Shank3-deficient thalamocortical neurons show HCN channelopathy and alterations in intrinsic electrical properties

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Key points

- Shank3 increases the HCN channel surface expression in heterologous expression systems.
- Shank3^{Δ13-16} deficiency causes significant reduction in HCN2 expression and I_h current amplitude in thalamocortical (TC) neurons.
- Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ but not Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9}$ -deficient TC neurons share changes in basic electrical properties which are comparable to those of HCN2-/- TC neurons.
- HCN channelopathy may critically mediate events downstream from Shank3 deficiency.

Abstract *SHANK3* is a scaffolding protein that is highly enriched in excitatory synapses. Mutations in the *SHANK3* gene have been linked to neuropsychiatric disorders especially the autism spectrum disorders. SHANK3 deficiency is known to cause impairments in synaptic transmission, but its effects on basic neuronal electrical properties that are more localized to the soma and proximal dendrites remain unclear. Here we confirmed that in heterologous expression systems two different mouse Shank3 isoforms, Shank3A and Shank3C, significantly increase the surface expression of the mouse hyperpolarization-activated, cyclic-nucleotide-gated (HCN) channel. In *Shank3*^{Δ 13-16} knockout mice, which lack exons 13–16 in the *Shank3* gene (both Shank3A and Shank3C are removed) and display a severe behavioural phenotype, the expression of HCN2 is reduced to an undetectable level. The thalamocortical (TC) neurons from the ventrobasal (VB) complex of *Shank3*^{Δ 13-16} mice demonstrate reduced *I*_h current amplitude and correspondingly increased input resistance, negatively shifted resting membrane potential, and abnormal spike firing in both tonic and burst modes. Impressively, these changes closely

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resemble those of HCN2-/- TC neurons but not of the TC neurons from $Shank3^{\Delta 4-9}$ mice, which lack exons 4–9 in the *Shank3* gene (Shank3C still exists) and demonstrate moderate behavioural phenotypes. Additionally, Shank3 deficiency increases the ratio of excitatory/inhibitory balance in VB neurons but has a limited impact on the electrical properties of connected thalamic reticular (RTN) neurons. These results provide new understanding about the role of HCN channelopathy in mediating detrimental effects downstream from Shank3 deficiency.

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Introduction

SHANK3 encodes a scaffolding protein that is highly enriched in the post-synaptic density (PSD) of excitatory synapses (Naisbitt et al. 1999; Durand et al. 2007; Monteiro & Feng, 2017). The full-length mouse Shank3 protein contains 1731 amino acids that fold into highly conserved domains that mediate protein-protein interactions: an ankyrin repeat domain, an SH3 domain, a PDZ domain, a proline-rich domain and a sterile alpha motif (SAM) domain (Wang et al. 2014). Due to multiple intragenic promoters and alternative splicing, a complex array of Shank3 isoforms exists. These isoforms are often differentially affected by mutations and deletions in the SHANK3 gene discovered from human patients, which have been modelled by over a dozen knockout or transgenic mouse lines (Bozdagi et al. 2010; Peca et al. 2011; Yang et al. 2012; Han et al. 2013; Jiang & Ehlers, 2013; Shcheglovitov et al. 2013; Speed et al. 2015; Hulbert & Jiang, 2016; Jaramillo et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2016; Zhou et al. 2016; Jaramillo et al. 2017). Most of these knockout mice reproduced key features of ASD, including repetitive actions or body movements, deficits in social interaction, and increased levels of anxiety (Jiang & Ehlers, 2013). At the synapse level, the affected neurons show morphological defects including thinner and shorter PSD, sparse spine density, impaired synaptic transmission and other abnormalities in cell physiology (Peca et al. 2011; Speed et al. 2015; Arons et al. 2016; Bariselli et al. 2016; Jaramillo et al. 2016; Peixoto et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2016). However, crucial gaps remain in understanding the impact of Shank3 deficiency on cellular physiology, especially the basic electrical properties of affected neurons.

A unique feature reported earlier for SHANK3-deficient neurons is the increase in input resistance that leads to an increased response to synaptic inputs and action potential (AP) firing rate (Shcheglovitov *et al.* 2013). This observation is consistent with a recent report that SHANK3 deficiency leads to HCN channelopathy (Yi *et al.* 2016). All four HCN channel isoforms are expressed in the brain and they contribute to the integration of synaptic transmission, the maintenance of membrane potential, and the initiation and propagation of APs (Magee, 1999; Biel *et al.* 2009; Huang & Trussell, 2014). In this study, we focus on the neurons from the ventrobasal (VB) complex in the thalamus where Shank proteins and HCN channels, especially Shank3 and HCN2, are expressed at high levels (Bockers *et al.* 2004; Notomi & Shigemoto, 2004; Ying *et al.* 2007, 2012; Han *et al.* 2013; Wang *et al.* 2014; Lee *et al.* 2015). The VB thalamocortical relay neurons have two distinct firing modes, tonic and burst, of which the switch depends on the resting membrane potential and the synergistic interaction between HCN and T-type calcium channels (Fig. 1; Sherman, 2001). Therefore, the network containing TC neurons and the connected thalamic reticular (RTN) neurons and corticothalamic neurons provides an excellent platform for studying HCN channels and the interaction with Shank proteins.

