subset of mice were maintained in their homecages and checked on daily for a Kaplan-
104 Meier analysis of survival (Fig. 1A). Of the Het mice monitored (n=25), the first
105 incidence of mortality was recorded on postnatal day (P)17, 50% died by P25, while
106 24% survived at least 100 days. No WT littermate deaths were recorded (n=30).

107
108 *Acute slice preparation.* Mice were injected intraperitoneally with a mix of
109 ketamine (90 mg/kg) and xylazine (10 mg/kg). Once deep anesthesia was confirmed by
110 lack of response to toe pinch, mice were transcardially perfused with ice-cold,
111 oxygenated cutting solution, containing (in mM): 205 sucrose; 25 sodium bicarbonate;
112 2.5 KCl; 1.25 sodium phosphate; 7 MgCl₂; 7 D-glucose; 3 sodium pyruvate; 1.3 ascorbic
113 acid; 0.5 CaCl₂. Perfused brains were removed and hemisected. The midline was
114 placed down and the dorsal portion of the brain was removed using a scalpel blade,

115 angled at ~30° (Poolos and Jones 2004). The cut side was then mounted in the slicing
 116 chamber of a Leica VT1200 vibratome. 300 µm horizontal hippocampal slices were
 117 made from brains submerged in ice-cold, oxygenated cutting solution. Sections were
 118 then incubated for 30 minutes at 37° C, thereafter at room temperature, in holding
 119 solution containing (in mM): 125 NaCl; 25 sodium bicarbonate; 2.5 KCl; 1.25 sodium
 120 phosphate; 12.5 D-glucose; 2 MgCl₂; 2 CaCl₂; 1.3 ascorbic acid; 3 sodium pyruvate.

121
 122 *Whole-cell electrophysiology.* Slices strictly from the intermediate region of the
 123 dorsal-ventral axis of the hippocampus were used, as pyramidal neuron intrinsic
 124 excitability, morphology, and synaptic physiology and plasticity all change along this
 125 axis (Dougherty et al. 2012; Malik et al. 2016; Milior et al. 2016). Slices were placed in a
 126 recording chamber and continuously bathed in warm (32° C), oxygenated artificial
 127 cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF), containing (in mM): 125 NaCl, 25 NaHCO₃, 2.5 KCl, 1.25
 128 NaH₂PO₄, 1 MgCl₂, 2 CaCl₂. For some experiments, synaptic receptors were
 129 pharmacologically blocked: GABA_A receptors with gabazine (gbz, 10 µM), AMPA
 130 receptors with NBQX (10 µM), NMDA receptors with APV (50 µM) in the ACSF. Patch
 131 pipettes were pulled to resistances of 3-6 MΩ. Pipettes were filled with either potassium
 132 gluconate-based or cesium-based solutions. Potassium gluconate internal contained (in
 133 mM): 120 K-gluconate, 20 KCl, 10 HEPES, 4 NaCl, 1 EGTA; 4 Mg-ATP, 0.3 Na-GTP, 7
 134 phosphocreatine disodium salt hydrate. Cesium methanesulfonate internal contained (in
 135 mM): 120 CsMeS; 4 NaCl; 6 CsCl; 10 HEPES; 1 EGTA; 4 Mg-ATP, 0.3 Na-GTP, 7
 136 phosphocreatine disodium salt hydrate; 5 QX-314. Cesium chloride based internal
 137 contained (in mM): 80 CsCl; 45 CsMeS; 4 NaCl; 6 CsCl; 10 HEPES; 1 EGTA; 4 Mg-

138 ATP, 0.3 Na-GTP, 7 phosphocreatine disodium salt hydrate; 5 QX-314. Slices were
139 visualized using a Zeiss Axio Examiner, an infrared digital camera (Zeiss Axiocam 503)
140 and Dodt contrast optics. Neurons with depolarized membrane potential (>-50 mV) or
141 high series resistance (>25 M Ω) were excluded from the study. Synaptic stimulation via
142 activation of the Schaffer collateral axons was performed using a bipolar stimulating
143 electrode (Microprobes) placed in the stratum radiatum near the CA2/CA1 border and a
144 constant current stimulus isolator (World Precision Instruments).

145 Data were acquired using a MultiClamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices) and
146 digitized using an InstruTECH LIH8+8 (HEKA) at a sampling rate of 10 kHz, then filtered
147 at 4 kHz. Data were acquired using Axograph acquisition software. After measuring
148 resting membrane potential in current clamp experiments, a holding current was applied
149 to give all neurons a baseline membrane potential of ~ -70 mV. Action potential
150 input/output curves and voltage sag were measured using 250 ms-long depolarizing
151 and hyperpolarizing current steps. Voltage sag was calculated as the peak negative
152 voltage minus the steady state negative voltage just prior to the end of the
153 hyperpolarizing step when cell was hyperpolarized to -90 mV. For synaptic stimulation
154 experiments, threshold stimulus intensity was measured as the lowest stimulus power
155 that consistently produced a measurable response.

156 *Data analysis and statistics.* All data are presented as mean \pm SEM. Data were
157 analyzed using either Student's t-tests, Mann-Whitney tests, Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests,
158 or repeated measures analysis of variance (RM ANOVA) followed by post hoc Sidak's
159 multiple comparisons tests, as appropriate using GraphPad Prism 7.

160

161 **Results**

162 *Firing properties of CA1 pyramidal neurons are normal in Scn1a Het mice.*

163 Previous studies have reported that pyramidal neurons in *Scn1a* haploinsufficiency
164 mouse models have relatively normal intrinsic physiological properties (Almog et al.
165 2021; Hedrich et al. 2014; Rubinstein et al. 2015), while others have found increased
166 intrinsic excitability (Mistry et al. 2014). Because multiple investigators have
167 independently engineered *Scn1a* transgenic mice, our initial experiments served to
168 establish measures of baseline excitability in CA1 hippocampal pyramidal neurons in
169 this particular line in our hands. Whole-cell current clamp recordings showed that many
170 standard electrophysiological measures were statistically indistinguishable in Het
171 neurons compared with control, including resting membrane potential, input resistance,
172 membrane time constant, capacitance, and voltage sag (Table 1).

173

174 Suprathreshold depolarizing current steps were used to evoke and quantify
175 action potential parameters. Like previous reports in other *Scn1a* knockout mouse lines
176 (Almog et al. 2021; Dymont et al. 2020; Hedrich et al. 2014), action potentials were
177 largely unchanged in Het neurons compared to littermate controls. This can be observed
178 in quantification of number of spikes evoked as a function of current injection (Fig. 1B;
179 WT n = 7; Het n = 10; two-way RM ANOVA: main effect of current $p < 0.0001$; main
180 effect of genotype $p = 0.87$; interaction of current and genotype $p = 0.99$). Measures of
181 rheobase, voltage threshold, first spike rise time and half width were also similar across
182 genotypes (Table 1).

183

184 *Functional integration of excitation and inhibition are unchanged despite*
185 *decrements in inhibition in Scn1a haploinsufficiency.* Our central hypothesis was that
186 decrements in GABAergic interneuron excitability caused by *Scn1a* haploinsufficiency
187 would cause changes in the output of pyramidal neurons in response to activation of the
188 circuit. We tested this hypothesis with *ex vivo* recordings from CA1 pyramidal neurons
189 in current clamp, using a K-gluconate-based internal solution and stimulating the
190 Schaffer collateral (SC) pathway.

191 We hypothesized that inhibitory dysfunction would lead to larger postsynaptic
192 potentials (PSPs) and increased firing rates in Het neurons. To the contrary, we found
193 that PSPs in Het and WT neurons, evoked by a single stimulation of SC axons (Fig.
194 2A), had statistically equivalent peak amplitudes across a broad range of stimulus
195 intensities (Fig. 2B; two-way RM-ANOVA; stimulus intensity: $p < 0.0001$; genotype: $p =$
196 0.44; intensity X genotype interaction: $p = 0.36$). While the lack of difference between
197 genotypes was contrary to our original hypothesis, it is possible that other changes
198 within the circuit such as homeostatic plasticity could compensate for decrements in
199 inhibition. Thus, we repeated this experiment comparing synaptic responses with
200 inhibition blocked with gabazine (gbz; 10 μM) to measure isolated excitatory input. Our
201 expectation was that if excitation was scaled downward in Het neurons, WT neurons
202 would exhibit larger responses than Het when inhibition was blocked. Instead, bath
203 application of gabazine increased the postsynaptic responses of both genotypes
204 equivalently. PSPs amplitude (Fig. 2C; measured as area under the curve with spikes
205 truncated because peak amplitude is confounded by spikes), firing probability (Fig. 2D),
206 and number of spikes (Fig. 2E) increased in both Het and WT neurons, with no

207 significant differences between genotypes. Thus, this experiment revealed that
208 activation of the hippocampal microcircuit produces similar responses in CA1 pyramidal
209 neurons despite *Scn1a* haploinsufficiency.