Methods

Ethical approval

All animal experiments were approved by the IACUC Committee of Virginia Commonwealth University (AD20112 for *Xenopus laevis* frogs and AD20224 for rats and mice). The number of animal as well as procedures introducing pain to the animal have been minimized in compliance with the regulations. The animals were subjected to regular veterinary care on a routine basis. The services of the Centre for Research Animal Resources were available if any veterinary care or consultation was required, and they were available on-call 24 h per day.

Functional expression in *Xenopus* oocytes and electrophysiological characterization

The cDNA sequence encoding mouse Shank3A and 3C were generously provided by Dr Yong-Hui Jiang from Duke University and inserted into the pGHEM vector for expression in *Xenopus* oocytes. mMessage mMachine (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used for cRNA synthesis. Twenty-five to thirty nanograms of cRNA encoding Shank3 was first injected into each oocyte at stage VI. After 24 h of incubation at 18°C, injected oocytes were injected again with cRNA of HCN2 channels. For two-electrode voltage-clamp experiments, the bath

solution contained (in mM): 80 *N*-methyl-D-glucamine, 2 KCl, 10 KOH, 10 NaOH, 10 HEPES and 1 EGTA (pH 7.4 adjusted by methanesulfonic acid). For patch-clamp recording of HCN channel activities in the inside-out configuration, the electrode solution (in contact with the extracellular side of the membrane) and bath solution (intracellular side) were symmetrical and contained (in mM): 110 KCl, 2 NaCl, 10 HEPES and 1 EDTA (pH 7.4 adjusted by KOH). All experiments were carried out at room temperature.

Patch-clamp fluorometry

To enable simultaneous recording of ionic currents and fluorescence from the membrane patch held within the glass recording pipette, the patch-clamp fluorometry set-up was constructed based on an Olympus (Tokyo, Japan) BX50WI microscope equipped with a $\times 60$ water immersion lens (LUMPlanFL, NA 1.0). A 473-nm diode-pumped solid-state laser (Ultralasers Inc., Newmarket, ON, Canada) was used as the excitation light source. The following filter set was used for collecting the enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP) fluorescence signal: exciter, D480/30; dichroic mirror, DC505LP; emitter, D510LP (Chroma Technology Corp., Bellows Falls, VT, USA). Optical signals were detected by a 16-bit EMCCD camera (Cascade 1K by Photometrics Inc., Tucson, AZ, USA). An 18-bit data acquisition board (PCI-6289, National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA) was used for analog and digital I/O. WinWCP



was used for data acquisition (http://spider.science.strath. ac.uk/sipbs/software_ses.htm). The laser light source, the CCD camera exposure, and the amplifier for patch-clamp recording were synchronized by transistor-transistor logic (TTL) signals.

Macroscopic current traces were collected in the presence of a saturating concentration of cAMP and with a hyperpolarizing voltage step based on the Boltzmann equation that was enough to produce maximal channel opening. Fluorescence signals were collected with four increasing exposure times: 25, 50, 100 and 200 ms. No obvious bleaching of the EGFP molecules was detected (Liu et al. 2016). The optical signals were collected within the linear range of the CCD camera. The ImageJ program was used to analyse the fluorescence images (Schneider et al. 2012). To specifically measure the fluorescence signal near the excised membrane, a region of interest (ROI) was selected around the arc of the membrane patch. ΔF was defined as mean fluorescence intensity in the ROI with background fluorescence subtracted. The background fluorescence was collected by moving the tip of the recording pipette out of the field of view.

Shank3 and HCN2 knockout mice

Shank3 knockout mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME, USA; Shank3^{Δ 13-16}, stock no: 017688; Shank3^{Δ 4-9}, stock no: 017890). The brain-specific *HCN2* knockout mice were generated by crossing nestin-Cre mice (B6.Cg-Tg(Nes-Cre)1Kln/J; stock no: 003771; The Jackson Laboratory) with Floxed-*HCN2* mice (exons 3–4 floxed; kindly provided by Dr Peter McNaughton from King's College, London). Mice were housed in a standard 12 h light–dark cycle, with free access to food and water. All experimental procedures we performed were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Virginia Commonwealth University.

Acute slice preparation

Horizontal thalamocortical brain slices were collected from young mice (3–4 weeks old) of either sex. In brief, mice were deeply anaesthetized with isoflurane and tribromoethanol (250 mg kg⁻¹, I.P.), and then perfused through the ascending aorta with preoxygenated (95% O_2 and 5% CO_2) and ice-cold sucrose-based artificial cerebrospinal fluid (sucrose-ACSF) containing (in mM): 240 sucrose, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH₂PO₄, 0.5 CaCl₂, 3.5 MgCl₂, 25 NaHCO₃, 0.4 ascorbic acid and 2 sodium pyruvate. After decapitation, brains were rapidly removed and horizontal slices with 300 μ m thickness were prepared using a vibrating blade microtome (7550 PSDS, Campden Instruments, Loughborough, UK). Slices were then incubated at 32°C for 30 min in standard ACSF consisting of (in mM): 124 NaCl, 3.6 KCl, 1.2 NaH₂PO₄, 2.5 CaCl₂, 1.2 MgCl₂, 25 NaHCO₃, 11 glucose, 0.4 ascorbic acid and 2 sodium pyruvate; they were subsequently kept at room temperature for at least another 30 min prior to recording.

In vitro whole-cell patch-clamp recording

Brain slices were transferred into the recording chamber maintained at 32°C, and perfused continuously with carbonated standard ACSF at a rate of 2-4 ml min⁻¹. Whole-cell patch-clamp recordings were made from visually identified neurons localized in VB or RTN in the thalamus. Unless indicated otherwise, patch pipettes $(3-6 M\Omega)$ were filled with internal solution containing (in mM): 130 potassium gluconate, 5 KCl, 10 phosphocreatine, 10 HEPES, 0.5 EGTA, 2 Na₂-ATP, 0.3 Na-GTP and 2 MgSO₄ (pH 7.20–7.30, 290 mosmol l^{-1}). Liquid junction potential was not corrected on-line or off-line in this study. Only neurons that showed a resting membrane potential (RMP) negative to -50 mV and had overshoot were selected for study. The series resistance was typically 10–30 M Ω in this study, and neurons were excluded if their series resistance changed by more than 20%. Most recordings were collected at 32°C, unless stated otherwise (room temperature).

RMP of VB thalamocortical or RTN neurons was recorded within 20 s after break-in, and input resistance (R_{in}) was measured at RMP from the voltage response elicited by a current pulse (+10 pA; 500 ms). Action potentials were elicited with a series of 1 s depolarizing current pulses at different holding potentials (-50 mV, RMP, -75 mV). In voltage-clamp mode, I_h currents were evoked by a series of hyperpolarizing voltage steps from -50 mV to -140 mV in 10 mV decrements at a -40 mV holding potential. To isolate I_h currents, a cocktail of blockers (1 mM BaCl₂, 1 mM 4-AP, 0.1 mM NiCl₂ and 1 μ M TTX) was added to the standard ACSF.

Spontaneous excitatory postsynaptic currents (sEPSC) and inhibitory postsynaptic currents (sIPSC) were recorded at -70 mV and 0 mV, respectively. The caesium-based pipette solution used for postsynaptic currents recording contained (in mM): 130 CsMeSO₄, 5 TEA-Cl, 10 phosphocreatine, 10 HEPES, 0.5 EGTA, 2 Na₂-ATP, 0.3 Na-GTP, 2 MgSO₄, 5 QX-314 (pH 7.20–7.30, 290 mosmol 1⁻¹). sEPSCs were recorded in the presence of 10 μ M bicuculline, and sIPSCs were recorded in the presence of (2*R*)-amino-5-phosphonovaleric acid (APV; 50 μ M) and 6,7-dinitroquinoxaline-2,3-dione (DNQX; 20 μ M).

All recordings were obtained using a Multiclamp 700B amplifier (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA) and acquired with WinWCP (V5.2.6, by Dr. John Dempster, University of Strathclyde). Measurements of I_h amplitude, I_h activation time constants, and tonic and burst firing properties were performed using Clampfit 10.7 (Molecular

Devices). Amplitudes and frequencies of sEPSCs and sIPSCs were analysed with the MiniAnalysis software (Synaptosoft, Fort Lee, NJ, USA).

Western blot

Crude whole cell lysates were prepared from mice of comparable age group. Briefly, the whole brain were dissected out and immersed in ice-cold lysis buffer which includes (in mM): 150 NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 20 Tris–HCl pH 7.6, 0.1% SDS, 1 EDTA, 1 EGTA and 2 PMSF. Then the chilled brain tissue was transferred to a glass grinder and homogenized with 15–20 strokes. After incubation at 4°C for 30 min, the lysate was transferred to an Eppendorf tube and subject to centrifugation for 10 min. The supernatant was collected and mixed with sample buffer. The following antibodies were used during western blot analysis: anti-HCN2, Antibody Inc., Davis, CA, USA; anti-beta-actin, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA.

Statistics

All statistical tests and curve fittings were performed using Pad Prism 5.0 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, USA) and OriginPro (OriginLab Corp., Northampton, MA, USA). Data were presented as the mean \pm SEM, and statistical significance was assessed with Student's unpaired *t* test. *P* > 0.05 was considered as statistically non-significant (n.s.). ****P* < 0.001; ***P* < 0.01; **P* < 0.05.

Results

To study the impact of Shank3 on the expression of the HCN2 channel, we started from the heterologous expression system of Xenopus oocyte and co-injected the cRNAs encoding HCN2 and Shank3. We separately tested two isoforms, Shank3A and Shank3C (Fig. 2A), of which the related knockout mice, *Shank3*^{Δ 4–9} and *Shank3*^{Δ 13–16}, respectively, are characterized later in this study (Bozdagi et al. 2010; Peca et al. 2011). The nomenclature of Shank3 isoforms was adopted from previous publications (Wang et al. 2014). Shank3A refers to the full-length Shank3 protein whereas Shank3C does not contain the ankyrin and SH3 domains. Two-electrode voltage clamp (TEVC) measurements were used to measure the whole-cell HCN current. As shown in Fig. 2B and C, co-expressing either Shank3A or Shank3C significantly increased the HCN current amplitude (20.4 \pm 5.8% for Shank3C and $30.1 \pm 6.5\%$ for Sahnk3A) (Fig. 2D, left). Shank3C or Shank3A had minimal effects on the gating kinetics but shifted the $V_{1/2}$ value – the voltage step that leads to half-maximal opening - towards hyperpolarization by ~ 4 mV (Fig. 2D, right). To check the surface expression of HCN2, we co-expressed EGFP-tagged