210

211 *Temporal integration of theta burst activity is unaltered in Scn1a haploinsufficient*
212 CA1. While decreased interneuron excitability did not alter the ability of inhibition to gate
213 activation of CA1 pyramidal neurons in response to single SC stimulation, we
214 hypothesized that physiological patterns of activity might cause a breakdown of
215 inhibition and reveal underlying circuit hyperexcitability. We tested this hypothesis by
216 holding neurons in current clamp and stimulating the SC tract with theta bursts (Fig. 3A;
217 5 bursts, 5 stimuli/burst at 100 Hz, 200 ms intra-burst interval). Theta burst stimulation
218 was repeated at 1x, 3x, and 5x the threshold for evoking reliable responses. The
219 responses of Het neurons were statistically indistinguishable from those of WT neurons.
220 PSP amplitudes for the temporally summed PSPs from each burst (measured as area
221 under the curve with action potentials truncated) were unchanged between genotypes
222 across theta cycles, at each stimulus intensity measured (Fig. 3B; main effect of
223 genotype: $F_{(1,19)} < 0.41$; $p > 0.53$; $n = 11$ WT; 10 Het). Number of action potentials
224 evoked was also unchanged between genotypes across theta cycles, at each stimulus
225 intensity measured (Fig. 3C). This suggests that even when stimulated with repeated
226 high frequency inputs designed to mimic ongoing physiological activity, GABAergic
227 inhibition was fully functional at controlling CA1 pyramidal neuron activity despite known
228 changes to interneuron physiology caused by *Scn1a* haploinsufficiency.

229

230 *Reduced feedforward Inhibition onto Het CA1 pyramidal neurons.* Our synaptic
 231 integration experiments suggested that synaptic inhibition was fully intact, despite well
 232 documented changes in interneuron excitability in this model (Favero et al. 2018;
 233 Rubinstein et al. 2015; Tai et al. 2014; Yu et al. 2006) Thus, we next sought to
 234 determine if changes to inhibitory synaptic physiology could be compensating for
 235 changes to excitability. We first measured feedforward synaptic inputs from CA3 to CA1
 236 via stimulation of the SC axons. In these experiments the stimulating electrode was
 237 placed relatively distant from the neurons being recorded. In this configuration,
 238 GABAergic interneurons were activated by synaptic excitation rather than direct
 239 depolarization by the stimulating electrode (Fig. 4A), as evidenced by typical cessation
 240 of all synaptic responses after addition of glutamate receptor blockers to the ACSF (Fig.
 241 4C-D). We voltage clamped CA1 pyramidal neurons, using a cesium-based internal
 242 solution, alternately at the reversal potential of glutamate (0 mV) and GABA (-70 mV) to
 243 isolate excitatory and inhibitory responses. After identifying a threshold stimulus
 244 intensity that consistently evoked a minimal response, growth functions were recorded
 245 by measuring responses while increasing stimulus current across a broad range of
 246 intensities.

247 For excitatory synaptic responses, statistical comparisons of the amplitude of
 248 evoked excitatory postsynaptic currents (EPSC) and the shape of their growth functions
 249 revealed no statistical differences between WT and Het neurons (Fig. 4E; main effect of
 250 genotype: $F_{(1,16)} = 0.03$; $p = 0.87$, stimulation intensity: $F_{(1.158, 18.53)} = 17.45$; $p < 0.001$,
 251 interaction: $F_{(8,128)} = 0.13$; $p = 0.99$; two-way RM-ANOVA). These data show that
 252 excitatory synaptic input is normal at this synapse in Het mice with no signs of

compensatory plasticity (e.g., homeostatic scaling). In contrast, comparison of evoked inhibitory postsynaptic current (IPSC) between genotypes revealed a significant change in growth function shape for inhibitory synaptic input as measured by the significant interaction of stimulus intensity and genotype (Fig. 4F; main effect of genotype: $F_{(1,16)} = 3.03$; $p = 0.10$, stimulation intensity: $F_{(1.158, 18.53)} = 39.11$; $p < 0.001$, interaction: $F_{(8,128)} = 4.10$; $p < 0.001$; two-way RM-ANOVA). This result is in line with previous reports of decreased excitability in specific subtypes of hippocampal GABAergic interneurons. It is noteworthy, however, that while the interaction of these two variables that make up the growth function is significant, there was not a significant difference in IPSC amplitude between genotypes either overall or at any individual stimulation intensity (ascertained by post-hoc Sidak's multiple comparisons tests: $t < 1.696$; $p > 0.73$). This indicates that despite interneuron intrinsic excitability changes, synaptic inhibition is largely intact in response to single activations of SC axons driving activity through the hippocampal circuit. This is supported by the ratio of excitation to inhibition [EPSC/(EPSC + IPSC)] as a function of stimulus intensity, which revealed no significant changes to this balance even as the circuit was driven by stronger stimuli (Fig. 4G; main effect of genotype: $F_{(1,16)} = 1.29$; $p = 0.22$, stimulation intensity: $F_{(1.158, 18.53)} = 0.83$; $p = 0.44$, interaction: $F_{(8,128)} = 0.11$; $p = 0.99$; two-way RM-ANOVA).

We further examined isolated excitatory and inhibitory synaptic inputs to understand whether the underlying physiology of these synapses was normal or altered after loss of *Scn1a*. Synaptic vesicle release at excitatory synapses, measured by paired pulse ratio (PPR) with an interstimulus interval of 50 ms, was unchanged (Fig 4E₂; $p = 0.11$; t-test). Similarly, the coefficient of variation (CV) of EPSC amplitude was

276 relatively low and equivalent across genotypes (Fig. 4E₃; $p = 0.33$; t-test). These data
 277 further indicate that presynaptic physiology of excitatory synapses is grossly normal in
 278 Het neurons despite decrements in inhibition and epilepsy caused by *Scn1a*
 279 haploinsufficiency.

280 The CV of IPSC amplitude measured in Het neurons was significantly increased
 281 compared with WT (Fig. 4F₂, $p = 0.02$; t-test). Increased CV is often indicative of a
 282 decrease in the number of presynaptic neurons, synapses, or active zones. The PPR
 283 for feedforward IPSCs was also significantly increased in Het neurons (Fig. 4F₃; $p =$
 284 0.02 ; t-test). It should be noted that PPR for IPSCs in this experiment is confounded by
 285 the short-term plasticity of excitatory SC synapses that drive action potential firing in the
 286 GABAergic interneurons which then in turn causes synaptic release and IPSCs. Thus,
 287 different numbers of interneurons are potentially recruited by the first and second
 288 stimulus. As such, this measure of PPR does not reflect an isolated measure of the
 289 release properties of inhibitory synapses; direct stimulation of interneurons is necessary
 290 to measure short-term facilitation/depression of isolated inhibitory synapses.

291 To gather more information about the specific properties of excitatory and
 292 inhibitory synaptic physiology in Het hippocampi, we isolated and recorded responses to
 293 spontaneous release of vesicles in CA1 pyramidal neurons (Fig. 5A). Miniature EPSCs
 294 (mEPSCs) were isolated by adding blockers of action potentials (TTX; $1\ \mu\text{M}$) and
 295 synaptic inhibition (gbz; $10\ \mu\text{M}$) to the ACSF. Comparing Het with WT neurons, there
 296 were no differences in mEPSC frequency (Fig. 5C; mEPSC mean frequency: $0.40 \pm$
 297 $0.08\ \text{Hz}$ WT; 0.39 ± 0.08 Het; $p = 0.97$; t-test; Fig. 5D cumulative frequency: $p=0.23$, K-
 298 S test), amplitude (Fig. 5E; mean amplitude: $16.58 \pm 1.66\ \text{pA}$ WT; 16.90 ± 1.09 Het; $p =$

299 0.87; t-test), rise time (Fig. 5G; $p = 0.72$; t-test), or decay kinetics (Fig. 5G; $p = 0.62$; t-
 300 test). As with eEPSCs above, these data indicate normal excitatory synaptic physiology
 301 and a lack of compensatory change at glutamatergic synapses.

302 Miniature IPSCs (mIPSCs) were isolated with TTX and glutamatergic blockers
 303 (NBQX: 10 μ M, APV: 50 μ M). mIPSC frequency was significantly reduced in Het
 304 neurons compared with WT (Fig. 5C; mIPSC mean frequency: 16.09 ± 2.00 WT; $8.04 \pm$
 305 0.91 Het; $p = 0.0007$; t-test; Fig. 5E mIPSC cumulative frequency: $p < 0.0001$, K-S test).
 306 mIPSC amplitude (Fig. 5E; $p = 0.09$), rise time (Fig. 5H; $p = 0.16$), and decay kinetics
 307 (Fig. 5H; $p = 0.09$; t-test) were unchanged between Het and WT neurons. Decreases to
 308 mIPSC frequency are often attributable to decreases in vesicle release probability or to
 309 the number of inhibitory synapses, which is supported by the increased IPSC CV and
 310 PPR reported above.

311

312 *Inhibition onto Scn1a Het CA1 pyramidal neurons is normal when interneurons*
 313 *are directly stimulated.* To examine more directly how inhibitory synaptic transmission is
 314 altered in Het neurons compared to WT, we performed voltage clamp experiments with
 315 the stimulus electrode positioned closer to the recording electrode to directly activate
 316 GABAergic interneurons and terminals rather than via excitatory synaptic stimulation of
 317 the interneurons. (Fig. 6A). IPSCs were then isolated with glutamate receptor blockers
 318 NBQX and APV in the ACSF. As above, IPSC growth functions were recorded by
 319 increasing stimulus strength in multiples of the threshold stimulus. Unlike in the indirect
 320 stimulation of inhibition experiments, IPSC growth functions showed no deficits in Het
 321 neurons (Fig. 6B,C; main effect of genotype: $F_{(1, 20)} = 0.03$; $p = 0.86$, main effect of stim

intensity: $F_{(1.63, 32.60)} = 15.09$; $p < 0.0001$, interaction: $F_{(8, 160)} = 1.05$; $p = 0.40$; two-way RM ANOVA). Also, unlike the direct stimulation experiments, there was no statistical change in IPSC amplitude CV between Het and WT neurons (Fig. 6D; $p = 0.25$; t-test). IPSC PPR was increased in Het neurons compared to WT (Fig. 6E; $p = 0.03$; t-test). No significant changes were revealed in IPSC kinetics (Fig. 6F; rise time: $p = 0.15$; decay tau: $p = 0.12$; Mann-Whitney tests). Overall, these data indicate that despite decreased excitability, *Scn1a* Het interneurons can be recruited by direct stimulation to activate across a broad range of stimulus intensities, resulting in normal levels of synaptic inhibition. Decreased synaptic inhibition growth functions in indirect stimulation experiments (Fig. 4) may thus be a result of decreased synaptic excitation to action potential input/output functions in interneurons. In Het neurons, inhibitory synapses do show an increase in PPR, suggesting a decrease in baseline probability of release that results in a decrease in short-term synaptic depression (which is not caused by changes in kinetics causing temporal summation).

Inhibitory synaptic transmission is stable across frequencies in Het neurons. The data so far reveal that isolated inhibitory synaptic transmission was capable of controlling activity during theta stimulation of SC afferents. We hypothesized that circuit hyperexcitability could be the result of diminished intrinsic excitability in interneurons and inhibitory strength, which would be unmasked when interneurons were driven to fire at higher frequencies and/or for longer durations. To test this hypothesis, we measured isolated synaptic inhibition across theta bursts and during longer stimulus trains of varying frequency. In these experiments excitatory synaptic transmission was

345 pharmacologically blocked with NBQX and APV and the stimulation electrode placed
346 close enough to directly activate interneurons and GABAergic terminals synaptically
347 linked to the CA1 pyramidal neuron from which we recorded, as in Figure 6A.

348 Contrary to our hypothesis, hyperpolarization of the membrane was increased in
349 response to theta burst stimulation of synaptic inhibition in Het neurons relative to WT
350 controls (Fig. 7A-C). We adjusted the stimulation intensity to make the initial IPSP of the
351 burst similar in amplitude (~ 2 mV) across cells. Subsequent stimulations resulted in a
352 significantly greater degree of hyperpolarization in Het neurons across the theta cycle
353 (Fig. 7C; main effect of genotype: $F_{(1, 14)} = 6.00$; $*p = 0.03$, main effect stim number: $F_{(1.60, 22.38)} = 18.51$; $p < 0.0001$, interaction: $F_{(24, 336)} = 3.00$; $p < 0.0001$; two-way RM
354 ANOVA). This finding is consistent with the change to PPR illustrated in Figure 6E and
355 is suggested by the decrease in mIPSC frequency in Figure 5C, which indicates that
356 less short-term depression will occur during bursts of activity. The lack of change to
357 IPSC rise and decay kinetics (Fig. 5H), as well as to input resistance and membrane
358 time constant of CA1 pyramidal neurons (Table 1) across genotypes, in combination
359 with these data suggest that increased temporal summation of IPSPs in Het neurons
360 results from a change in pre-synaptic release, rather than postsynaptic receptor or
361 membrane properties.

363 To further test the durability of inhibition in this system we extended our stimulus
364 paradigm to trains of 20 stimuli, with stimulus frequencies of 10, 50, and 100 Hz (Fig.
365 7E-G). Synaptic inhibition was robust during these prolonged bursts in both WT and Het
366 neurons. Het neurons exhibited small but statistically significant increases in peak
367 hyperpolarization across the bursts at stimulus frequencies of 10 and 100, but not 50

368 Hz. These data were recorded in current clamp, and thus do not completely rule out the
369 contribution of activation/deactivation of voltage-gated membrane channels. However,
370 neurons of both genotypes were held at equivalent membrane potentials prior to
371 stimulation and were recorded using the same internal and external solutions, and
372 summed IPSPs are relatively small in magnitude. Taken together, these data indicate
373 that synaptic inhibition onto CA1 pyramidal neurons is not compromised in Het neurons
374 despite well-documented decrements in excitability in major subtypes of hippocampal
375 GABAergic interneurons in *Scn1a* haploinsufficient mouse models.

376

377 Discussion

378 The purpose of these experiments was to gain a deeper understanding of the link
379 between *SCN1A* mutation, loss of function of the voltage-gated sodium channel $\text{Na}_v1.1$,
380 and the changes in neural activity and processing that lead to the seizures and cognitive
381 deficits present in *SCN1A*-linked epilepsy disorders. We used an *Scn1a* Het mouse
382 model of Dravet syndrome/epileptic encephalopathy and measured excitatory and
383 inhibitory synaptic transmission and synaptic integration in CA1 hippocampal pyramidal
384 neurons. While we originally hypothesized that hypoexcitability of hippocampal
385 GABAergic interneurons, previously reported at this developmental stage in similar
386 mouse models (Almog et al. 2021; Rubinstein et al. 2015; Yu et al. 2006), would cause
387 network hyperactivity in response to physiologically patterned circuit input and/or
388 compensatory decreases in excitatory synaptic signaling, our data revealed neither of
389 these. Instead, our major findings consist of statistically significant, but relatively subtle,
390 decreased feedforward inhibition, decreased probability of GABAergic synaptic release,

391 and increased IPSP temporal summation in *Scn1a* Het neurons compared with WT,
392 with a surprising lack of changes to excitatory synaptic physiology and temporal
393 synaptic integration during theta burst activation.

394 Na_v1.1 localizes to somata and dendrites throughout the brain (Gong et al. 1999;
395 Westenbroek et al. 1989), but has been shown to cluster and control action potential
396 generation primarily in GABAergic interneurons (Ogiwara et al. 2007). Gain of function
397 mutations of *SCN1A* are associated with migraine (Dichgans et al. 2005), while loss of
398 function mutations are associated with a broad range of epilepsy syndromes, ranging
399 from the more mild GEFS+ to severe epileptic encephalopathies, including Dravet
400 syndrome (Scheffer and Nabbout 2019). *SCN1A* loss of function animal models,
401 including *Drosophila*, zebrafish, mice, and rats, phenocopy many aspects of Dravet
402 syndrome, like early life pharmacoresistant seizures, wide-ranging neurological deficits,
403 and high levels of early death (Griffin et al. 2018; Schutte et al. 2016). A common thread
404 across models is the cell physiology phenotype of decreased action potential firing of
405 forebrain GABAergic interneurons (Catterall 2018). Information processing in forebrain
406 microcircuits involves finely timed and balanced excitation and inhibition. Thus, we
407 initially hypothesized that decreased inhibition would result in altered synaptic
408 integration in *Scn1a* Het CA1 pyramidal neurons following activation of the hippocampal
409 circuit with physiologically relevant patterned stimuli. However, our findings quite clearly
410 show that both sub- and supra-threshold responses to theta burst protocols were
411 normal in Het pyramidal neurons across a range of stimulus intensities.