HCN2 channel with Shank3 and subjected the injected cells to confocal microscopy (Fig. 2*E*). The presence of Shank3A or Shank3C clearly increased the fluorescence intensity of HCN2–EGFP. However, under the whole-cell configuration, the arc of fluorescence signals did not exclusively correspond to the signal from the membrane but also that from the HCN2–EGFP molecules in the vicinity. To further clarify the membrane expression, we applied patch-clamp fluorometry on isolated membrane patches pulled from the cell surface and obtained direct support for the enhancement of HCN channel surface expression upon co-expression with Shank3 (Fig. 2*F*).

To examine the effect of Shank3 on the expression of native HCN channels, we isolated the encoded Ih current from VB neurons of the WT and $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ mice (Peca et al. 2011). ZD7288 (10 μ M), a relatively specific blocker of the HCN channel, was applied later to help identify the $I_{\rm h}$ component (Fig. 3A). Indeed, both the amplitude and the density of the macroscopic I_h current were significantly reduced in *Shank3*^{Δ 13-16} VB neurons (32°C, Fig. 3B and *C*). The impact on the voltage-dependent channel activation curve and the shift in the value of $V_{1/2}$ were minimal (Fig. 3D). Finally, to corroborate the electrophysiology recordings, we compared the levels of HCN2 protein in brain extracts from WT and Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ mice using western blot analysis. For negative control, we generated a brain-specific HCN2 knockout mouse model by crossing floxed-HCN2 with Nestin-Cre mice (Emery et al. 2011; Giusti et al. 2014). The HCN2 bands corresponding to the molecular mass of ~95 kDa were not seen in the HCN2-/- lane (Fig. 3E). A quantification of the HCN2 bands revealed a 41 \pm 6% reduction in the Shank3 $^{\Delta13-16}$ brain compared to WT.

We next examined the impact of Shank3 deficiency on basic electrical properties of VB neurons and compared the results with those of the HCN2-/- neurons. Since Shank3 broadly interacts with many neuronal receptors and channels, similarities between Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ and HCN2-/- neurons should showcase the importance of the HCN channel and the $I_{\rm h}$ current they conduct as a major mechanism in manifesting the effects of Shank3 deficiency. Activities of VB neurons were recorded with physiological solutions (pipette and bath) under current-clamp recording mode. Compared to the WT neurons, $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ – I – VB neurons showed a negative shift in the resting membrane potential (from -56.4 ± 0.5 to -59.6 ± 0.6 mV for the *Shank3*^{$\Delta 13-16}-/- neuron) and</sup>$ increases in the cellular input resistance (32°C, Fig. 3F, Table 1). The size of the neurons as approximated by the membrane capacitance remained unchanged. Indeed, the decrease in RMP and the increase in input resistance are hallmarks of impairment of HCN channel function and reduction in $I_{\rm h}$ amplitude. To directly confirm this, we characterized the VB neuron from the HCN2-/- mice, which demonstrated a ~ 5 mV hyperpolarizing shift in



Figure 2. Shank3 isoforms improve the surface expression of recombinant HCN2 channel in *Xenopus* oocyte

A, schematic representation of the genomic structure of *Shank3* gene and two splicing isoforms, Shank3A (full-length) and Shank3C (missing ankyrin and SH3 domains in the N-terminus). *B*, representative HCN2 current (top; no Shank3) recording from whole oocytes by TEVC. A series of hyperpolarizing voltage steps (bottom) were used to activate the channel. *C*, HCN2 current recorded from oocytes co-injected with Shank3A (top) or Shank3C (bottom). *D*, summary of Shank3 effects on the function of HCN2 channel. Values of $V_{1/2}$ (mV): HCN2, -92.2 ± 1.1 ; HCN2 + Shank3C, -96.0 ± 1.5 ; HCN2 + Shank3A, -97.2 ± 0.6 . n = 6 for each group. *E*, confocal

images of whole oocyte expressing (from left to right) HCN2 alone, HCN2 + Shank3A, HCN2 + Shank3C, and uninjected cell. *F*, fluorescence images of membrane fractions pulled from oocyte surface and held within the glass patch-clamp pipette in the inside-out configuration. Statistics are shown on the right. Unpaired *t* test: *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01; ***P < 0.001. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

RMP and +32.8% increase in input resistance (32°C, Fig. 3*G*, Table 2).

We also repeated the measurements of I_h at room temperature and confirmed the significant reduction in I_h current amplitude in $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ neurons (Fig. 4*A*–*C*). But in neurons from $Shank3^{\Delta 4-9}$ mice, which still express the Shank3C isoform, no apparent reduction in the I_h current amplitude was detected (Fig. 4*D* and *E*; 32°C). This observation indicates that residual Shank3 isoforms – most likely Shank3C – help maintain the normal expression of HCN channels. Impressively, the profile of changes in I_h current matched well with the changes in RMP and R_{in} (Fig. 5*A* and *B*). In contrast to $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ neurons, the VB neurons from $Shank3^{\Delta 4-9}-/-$ and heterozygous $Shank3^{\Delta 4-9}+/-$ mice displayed normal RMP and input resistance (Fig. 5*C* and *D*, Table 3), highly consistent with the normal expression of I_h current.