412 While we did not observe the expected changes to synaptic integration of
413 excitation and inhibition, our recordings did reveal changes in GABAergic inhibitory

414 synaptic transmission in the Het hippocampus. We found a decrease in mIPSC
415 frequency and increases in evoked IPSC PPR and CV when measuring feedforward
416 inhibition, which could be caused by a decrease in the number of inhibitory synaptic
417 inputs and/or a decrease in GABA release probability. While we cannot rule out a
418 decrease in the number of inhibitory synapses, we found that ESPC amplitude and CV
419 normalized when we directly stimulated GABAergic interneurons and terminals, while
420 PPR remained elevated, indicating decreased probability of presynaptic vesicle release
421 at interneuron-CA1 pyramidal neuron synapses. A functional outcome of the decrease
422 in release probability is a reduction in short-term depression, with a net result of
423 increased temporal summation of IPSPs across bursts or trains of synaptic activation.
424 This provides a mechanism by which a reduction in GABA release probability could
425 counteract or even overcome decrements in inhibitory neuron excitability, resulting in
426 normalized synaptic integration during patterns of network activation. While it seems
427 counterintuitive that a decrease in GABAergic release probability could be
428 “compensatory”, i.e., protective or corrective in epilepsy, it has the functional effect of
429 increasing the strength of inhibition during physiological patterns of activity. Indeed,
430 GABA release probability is different at synapses onto pyramidal neurons in different
431 brain regions and even across the dorsal-ventral (i.e., septo-temporal) axis of the
432 hippocampus (Milior et al. 2016). Reduced release probability reduces synaptic
433 depression, which can allow for more efficient inhibition during bursts of activity
434 (González et al. 2014). Studies using other mouse models of epilepsy have reported
435 similar reductions in GABA release probability resulting in reduced short-term
436 depression in dentate gyrus granule cells in pilocarpine-induced temporal lobe epilepsy

437 (Faria and Prince 2010; Zhou et al. 2009), and in cortical pyramidal neurons in models
438 of cortical dysplasia (Faria and Prince 2010; Zhou et al. 2009) and post-traumatic
439 epilepsy (Faria and Prince 2010; Zhou et al. 2009). Notably, we cannot directly attribute
440 the mechanism for the changes in synaptic release to *Scn1a* haploinsufficiency (i.e., to
441 a decrease in $\text{Na}_v1.1$ channels). Modulation of calcium channel expression has been
442 reported as a mechanism for epilepsy-induced changes in GABA release (Faria et al.
443 2012). Thus, changes to GABAergic synaptic release may be a common compensatory
444 mechanism induced in epilepsy or other disorders to balance excitation and inhibition.

445 Because our data showed that synaptic integration was unchanged in *Scn1a* Het
446 CA1 pyramidal neurons despite interneuron hypoexcitability, we hypothesized that
447 compensatory changes to excitatory synaptic transmission might be occurring in this
448 model. Pyramidal neurons are well-known to have the capacity to change synaptic
449 strength (Turrigiano 2012) and intrinsic excitability (Remy et al. 2010) in response to
450 long-term changes in activity. In mouse models of epilepsy, excitatory synaptic
451 downscaling (Howard et al. 2014; Sun et al. 2013), upscaling (Avramescu and Timofeev
452 2008; Houweling et al. 2005), and decreased intrinsic excitability (Howard et al. 2014)
453 have been reported in CA1 pyramidal neurons. A recent study found increased synaptic
454 strength of glutamatergic cortical inputs to dentate gyrus granule cells in the same
455 *Scn1a* het mouse models used in our study (Mattis et al. 2022). Contrary to our
456 hypothesis, our data did not reveal evidence of compensatory changes to synaptic or
457 intrinsic excitability in *Scn1a* Het CA1 pyramidal cells. This may indicate that altered
458 circuit activity does not reach thresholds for activation of these mechanisms, or that
459 other factors may counterbalance or interfere with the expression of these changes.

460 While our theta burst synaptic integration experiments suggest that inhibition is
461 functionally strong enough to balance excitation, this does not mean that interneurons in
462 our study were without the well-documented excitability deficits. Our isolated recordings
463 of feedforward IPSCs show clear deficits in response amplitude. When stimulating
464 inhibition onto CA1 pyramidal neurons indirectly, via activation of excitatory SC axons
465 onto interneurons which then release GABA onto the pyramidal neuron, feedforward
466 inhibition was weaker in Het neurons compared to WT. Conversely, when inhibition was
467 stimulated directly, by blocking excitatory transmission and placing the stimulus
468 electrode where interneurons and GABAergic axons and terminals could be directly
469 depolarized, inhibitory strength was equivalent between genotypes. A major difference
470 between these experiments is that indirect stimulation requires synaptic integration,
471 spike initiation at the axon initial segment, and axonal spike propagation by
472 interneurons, each of which could be susceptible to decreased fidelity due to decreased
473 sodium channel activity in Het interneurons. While synaptic transmission and axonal
474 action potential propagation fidelity have not yet been measured directly in *Scn1a* Het
475 models, several reports describe a depolarization of spike threshold in various
476 populations of Het interneurons in ex-vivo slice preparations (Favero et al. 2018; Goff
477 and Goldberg 2019; Rubinstein et al. 2015; Tai et al. 2014), but not in dissociated
478 neurons presumed to be interneurons (Yu et al. 2006). Direct extracellular electrical
479 stimulation of interneurons and GABAergic terminals eliminates synaptic integration and
480 may be strongly suprathreshold, thus masking changes in spike initiation and/or
481 propagation.

482 Our documentation of synaptic physiology in pyramidal neurons adds further
483 complexity to an already complicated hypothesis of the causal role of inhibitory
484 dysfunction in Dravet syndrome. Interestingly, the intrinsic hypoexcitability of
485 parvalbumin- and somatostatin-expressing interneurons originally discovered in $\text{Na}_v1.1$
486 haploinsufficient mice at age P21 (Tai et al. 2014) normalizes in parvalbumin-positive
487 and hippocampal stratum oriens (largely somatostatin-expressing) interneurons by P35-
488 56 (Almog et al. 2021; Favero et al. 2018). While mortality is at its peak in the earlier
489 period correlating with greatest interneuron dysfunction, seizures and other deficits
490 persist even in Het mice that survive long into adulthood (Han et al. 2012; Kalume et al.
491 2013; Yu et al. 2006). Our experiments bridged the age range with the most severe
492 mortality (ranging from P21-38). Thus, we sampled from both mice that were likely to
493 die of their epilepsy and those that would have survived long-term. That our data show
494 that inhibitory synaptic transmission remained effective even at relatively high
495 frequencies across extended trains in Het neurons suggests that inhibitory control of
496 neural signaling is intact during most ongoing activity, even when interneurons are
497 hypoexcitable and in mice with the most severe disease. This supports previous work in
498 which *in vivo* recordings of both cortical network activity and identified interneurons
499 were normal in anesthetized and awake Het mice during non-seizure (i.e., inter-ictal)
500 periods in both the severe disease state when interneurons are hypoexcitable (De Stasi
501 et al. 2016; Tran et al. 2020) and at older ages when mortality is low and interneuron
502 excitability has normalized (De Stasi et al. 2016; Tran et al. 2020).

503 Our findings leave open the questions of where and how the restraints on activity
504 and processing of information by neural circuits break down and result in the seizures

505 and cognitive deficits present in Dravet syndrome. While inhibitory interneurons exhibit
506 clear hypoexcitability, we found no disruption of inhibition or synaptic integration during
507 “physiological” theta bursts or even extended bursts of stimulation. This shows us that
508 the link between mutation, cellular physiology, and circuit activity is not necessarily
509 direct or intuitive. It may be that our hypotheses and expectations of results are simply
510 incorrect, that our experimental parameters do not cover broad enough ranges, or that
511 our methodologies are not subtle enough to detect nuanced changes. What is clear is
512 that understanding the cell and circuit mechanisms of complex neurological disorders
513 such as Dravet syndrome requires a holistic understanding of direct and indirect
514 changes to the intrinsic and synaptic physiology of many different neuron subtypes and
515 their interactions.