Since $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ and HCN2-/- neurons showed the same trend of changes in resting membrane potential and input resistance - two very basic properties of neuronal physiology - we asked whether neurons carrying different molecular defects share similar alterations in the firing of action potentials (AP). To separately study the firing modes adopted by VB neuron, the tonic and the burst modes, we manipulated the membrane potential by injecting holding current before applying a series of command currents. For the tonic firing mode, we found that, at both resting and -50 mV membrane potentials, *Shank3* $^{\Delta 13-16}$ neurons tended to fire fewer APs (32°C, Fig. 6A-C). Correspondingly, the AP threshold was slightly increased from -33.4 ± 1.5 mV (WT) to -30.0 ± 1.8 mV (*Shank3*^{Δ 13-16}-/-), accompanied by a slight decrease in AP amplitude and a slight increase in AP half-width (Fig. 6D and Table 1). The AHP remained unchanged.

We next examined the burst mode by recording the membrane potential rebound after an episode of membrane hyperpolarization elicited by current injection at resting membrane potential (Fig. 6*E*). A typical profile of membrane potential during burst mode is composed of a slow Ca²⁺ wave crowned with fast Na⁺ spikes. We monitored the sag in membrane potential, the latency of the first Na⁺ spike, and the number of rebound Na⁺ spikes. Consistent with the reduction in *I*_h current, the sag of *Shank3*^{Δ 13-16} neurons was significantly reduced (indicated by an increase in the sag ratio; Fig. 6*F*, Table 1). *Shank3*^{Δ 13-16} neurons showed a delay in firing of the first sodium spike and a slight reduction in the total number of spikes generated. Importantly, *Shank3*^{Δ 13-16} neurons showed the same trend of changes compared to HCN2-/- neurons in both tonic and burst firing modes (Fig. 6*G*–*J*). Thus, these results revealed striking similarities in the electrical properties between VB neurons from *Shank3*^{Δ 13–16} mice and those from HCN2-/- mice, strongly suggesting the underlying reduction in I_h current amplitude shared by both types of neurons might be the direct cause. Impressively, no apparent changes were observed with the VB neurons from the *Shank3*^{Δ 4–9} mice for either the tonic or burst firing modes, which are highly consistent with the close to WT I_h current, RMP and R_{in} in these neurons (Fig. 7; Tables 2, 3).

Next, we examined whether Shank3 deficiency leads to any changes in the synaptic communication between VB and other types of neurons. VB neurons mainly receive excitatory inputs from corticothalamic neurons and spinothalamic neurons and inhibitory inputs from RTN neurons within the thalamus. Imbalance in excitatory/inhibitory synaptic transmission - at both broad and local space scale - has been observed in many neuropsychiatric disorders including ASD (Nelson & Valakh, 2015). We recorded spontaneous EPSC and IPSC from VB neurons under the voltage-clamp mode (Fig. 8A, B, E and F). For Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ -/- VB neurons, the averaged amplitude of sEPSC was reduced from 14.2 pA (WT) to 11.9 pA, with no significant changes in sEPSC frequency (Fig. 8C and D). Recordings of sIPSC were confirmed by a later application of bicuculline (Fig. 8E and F). Surprisingly, we discovered that the changes in sIPSC were the opposite of those of sEPSC: Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ -/-VB neurons display significant increases in sIPSC amplitude but without significant changes in sIPSC frequency (Fig. 8G and H). These observations confirm that Shank3 causes excitatory/inhibitory imbalance in VB thalamocortical neurons.

VB neurons function under constant modulation of RTN neurons. We also examined the RTN neurons from *Shank3* $^{\Delta 13-16}$ mice. The AP firing was examined by a series of positive current injections (Fig. 81). The Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ –/– and WT RTN neurons exhibited a comparable number of APs with the same amount of current injection, and displayed no other obvious differences from the WT neurons (Fig. 81). Consistent with the notion that HCN channels are mainly expressed in distal dendrites, RTN neurons of both WT and Shank3-/- RTN neurons showed no obvious sag upon membrane hyperpolarization (Fig. 8K). Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ -/- neurons presented a slight hyperpolarizing shift in membrane potential (from -66.3 ± 0.8 to -68.3 ± 1.1 mV), but approximately normal input



Figure 3. Decrease in $I_{\rm h}$ current amplitude in VB neurons of Shank3^{Δ 13-16} mice

A, representative whole-cell current traces recorded from a WT VB neuron in response to a series of hyperpolarizing voltage steps. The I_h component conducted by HCN channels verified by the later application of ZD7288 (10 μ M). *B*, representative macroscopic I_h current of the WT and the Shank3 mutant VB neurons. *I–V* curve and current density curve are shown at bottom. *C*, I_h current amplitude (left) and current density (right) vs. voltage command. WT, n = 10; $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ –I–n = 12. *D*, a slightly different voltage protocol with the tail current measured at -130 mV was used to construct the G–V relationship. $V_{1/2}$ values (mV): WT, -78.6 ± 1.0 (n = 9); $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ –I–n = 12). *E*, immunoblotting of HCN2 from samples of WT, HCN2–I– and $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$. *F*, resting membrane potential (left), neuronal input resistance (middle), and membrane capacitance (right) of WT (n = 13) and $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ –I–n = 13) VB neurons. *G*, results for WT (n = 12) and HCN2–I–(n = 12) VB neurons. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]