516

517

518

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655

656 Figure Legends

657

658 **Figure 1. Verification of reported *Scn1a*^{+/-} phenotypes. A)** Survival plot of *Scn1a* ^{+/-}
659 (blue; n = 25) and *Scn1a* ^{+/+} wild type litter mates (WT; gray; n = 30) from 7 litters,
660 plotted as probability of survival per day. *** p < 0.001, χ^2 test. All electrophysiology
661 experiments were done during the period shaded in orange (P21-38). **B)** Example
662 whole-cell recordings of neuron membrane potential to depolarizing current steps (100,
663 200 and 300 pA steps). C) Spike number plotted as a function of current step size (main
664 effect of current step: $F_{(12, 180)} = 62.73$; p < 0.0001; genotype: $F_{(1, 15)} = 0.03$; p = 0.87;
665 interaction: $F_{(12, 180)} = 0.16$; p = 0.99).

666

667 **Figure 2. Similar postsynaptic potentials in CA1 pyramidal neurons from WT and**
668 ***Scn1a*^{+/-} mice. A)** Example PSPs recorded in CA1 pyramidal cells from *Scn1a*^{+/+} (WT;
669 gray) and *Scn1a*^{+/-} (Het; blue) mice in response to single stimulations of Schaffer
670 collateral axons at 1, 3, and 5x the minimal stim intensity in ACSF (top) and 3x the
671 minimal stim in 10 μ M gabazine (gbz, bottom). **B)** The peak amplitude across a range of
672 stim intensities is similar between genotypes (main effect of genotype: $F_{(1,19)} = 0.62$; p =
673 0.44, main effect of stim intensity: $F_{(1.57, 29.83)} = 51.18$; p < 0.0001, interaction: $F_{(8,152)} =$
674 1.11; p = 0.36; two-way RM ANOVA; n = (cells/mice)). **C)** Firing probability across stim
675 intensities is similar between genotypes (main effect of genotype: $F_{(1,38)} = 0.09$; p =
676 0.77; main effect of stim intensity: $F_{(2.68, 101.7)} = 7.09$; p < 0.001; three-way RM ANOVA),
677 and is similarly increased by gbz application in both genotypes (main effect of drug:

678 $F_{(1,38)} = 21.98$; $p < 0.0001$; genotype x drug: $F_{(1,38)} = 0.76$; $p = 0.39$) **D)** Area under the
679 curve, with spikes truncated, across stim intensities is similar between genotypes (main
680 effect of genotype: $F_{(1,38)} = 0.96$; $p = 0.33$; main effect of stim intensity: $F_{(2.68, 101.7)} =$
681 19.23 ; $p < 0.0001$, main effect of drug: $F_{(1,38)} = 24.21$; $p < 0.0001$; genotype x drug:
682 $F_{(1,38)} = 1.11$, $p = 0.30$; three-way RM ANOVA). **E)** The number of spikes fired in gbz
683 was also similar between genotypes (main effect of genotype: $F_{(1,19)} = 0.01$; $p = 0.90$,
684 main effect of stim intensity: $F_{(1.57, 29.83)} = 6.96$; $p < 0.01$, interaction: $F_{(8,152)} = 0.69$; $p =$
685 0.70 ; two-way RM ANOVA).

686
687 **Figure 3. Normal temporal synaptic integration in *Scn1a*^{+/-} neurons. A)** Example
688 PSPs recorded in CA1 pyramidal cells from *Scn1a*^{+/+} (top, gray) and *Scn1a*^{+/-} (bottom,
689 blue) mice in response to theta burst stimulation (hash marks below) of Schaffer
690 collateral axons at 1, 3, and 5x the minimal stim intensity with no synaptic blockers. **B)**
691 No change in amplitude of PSPs, measured as area under the curve, between
692 genotypes (main effect of genotype: $F_{(1,19)} < 0.41$; $p > 0.53$; $n =$ (cells/mice)). **C)** No
693 difference in number of action potentials fired in response to theta stimulation between
694 genotypes (main effect of genotype: $F_{(1, 19)} = 0.06$; $p = 0.81$, main effect of stim intensity:
695 $F_{(1.04, 19.82)} = 4.40$; $p = 0.048$, interaction: $F_{(2,38)} = 0.19$; $p = 0.83$; two-way RM ANOVA).

696
697 **Figure 4. Reduced feedforward inhibitory input to *Scn1a*^{+/-} CA1 pyramidal**
698 **neurons. A)** Experimental design: We performed whole-cell voltage-clamp recordings
699 of CA1 pyramidal cells. Schaffer collateral axons were stimulated upstream from the
700 CA1 pyramidal neuron, which directly release glutamate onto the CA1 pyramidal neuron

701 to generate an excitatory postsynaptic current (EPSC), and onto inhibitory interneurons
 702 that then provide GABAergic inhibitory postsynaptic currents (IPSCs) to the pyramidal
 703 cells. **B)** Example traces of excitatory (recorded at $E_{\text{gaba}} = -70$ mV) and inhibitory
 704 (recorded at $E_{\text{glutamate}} = 0$ mV) postsynaptic currents in WT (left, gray) and *Scn1a*^{+/-}
 705 (right, blue) neurons evoked at the minimal stimulation intensity required to evoke an
 706 EPSC (1x), 3x, and 5x the minimal intensity. **C)** Example traces of IPSCs recorded in
 707 ACSF (black), in the presence of glutamate blockers (10 μ M NBQX, 50 μ M D-AP5, red)
 708 and in the presence of glutamate blockers + gabazine (10 μ M, gray), demonstrating that
 709 the majority of the GABAergic input using this paradigm was feedforward inhibition. **D)**
 710 79.4% in WT; 86.7% in *Scn1a*^{+/-}; $p = 0.38$, t-test. **E₁)** Peak amplitude of EPSCs by
 711 stimulation intensity is similar between genotypes (main effect of genotype: $F_{(1,16)} =$
 712 0.03 ; $p = 0.87$, main effect of stimulation intensity: $F_{(1.158, 18.53)} = 17.45$; $p < 0.001$,
 713 interaction: $F_{(8,128)} = 0.13$; $p = 0.99$; two-way ANOVA; $n = (\text{cells/mice})$). **E₂)** The
 714 coefficient of variation (CV) measured using 50 stimulations at 2.5x the minimal stim
 715 intensity ($p = 0.33$; $n=11$ WT and $n=11$ *Scn1a*^{+/-}) and **E₃)** and paired-pulse ratio
 716 (PPR) of EPSCs ($p = 0.11$; $n = 24$ WT and $n = 31$ *Scn1a*^{+/-}; t-test) are not different
 717 between WT and *Scn1a*^{+/-} neurons. **F₁)** The IPSC growth curve is reduced in *Scn1a*^{+/-}
 718 neurons compared to WT (main effect of genotype: $F_{(1,16)} = 3.03$; $p = 0.10$, main effect
 719 of stimulation intensity: $F_{(1.158, 18.53)} = 39.11$; $p < 0.001$, interaction: $F_{(8,128)} = 4.10$; $p <$
 720 0.001). **F₂)** The CV of IPSCs is increased in *Scn1a*^{+/-} neurons ($*p = 0.02$; $n=11$ WT and
 721 $n=11$ *Scn1a*^{+/-}), and **F₃)** PPR is increased ($*p = 0.02$; $n=26$ WT and $n=31$ *Scn1a*^{+/-}). **G)**
 722 Excitatory to inhibitory ratio, measured as the [area of the EPSC/(area of EPSC + area
 723 of IPSC)] was similar in WT and *Scn1a*^{+/-} neurons across stim intensities (main effect of

724 genotype: $F_{(1,16)} = 1.29$; $p = 0.22$, stimulation intensity: $F_{(1.158, 18.53)} = 0.83$; $p = 0.44$,
725 interaction: $F_{(8,128)} = 0.11$; $p = 0.99$; two-way ANOVA).

726

727 **Figure 5. Reduced miniature IPSC frequency to *Scn1a*^{+/-} CA1 pyramidal neurons.**

728 **A)** Example raw traces of mEPSCs, recorded in gabazine (10 μ M) and 1 μ M TTX (left)
729 and averages (right). **B)** Example mIPSCs recorded in glutamate blockers (10 μ M
730 NBQX, 50 μ M D-AP5). **C)** The frequency of mEPSCs is unchanged, but mIPSCs are
731 reduced in *Scn1a*^{+/-} neurons (** $p < 0.001$; t-test; $N = 10$ cells from 4 mice WT; $n = 13$
732 cells from 6 mice *Scn1a*^{+/-}). **D)** The lack of change in mEPSC frequency between WT
733 and *Scn1a*^{+/-} neurons is demonstrated in the similar cumulative frequency of inter-event
734 intervals plot. **E)** The cumulative frequency plot of mIPSCs is shifted to the right for
735 *Scn1a*^{+/-} neurons (K-S test). **F)** The amplitude and **G-H)** kinetics of miniature EPSCs and
736 IPSCs are similar between genotypes ($p > 0.05$; t-test).