Figure 4. The I_h current from $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$, but not from $Shank3^{\Delta 4-9}$ VB neurons, exhibits decreased current amplitude

A, representative I_h current traces recorded at room temperature from VB neurons of WT, $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}+/-$ and $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}-/-$ mice. I_h was activated by a series of hyperpolarizing voltage steps (bottom, right). B, summary graphs of the I_h current amplitude measured at -120 mV at room temperature of VB neurons from WT,

Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ +/- and Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ -/- mice (left) or WT, Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9}$ +/- and Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9}$ -/- mice (right). C, normalized tail current amplitudes (I_{tail}) were plotted against voltage steps and fit with the Boltzmann equation. $V_{1/2}$ values (mV): WT, -97.8 ± 0.3; Shank3^{Δ 13-16}+/-, -97.6 ± 0.5; Shank3^{Δ 13-16}-/-, -103.0 ± 0.3. Results were collected at room temperature. D, representative Ih current traces recorded at 32°C from VB neurons of WT and Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9}$ —/— mice. $I_{\rm h}$ was activated by a series of hyperpolarizing voltage steps. E, top, normalized tail current amplitudes (I_{tail}) were plotted against voltage steps and fit with the Boltzmann equation. $V_{1/2}$ values (mV): WT, -88.1 ± 1.5 ; Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9}$ –/-, -83.8 ± 1.5 . Bottom, summary graphs of the l_h current amplitude and value of $V_{1/2}$. All recordings were at 32°C. WT, n = 10; Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9}$ –/-, n = 8. [Colour figure can be viewed at wilevonlinelibrary.com]

resistance and membrane capacitance (Fig. 8L). These observations are consistent with the observation that HCN channels are distributed more toward distal dendrites rather than the soma of RTN neurons.

Discussion

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Here we investigated HCN channelopathy and alternations in intrinsic electrical properties in Shank3-deficient neurons. Defective Shank3 has been shown to impair the expression and function of diverse channels and receptors, including TRP channels (Han et al. 2016) and ionotropic and metabotropic glutamate receptors (Wang et al. 2016), of which the effects are largely limited to synapses. In contrast, we found that Shank3 deficiency causes profound changes in basic neuronal properties, including resting membrane potential, input resistance and firing of APs, which are all essential somatic properties. These results expand our understanding of the function of the Shank3 protein expressed outside the synapses. In the soma and nearby proximal dendrites, there could be an important contribution by Shank3 to help regulate basic electrical properties through maintaining the normal expression of HCN and other types of channel and receptors.

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A, VB neurons from both heterozygous and homozygous $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ mice show significantly more negative RMP (left) and increased R_{in} (right). WT, n = 9; $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}+/-$, n = 11; $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}-/-$, n = 12. B, VB neurons from HCN2 heterozygous and homozygous mice show almost the same trend of changes compared to Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ neurons. Left, RMP; right, R_{in} . WT, n = 8; HCN2+/-, n = 8; HCN2-/-, n = 7. C, the RMP (left) and R_{in} (right) of VB neurons from Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9}$ heterozygous and homozygous mice remained largely normal. All results were collected at room temperature. WT, n = 6; Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9} + / -$, n = 13; Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9} - / -$, n = 9. All n.s. D, the RMP (left), R_{in} (middle), and the membrane capacitance (right) of VB neurons from Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9}$ homozygous mice remained largely normal compared to WT mice. Results were collected at 32°C. All n.s. WT, n = 9; Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9} - 1 - n = 8$.

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Table 1. Summar	y of properties o	f VB thalamocorti	cal neurons from V	WT and <i>Shank3</i> ^Δ	^{13–16} –/– mice					
				AP threshold	AP amplitude	AP half-width	AHP amplitude		First spike	No. of rebound
	RMP (mV)	<i>R</i> in (MΩ)	Cm (pF)	(mV)	(m/)	(s1/)	(mV)	Sag ratio	latency (ms)	spikes
WT	-56.38 ± 0.46	138.46 ± 10.15	128.97 ± 13.34	-33.44 ± 1.48	41.48 ± 1.43	1.11 ± 0.06	9.25 ± 0.77	0.59 ± 0.02	23.00 ± 1.07	7.69 ± 0.35
<i>Shank3</i> ^{Δ13–16} –/–	-59.57 ± 0.57	177.15 ± 12.98	126.70 ± 15.91	-29.95 ± 1.79	39.03 ± 2.37	1.19 ± 0.06	9.22 ± 0.80	0.69 ± 0.03	33.438 ± 3.95	6.54 ± 0.35