737

738 **Figure 6. Direct activation of inhibitory interneurons reveals normal amplitude but**
739 **more facilitating GABAergic responses in CA1 pyramidal neurons. A)**

740 Experimental design: We stimulated near the recorded CA1 pyramidal cell (PC) in the
741 presence of glutamatergic blockers (10 μ M NBQX, 50 μ M D-AP5) to directly activate
742 local GABAergic interneurons (IN) and axons. **B)** Example traces of IPSCs from WT
743 (left, gray) and *Scn1a*^{+/-} (right, blue) neurons evoked at the minimal stimulation intensity
744 required to evoke an EPSC (1x, 3x, and 5x the minimal intensity (top). Bottom: overlaid
745 paired-pulse stimulation (50 ms isi) traces recorded at 2.5x the minimal stim intensity,
746 normalized to the peak of the first stimulation. **C)** IPSC growth functions showed no

747 deficits in *Scn1a*^{+/-} neurons (main effect of genotype: $F_{(1, 20)} = 0.03$; $p = 0.86$, main effect
748 of stim intensity: $F_{(1.63, 32.60)} = 15.09$; $p < 0.0001$, interaction: $F_{(8, 160)} = 1.05$; $p = 0.40$;
749 two-way RM ANOVA). **D)** No difference in coefficient of variation (CV) of IPSCs
750 measured using 50 stimulations at 2.5x the minimal stim intensity ($p = 0.25$, t-test). **E)**
751 IPSC paired-pulse ratio (PPR) is increased in *Scn1a*^{+/-} neurons (* $p = 0.03$; t-test). **F)** No
752 difference in IPSC kinetics between genotypes (rise: $p = 0.15$; decay: $p = 0.12$; Mann-
753 Whitney tests).

754

755 **Figure 7. IPSPs are less depressing in *Scn1a*^{+/-} animals and provide increased**
756 **inhibition at higher frequency stimulation. A)** Example traces of IPSPs in response
757 to theta-burst stimulation from WT (top, gray) and Het (bottom, blue) neurons. **B)**
758 Overlaid traces of the first burst from the theta burst paradigm demonstrating that
759 responses in WT neurons were much more depressing than those from *Scn1a*^{+/-}
760 neurons. Stim intensity was normalized to generate the same amplitude (~2 mV) for the
761 first IPSP across cells. **C)** IPSP maximum hyperpolarization for each stimulation in the
762 theta burst paradigm is increased in *Scn1a*^{+/-} neurons (main effect of genotype: $F_{(1, 14)} =$
763 6.00 ; * $p = 0.03$, main effect stim number: $F_{(1.60, 22.38)} = 18.51$; $p < 0.0001$, interaction:
764 $F_{(24, 336)} = 3.00$; $p < 0.0001$; two-way RM ANOVA; $n = (\text{cells/mice})$). **D)** PPR of IPSPs
765 (amplitude of 2nd IPSP/1st IPSP) across a range of stim intensities showing that IPSPs
766 are less depressing in *Scn1a*^{+/-} neurons at higher frequencies (main effect of genotype:
767 $F_{(1, 9)} = 1.18$; $p = 0.31$; main effect frequency: $F_{(1.69, 15.17)} = 2.03$; $p = 0.17$, interaction:
768 $F_{(4, 36)} = 2.29$; $p < 0.08$; two-way RM ANOVA; ** $p < 0.01$ Sidak's multiple comparisons
769 test). **E)** IPSP peak hyperpolarization in response to 20 stimulations at 10 Hz, (main

770 effect of genotype: $F_{(1, 280)} = 8.86$; $**p = 0.003$, stim number: $F_{(19, 280)} = 0.02$; $p > 0.99$,
771 interaction: $F_{(19, 280)} = 0.01$; $p > 0.99$; two-way RM ANOVA), **F**) 50 Hz (main effect of
772 genotype: $F_{(1, 280)} = 0.41$; $p = 0.52$, stim number: $F_{(19, 280)} = 0.18$; $p > 0.99$, interaction:
773 $F_{(19, 280)} = 0.02$; $p > 0.99$) and **G**) 100 Hz (main effect of genotype: $F_{(1, 280)} = 7.49$; $**p =$
774 0.006 , stim number: $F_{(19, 280)} = 0.58$; $p = 0.92$, interaction: $F_{(19, 280)} = 0.03$; $p > 0.99$)
775
776

777

778 TABLE 1: Intrinsic electrophysiological properties of CA1 pyramidal neurons

	<i>WT</i> (n=7 cells from 5 mice)	<i>Het</i> (n=10 cells from 7 mice)	p value (unpaired t-test)
Resting membrane potential (mV)	-60.59 ± 1.83	-58.40 ± 1.61	0.385
Input resistance (MΩ)	136.60 ± 16.90	118.00 ± 10.34	0.335
Membrane time constant (ms)	17.19 ± 2.12	12.64 ± 6.06	0.138
Capacitance (pF)	132.00 ± 13.6	112.10 ± 18.00	0.428
Voltage sag (mV)	5.81 ± 0.52	6.72 ± 0.44	0.190
Rheobase (pA)	153.60 ± 24.7	140.00 ± 13.50	0.611
Voltage threshold (mV)	-39.22 ± 1.70	-38.25 ± 1.05	0.617
1 st spike rise time (μs)	269.40 ± 21.21	255.50 ± 22.68	0.674
1 st spike half width (ms)	1.49 ± 0.12	1.36 ± 0.09	0.375

779

780

Figure 1

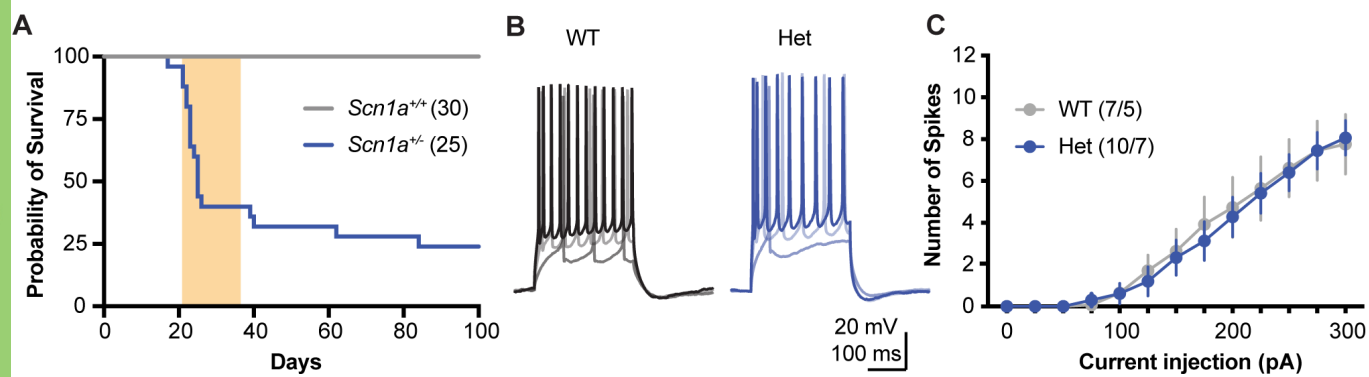


Figure 2

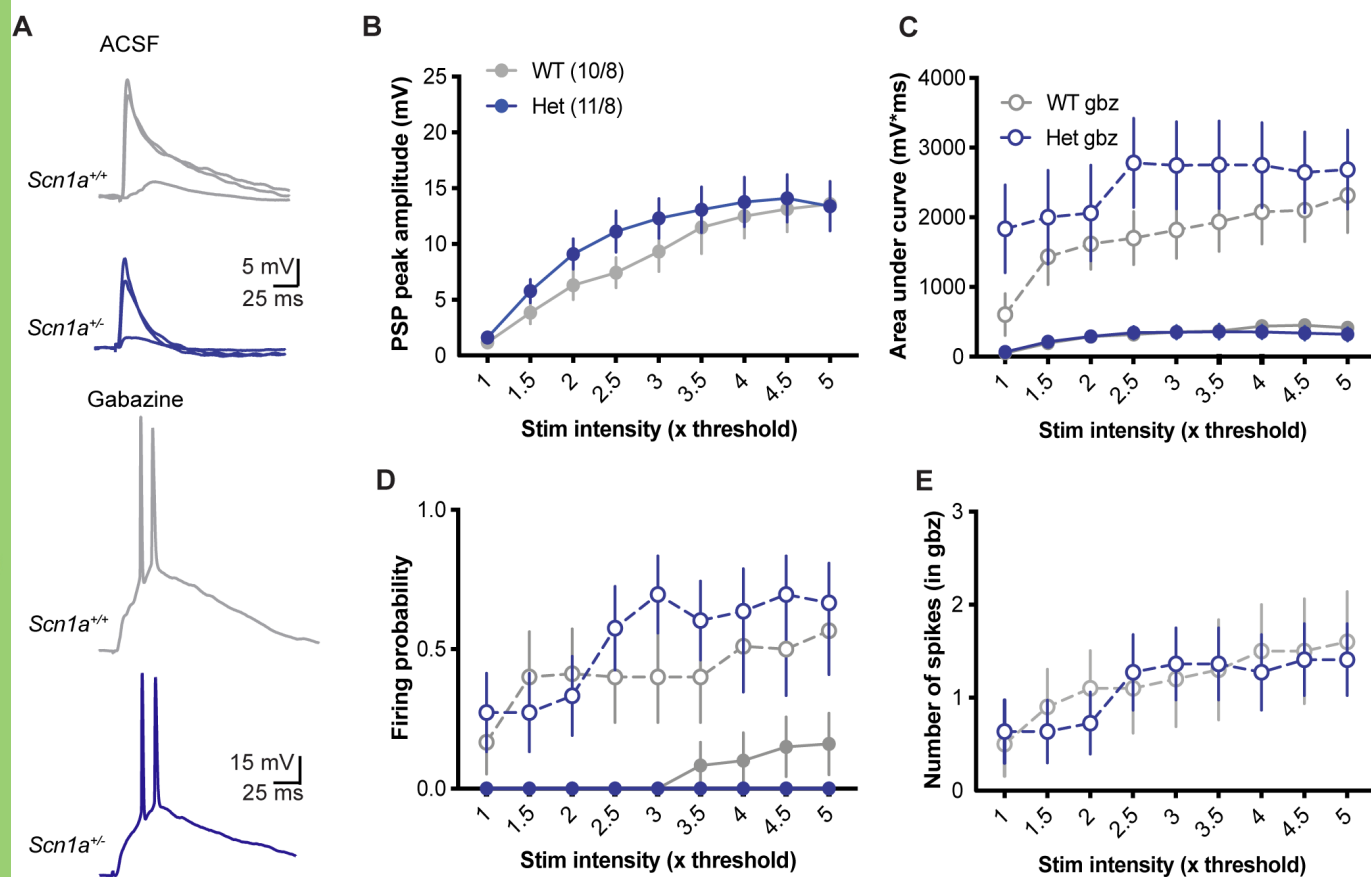
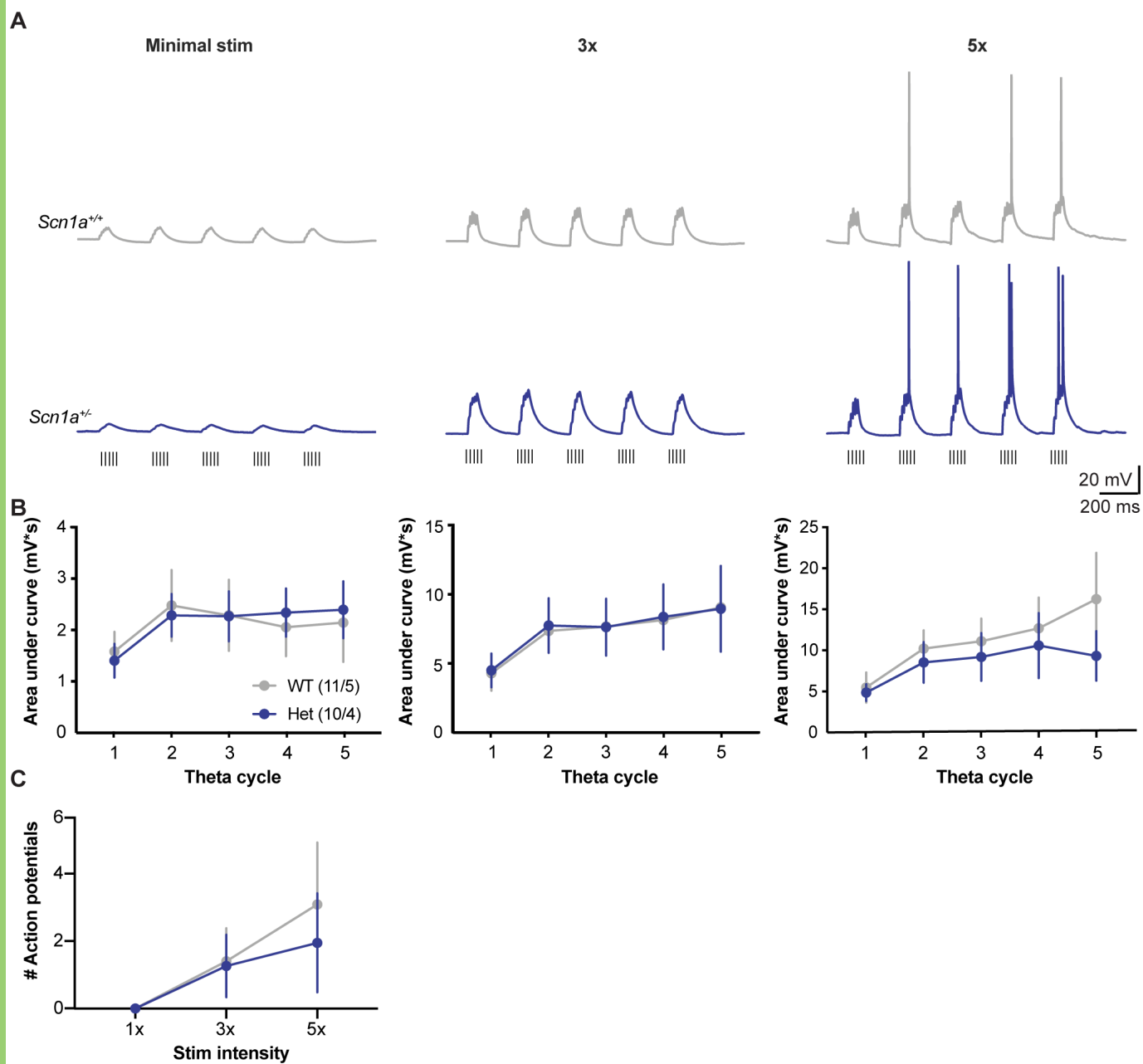