Table 2. Su	mmary of proper	ties of VB thalamo	cortical neurons fr	om WT and HCN2	-/- mice					
	RMP (mV)	R _{in} (MΩ)	Cm (pF)	AP Threshold (mV)	AP Amplitude (mV)	AP Half-width (µs)	AHP Amplitude (mV)	Sag Ratio	First Spike Latency (ms)	No. of Rebound Spikes
WT HCN2-/-	$\begin{array}{r} -58.17 \pm 0.79 \\ -63.15 \pm 1.12 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 142.58 \pm 7.78 \\ 189.33 \pm 18.40 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 128.85 \ \pm \ 12.47 \\ 126.87 \ \pm \ 11.26 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} -31.48 \pm 1.75 \\ -27.91 \pm 1.37 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 47.40 \ \pm \ 1.75 \\ 43.05 \ \pm \ 1.37 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.08 \ \pm \ 0.05 \\ 1.23 \ \pm \ 0.07 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 8.28 \ \pm \ 0.69 \\ 7.10 \ \pm \ 0.79 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0.63 \ \pm \ 0.03 \\ 0.95 \ \pm \ 0.00 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 29.36 \pm 2.28 \\ 93.25 \pm 10.36 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 6.58 \pm 0.45 \\ 3.6 \pm 0.4 \end{array}$

Table 3. Summ	ary of properties	of VB thalamocort	ical neurons from	WT and <i>Shank3</i> ^Δ	¹⁴⁻⁹ -/- mice					
						AP	AHP			No. of
				AP threshold	AP amplitude	half-width	amplitude		First spike	rebound
	RMP (mV)	R _{in} (MΩ)	Cm (pF)	(mV)	(mV)	(sn)	(mV)	Sag ratio	latency (ms)	spikes
MT	-56.78 ± 0.53	131.67 ± 9.26	96.50 ± 10.85	-30.99 ± 1.36	41.70 ± 1.36	$1.03\ \pm\ 0.03$	8.30 ± 0.63	0.58 ± 0.03	24.36 ± 1.76	8.00 ± 0.47
Shank3 ^{∆4–9} –/–	-55.76 ± 0.91	132.00 ± 11.63	83.16 ± 22.05	-28.58 ± 1.17	39.39 ± 1.41	1.03 ± 0.01	9.51 ± 0.72	0.60 ± 0.02	22.69 ± 2.07	7.00 ± 0.46

to that of other brain regions such as hippocampus
and striatum, remains relatively underdeveloped. The
physiological function of Shank proteins in the thalamus
and the relationship to psychiatric disorders remain to
be clarified. In the thalamus, the expression levels of
Shank3 and HCN2 are higher than those of Shank1
and 2 and HCN1, 3 and 4, respectively (Moosmang
et al. 1999; Santoro et al. 2000; Sheng & Kim, 2000;
Ludwig et al. 2003; Kanyshkova et al. 2009; Lee et al.
2015; Monteiro & Feng, 2017). We studied two lines of
Shank3 knockout mice with deletions of different clusters
of exons, <i>Shank3</i> ^{Δ4-9} and <i>Shank3</i> ^{Δ13-16} , and compared
the results with those of neuron-specific HCN2-/-
mice. Consistent with the biophysical result that Shank3
upregulates the expression of HCN channels, we found
a significant reduction in HCN current amplitude in
the VB neurons of <i>Shank3</i> ^{Δ13-16} but not of <i>Shank3</i> ^{Δ4-9}
mice. The close correlation between Ih reduction and
changes in the AP firing suggests that HCN channels
might be an important player in affecting the electrical
properties of the Shank3-deficient neurons. Furthermore,
the mechanism remains to be determined for the increase
in the excitation/inhibition ratio of the Shank3-deficient
VB neuron but the close to normal behaviour of RTN
neuron, which should provide new insights at circuitry
level into the Shank3 mutation-related diseases.
The connection between Shank3 deficiency and HCN
channelopathy was first reported by Yi et al. (2016).

Our understanding about the thalamus, compared

(To generate Shank3 mutant human neurons, Yi et al. targeted exon 13, which encodes the N-terminus of the PDZ domain. This strategy leads to a downstream frameshift from exon 13, a decreased expression of Shank3 in heterozygous neurons, and complete removal of high molecular mass Shank3 isoforms in homozygous neurons. From the aspects of cellular physiology, the results of Yi et al. are largely comparable to our characterization of the VB neurons from *Shank3*^{Δ 13-16} mice, including the increase in input resistance and negative shift in resting membrane potential. Notably, Yi et al. reported increases in AP firing when the hippocampal pyramidal neuron was subject to a current injection (-70 mV) but decreases in spontaneous AP firing measured at RMP (-40 mV). Our recording of thalamocortical neuron showed reduced AP firing at RMP (~ -57 mV), -50 mV (burst firing mode) and -75 mV (tonic firing mode). We needed to inject about 10 time more currents (up to 500 pA) to elicit AP in VB neurons in contrast to the less than 50 pA currents used by Yi et al. to activate hippocampal neurons. These differences could be due to the species of neuron and their reliance on different pools of ion channels.