Figure 3



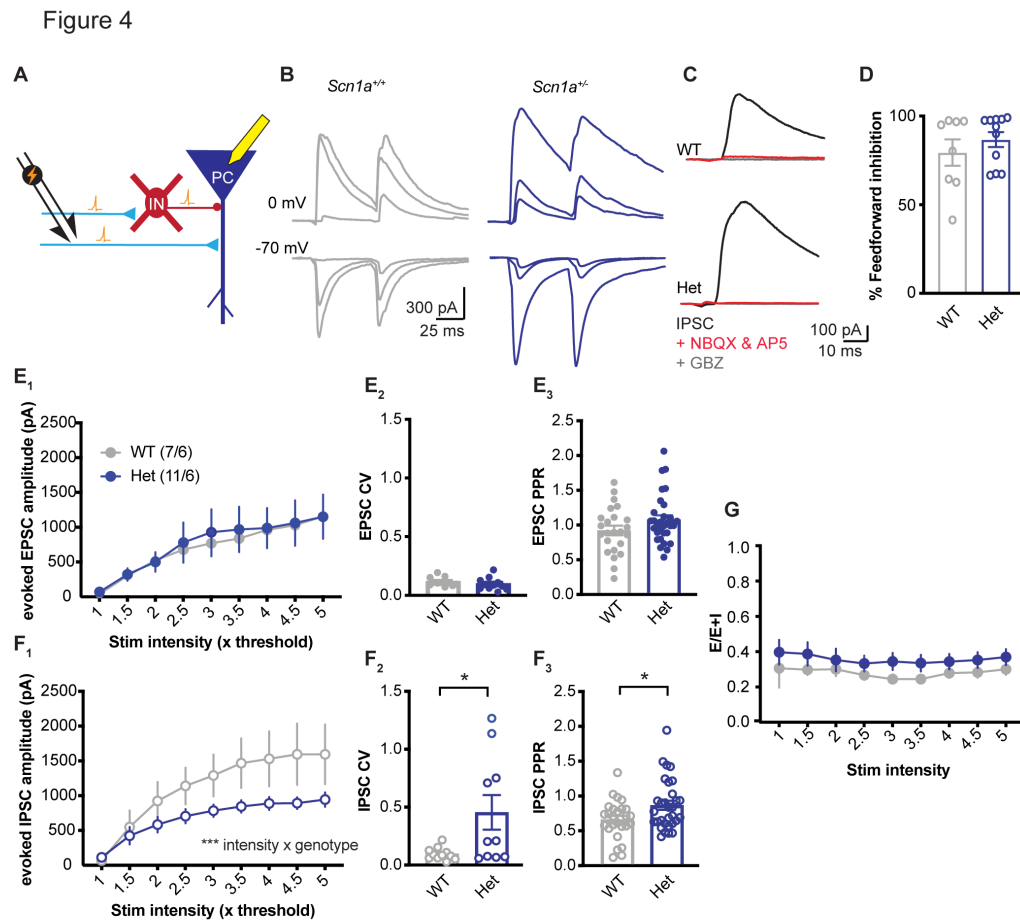


Figure 5

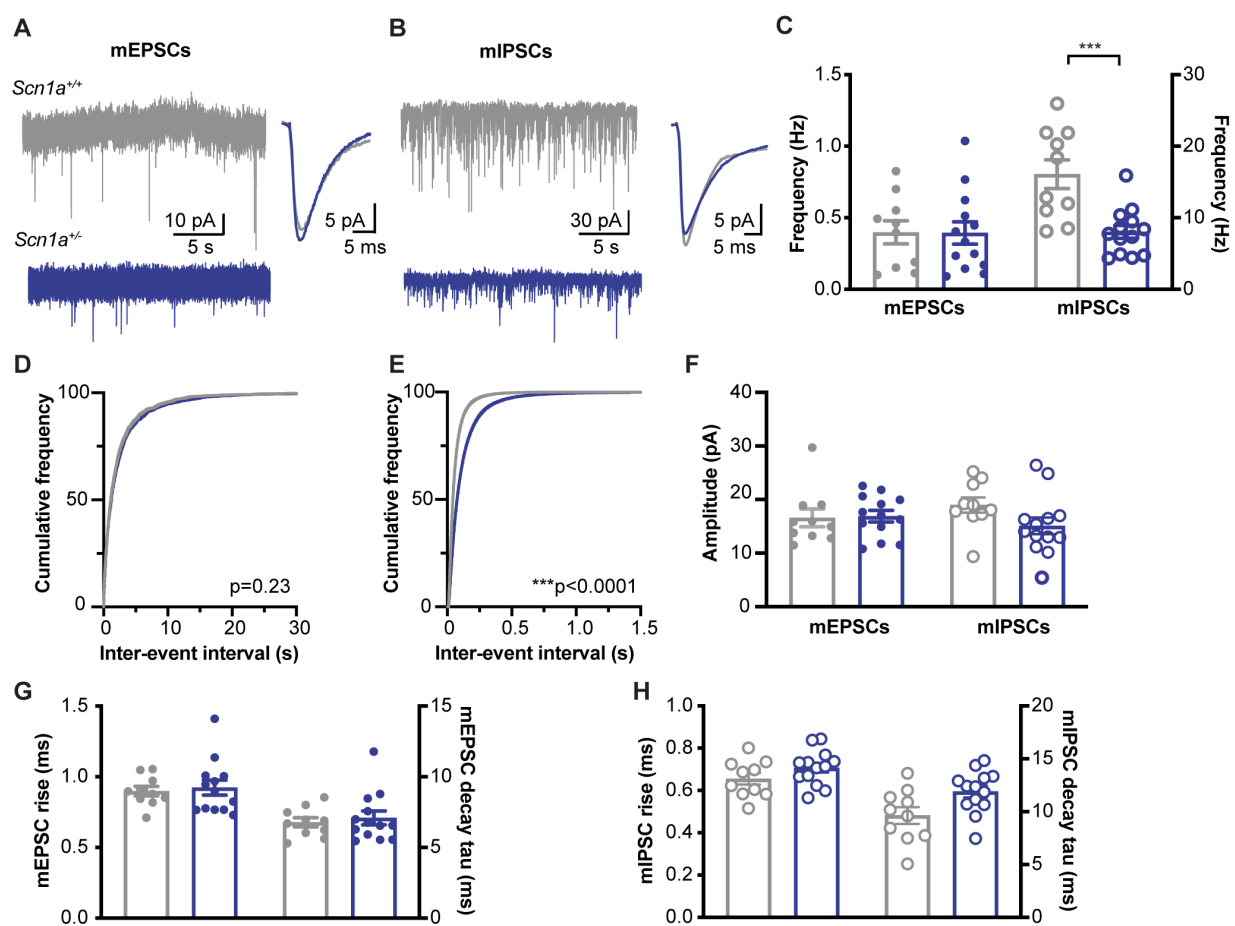


Figure 6

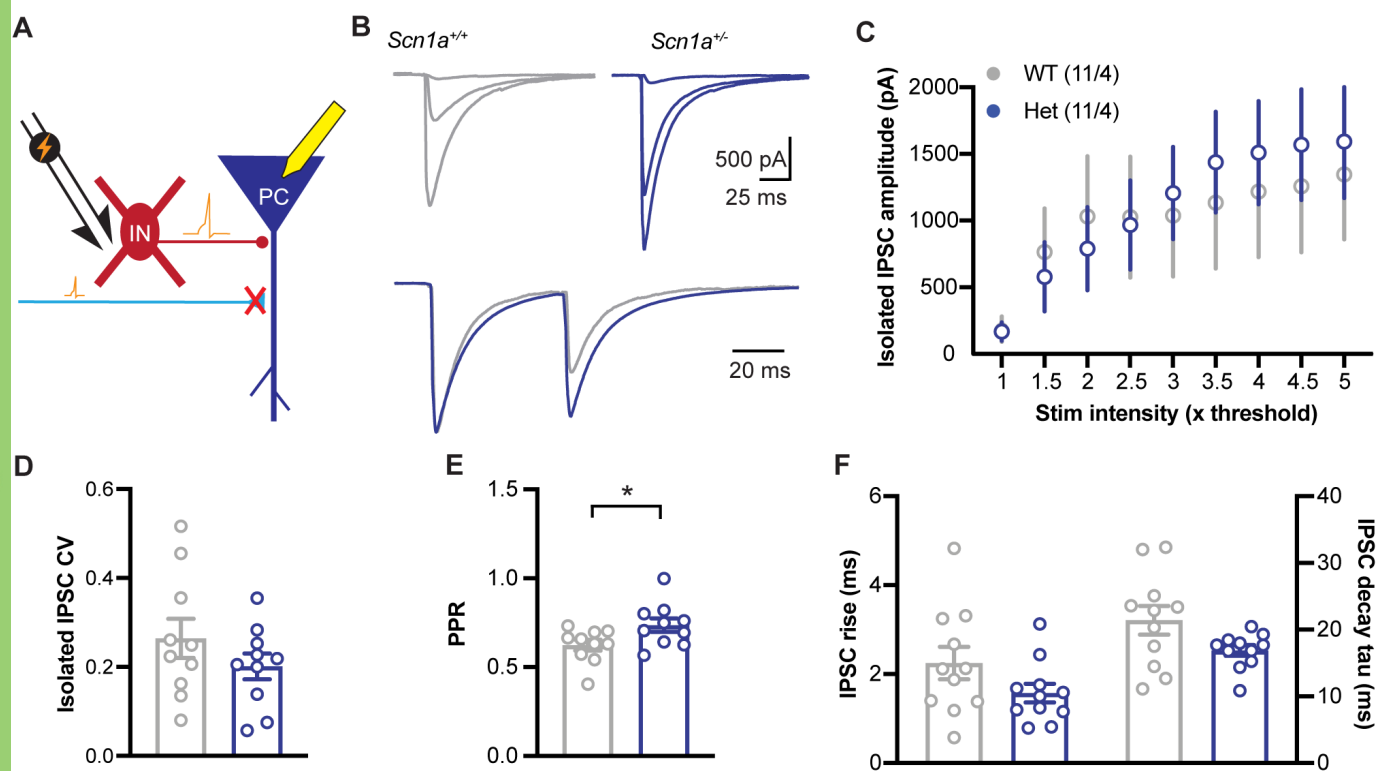


Figure 7