A number of mutations have been discovered in the *SHANK3* gene from autistic patients. An insertion of guanine in exon 21 of the *SHANK3* gene (InsG) introduces a premature stop codon and disappearance of



Figure 6. Similarities in VB neuronal physiology between $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ mice and HCN2-/- mice A, representative current traces in response to a series of inward current injection were recorded from neurons at their RMP. B, current traces recorded at -50 mV. C, $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ VB neurons show reduction in the maximal number of spikes generated during tonic firing. For both WT and $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}-/-$, n = 12. D, characteristics of $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ AP. E, representative membrane responses of a HCN2-/- VB neuron to an episode of hyperpolarizing current injection (-150 pA). F, characteristics of the membrane response of $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ VB neurons: sag ratio, first spike latency and number of rebound spikes. G, HCN2-/- VB neurons also show reduction in the maximal number of spikes generated during tonic firing. n = 11 for both WT and HCN2-/-. H, characteristics of HCN2-/- AP. I, representative membrane responses of a $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ VB neurons: sag ratio, first spike latency and number of spikes. Column the maximal number of spikes generated during tonic firing. n = 11 for both WT and HCN2-/-. H, characteristics of HCN2-/- AP. I, representative membrane responses of a $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ VB neurons: sag ratio, first spike latency and number of rebound spikes. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

SHANK3 isoforms with higher molecular mass (Durand *et al.* 2007; Speed *et al.* 2015; Zhou *et al.* 2016). Thus, it is possible that both InsG and complete *SHANK3* deletion have a severe impact on the expression of the HCN channel, similar to the detrimental effects on I_h

current by exon 13–16 deletion. Since the I_h current plays important physiological roles in the heart and the brain and shows unique biophysical properties, HCN channels are appealing targets for drug development. The drugs that specifically interfere with the function of HCN channels



Figure 7. VB neurons from Shank $3^{\Delta 4-9}$ homozygous knockout mice show almost normal tonic and burst AP firing

A, tonic action potential firing at resting membrane potential. Left, number of APs vs. amplitude of injected current. Right, summary of AP threshold and AP number. All n.s. B, tonic action potential firing with membrane potential adjusted to -50 mV. Left, number of APs vs. amplitude of injected current. Right, summary of AP half-width and AHP amplitude. All n.s. C, summary of sag ratio (left), first spike latency (right), and number of rebound spikes (left). WT, n = 9; Shank3^{Δ4-9}-/-, n = 8. All n.s. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]



Figure 8. Spontaneous EPSC and IPSC recorded from $Shank3^{\Delta 13-16}$ VB neurons and neuronal activities of the connected RTN neuron

A, representative sEPSC traces recording from WT VB neurons. APV and application of 50 μ M APV and 20 μ M DNQX confirmed the identify of glutaminergic transmission. *B*, representative sEPSC traces recording from *Shank3*^{Δ13–16} VB neurons. *C*, cumulative probabilities of sEPSC amplitude (left) and inter-event interval (right). *D*, statistics of sEPC amplitude and frequency. *E*, representative sIPSC traces recording from WT VB neurons. Bicuculline (10 μ M) confirmed the identify of GABAergic transmission. *F*, representative sIPSC trace recording from *Shank3*^{Δ13–16} VB neurons. *G*, cumulative probabilities of sIPSC amplitude (left) and inter-event interval (right). *H*, statistics of sIPSC amplitude and frequency. *I*, AP firing in WT (top) and *Shank3*^{Δ13–16} (bottom) neurons elicited by injection of 30, 50 and 100 pA depolarizing current. *J*, statistics of AP firing *vs*. amplitude of injected current. All n.s. *K*, rebound in membrane potential and AP firing in response to a hyperpolarizing current injection. *L*, resting membrane potential, input resistance and membrane capacitance of WT and *Shank3*^{Δ13–16} RTN neurons. All n.s. WT, *n* = 12; *Shank3*^{Δ13–16} –/–, *n* = 12. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

could be effective treatments for certain patients carrying Shank3 mutations.

Our results fill in the gaps in our understanding of the SHANK3-HCN interaction and shed light on the pathophysiological mechanisms underlying SHANK3-related neuropsychiatric disorders. Shank3 is an important scaffolding protein that is critically involved in the expression and membrane trafficking and targeting of receptors and ion channels, which are not necessarily limited to the synapses but also proximal dendrites and somas. The fact that changes in RMP and R_{in} in Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ +/- neurons are comparable to those of the Shank $3^{\Delta 13-16}$ –/– and even the HCN2–/– neurons illustrate the sensitivity of the system to the expression level of Shank3. On the other hand, since the expression of $I_{\rm h}$ remains largely normal in *Shank3*^{$\Delta 4-9$} -/- neurons, the Shank3 isoforms that still exist in *Shank3*^{$\Delta 4-9$} -/- but not *Shank3* $^{\Delta 13-16}$ -/- such as Shank3C might be critical. Moreover, we suspect that Shank3 does not simply help the trafficking and stabilization of the HCN2 channel on the membrane but also may function as a chaperone during the biogenesis of the HCN2 channel. Other than HCN channelopathy, Shank3 deficiency might have impacts on the expression and function of other channels and receptors, which together form the pathological basis for related diseases like ASD at the molecular level. To fully understand the defects caused by SHANK3 mutations, an integrated view that encompasses not only different aspects of cellular physiology but also the coordination of neurons from different regions in the brain is still needed.

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Additional information

Competing interest

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

Author contributions

M.Z., V.I., J.W., F.W., V.K., N.S. and C.W. performed the experiments and analysed the data. Q.L. and L.Z. analysed the data and supervised the project. All authors wrote the manuscript. All authors have approved the final version of the manuscript and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work. All persons designated as authors qualify for authorship, and all those who qualify for authorship are listed.

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